
PART I

**BACKGROUND, PROGRESS AND SET-UP OF
PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE COUNTRY**

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 One of the major aims of the Third Five Year Plan is "to expand and intensify the educational effort and to bring every home within its fold, so that from now on, in all branches of national life, education becomes the focal point of planned development"¹. In placing this emphasis on educational programmes in the Third Plan, the Planning Commission recognised that there were "large deficiencies in the sphere of education: which must be removed speedily if progress is to be sustained and enduring"². Among the programmes in the field of general education that have received special emphasis in the Third Plan, probably the most important is the one for the provision of facilities for education to all children in the age group 6-11, with special concentration on the education of girls. It is against this background that the present study was planned; in fact, the justification for it arose from the realisation by the Planning Commission of the gravity of the problem and the magnitude of the task facing the nation in the Third Plan.

1.2 The term 'primary education' is used in this study largely in the narrow sense in which it is generally used in official literature, namely, a system of preparatory schooling designed for children in the age group 6-11 years. Though the term 'primary education' includes pre-primary or nursery education, it will be used in this study more or less synonymously with primary education in view of the very nominal growth of the pre-primary or nursery facilities in the rural areas.

1.3 *Objective of the Study* : Since primary education covers a vast field, it is not possible to deal with all the aspects in a comprehensive manner in the course of a fairly rapid enquiry. It was, therefore, decided to undertake a diagnostic enquiry in selected areas for the purpose of understanding the progress achieved in the extension of primary education in the rural areas, and obtaining some insight into the problems and difficulties standing in the way of its further expansion. In order to narrow down the area of study to a manageable proportion, it was thought advisable to focus attention in the study on the following aspects :

- (a) The extent of coverage of villages by schools and the rate of their growth since 1947;
- (b) Training, equipment and attitude of the teachers towards their job;
- (c) The increase in enrolment of children in schools;
- (d) The position regarding school-going among girls;
- (e) Attitude of parents towards education of children, specially girls;
- (f) Impact of special efforts like mid-day meals, enrolment campaigns, supply of free books etc. on enrolment and attendance of children in schools;

¹Planning Commission; Third Five Year Plan (1961) Page 573 para 1.

²*Ibid.*, Page 573.

- (g) Problems of attendance, wastage and stagnation;
- (h) Working of the basic schools; and
- (i) School community relations with special reference to development of the schools as a centre of cultural and community activities in the village.

1.4 *Method of Study* : The study was confined to 16 districts spread over 15 States and the Union Territory of Himachal Pradesh. In each State, one district with an average coverage in respect of the programme was selected. The selection was made in consultation with the State Governments.

1.5 In each selected district one Sub-Inspector's circle (known as SDI's or Sub-Inspector's or Assistant Education Officer's circle) was selected on a random basis out of the list of all the circles in the district. The circle is the lowest unit of the Education Department for the purposes of administration and supervision of primary schools. It is not always coterminous with a Revenue Inspector's circle or the area of a C.D. Block. The list of the districts and circles selected for the study is given in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1.

List of Districts and S.D.I. Circles selected for study

State	District	Circle/Range selected for study
1. Andhra	Kurnool	Nandikotkur
2. Assam	Cachar	Katigorah
3. Bihar	Purnea	Forbesganj
4. Gujarat	Amreli	Damnagar-Amreli Beat No. 2
5. Himachal Pradesh	Bilaspur	Sadar Bilaspur
6. J. & K.	Anantnag	Anantnag
7. Kerala	Quilon	Chathannur
8. Maharashtra	Amravati	Badnera (Rural)
9. Madras	Tanjore	Nagapattinam
10. Madhya Pradesh	Saugor	Saugor (West)
11. Mysore	Mysore	Hoggadadevankote
12. Orissa	Sambalpur	Bargarh (South)
13. Punjab	Hissar	Fatehabad II
14. Rajasthan	Tonk	Niwai
15. Uttar Pradesh	Mathura	Farah
16. West Bengal	Burdwan	Bhatar

1.6 In each selected circle, villages with and without schools were listed separately and from these two lists five to eight villages having schools and two villages not having schools were selected on a random basis, keeping in view the size and population of villages in the area. Eight villages were selected in areas having relatively smaller villages and five in areas having bigger villages.

1.7 The field data were collected during December, 1961 to March, 1962 by canvassing two types of respondents, officials and non-officials.

The officials of the Education Department from the State to the circle level were contacted and their views on the progress and problems of primary education were obtained on the basis of guide-points. At the level of the selected villages, the head-master and teachers of the schools were interviewed with schedules and questionnaires specially designed for them.

1.8 The non-official respondents were selected on the basis of a random sample of 16 households per selected village in areas in which eight villages each were selected, and 24 households per village in areas in which five villages each were selected. The selection of households was made separately from two lists prepared for each village—one of all households having children of school-going age, and another of those households which did not send to school any of their children of the school-going age. In addition, presidents and members of village panchayats or prominent members of the school management committees and parent-teachers' associations, living in the selected villages, were also selected as knowledgeable persons and interviewed separately. Details of the number and the manner of selection of the sample households are given in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2

Basis of selection of respondents

Households/Respondents	No. to be selected in each village*	
	Group I distts. (8 villages)	Group II distts. (5 villages)
(a) All households with children of school going age		
1. Big cultivators	2	3
2. Medium cultivators	2	3
3. Small cultivators	2	3
4. Landless labourers	2	3
5. Others	2	3
(b) Households not sending their children to school		
1. Cultivators	2	3
2. Landless labourers	2	3
(c) Knowledgeable person	2	3
No. of respondents in each village	16	24
No. of villages	8	5
Total No. of respondents per circle of study	128	120

1.9 Our field staff also prepared qualitative notes on their personal observations in the field at different levels, which helped a great deal in the analysis of the data collected through the interview method and in deriving conclusions from the data.

*Eight villages were selected from each district except States Kerala, Madras and Andhra Pradesh

1.10 The study was taken up by the P.E.O. in December, 1961. The plan of study including the guide points, schedules and questionnaires were discussed with the Officers concerned of the PEO, and the Ministry of Education, Government of India. These were then pre-tested by the Project Evaluation Officers in different States. A Seminar of all the Officers of PEO was held in September, 1961 to discuss the results of the pretest after which the proforma and the plan of study were finalised. As the final step in preparation for the study, regional seminars of the field investigators were held to explain to them in detail the plan of study and the proforma. The field work was started after the Regional Seminars and was completed in all centres by March, 1962.

1.11 The report is divided into two parts. The first part comprising of Chapters I to III is concerned with the objectives and method of study, the efforts of the Government to promote primary education during the era since independence, more particularly during the decade of planning, and the details of the administrative organisation at various levels in the field of education in the different States. It may be pointed out here that no attempt has been made in this section to make an overall assessment in terms of statistics and data available at the State and national levels. Administrative assessment of this type is being made by the Ministry of Education at the Centre and the Education Departments in the State Governments.

1.12 The main objective of this study is an evaluation of the nature and problems of extension of primary education on the basis of field survey in selected districts and villages. The results of the study are presented in the Second Part of the report comprising of Chapters IV to X. For convenience in presentation and understanding, we have analysed and discussed the data in terms of the selected districts, often associating the States with these districts. This has been done for the sake of ease and convenience.

1.13 It is desirable to emphasise here some of the qualifications that should be borne in mind in interpreting the results of the field study. The inferences drawn from the field data are strictly limited in their generality, referring as they do to the purposively selected districts. Though these were in the nature of average districts—average in respect of conditions of primary education in the different States—selected in consultation with the State Governments, together they do not form a statistical sample. Even though a random sampling procedure had been adopted for the selection of inspection circles, villages, schools and parents in these districts, the size of the sample is small and the estimates for each district have to be interpreted within the margin of error which is not very small in most cases. In fact, the findings are much more reliable and representative of the conditions in the inspection circles included in the sample frame. In order to give an idea of the representative character of the field data collected, our survey data were compared with the data for the States published by the Ministry of Education. The comparative statements are given in the Appendix and they pertain to aspects such as the average population covered per school, the average number of teachers per school, proportion of trained teachers to total, the average enrolment per school, proportion of girls to total children enrolled and enrolment of children by age-groups.

PRIMARY EDUCATION DURING THE PLAN PERIOD

2.1 The problems of extension of primary education in the rural areas need to be understood against the background of developments and expansion that have taken place during the Plan period. It will, therefore, be in order to present in this chapter a brief review of the developments in certain aspects of primary education since the initiation of the Five Year Plans in 1950. This review has been necessarily limited to those aspects for which comparable data are available or can be built up for the three Plan periods.

Outlay on Education :

2.2 The Constitution of India gives a directive to the States to endeavour to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution facilities for free, universal and compulsory education for children up to 14 years of age. This has served to give a push to the expansion of primary education. Under successive Five Year Plans, increasing financial provision has been made for the programme of primary education. Although financial provision by itself may not be a complete index of the progress and achievement, it does serve to highlight the trend in a general way.

2.3 Primary education, being a State subject, received a very meagre financial assistance during the British regime. In 1946-47 all the States and Centrally administered areas together spent about Rs. 20.5 crores on primary education. The Central budget was less than Rs. 2 crores. The level of expenditure increased significantly during the First and the Second Five Year Plan periods. Table 2.1 gives data on the outlay on elementary education in relation to the total outlay on education in each of the three Five Year Plans.

Table 2.1.

Outlay on Elementary Education

(Rs. in Crores)

Outlay*	First Plan	Second Plan	% increase of the Second over the First Plan	Third Plan	% increase of the Third over the Second Plan
Total outlay on education . . .	153	256	67.3	560	118.8
Outlay on elementary education . . .	85	87	2.4	209	140.2
Percentage of outlay on elementary education to total outlay on education	55.6	34.0	..	37.3	..

*Source—Third Five Year Plan—page 576-577.

There has been a steady increase in the financial allocation for elementary education over the plan periods. During the Second Five Year Plan, this increase was only nominal (2.4%) as compared to an increase of 67% in the total outlay on all schemes for education. Thus, in the Second Plan, other fields of education were given a higher priority than primary education. During the Third Five Year Plan, however, the increase in plan allocation for elementary education over the Second Plan has been phenomenal (140%). The rate of this increase is also higher than that for all education (119%). In the third Plan, therefore, elementary education has received the priority that the constitutional directive fully called for.

Per capita outlay :

2.4. An inter-State comparison of financial allocation for elementary education in the Second and Third Plans may not be fruitful because of the re-organisation of States in 1956. It would be more meaningful to compare the *per capita* outlay on elementary education in the Second and the Third Five Year Plans (Data are not available for the First Plan period). The relevant data are given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Per capita outlay on Elementary Education in Second and Third Plans.

State	<i>Per capita</i> outlay on elementary education		% increase in outlay on elementary education in the Third over the Second Plan
	Second Plan	Third Plan	
Andhra Pradesh	1.7	3.4	98.8
Assam	2.7	3.1	199.3
Bihar	2.4	4.2	72.6
Bombay	1.9	3.8	104.3
H.P.	3.2	8.1	157.1
J. & K.	2.5	5.5	121.4
Kerala	2.3	4.3	88.7
Madras	2.3	5.3	132.2
M.P.	3.2	5.4	68.8
Mysore	2.7	4.5	66.1
Orissa	1.6	6.1	282.0
Punjab	2.7	3.6	32.0
Rajasthan	1.9	5.2	170.3
U.P.	1.5	4.6	206.0
West Bengal	2.3	3.8	60.0
ALL STATES	2.1	4.5	11.7

The per capita outlay on elementary education during the Third Plan varies from Rs. 3.4 in Andhra Pradesh to Rs. 8.1 in Assam and Himachal Pradesh. The overall average is Rs. 4.5. The outlay on education is low in Andhra Pradesh, Punjab, Bombay and West Bengal, where it ranges between Rs. 3 and Rs. 4. Only a few of the States which are considered educationally backward—Orissa, Assam and Himachal Pradesh, have recorded per capita outlays (ranging from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8) higher than the all-India average. The data tend also to indicate, that the outlay is not closely related to the educational needs of the States.

2.5 The average per capita outlay on elementary education has more than doubled in the Third Plan as compared to the Second. There is also a consistent increase in all the States. The proportion of increase in outlay in the Third Plan over the Second Plan is found to be very high in Orissa (282%), Uttar Pradesh (206%), Assam (199%) and Rajasthan (170%). In four States, Punjab, West Bengal, Mysore and Madhya Pradesh, the rate of increase in allocation is relatively low, ranging from 32 to 69% over the Second Plan; not all of these States can, however, be considered as advanced in respect of primary education.

2.6 *Source of Finance* : An analysis of the different sources of finance for primary education is presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3

Expenditure on Primary Schools by source :

(Rs. in lakhs)

Source	1950-51*		1955-56*		1960-61@	
	Total Amount	% to total	Total Amount	% to total	Total Amount	% to total
1. Government	2491	68.3	3955	73.6	5912	80.5
2. Distt. Board Funds }	911	25.0	625	11.6	601	8.2
3. Municipal Funds }			450	8.4	465	6.3
4. Fees	86	2.3	175	3.3	172	2.4
5. Endowments and other sources	160	4.4	168	3.1	194	2.6
TOTAL	3648	100.0	5373	100.0	7344	100.0

The main source of finance for primary education has been the State Government, contrary to the general feeling that the Local bodies, voluntary agencies and trusts contribute a substantial part of the funds for education at the primary stage. Moreover, the relative

*"Education in India, 1950-51, 1956-57".

@ Records of the Ministry of Education.

share of the Government's contribution to primary education has increased steadily from 68.3% in 1950-51 to 73.6% in 1955-56 and 80.5% in 1960-61. The share of the District Board has declined from 11.6 per cent in 1955-56 to 8.2 per cent in 1960-61. The same trend is noticed in respect of the share of the Municipal Boards in the total expenditure. Fees have constituted a very meagre source; so also endowments and other sources. It may also be mentioned that part of the funds expended by the District and Municipal Boards may be grants from the Government. If this is taken into account, the share of the Government would be even larger.

Average expenditure per Student :

2.7 Table 2.4 presents data on the average annual expenditure by Government per pupil in primary schools for the years 1950-51, 1955-56 and 1960-61, along with percentage increase in 1960-61 over 1955-56.

Table 2.4

Average annual expenditure by Government per pupil of primary school.

(in Rupees)

State	Average expenditure per pupil in			%increase in 1960-61 over 1955-56
	1950-51*	1955-56**	1960-61 ₹	
Andhra Pradesh	..	24.3	28.4	16.9
Assam	10.5	13.9	21.3	53.2
Bihar	13.1	14.6	16.4	12.3
Bombay	..	30.1	39.3	30.6
Himachal Pradesh	..	44.7	60.4	35.1
J. & K.	27.3	22.5	25.7	14.2
Kerala	10.2	15.3	30.6	126.7
Madhya Pradesh	..	27.6	37.0	34.
Madras	..	25.8	29.2	13.2
Mysore	..	24.7	30.8	24.7
Orissa	14.0	17.3	15.2	12.1
Punjab	23.7	29.5	36.1	22.3
Rajasthan	..	33.0	33.3	0.9
U.P.	13.3	19.5	19.8	1.5
West Bengal	13.1	22.3	26.9	20.6
ALL STATES	19.1	21.7	26.1	20.3

The above data reveal that the average annual expenditure incurred per pupil by the Government has shown a steady rise over the years. It has increased from Rs. 19.1 in 1951 to Rs. 26.1 in 1961. Inter-State variations are rather marked. If we consider the figures for 1960-61 only, the per capita expenditure is found to be highest (Rs. 60.4) in Himachal Pradesh which may be due largely to the nature of the

*Review of Education in India 1947-61.

**Education in India 1956-57.

₹ Provisional Statistics of Education in States-1960-61.

terrain and consequent low enrolment position. In the remaining States, it ranges between Rs. 39 and Rs. 15, and is particularly low in Orissa (Rs. 15.2) and Bihar (Rs. 16.4). States like West Bengal, Jammu & Kashmir and Andhra Pradesh have recorded figures lower than the overall average Rajasthan, Punjab, Mysore, Madhya Pradesh, Kerala and Bombay have registered a relatively higher level of annual expenditure per pupil, ranging between Rs. 30 and Rs. 40 (leaving out Himachal Pradesh which shows the highest level Rs. 60).

2.8 In all States except Orissa and Jammu & Kashmir, a general increase in the average annual expenditure per pupil over the years is noticeable. As figures are not available for most of the States for the year 1950-51, percentage increase of per capita expenditure in 1960-61 has been worked out in relation to 1955-56. The overall increase is found to be 20 per cent. The rise in expenditure per pupil during the Second Plan period is found to be highest in Kerala (127%). In Assam, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Bombay, the increase is to the extent of 34 to 53 per cent; whereas in Mysore, Punjab and West Bengal, it is somewhat lower (20 to 25%). In Rajasthan and U.P. the level of per capita expenditure had remained more or less the same.

Per capita expenditure on primary schools :

2.9 Data regarding the per capita expenditure on primary schools in different States and their ranking according to literacy level are presented in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5

Distribution of States according to per capita expenditure on primary schools and literacy level.

State	Per capita expenditure in 1960-61 on primary schools (in Rs.)	Rank according to literacy level (1961)
Kerala	3.3	1
H. P.	2.5	13
Madras	2.2	2
Andhra Pradesh	2.1	10
Assam	1.9	6
M. P.	1.9	14
Maharashtra	1.8	4
Punjab	1.8	8
Mysore	1.7	7
Gujarat	1.4	3
Orissa	1.2	9
J. & K.	1.1	16
U. P.	1.1	12
Bihar	0.9	11
Rajasthan	0.4	15
West Bengal	0.4	5
ALL STATES	1.7	..
ALL INDIA	1.7	..

The per capita expenditure on primary schools in 1960-61 was highest in Kerala (Rs. 3.3) and lowest in Rajasthan and West Bengal (Rs. 0.4), the average for the country being Rs. 1.7. It was much above the overall average in only four States, Kerala, H.P., Andhra Pradesh and Madras, where it exceeded Rs. 2. It was at or slightly above the national average in 5 States—Assam, M.P., Maharashtra, Punjab and Mysore. In the remaining seven States which include some States considered educationally advanced, the per capita expenditure was significantly lower than the national average.

2.10 Some interesting patterns also emerge from the data in Table 2.5 regarding the correlation between per capita expenditure on primary schools and the level of literacy. Three States—H.P., Andhra and M.P.—with low ranking in the scale of literacy were spending in 1960-61 relatively more on primary schools; while West Bengal with a fairly high ranking was spending at the lowest level. If expenditure is any index of achievement, in future, the former group of States is expected to improve their relative position in respect of literacy and West Bengal to slide down. Gujarat is also in the category of West Bengal to some extent. States like Kerala and Madras were well placed in respect of both the indicators. But most of the States at the lower end of the scale of literacy—Bihar, U.P., Rajasthan and J. & K.—were also spending the lowest on primary schools. The data, to the extent they are valid, do not indicate a move in the direction of narrowing down of the inter-State disparity.

Growth of Primary Schools :

2.11 There has been a tremendous increase in the number of primary schools, since the advent of freedom. The following table (Table 2.6) shows the position with regard to the number of primary schools in the country in selected years between 1946-47 and 1960-61.

Table 2.6
No. of primary schools in India in different years.

Year	1946-47*	1950-51†	1955-56‡	1960-61‡	Index number with 46-47 as the base year in		
					1950-51	1955-56	1960-61
No. of schools	172,663	209,671	278,135	342,000‡	121.4	161.1	198

With 1946-47 as the base year, the increase in the number of primary schools works out to 21.4% in 1950-61, 61.1% in 1955-56 and 98.1% in 1960-61.

Training of teachers :

2.12 The training of teachers is important and essential for improving the quality of instruction. The near doubling of the number of schools between 1946-47 and 1960-61 must have led to heavy demands

*"Progress of Education in ..."

†Third Five Plan, Page .

‡Estimated.

for expansion of the training facilities. How far this expansion has been achieved can be inferred from the percentage of trained teachers to all teachers in the primary schools. Details are presented in Table 2.7 for two time periods—end of the First and of the Second Plan periods.

Table 2.7

Proportion of trained teachers in primary schools.

State	1955-56*	1960-61@
Andhra Pradesh	78.9	82.9
Assam	31.8	39.3
Bihar	63.6	71.2
Bombay	44.1	45.8**
H. P.	46.5	60.1
J. & K.	49.2	54.1
Kerala	92.9	90.8
M. P.	28.8	51.0
Madras	92.5	95.9
Mysore	44.9	43.4
Orissa	41.6	38.5
Punjab	73.1	92.1
Rajasthan	40.0	50.8
U. P.	80.9	74.8
West Bengal	34.6	38.1
ALL STATES	61.4	64.3

It should be noted that no distinction has been made in compiling these statistics between different types of training. Teachers who have undergone short-orientation or refresher courses have also been categorised as trained. This point has to be borne in mind while interpreting the data. On the whole, the data indicate that the proportion of trained teachers has recorded only a slight increase from 61.4 per cent in 1955-56 to 64.3 in 1960-61. In four States, however, the proportion has declined. Kerala, Orissa, U.P. and Mysore are such States where this proportion was higher in 1956 than in 1961. In all other States, the proportion has increased. The increase has been substantial in Madhya Pradesh, Himachal Pradesh and Punjab.

2.13 Considering the position at the beginning of the Third Plan period, it is noticed that over 90% of the teachers were reported

*Education in India 1956-57.

@Provisional Statistics of Education in States Ministry of Education.

**Figure relates to Gujarat and Maharashtra.

as trained in Madras, Punjab and Kerala. This proportion was above 70 in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar and U.P., and between 50 and 60 in H.P., Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and J. & K. In Assam, Bombay, Mysore, Orissa and West Bengal, the training programme had somewhat lagged. In these States, less than one-half of the teachers were reported as trained. The variations noticed among the States cannot be attributed only to the rapid increase in the number of primary school teachers. For example, in States like Rajasthan, J. & K., and H.P., which recorded a substantial increase in the total number of teachers during this period, the trained teachers constituted a larger proportion in 1961 than in 1956. It appears from the above data that progress in respect of training arrangements had been uneven among the States and not kept pace with the opening of new schools and expansion of existing schools in many States.

Students on roll:

2.14 The rapid expansion of school facilities is expected to show a corresponding impact on enrolment of children in schools. Relevant data are given in Table 2.8.

The increase over 1955-56 in the number of children enrolled in primary classes (of primary as well as integrated schools) in 1960-61 in the States (excluding Bombay) is found to be 42%. This figure is slightly higher than the figure for all-India, 39%. Without any exception, all the States have registered an increase in enrolment of children. As compared to the position in 1955-56, increase in enrolment was very high in Rajasthan (108%), Orissa (107%), Bihar (79%) and J. & K. (66%). The increase was lowest in Punjab (17.5%). Andhra Pradesh, Madras and West Bengal recorded an increase in enrolment of the order of 26% to 30% only. An assessment based only on percentage increase may, however, be misleading wherever the enrolment figures are low for the base year, as in the case of J. & K., Rajasthan and Orissa. In any case, the data show a close correlation between increase in enrolment and the growth of schools during the Second Plan period. In other words, the increase in enrolment was high in States which recorded the opening of schools on a large scale.

2.15 The rate of increase in the enrolment of girls was much higher, twice or more, than that of boys in as many as six States. The difference between the increase in enrolment of boys and girls is found to be small in Mysore, Rajasthan and Madras.

Increase in enrolment of children in rural areas :

2.16 The proportion of middle, high and similar schools having primary classes to all schools with primary classes is expected to be much lower in rural than in urban areas. An analysis of the data on the enrolment of children in primary schools only and a comparison with the data in Table 2.8 are likely to indicate, rather indirectly, as to whether the rate of increase in enrolment in rural areas compared favourably with that in the country as a whole. Relevant data on the number of pupils enrolled in primary schools in 1955-56 and percentage increase in enrolment in 1960-61 over 1955-56 are given in Table 2.9.

Table 2.8
Increase of pupils in primary classes

State	Boys		Girls		All pupils	
	No. of boys on roll in 1955-56* (In lakhs)	% increase in enrolment in 1960-61 over 1955-56	No. of girls on roll in 1955-56* (In lakhs)	% increase in enrolment in 1960-61 over 1955-56	Total on roll in 1955-56* (In Lakhs)	% increase in enrolment in 1960-61 over 1955-56
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Andhra Pradesh	15.0	22.3	8.6	32.8	23.6	26.1
Assam	5.3	34.5	2.9	44.6	8.2	38.0
Bihar	14.7	66.4	3.1	137.6	17.8	78.8
Bombay
H. P.	0.5	32.2	0.01	88.9	0.6	40.7
J. & K.	1.0	61.1	0.2	87.3	1.3	66.1
Kerala	10.3	24.6	8.8	25.4	19.1	25.0
M. P.	11.1	40.0	2.5	79.4	13.6	47.1
Madras	16.3	26.1	9.5	35.4	25.7	29.5
Mysore	9.8	38.4	5.6	45.1	15.4	40.8
Orissa	5.2	88.3	1.7	166.1	6.8	107.2
Punjab	8.9	9.4	3.3	39.0	12.2	17.5
Rajasthan	4.4	104.9	1.0	120.9	5.4	107.8
U. P.	22.6	42.6	5.4	59.7	28.0	45.9
West Bengal	15.5	21.3	7.2	41.3	22.7	27.7
ALL STATES	140.6	38.0	59.8	51.4	200.4	42.1
ALL INDIA**	175.3	34.6	76.4	49.2	251.7	39.0

*Education in India 1956-57

% Figures for 1960-61 taken from provisional Statistics of Education in States 1960-61. Ministry of Education.

**Fourth Plan Working Group report on education.

Table 2.9

No. of pupils in primary schools in 1955-56 and percentage increase or decrease in enrolment in 1960-61 over 1955-56.

State	No. of pupils on roll in 1955-56 (in lakhs)	% increase or decrease in enrolment in 1960-61 & 1955-56
1	2	3
Andhra	23.9	12.0
Assam	7.6	37.2
Bihar	15.3	77.8
H. P.	0.4	35.8
J. & K.	0.9	70.6
Kerala	18.8	-4.3
M. P.	11.7	43.4
Madras	26.6	-6.3
Mysore	15.0	-14.9
Orissa	6.4	110.2
Punjab	8.8	12.3
Rajasthan	4.6	122.6
U. P.	27.4	44.6
West Bengal	22.5	16.7
ALL STATES	189.4	25.2
ALL INDIA	229.2	16.2

A comparison of the figures in column 3 of Table 2.9 with those in col. 7 of Table 2.8 indicates that both in the States and for all-India, the increase in enrolment in primary schools was much lower than the enrolment in primary classes as a whole. The percentage increase was 25.2 and 16.2, respectively, as against 42.1 and 29.0. Secondly, another fact revealed in Table 2.9 is that in Mysore, Madras and Kerala, the enrolment of children had declined during this period by between 14.9 and 4.3 per cent. Thirdly, in Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal and Punjab, the increase in enrolment registered during this period in primary schools was somewhat lower than in the primary classes. Fourthly, in Orissa, Rajasthan and Jammu & Kashmir, there had been a slight increase in enrolment in primary schools as compared to the enrolment in the primary classes. In the remaining States, the difference in enrolment position was not significant. The data tend to show that a relatively larger increase in enrolment had taken place in the primary sections of the middle and high schools than in the primary schools. This evidence lends indirect support to the hypothesis that the growth in enrolment of children in schools had been somewhat lower in rural areas than in urban areas.

2.17 The number of children on roll by itself cannot give a comprehensive picture of the extent of progress achieved so far. An

analysis of the proportion of children on roll to the total children in the age group 6-11 years would be more meaningful. This is what has been attempted in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10

Proportion of children on roll to total in the age group 6-11 years

Year	Percentage of population in age group 6-11 on roll		
	Boys	Girls	Total
1950-51*	59.8	24.6	42.6
1955-56*	70.3	32.4	52.9
1960-61*	80.5	40.4	61.1

The table shows a steady increase in the enrolment proportion of both boys and girls. In 1950-51, about 43 per cent of the population in the age group 6-11 years was enrolled. In 1955-56, it increased to about 53% and in 1960-61 to 61 per cent. A larger proportion of boys than of girls had been enrolled in each of these years. The proportion of girls on roll in the age-group 6-11 years had risen from 24.6 to 40.4 per cent during 1951-61, the corresponding increase in the case of boys being from 59.8 to 80.5 per cent. Though the relative gap appears to have narrowed down, the enrolment proportion of boys was in 1960-61 still about double that of girls, the percentage figures being 81 and 40, respectively.

Girl's Education :

2.18 It appears that while the education of girls has gained some momentum during the plan periods, it is still lagging behind that of boys. One significant landmark in the field of women's education during the Second Plan period was the appointment of National Committee on Women's Education in 1958 to review the progress of women's education, to suggest measures to make up the leeway at the primary and secondary levels, to examine the problems of wastage and the scope of continuation and vocational education for adult women. The committee focussed attention on the fact that most of the expansion of the education of girls had taken place not in the more backward States where it was most needed but in the progressive parts of the country. Some of the important recommendations made by the committee pertain to the creation of a special machinery to deal with the problems of education of girls and women, provision of adequate funds for the purpose, greater assumption of responsibility by the Centre for its rapid development, and the need for even development of the programme in all parts of the country.

2.19 The Government accepted most of the recommendations of the National Committee on Women's Education and initiated appropriate action. At the Centre, the National Council for Women's Education was set up for providing guidance, leadership and advice. Similarly, State Councils for women's education comprising of non-officials and

*Third Five Year Plan, Page 580.

officials were constituted in a number of States. A financial provision of Rs. 11 crores was provided for implementing the various programmes.

2.20 The Third Plan expressed a concern over this problem and laid more emphasis than the earlier plans on expansion of girls' education. A substantial provision has been made for financing positive measures. In reviewing the factors that stand in the way of girls' education, the Third Five Year Plan reiterated the need for creating suitable conditions for encouraging parents to send their daughters to schools, educating public opinion and increasing the number of women teachers in rural areas.

2.21 At the beginning of the First Plan period, only one fourth of the girls in the age group 6 to 11 years were enrolled in primary schools, and only 9.3% of women were found to be literate. Towards the end of the First Plan the proportion of girls attending primary school had risen to 33%, and towards the end of the Second Plan to about 40%, as against 80% of the boys enrolled in the schools. For the Third Plan period, the target of enrolment has been fixed at 50 per cent of the girls in the six less advanced districts of Rajasthan, U.P., M.P., Orissa, Bihar and Jammu & Kashmir and 90% in the remaining States. The State Governments have also started fixing separate annual targets for enrolment of girls at various stages. This is expected to give greater purpose and direction to the education of girls.

Compulsory Education:

2.22 The issue of compulsory education has acquired significance after Independence in view of the provision in the Constitution for free and compulsory education to all children up to 14 years of age within a period of 10 years. It has now been realised that the fulfilment of this constitutional obligation is expected to take a period longer than envisaged. In view of the formidable task involved in realizing the goal of universal primary education, it was felt desirable to try the scheme in selected areas so as to gain the necessary experience. It has also been recognised that enactment of legislation alone cannot bring about the desired results and that the success of the scheme would depend to a large extent on its effective implementation and cooperation from the people.

2.23 The scheme of compulsory education was tried on an experimental basis during the early twenties in a number of States, for example, Bombay, U.P., Madras, Bengal, Punjab, Assam, etc. But these were confined mostly to urban areas. The economic depression during the thirties stood in the way of extension of free and compulsory education. Although the Five Year Plans emphasized the importance of giving attention to the introduction of free and compulsory education, progress achieved during the plan period has been much below expectation. The slow progress has been generally attributed to factors such as inadequacy of funds, non-availability of teachers, shortage of accommodation and lack of response from the parents. It is time to review the importance attached to this programme by the State Governments, the difficulties faced and the arrangements envisaged for its effective implementation, and allied issues.

Planning for extension of primary education :

2.24 Local and political pressures had more often been the determining factor in deciding the location of schools rather than the actual educational needs of the different regions and areas. As a consequence, in many areas, schools were started so close to one another that none of them could muster an adequate strength on their roll, while there were large areas without any school at all. It was, therefore, considered necessary to have a detailed educational survey with a view to enumerate the existing schools, the habitations served by them and to plan school areas for each primary, middle and high school in a rational manner. The survey commenced in 1957 and was completed in 1959. All the States except West Bengal participated in it. The area-base for this survey was the habitation and not the village. It was found that about 29% of the habitations covering a population of 4.7 crores (16.7%) were considered as not being served by the existing schools. In general, it appears from the survey that the smaller habitations particularly those with a population below 250, experienced lack of school facilities. The data of this survey were utilised to locate new schools so as to cover the habitations in a rational manner. The purpose was to minimise the number of new schools required to serve the habitations, if necessary, by grouping some of these.

of education in each State... But the various... level officers... level to look after... and jurisdiction of the... levels the availability of... to look after and... been made in this... five organisations of... Territory of Himachal Pradesh... called in the way of its...

Administrative Organisation at the State Level

2.3 In each of the States, there is a State-level Officer who is the head of the Education Department. He is usually in charge of all types of education and allied subjects in the State including primary education. This Officer is known by different designations in different States. In Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Kerala, M.P., Mysore, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab and West Bengal he carries the designation of Director of Public Instruction, whereas in Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh he is known as Director of Education. In the Union Territory of Himachal Pradesh, he is called the Principal Educational Officer.

2.4 Primary education is directly dealt with by one of the departments of this departmental head. The departments though carrying different designations in different States perform almost similar functions. In Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa, a Deputy Director is the officer directly in charge of primary education. In I.P., there are two officers, one Deputy Director and one Assistant Director to look after the primary education programme. In West Bengal and Assam, it is the Deputy Director who deals with primary education. Besides, there is one...

ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION

3.1 The administrative organisation in the field of education in different States presents many points of similarity. There are, however, difference in details which go back to the pre-Independence period when education in the Provinces was under the British administration and in the native States under the Princely rulers. After Independence in 1947, the Department of Education, Health and Lands in the Government of India was reorganized; and a separate Ministry of Education was created. Efforts were made to unify and coordinate the official machinery for the administration of education in all the States without basically changing the then set-up. Re-organisation of States in 1956 again necessitated certain adjustments in the administrative set-up for education in the re-organised States.

3.2 The similarity of administrative pattern in all the States lies broadly in the fact that there is a State level officer in overall charge of education in each State, with divisional, district and tehsil links below. But the variations are mainly in the designation of State-level officers, the existence or otherwise of other officers at the State level to look after different types and aspects of education, the number and jurisdiction of the inspecting officers at the district and lower levels, the availability of women officers of the department specially to look after and supervise girls' education, etc. An attempt has been made in this chapter to present an account of the administrative organisation of primary education in the 15 States and the Union Territory of Himachal Pradesh, and to discuss the problems and difficulties in the way of its proper functioning.

Administrative Organization at the State-level :

3.3 In each of the States, there is a State-level Officer who is the head of the Education Department. He is usually in charge of all types of education and allied subjects in the State including primary education. This Officer is known by different designations in different States. In Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Kerala, M.P., Mysore, Madras, Orissa, Punjab and West Bengal he carries the designation of Director of Public Instruction; whereas in Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh he is known as Director of Education. In the Union Territory of Himachal Pradesh, he is called the Principal Educational Officer.

3.4 Primary education is directly dealt with by one of the deputies of this departmental head. These deputies, though carrying different designations in different States, perform almost similar functions. In Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Jammu and Kashmir, Madras, Maharashtra and Orissa, a Deputy Director is the officer directly in-charge of primary education. In U.P., there are two officers, one Deputy Director and one Assistant Director to look after the primary education programme. In West Bengal and Assam, it is the Assistant Director who deals with primary education. Besides, there is one

Chief Inspector exclusively for primary and basic education in West Bengal, who is assisted by two Deputy Chief Inspectors. In Assam, the post of Assistant Director is being upgraded to that of a Joint Director. While the Additional Director of Public Instruction deals with primary education in Bihar, the Additional Joint Director looks after primary education in Mysore. In Kerala, an Additional Director was in charge of primary education till recently. This post was abolished after the Re-organisation of this State; and there is at present no officer exclusively in charge of primary education at the State level. But it is understood that the Director of the Bureau of Educational Research is presently concerned with the academic and research side of primary education. In Madhya Pradesh there are two officers under the Director of Public Instruction to deal with primary education. One Officer on Special Duty looks after the academic side of secondary and primary education, while the Assistant Director of Public Instruction looks after the extension programme. In Himachal Pradesh, the Principal Education Officer of the Territorial Council is assisted by four Education Officers.

3.5 In some States, there are some additional subordinate officers at the State-level to assist the officers mentioned above. In Orissa, there are two Assistant Directors of Public Instructions, one dealing with the primary education and the other with the training of primary teachers. In Bihar, there are 3 Deputy Directors to assist the Additional Director of Public Instruction and one of them covers the field of primary and basic education in general and the other looks after the service-conditions and training programme of primary school teachers. Below the Deputy Directors, there are five Assistant Directors to help them. In Madras State, besides the Deputy Director incharge of primary education at the State-level, there is an Additional Personal Assistant to the Director of Public Instruction, whose duties include supervision of all Plan schemes besides the introduction of compulsory primary education. There is also another Special Officer, to look after the mid-day meals scheme. These officers are of the rank of District Education Officer.

State Advisory Boards :

3.6 There are State Advisory Boards/Committees on primary and basic education in many of the States. These Boards are composed of the elected representatives, representatives of educational institutions, public-men interested in the field of education and officials concerned with the education programmes. These committees can be grouped into the following categories; (i) State Advisory Board/Committee on basic education, as in Assam, Himachal Pradesh, West Bengal and U.P., (ii) Educational Integration Advisory Committee as in Mysore; and (iii) Advisory Committee on Education (in general), as in Punjab. In Gujarat, however, there are two Advisory Boards, one for basic education and another for primary education.

3.7 In some States like Assam, West Bengal and Mysore, the Minister of Education is Chairman of the Board. The Director of Public Instruction is usually the Vice-Chairman. The main functions of these Boards are to examine, control and direct the primary/basic education programmes in their respective States and to advise the Education Department on matters like syllabi, curricula, training of

teachers, progress in the integration of basic and non-basic types of education, and the extension of education in general.

Divisional/Regional Level:

3.8 In 11 States, there is a divisional/regional set-up for the administration of education. A division or region comprises of more than one revenue district. The officer incharge at the divisional/regional level is known by different designations in different States. The number of divisions in these 11 States and the designations of the divisional offices are given below in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Educational Divisions and designation of the Officer in-charge in 11 States

State	No. of divisions/ regions	Designation of the officer in-charge
1. Andhra Pradesh	5	Regional Deputy Director
2. Bihar	4	Regional Deputy Director of Education
3. Kerala	3	Divisional Education Officer
4. Maharashtra	4	Divisional Deputy Director
5. Madras	2	Divisional Education Officer
6. Mysore	5	Deputy Director of Public Instruction.
7. Madhya Pradesh	9	(i) Vindhya Region—Assistant Director of Public Instruction. (ii) Mahakosal—Divisional Supdt. of Education. (iii) Other areas—Deputy Director of Education.
8. Orissa	7	Inspector of Schools
9. Punjab	5	Divisional Inspector for Boys & Divisional Inspectress for Girls' Education.
10. Rajasthan	5	Deputy Director of Education.
11. U. P.	10	(i) Deputy Director of Education (Boys) (ii) Regional Inspectress of Girls' Schools.

The divisional officer is in-charge of all types of education in his division including primary education. In actual practice, his time is mainly taken up in the administration of secondary and higher education.

District Level:

3.9 Below the Division comes the district which is the effective administrative unit for purposes of education. An 'educational district' is not always co-terminus with the revenue-district. For instance, in Kerala and Madras, the educational district covers an area

less than a revenue-district; and, in Assam, it is larger than a district. In most of the remaining States, however, the revenue district coincides in area with the educational district.

3.10 The officer in charge of education at the district level is also known by different designations in different States. In Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Orissa, Rajasthan, U.P. and West Bengal, he has the designation of District Inspector of Schools; whereas in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Kerala, Madras and Mysore, he is the district Education Officer. In Gujarat and Maharashtra, however, he is known as District Education Inspector. In Assam, there is no district-level set-up.

3.11 Though the district-level officer is the administrative head of all primary, middle, higher secondary and training schools in the district, his actual supervision by way of personal visits and inspections is normally confined to secondary schools, high schools and training schools. In Rajasthan, however, the District Inspector of Schools is required to inspect at least 10% of middle schools and 10% of primary schools in the district. Even though in Madras this officer is not expected to visit any primary school for inspection as such, he has to visit necessarily all primary schools where the mid-day meals scheme is in operation. As the scheme is prevalent all over the State, almost all the primary schools indirectly receive some benefit of his visits. He is, however, primarily interested in the new programme of introducing the mid-day-meal system than in guiding the teachers.

3.12 In some States there are lady inspectors at the District level, to look after girls' education. In Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Maharashtra and Punjab they are known as District Inspectresses of schools; and in M.P. and U.P. as Deputy Inspectresses of Schools. The Schools to be inspected by them are dispersed over a wide area; and adequate supervision and guidance to girls' schools becomes a difficult task.

3.13 The District Inspector of Schools is assisted by subordinate officers in some States. They are variously designated as Deputy Inspector of Schools in U.P., M.P. and Rajasthan and as Deputy Education Inspector in Gujarat and Maharashtra. In Bihar, the District Education Officer is assisted by the District Superintendent of Education and two Deputy Superintendents. In Himachal Pradesh, there is an Assistant District Inspector (Hqrs.) to assist the District Inspector of Schools. In Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and U.P., these officers supervise the work of officers at lower levels on behalf of the non-official head of the District Local Board or Antarim Zila Parishad. In Bihar, the District Superintendent of Education with his deputies deals with appointments, transfers and payment of salaries of teachers in primary and middle schools. In Himachal Pradesh, the Assistant District Inspector (Hqrs.) provides only office-assistance to the District Inspector of Schools.

3.14 In two States, Bihar and Mysore, there are administrative units, called "sub-divisions", between the district and circle/range levels.

In Bihar, the Sub-Divisional Education Officer heads this unit and is incharge of immediate inspection and supervision of junior basic/junior high (Vernacular-middle) schools in the sub-division. He is assisted, at this level, by two Deputies who are incharge of supervision and inspection of middle schools in the sub-division. One of these is a lady Deputy Inspector for girls' education. In Mysore, the officer incharge of the sub-division unit is the Assistant Education Officer who exercises administrative control over all senior and junior primary schools and also assists the District Education Officer in inspection of high schools.

3.15. In Assam, as mentioned earlier, there is no district level unit. The sub-division, which is smaller than a unit is under the charge of a Deputy Inspector of Schools. This officer is responsible for technical supervision of primary education in the sub-division. In some sub-divisions, an Additional Deputy Inspector of Schools is also provided to assist him.

Primary administrative unit :

3.16 The primary administrative and supervisory unit for elementary education is known by different names in different States. In States like Bihar, H.P., Rajasthan and U.P., it is known as "Block"; in Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, M.P., Orissa and West Bengal, as "Circle"; in Mysore and Madras as "Range"; and in Gujarat and Maharashtra as "Beat". The designation of the officers at this level in different States is indicated below in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Designation of officer-in-charge of the Primary Unit by State

Designation	State	Name of unit
Deputy Inspector of Schools	Andhra Pradesh	Circle
	Madras	Range
Sub-Deputy Inspector of Schools	Rajasthan	Block
	U. P.	Block
	Assam	Circle
Sub-Inspector of Schools	Bihar	Block
	Orissa	Circle
	West Bengal	Circle
Assistant Deputy Education Inspector	Gujarat	Beat
	Maharashtra	Beat
Asstt. District Inspector of Schools	Himachal Pradesh	Block
	Madhya Pradesh	Circle
	Punjab	Sub-division
Tehsil Education Officer	Jammu and Kashmir	Tehsil
Assistant Education Officer	Kerala	Circle
Range Inspector of Schools	Mysore	Range

3.17 Where the area and the number of schools under this unit happen to be too large, some additional assistants are provided. For instance, there are, in Andhra Pradesh and Madras, Junior Inspectors of Schools; in Assam, Assistant Sub-Inspectors of Schools; in Orissa, Assistant Inspectors of Schools and in Maharashtra, Assistant Deputy Inspectors of School. To look after girls' education at this level, lady inspectors are also provided in Maharashtra, Punjab and U.P.

3.18 In Madhya Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh, there exists a system of administrative arrangement by which the headmaster of a junior high school or middle school (centrally located) is made responsible for certain administrative matters over a certain number of primary schools in the area. This system may be described as "Centre School" system. The headmaster of such a 'centre' school has 20-25 primary schools in his jurisdiction. He distributes the pay, sanctions casual leave and provides general guidance and supervision to teachers of the primary schools on behalf of the Asstt. District Inspector of Schools. In M.P., he is known as 'Kendra Adhyaksha'.

3.19 The officers at the circle level are responsible for the direct inspection and supervision of primary schools in their jurisdiction. They are expected to pay two or three surprise-visits to each school, besides carrying out a detailed annual inspection. It has been reported from all States that the expected number of visits do not materialize in most cases. Most of the officers at this level as well as at higher levels, who were interviewed, contended that it could not be done because the average number of schools to be visited per officer was too large. It appears that the number of schools expected to be supervised by an officer at this level ranges from 60 to 100 in States like Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and West Bengal. Even in other States like Madras and U.P., the number of schools to be covered is not normally below 45. Certain other factors are also reported to be responsible for this shortfall in inspection-work. It is stated that, in the Union territory of Himachal Pradesh, even the norm of 30 schools per officer is difficult to implement in view of the hilly terrain of the area and consequent difficulty in communication. In Orissa, the difficulty arises on account of the wide disparity in the dispersal of primary schools between one district and another, and between different parts of a district. In Mysore, the absence of provision of transport to those officers is stated to be responsible for their not paying the required number of visits to each school. No independent transport is, however, provided to officers at this level in any State. Usually, travelling allowances are paid for their inspection trips; in some States, even at a high rate providing for cartage and tentage etc. The reported difficulty of the circle-level officers in Mysore is not understandable. In Rajasthan, it is felt that tagging of other activities like social education to the Sub-Deputy Inspector of Schools results in inadequate attention on his part to the inspection of schools.

Implementation of Educational Programmes vis-a-vis Local Self-government Institutions :

3.20 In some of the States where Panchayati Raj has been introduced, the implementation of primary education has been transferred to

statutory local bodies at the district and lower levels under the general supervision of the State Education Department. In Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan and U.P., it is the Zilla Parishad at District level and Panchayat Samiti at Block level to which the officers of the Education Department at the respective levels have been transferred. In Andhra Pradesh, primary education is mainly the concern of Panchayat Samitis and the funds for primary education programmes are, therefore, channelised by the State Government through these institutions. The Deputy Inspector of Schools, who is also designated as Extension Officer (Education), is attached to Panchayat Samitis to look after primary education in the block area. He is under the administrative control of Panchayat Samitis and the technical control of the Education Department. In non-block areas, however, the Deputy Inspector of Schools continues to function under the control of the Zilla Parishad. The annual budget for primary education is prepared by the Panchayat Samiti and the Zilla Parishad and forwarded to the Director of Public Instruction for his approval and allotment of funds. Panchayat Samitis are competent to increase or decrease the strength of the teaching staff in schools under their jurisdiction.

3.21. In Orissa, the District Inspector of Schools is a non-voting member of the Zilla Parishad and tenders advice on all educational matters. The Zilla Parishad and the Panchayat Samitis deal with all matters relating to disbursement of teachers' salaries, allowances, opening and location of new schools, appointments, transfers, punishment of teachers, grants-in-aid etc. The technical control in respect of prescribing syllabi, teaching, conducting of examinations etc., however, rests with the Education Department.

3.22 In Rajasthan, the Panchayat Samiti is responsible for the overall supervision and execution of the educational policy laid down by the Education Department. Education at the higher secondary, middle and primary levels in urban areas remains under the direct control of the Inspector of Schools. A Sub-Deputy Inspector of Schools is provided to each Panchayat Samiti on deputation; and he functions under the administrative control of the Block Development Officer. Besides primary education, the Sub-Deputy Inspectors of Schools look after the social education programmes also. The Panchayat Samitis are empowered to make direct appointments of teachers on a temporary basis (for 6 months only). For permanent appointment, however, the teachers are recruited through the Zilla Parishad Service Commission. The Education Department decides about the number of new schools to be opened and provides necessary funds through the Zilla Parishads to the Panchayat Samitis. In U.P., the Antarim Zilla Parishad is responsible for primary and basic education in rural areas. The President of the Zilla Parishad, assisted by an Education Committee, the Chief Executive Officer, the Deputy Inspector of Schools and Sub-Deputy Inspectors, manages the schools. The Deputy Education Inspector and Sub-Deputy Inspectors are employees of the Education Department. Besides making regular inspections of schools, they offer technical advice to the Adhyaksha (President) of the Zilla Parishad and enforce the Education Department rules. As such, those officers are responsible both to the District Inspector of Schools and the Presidents of the Zilla Parishads. The Deputy Inspector of Schools, is, however, directly responsible to the District Inspector of Schools and is not attached to the Zilla Parishad.

3.23 In Gujarat, Maharashtra, 4 districts of Mysore and West Bengal, it is the District School Board which is entrusted with the implementation of the primary education programme. In Gujarat, the District School Board consists of 13 members, including Chairman and Vice-Chairman. The Administrative Officer is the Chief Executive Officer of the District School Board. Although the School Boards administer primary education, it may be observed that, in actual practice, their position is not better than that of an advisory body. The whole administration is under the control of the Administrative Officer who is mainly responsible to the State Government. He prepares the budget of the School Board under directions from the Education Department. To reappropriate any items of expenditure under a head other than that sanctioned for, the School Board has to seek the permission of the Director of Education. The Government also exercises decisive powers in respect of selection of staff, curricula, text books, teachers' pay scales etc. Such overall control by the Government over the District School Board may be viewed in the light of the fact that the Government meet about 96% of the total expenditure incurred by the School Board on primary education. In Maharashtra, there are regional differences in this respect. In Western Maharashtra, the District School Boards consist of 12 to 16 members, of whom 2 or 3 are nominated by the State Government. An Administrative Officer is the Chief Executive Officer of the School Board. He is appointed by the State Government and his pay and allowances are met from the State revenues. In the Vidarbha region of Maharashtra, however, it is the Janapada Sabha which administers and Controls primary education. This local body is at the tehsil or taluka level. It has an elected Chairman and a number of elected members who exercise overall control of primary education. The Sub-Divisional Officer of the Revenue Department is the Chief Executive Officer of the Janapada Sabha; and the Assistant Deputy Education Inspector of Schools also helps and guides the Sabha in educational matters. The Janapada Sabha has an Educational Standing Committee which exercises all powers and performs necessary functions on behalf of the Sabha in respect of educational institutions in the area.

3.24 In the four districts *viz.* Belgaum, Bijapur, Dharwar and North Kanara of Mysore, the ex-Bombay pattern of primary education continues under which the Administrative Officer of the School Board looks after the actual administration of primary education. The Educational Inspector inspects and controls high schools and the Deputy Educational Inspector provides technical supervision of primary education in the district.

3.25 In West Bengal, a District School Board has been set up in each district with the District Magistrate, Sub-divisional Magistrate, District Inspector of Schools, Chairman of the Local Board and Chairman and Vice Chairman of the District Board as *ex-officio* members. Representatives of Union Boards, Union Committees, local Panchayats, one or two teachers of the primary schools (elected by the teachers of the primary schools in the district) and two members of scheduled castes are among other members of the Board. The District Inspector of Schools is the *ex-officio* secretary of the Board.

3.26 In Assam, the School Board is at the divisional level and is composed of both official and non-official members. It has one member

each representing Municipal Boards, Managing Committees of the basic, primary and vernacular middle schools recognised by the Government or local authorities and presidents of the Panchayats in the area. Three to four non-official members, of whom at least one should be a woman, are nominated by the Government. The Deputy Inspector of Schools is the *ex-officio* Asst. Secretary of the Board. The term of the School Board is for a period of five years. The Board is responsible for opening new basic schools and their recognition, control and expansion. The Board also takes decisions about appointment, transfer and punishment of teachers of basic schools and looks to the provision of necessary equipment etc.

3.27 In Bihar, there is a District Education Planning Committee for the supervision and implementation of the primary education programmes in the district. It has 11 members with the District Magistrate as its President. Other members are the Administrator of the District Board, Chairman of Municipal Boards, five MLAs and MLCs and one non-official nominated by the State Government. The District Superintendent of Education is the Member-Secretary. The Committee draws up the plan for primary education in the district and also prepares the list of teachers to be appointed in primary schools.

3.28 With the introduction of the Panchayati Raj in Madras, all primary schools have been taken over by the Panchayat Union Councils from the District Boards. These Councils are the managing and the disbursing agencies and deal with appointments and transfer of teachers, disbursement of their pay and allowances, and enforcement of compulsory education for children in the age-group 6-11 years. The former Social Education Organisers are now redesignated as 'Extension Officer' (Education) functioning under the charge of the Panchayat Union Councils. They report to the Panchayat Union Commissioners as to the work done by them. The Panchayat Union Council has a School Advisory Committee with the Panchayat Union Commissioner as its member. The Committee reviews the elementary education programme in general, and the mid-day meals scheme and compulsory education schemes, in particular. At the Panchayat level also, committees have been formed to implement the compulsory education schemes.

3.29 In Madhya Pradesh, there are Janapada Sabhas at tehsil level, which administer the primary schools in the area. The Assistant District Inspector of Schools performs inspection of schools and offers other technical guidance. The functioning of this Sabha has already been explained under the set-up of the Vidharbha region of Maharashtra State.

3.30 In Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir and Kerala, there are no local bodies at the district or circle level specifically concerned with primary education. Matters connected with primary education are, however, discussed in the Development Committees existing at the district and the block levels. In Punjab also, the same type of set-up existed; but with the introduction of Panchayati Raj, the Panchayat Samitis and Zilla Parishads have been given the same responsibility in the matter of primary education that the Block and District Development Committees had.

3.31 It is difficult to assess the influence of non-official leadership on the administration of primary education as exercised through the local self-governing institutions. Advantages of local interest and participation are sometimes offset by disadvantages of local interference by vested interests.

Administrative and Organisational Problems :

3.32 The account given in this chapter of the administrative organisation and supervisory set-up in different States, tends to show that the pattern in its broad frame-work is very similar. The main points of difference among the States appear to be in the degree of intensity of administration and supervision at different levels, the disparity in the levels of educational development of different areas and the special problems currently thrown up by the introduction of Panchayati Raj. A few of the operational problems with which the administrative set-ups at different levels are faced in different States have been broadly indicated in the course of this account. Not all the administrative and supervisory problems have, however, been mentioned in the earlier sections. The more general and important of the problems are summarised in the following paragraphs.

3.33 *Inadequacy of Supervision :* Supervision of primary schools and of the system of primary education in the rural areas has for long, remained one of the unresolved problems. The problem of supervision is both quantitative and qualitative. Though the officers at the State and district levels are indirectly responsible for the administration and supervision of primary education, in actual practice, it is the officer at the lowest level—the circle, range or beat—who performs these functions. It has been pointed out that this charge, in many cases, was too large even prior to the extension of primary education or introduction of compulsory education, with the result that the quality of supervision was not quite adequate. With the rapid extension of primary education in the rural areas, this problem has become all the more acute, especially in areas where an element of compulsion has been introduced. In such areas, the schools have multiplied without a proportionate expansion of the supervisory personnel with the result that inspection and supervision over primary schools have become even more inadequate.

3.34 Under these circumstances, the personnel at the level of the primary administrative unit could only try to meet as far as possible, the quantitative norms laid down for inspection. Very little attention could be paid to the quality. The concept of supervision has not, therefore, improved from the older idea of control and inspection. Guidance and help, which really form the core of supervision, have to be given more emphasis in future for an effective implementation of the national programme of universal compulsory primary education.

3.35 *Regional Disparity in Organisation :* States' Reorganisation has led to the bringing together of different administrative patterns of erstwhile States in Maharashtra, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh and Mysore. This, naturally, created some initial problems of adjustment and coordination, which have not yet been resolved. For instance, in the Marathwada region of Maharashtra, administration is

completely centralised in the State Government; whereas in Western Maharashtra and Vidarbha regions, there is a delegation of authority to the local bodies. Similarly, in old Bombay region of Gujarat, the administration of primary education is entrusted to the District School Boards in rural areas; while in the Kutch region the administration of primary schools is directly under control and management of the State Government. Such variations in the administrative set-up are found in other Re-organised States also. It may be pointed out that political reorganisation in these States has not been followed by administrative integration in the field of education. A uniform pattern of administration, at least within a State, if not in all States of the Union, is a desirable goal especially when the introduction of universal compulsory primary education is being attempted. It is hoped that this will emerge in due course.

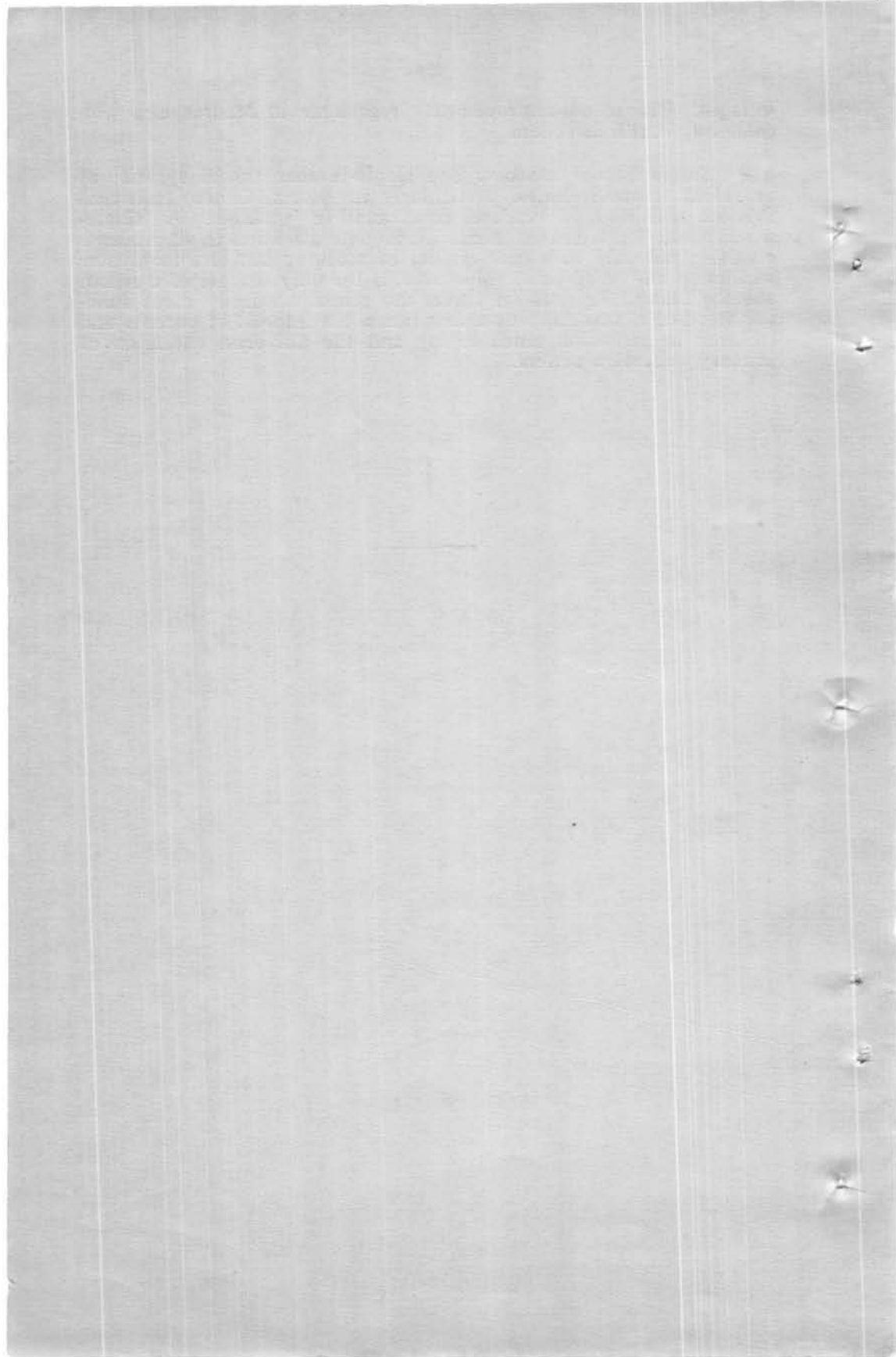
3.36 Location of Schools: Among other problems highlighted during discussions with teachers and officials at different levels, distribution of schools was one mentioned in States like Assam and Himachal Pradesh. It was pointed out that the location of primary schools is not in conformity with the requirements of specific areas. In certain areas the number of schools is relatively disproportionate to the number of school-going children in view of the fact that in certain areas, no school exists even though the number of children justifies the opening of schools.

3.37 Non-availability of suitable teachers: In nearly all the States, qualified teachers are not available in requisite number. It has been stated that the pay-scales offered are not attractive enough to obtain the services of well-qualified teachers. Though in many States certain minimum qualifications and training are stipulated for the primary school teachers, these are not insisted upon because such candidates are not available on the pay-scale offered. The result is that the persons recruited do not always come up to the mark. The problem of non-availability of women-teachers is even more acute. The situation is particularly difficult in States like Assam, Gujarat, U.P. and Bihar.

3.38 Lack of Accommodation: Absence or shortage of residential accommodation, especially for women teachers in the school-villages, aggravates the problem of securing suitable teachers. Though the Education Departments require the primary school teachers to stay in the school villages, this requirement is not strictly enforced, as necessary accommodation is not available in many villages and the Education Department is not in a position to provide such facility on their own account. This leads to a sort of 'absentee-teacherism'. It may also be observed, in this connection, that some teachers themselves prefer to stay in their adjacent native villages where they have other economic interests which they pursue for supplementing their meagre emoluments as teacher. It is, therefore, suggested that the provision of residential accommodation for village school-teachers should be the responsibility of the local village-community. In exceptionally poor and backward areas, however, the Government may have to provide aid to the community. Provision of proper and adequate residential facility may induce more of and better qualified persons, especially women, to come forward to work as teachers in

villages. The school-improvement programme in Madras is a welcome step in this direction.

3.39 *Single-teacher schools*: The single-teacher school system, as prevalent in most States, particularly in Assam, Orissa, Himachal Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh, poses another problem. A single-teacher school more often means inadequate attention to all students resulting not only in a poor quality of teaching but also in greater stagnation and 'drop-outs'. Moreover, if the only teacher of a school absents himself or goes on leave, the school naturally stops functioning; and if this happens a few times, the interest of parents and children in education tends to sag and the universal extension of primary education suffers.



PART II

**PRIMARY EDUCATION AND PROBLEMS IN SELECTED
DISTRICTS**

PART II
PROGRAMS OF EDUCATION AND PROBLEMS IN SELECTED
DISTRICTS

CHAPTER IV

GROWTH IN THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS, ENROLMENT AND TEACHERS

4.1 One of the basic requirements for the growth of education in an area is the availability of the school properly staffed and equipped. Education can spread to the extent these facilities become available. We have studied in this chapter the actual position of these facilities in the field, the extent of coverage of villages by schools, the rate of their growth since 1947, the increase in the number of students and the teacher-student ratio. The position regarding the proportion of villages covered by schools has been assessed with the help of data for all the villages in the sample inspection circles in the selected districts. Further details given later in this and other chapters relate only to the sample villages in the selected circles.

Coverage of villages by schools :

4.2 The starting point for any assessment of the school facilities is the proportion of villages having schools located in them. Information on the number of schools existing in 1960-61 in the circles selected for study and the proportion of villages with and without schools is given in Table. 4.1.

Table 4.1

Proportion of Villages without schools in the sample circles

District	State	Total number of villages in the circle	Number of villages without schools	Percentage of villages without schools
Kurnool	Andhra	53	Nil	..
Cachar	Assam	184	73	39.7
Purnea	Bihar	229	157	68.6
Amreli	Gujarat	49	1	2.0
Bilaspur	H. P.	395	340	86.1
Anantnag	J. & K.	321	156	48.6
Quilon	Kerala	73	36	49.3
Amravati	Maharashtra	31	8	25.8
Tanjore	Madras	33	Nil	..
Saugor	M. P.	217	156	71.9
Mysore	Mysore	112	25	22.3
Sambalpur	Orissa	31	3	9.7
Hissar	Punjab	51	11	21.6
Tonk	Rajasthan	183	116	63.4
Mathura	U. P.	79	26	32.9
Burdwan	West Bengal	89	19	19.2
TOTAL		2130	1127	53.0

The table shows that, on an average, about 53% of the villages in the selected circles/districts do not have schools located in them. The inter-district (and consequently inter-State) variations are very wide because certain States have, for historical and other reasons, advanced more than others in the matter of extending school facilities. All the villages in the selected circles in Kurnool (Andhra) and Tanjore (Madras), have schools in them. Less than 10 per cent of the villages in Amreli (Gujarat) and Sambalpur (Orissa) do not have schools. In Burdwan (West Bengal), Hissar (Punjab), Mysore, (Mysore) and Amravati (Maharashtra), the proportion of villages without schools varies between 19 and 26 per cent. In Mathura (U.P.), Cachar (Assam), Anantnag (J. & K.) and Quilon (Kerala), the proportion varies from 30 to 50 per cent. In Purnea (Bihar), Tonk (Rajasthan), Saugor (M.P.) and Bilaspur (H.P.), this proportion is between 60 and 86 per cent. The proportion of villages without schools has been found to be highest (86%) in Bilaspur (H.P.); and this is understandable in view of the hilly tract, sparse settlement and the poverty of the area.

Distribution of schools according to population-size of villages :

4.3 Provision of a school in a particular area has, in the past, been determined mainly by factors such as the availability of pupils, suitable accommodation and local demand. These in turn are likely to be conditioned, among other things, by the size of the village-community. In order to find out whether there is any correlation between the size of the village and the location of the school, the distribution of school-villages according to the size of their population has been worked out and presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Proportion of villages with schools according to size group of villages.

District	Percentage of villages with schools to total villages in each size class				
	Below 250	250-500	500-1000	1000-2000	Over 2000
Kurnool	N.R.	100.0*	100.0	100.0	100.0
Cachar	19.6	63.6	85.0	87.0	100.0
Purnea	10.4	43.5	64.3	69.2	100.0
Bilaspur	10.1	40.6	100.0	100.0	N.R.
Amreli	83.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Anantnag	8.2	27.9	68.8	91.8	100.0
Quilon	100.0*	40.0	33.3	53.3	68.8
Amravati	Nil	63.6	100.0	100.0	N.R.
Tanjore	N.R.	100.0*	100.0	100.0	100.0
Saugor	7.2	50.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mysore	47.2	82.8	96.8	100.0	100.0
Sambalpur.	Nil	88.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Hissar	Nil	66.7	91.8	100.0	100.0
Tonk	10.2	76.9	100.0	91.7	100.0
Mathura	15.8	68.0	95.7	88.9	100.0
Burdwan	42.1	70.6	90.6	100.0	100.0
TOTAL	12.8	54.5	81.7	89.4	93.7

N.R.—Not relevant, i.e. there was no village in the cell.

*There was only 1 village in these cells and hence the percentage is high and unreliable.

The data in Table 4.2 lend a strong support to the hypothesis formulated above. The proportion of villages having schools increased steadily with the increase in the size of the villages from 12.8% for villages with less than 250 people, to 93.7% for those with more than 2000. In all but one (Quilon-Kerala) of the selected districts, all the villages in the sample circles with more than 2000 population have schools located in them. Although 89.4 per cent of the sample villages with 1000-2000 population have schools, in a majority of the selected circles, all the villages have schools. This is, to a large extent, true of the villages in the size class 500-1000. Quilon is a notable exception with a substantial proportion of bigger villages not having schools. This is due to the special nature of the habitation and settlement in Kerala and the very high density of population. As regards the smaller villages, those with a population below 250 have schools located in only one eighth of their total number, while over one-half of the villages in the class 250-500 have schools. The variation among districts is marked, ranging from 27.9 to 100%. If any general inference can be drawn from these data, it is that by 1960-61 most, if not nearly all, of the villages with a population of 1000 and above have had schools located in them. This is, to a large extent, the situation also in villages in size group 500-1000. Most of the villages without schools have a population less than 500 and are largely accounted for by villages with less than 250 people.

4.4. The problem of small villages without school varies in its nature and dimension, depending on the distribution of villages by size in each area, the distances among settlement, topography, economic condition of the people, and other factors. From the data in Table 4.2, it appears that the problem is of a relatively greater magnitude in districts like Anantnag (J. & K.), Bilaspur (Himachal Pradesh), Purnea (Bihar), Saugor (M.P.), Cachar (Assam), Amravati (Maharashtra), Tonk (Rajasthan), Sambalpur (Orissa), Hissar (Punjab) and Mathura (U.P.). This problem does not seem to be of any significant dimension in some of the southern States (Kerala excepted) where the villages are usually of a relatively larger size. In view of the fact that the small villages present special problems in the way of starting and maintaining schools, it is not possible to say how far new schools can or should be located in the small villages still remaining without a school.

4.5. *Availability of schools in neighbouring villages:* For the extension of primary education, it is not necessary that every village should have at least a school located in it. Even if no school is located in a particular village, it is good enough if it is located within a reasonable walking distance so that children can go and come back every day without undergoing excessive physical strain. The assumption here is that a school can serve an area larger than the village in which it is located. The number of villages covered by school facilities is, therefore, likely to be much larger than the number of school villages. In order to obtain an idea of the existence of facilities in neighbouring villages, the position in the sample school villages has been analysed and presented in Table 4.3. It should be noted that the obverse of the picture presented by these data will correspond to the situation regarding coverage of non-school villages.

Table 4.3

Distribution of school-villages by the number of schools located within a three mile radius

District	Total no. of sample school villages	No. of school villages having				
		One school within 3 miles radius	Two schools within 3 miles radius	Three schools within 3 miles radius	Four or more schools within 3 miles radius	No school within 3 miles radius
Kurnool	5	5	..
Cachar	8	1	7	..
Purnea	8	1	7	..
Amreli	8	..	2	2	4	..
Bilaspur	5	..	1	..	2	2
Anantnag	8	..	2	1	5	..
Quilon	5	1	..	1	3	..
Amravati	8	8	..
Tanjore	5	5	..
Saugor	8	1	2	4	..	1
Mysore	8	..	2	1	5	..
Sambalpur	8	1	7	..
Hissar	8	1	2	2	3	..
Tonk	8	..	1	1	6	..
Mathura	8	2	6	..
Burdwan	8	2	6	..
TOTAL	116	3	12	19	79	3
Percentage	100.0	2.6	10.4	16.4	68.1	2.5

It appears that only 3 out of 116 or 2.5% of the school-villages do not have any school within a radius of 3 miles (2 in Bilaspur-H.P., and 1 in Saugor—M.P.); while another 2.6% have only one school within this distance. But 68.1% have 4 or more schools within 3 miles and 16.4% and 10.4% of the school villages have 3 schools and 2 schools respectively within this radius. Kurnool (Andhra), Cachar (Assam), Purnea (Bihar), Tanjore (Madras), Amravati (Maharashtra) and Sambalpur (Orissa), show a better position than the other selected districts. Bilaspur (H.P.) and Saugor (M.P.) are at the other extreme. All the selected school-villages in Kurnool (Andhra), Amravati (Maharashtra) and Tanjore (Madras), have 4 schools or more within a radius of 3 miles. The data in Table 4.3 tend to show that, in the area around 84.5 per cent of the school-villages in the sample, there are facilities available to non-school villages also. In the area represented by the remaining 15.5 per cent of the villages, the school facilities are probably not adequate. In the area around only 5.1 per cent of the school villages, the facilities are poor.

Selected schools attended by children from neighbouring villages:

4.6 Apart from the location of schools around the selected school villages, there is also the question of the utilisation of school facilities by the neighbouring villages. Data on this point for the selected school villages are presented in Table 4.4 which gives information on the number of schools getting children from the neighbouring villages.

Table 4.4

Distribution of Schools by distance of other villages from which children attend

District	Total no. of schools	Number of schools with children from other villages	Number of sample schools attended by children from other villages and their distances from the schools			
			Below 1 mile	1—2 miles	2—3 miles	Above 3 miles
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kurnool	11
Cachar	10	4	3	2	2	..
Purnea	8	7	2	7	2	..
Amreli	8	1	1
Bilaspur	5	5	3	4	4	1
Anantanag.	11	6	4	2
Quilon	6	6	3	4	1	..
Amravati	8	5	1	3	1	..
Tanjore	6	2	1	1
Saugor	7	6	1	4	5	..
Mysore	10	1	1
Samabalpur.	10	5	..	2	2	1
Hissar	8	4	1	3
Tonk	8	6	3	4	2	..
Mathura	8	4	3	4	1	..
Burdwan	8	4	2	3	1	..
TOTAL	132	66	29	43	21	2
Percentage		50.0	43.9	65.2	31.8	3.0

In Kurnool (Andhra), Amreli (Gujarat) and Mysore practically none of the selected schools have children attending from neighbouring villages almost all the villages in the circles have schools in two of these districts. In Tanjore (Madras), all the villages have schools; but 2 out of 6 sample schools get children from other school villages also. This is due to the very large size of villages which usually have a number of hamlets, as a result of which children from certain habitations within a village find it more convenient to attend school in the adjoining revenue village than in their own. All the selected schools in Bilaspur (H.P.) and Quilon (Kerala) 6 out of 7 in Saugor and 7 out of 8 in Purnea and 6 out of 8 in Tonk get children from other villages. The proportion of villages not having schools is high in these districts except Quilon. All the selected schools in Quilon (Kerala) are attended by children from other villages because of the typical habitation pattern of the area. The proportion of schools being attended by children from the neighbouring villages is somewhat higher in Anantanag (J. & K.) and Amravati (Maharashtra) than in the remaining areas.

4.7. The factors governing the utilisation of the school facilities available in a village by the residents of neighbouring villages are diverse. The high proportion of schools not getting any children from the neighbouring villages is partly due to lack of easy and convenient means of communication and transport and partly due to existence of schools in the adjoining villages themselves. The figures in Table 4.4 further show that only about 3% of the selected schools were attended by children from villages beyond 3 miles,

32% by children from villages 2 to 3 miles distant. The percentage is much higher for villages 2 miles or less distant from the selected schools. This shows that parents are reluctant to send their children to schools located beyond two miles from their villages.

Expansion of school facilities :

4.8. The expansion of school facilities in the selected villages may give an idea of the expansion of these in the selected districts. For this purpose, we studied the number of schools, the staffing-position and the number of children enrolled per school at stated intervals.

Table 4.5 gives data about the growth in the number of schools in the selected villages. The base of comparison has been taken to be the position on March 31, 1947. The extent of growth has been estimated at three important points since 1947. The first point after March, 1947 is March, 1951, which precedes the Plan period. The other two points—March, 1956, and 1961—relate to the end of the First and the Second Plan periods.

Table 4.5

Growth in the number of schools in the selected villages

District	No. of schools as on 31st March				Ave- rage no. of schools per vil- lage in 1961	Avr. size of villa- age	Index of growth of schools with 1947 as base		
	1947	1951	1956	1961			31-3-51	31-3-56	31-3-61
Kurnool . . .	8	10	11	11	2.2	1,371	125	137	137
Cachar . . .	5	6	8	10	1.3	518	120	160	200
Purnea . . .	5	5	5	8	1.3	527	100	100	160
Amreli . . .	6	6	7	8	1.0	895	100	117	133
Bilaspur . . .	1	1	5	5	1.0	363	100	500	500
Anantnag . . .	2	3	6	11	1.4	397	150	300	550
Quilon . . .	4	6	6	6	1.2	1,355	150	150	150
Amravati . . .	3	5	7	8	1.0	748	167	233	267
Tanjore . . .	3	4	5	6	1.2	1,636	133	167	200
Saugor . . .	1	3	7	7	0.9	1,166	300	700	700
Mysore . . .	8	9	10	10	1.3	951	112	125	125
Sambalpur . . .	3	4	10	10	1.3	724	133	333	333
Hissar . . .	1	2	7	8	1.0	813	200	700	800
Tonk . . .	1	1	2	8	1.0	687	100	200	800
Mathura	5	6	8	1.0	480	..	120	160
Burdwan . . .	6	6	7	8	1.0	563	100	117	133
TOTAL . . .	57	76	109	132	1.1	747.6	133	191	232

The above table shows that, for every school existing in the sample areas on 31st March, 1947, there were 1.3 schools on the corresponding date in 1951, 1.9 in 1956 and 2.3 in 1961. The increase has been more pronounced in Anantnag (J. & K.), Tonk (Rajasthan), Hissar (Punjab), Saugor (M.P.) and Bilaspur (H.P.) than in the remaining areas. These are the districts where the rate of growth in the number of schools has been much higher than the overall average. In Mysore, Amreli (Gujarat), Kurnool (Andhra) and Burdwan (West Bengal), the growth rate has been much lower than or around the overall average. The data show unmistakably that the relatively

backward areas recorded greater progress in the matter of opening of schools, as it was in these areas that the need for expansion was most urgently recognized.

4.9. The data in Table 4.5 also reveal the unevenness of the progress recorded in the expansion of schools in different periods between 1947 and 1961. For all the sample villages taken together, the growth of schools was to the extent of 33.3% in 1947-51, 43.4% in 1951-56 and 21.1% in 1956-61. In other words, the rate of expansion has been highest during the first Plan period and lowest during the Second Plan period. However, the position in the selected districts reflects considerable variations from this pattern, as different districts have recorded expansion of schools at different rates in these three periods. But an analysis of the course of growth in each district, with the small number of schools existing in 1947 as base, would give a distorted picture. That is why an attempt has been made in Table 4.6 to give data on the distribution of the sample districts by the period in which the maximum proportion of the new schools opened between 1947 and 1961 had been actually started.

Table 4.6

Distribution of districts according to period of maximum growth rate of schools started between 1947-61

Name of district with corresponding percentage increase*			
Pre-Plan (1947-51)		First Plan (1951-56)	Second Plan (1956-61)
Quilon . 100		Bilaspur . 100	Purnea 100
Kurnool . 68		Sambalpur . 86	Tonk . 86
Mathura . 63		Hissar . 71	Anantnag . 56
Mysore . 50		Saugor . 68	Amreli . 50
Amravati 40		Amreli . 50	Burdwan . 50
Tanjore . 33		Mysore . 50	Cachar . 40
		Burdwan . 50	Tanjore . 33
		Cachar . 40	
		Amravati . 40	
		Tanjore . 33	
Over-all average for all districts	25.3	44.0	30.7

It appears from the data in Table 4.6 that when we take into account only the schools started during 1947-61 and analyse the rate of growth in the three periods, the picture reveals a much higher achievement in the Plan period. The first Plan period recorded the opening of the highest proportion (44%) of these schools, followed by the Second Plan period (31%) and, then, by the pre-plan period (25%). These data indicate that the rate of expansion of new schools jumped up in the First Plan period and then slumped to some extent in the Second.

*The percentage figure has been worked out for each district by dividing the number of schools started in a period by the total started between 1947 and 1961. Districts showing the same rate in two or three of the periods have been shown in each of these. Districts showing a clear-cut maximum in any period have been shown only under the corresponding period.

4.10 In the areas relatively better served by schools such as Quilon and Kurnool, all or a large proportion of the new schools were started before the Plan period (1947-51). Mathura also falls in this group. In Bilaspur, Sambalpur, Hissar and Saugor, the new schools had been started mainly during the First Plan period, while in Purnea, Tonk and Anantnag the corresponding period coincided with the Second Plan. Six districts, Mysore, Burdwan, Amreli, Amravati, Cachar and Tanjore did not show any well-defined peak. It is obvious from the above data that the rate of opening of schools had slowed down considerably towards the end of the fifties. It is difficult to say in the absence of other data, whether this slowing down indicates saturation of the areas or not.

Population covered by the Schools :

4.11 The number of schools in the sample villages is likely to vary according to the size of the villages, the density of population and the location of schools in the adjoining areas. In order to find out the population served by the sample schools, the average population per school in the school-villages has been worked out and compared with the average for the relevant Inspector's Circles in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7

Population per school in the sample school-villages and Circles.

District	Average size of the sample village	Average no. of schools per village (1961)	Average population per sample school (1961)	Average population per school in the circle
Kurnool	1371	2.2	623.2	1031.4
Cachar	518	1.3	398.5	964.2
Purnea	527	1.0	527.0	1341.6
Amreli	895	1.0	895.0	809.4
Bilaspur	363	1.0	363.0	1016.7
Anantnag.	897	1.4	640.7	1489.0
Quilon	1355	1.2	1129.2	3297.7
Amravati	748	1.0	748.0	826.0
Tanjore	1636	1.2	1363.3	1025.7
Saugor	1166	0.9	1295.6	2836.5
Mysore	951	1.3	731.5	785.3
Sambalpur	724	1.3	556.9	885.3
Hissar	813	1.0	813.0	2042.5
Tonk	687	1.0	687.0	930.9
Mathura	480	1.0	480.0	1003.9
Burdwan	563	1.0	563.0	1227.3
TOTAL	747.6	1.1	679.6	1303.9

The overall average population of the school-villages per sample school is 680 as compared with 1304 persons per school for the circle. But in districts, where a fairly large number of schools had existed for quite some time, such as Amreli, Amravati, Tanjore and Mysore, there is no striking disparity between the average population per school in the sample school villages and the average population per school in the Circles concerned. This tends to show that most of the villages in the sample circles in these district have been fairly well covered by schools. Further, the data in the above table indicate a

tendency for a school to be located in a village with population ranging between 500 and 800. But there is no correlation between the size of the village and the number of schools in it. For example, the average number of schools does not increase proportionately with the size of the village in districts like Tanjore, Amreli, Quilon and Amravati. In these areas of high density, the tendency has been for the enrolment to rise per school rather than the opening of new schools.

4.12 *Increase in enrolment of children in the sample schools:* In view of the rapid growth in the number of schools in the rural areas between 1947 and 1961, it would be natural to expect a rapid increase in the total number of children enrolled in schools in the sample villages. The particulars about the increase in the total enrolment in the sample schools in different periods since 1947 are given in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8
Increase in the total enrolment in the sample schools

District	Percentage increase or decrease in enrolment in each period		
	1947-51	1951-56	1956-61
Kurnool	27.6	21.8	12.6
Purnea	72.7	126.3	643.0
Amreli	83.9	-7.1	6.3
Bilaspur	-24.3	466.0	11.3
Anantnag	N.A.	833.3	106.8
Quilon	57.0	82.1	19.8
Amravati	65.6	73.8	25.9
Tanjore	63.2	34.8	81.0
Saugor	747.4	141.0	48.2
Mysore	16.9	29.1	-5.5
Sambalpur	568.4	108.2	127.6
Hissar	142.1	128.3	43.5
Tonk	105.3	64.1	190.6
Mathura	463.8	-0.4	54.2
Burdwan	64.3	62.0	10.4
TOTAL	61.6	58.3	40.1
INDEX OF ENROLMENT WITH 1947-100	161.6	255.8	358.4

It is noticed that the increase in the rate of enrolment in the sample schools has shown as steady decrease from 61.6% in 1947-51 to 58.3% in 1951-56 and 40.1% in 1956-61. Many districts do not conform to the overall pattern. The different districts have, however, recorded maximum rate of growth in enrolment at different periods. Maximum expansion of enrolment was observed in Saugor, Sambalpur, Mathura and Amreli during the pre-Plan period, whereas in Anantnag. Bilaspur, Quilon and Mysore, it was recorded during the First Plan period. In three districts Purnea, Tonk and Tanjore, enrolment has risen highest during the Second Plan period.

Table 4.9

Growth in the number of children enrolled per sample school—1947-61

District	Boys				Girls				Total			
	31-3-47	31-3-51	31-3-56	31-3-61	31-3-47	31-3-51	31-3-56	31-3-61	31-3-47	31-3-51	31-3-56	31-3-61
	Average No. per school	Index with 1947 as base	Index with 1947 as base	Index with 1947 as base	Average No. per school	Index with 1947 as base	Index with 1947 as base	Index with 1947 as base	Average No. per school	Index with 1947 as base	Index with 1947 as base	Index with 1947 as base
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Kurnool .	43.3	98.2	97.5	111.5	25.5	128.2	114.1	125.5	68.8	109.3	103.6	116.7
Purnea .	22.0	163.6	154.5	205.9	450.0*	1285.0*	22.01	172.7	195.5	322.7
Amreli .	35.5	231.0	113.2	134.9	62.2	33.3	69.6	46.9	97.7	105.1	85.5	80.8
Bilaspur .	56.0	85.7	95.7	101.1	14.0	35.7	45.7	72.9	70.0	75.7	85.7	95.4
Anantnag .	49.8@	84.3	111.4	81.9	7.6@	78.9	190.7	155.2	57.4@	83.6	121.9	91.6
Quilon .	79.5	106.0	183.8	212.2	62.5	102.9	199.2	248.8	142.0	104.6	190.6	228.3
Amravati .	31.5	109.5	125.1	105.7	23.7	111.8	169.2	197.5	55.2	110.5	144.0	145.1
Tanjore .	48.4	164.7	127.3	163.2	23.3	160.5	141.6	185.8	71.7	163.2	131.9	170.6
Saugor .	17.0	200.0	175.3	261.8	2.0	98.0	930.0	1365.0	19.0	282.1	254.7	377.9
Mysore .	34.5	95.4	105.8	98.5	16.0	96.9	129.4	125.0	50.5	95.8	113.3	108.1
Sambalpur .	18.0	173.9	151.7	218.3	1.0	1100.0	980.0	2080.0	19.0	222.6	197.9	316.3
Hissar .	15.0	174.7	162.7	232.7	13.5	61.5	77.8	76.3	28.5	121.1	122.8	158.6
Tonk .	37.0	100.0	72.2	33.2	1.0	200.0	520.0*	640.0	38.0	102.6	84.2	97.9
Mathura .	47.0	78.3	55.3	76.6	160.3	126.0*	47.0	93.8	80.2	96.2
Burdwan .	56.1@	71.3	92.9	84.5	18.7	113.9	176.5	186.1	74.8@	81.9	113.8	109.9
ALL DISTRICTS	41.9	110.5	106.4	115.5	24.9	92.4	113.3	116.5	66.8	103.7	109.0	115.9

@Estimated

*Base year—1951

4.13 *Average enrolment of children per school*: The analysis of the growth of enrolment becomes more meaningful when we look at the average position per sample school in the different districts at different points of time. Relevant data are presented in Table 4.9. The average number of children enrolled per school in our sample has increased from 66.8 in 1947 to 77.4 in 1961. The percentage increase works out to about 16. Moreover, the figures for boys and girls do not differ significantly. The increase in the average enrolment per school is relatively small; but the number of schools in the selected villages has risen by 132 per cent over this period. In other words, the growth in the enrolment of children in schools over this period has come about much more through the opening of the new schools than through an increase in the roll-strength per school. The growth has thus been extensive in space rather than intensive in scope if one is to infer for the whole cross-section represented by the sample.

4.14 Inter-district variation in the increase in average enrolment per school is considerable. The average number of students on roll per school has increased over three times during the period 1947-61 in Saugor (M.P.), Purnea (Bihar) and Sambalpur (Orissa). Sambalpur and Saugor have also recorded large increase in the number of schools. On the other hand, in five districts, Amreli (Gujarat), Bilaspur (H.P.), Tonk (Rajasthan), Mathura (U.P.) and Mysore, the average enrolment per school in 1961 was either more or less the same or lower than in 1947. It is significant to note that of these districts, Amreli (Gujarat), Mysore and Kurnool (Andhra) do not also record substantial increase in the number of schools.

4.15. Data pertaining to the increase in the enrolment of children during the First and the Second Plan periods are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10

Growth in the average enrolment per sample school during the Plan periods.

District	First Plan 1951-56	Second Plan 1956-61
Kurnool	-5.2	12.6
Purnea	13.2	65.1
Amreli	-18.7	-5.5
Bilaspur	13.2	11.3
Anantnag	45.8	-24.8
Quilon	32.1	19.8
Amravati	30.3	1.0
Tanjore	-19.2	29.2
Saugor	-9.7	48.3
Mysore	18.2	-5.6
Sambalpur	-11.2	59.8
Hissar	1.4	29.1
Tonk	-17.9	16.3
Mathura	-14.5	19.9
Burdwan	38.8	-3.5
TOTAL	5.1	6.3

It appears from the data that the growth of enrolment per sample school during the First and the Second Plan periods has been small and does not differ much between the two periods. The respective figures are 5.1 and 6.3 per cent. However the overall percentage does not reveal the variations among the districts. For example, in about half of the districts (8), the increase in enrolment during the Second Plan period has been much above the overall average, the figures being very high for Purnea (65), Sambalpur (59.8) and Saugor (48.3). Progress in enrolment had been higher in the First Plan period as compared to the Second in as many as 6 districts, the notable ones being Quilon (82.1) Anantnag (45.8) Burdwan (38.8) and Amravati (30.3). In the former group of districts, increase in enrolment became stepped up in the Second Plan period, whereas it was the other way in the latter group.

Enrolment of boys :

4.16 As may be noticed in table 4.9, there has not been a steady increase in the enrolment of boys in the sample schools during the different periods between 1947-61. It had shown a tendency to fall in 1956, the index figure being 106.4 as compared with 110.5 for the year 1951. In districts such as Purnea and Hissar which had not shown any decrease in total enrolment during 1956, lesser number of boys were on rolls in 1956 than in 1951. Similarly during 1961 the enrolment of boys had declined in Amravati although there was an overall increase in total enrolment in the sample schools. During the pre-plan period, Amreli and Hissar recorded higher rate of enrolment of boys than other periods. In other respects, the course of enrolment of boys in the sample districts follows more or less the pattern described earlier for all children.

Enrolment of Girls :

4.17 The enrolment of girls has risen uniformly over the period 1947-61 as observed for all children but the enrolment indices for girls and all children differ significantly during 1951 and 1956. The trend of enrolment of girls in all the districts except five (Amreli, Hissar, Tonk, Mathura and Burdwan) has generally followed the pattern noticed for all children. Of these, Hissar and Mathura recorded a fall in enrolment of girls in 1961 as compared with the position in 1956.

Proportion of girls on roll :

4.18 In order to find out whether the expansion of school facilities had facilitated education of girls, the proportion of girls to total school children was examined over the period 1947-61. Relevant data are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Proportion of Girls to total on roll in the sample schools

District	Percentage of girls on rolls in			
	1947	1951	1956	1961
Kurnool	37.0	43.5	40.8	39.8
Purnea	37.0	5.3	17.1	36.2
Amreli	63.7	20.2	51.8	37.0
Bilaspur	20.0	9.4	10.7	15.3
Anantnag	N.A.	N.A.	20.7	22.5
Quilon	44.0	43.3	46.0	48.0
Amravati	43.0	43.4	50.5	58.4
Tanjore	32.6	31.9	34.9	35.4
Saugor	10.5	36.6	38.4	38.1
Mysore	31.6	32.2	36.3	37.0
Sambalpur	5.3	26.0	26.1	34.6
Hissar	47.4	23.9	30.2	22.8
Tonk	2.6	5.1	16.4	17.2
Mathura	Nil	16.6	31.1	20.4
Burdwan	24.6	34.8	38.8	42.4
TOTAL	37.5	33.2	38.7	37.5

There was no increase in the proportion of girls among school-children, over the period 1947-61, in spite of the rapid growth of schools in the rural areas. The girls constituted 37.5% of the total school-children in 1947 as against 33.2 in 1951, 38.7 in 1956 and 37.5 in 1961. The pattern among districts is somewhat different. In 5 of the districts, Amravati, Tanjore, Sambalpur, Tonk and Burdwan, the proportion of girls on roll has shown a steady rise over the period 1947-61. If only the plan-period is considered, a large number of districts (9) have shown a steady growth in proportion of girls among school-children. The increase is more prominent in Purnea and Tonk than in others. As for the position in 1961, Amravati and Quilon recorded a very high proportion of girls on roll, the percentage figures being 58.4 and 48.0 respectively. At the other end are 5 districts, Bilaspur, Tonk, Mathura, Hissar and Anantnag, where girls constituted only 15 to 25 per cent of the total school-children. During the period 1956-61, the proportion of girls has declined somewhat in 4 districts.

Number of teachers in the sample schools :

4.19 The distribution of the sample schools according to the number of teachers is given in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

Distribution of schools according to number of teachers

District	Number of schools	Percentage of school having the following no. of teachers					
		One	Two	Three	Four	Five	More than five
Kurnool	11	36.4	45.4	9.1	9.1
Cachar	10	50.0	50.0
Purnea	8	75.0	12.5	12.5
Amreli	8	25.0	37.5	25.0	..	12.5	..
Bilaspur	5	..	80.0	20.0
Anantnag.	11	54.5	18.2	9.1	18.2
Quilon	6	16.7	16.7	66.6
Amravati	8	25.0	25.0	25.0	12.5	..	12.5
Tanjore	6	..	16.7	66.6	16.7
Saugor	7	42.9	42.9	..	14.2
Mysore	10	80.0	..	10.0	10.0
Sambalpur	10	60.0	20.0	20.0
Hissar	8	62.5	37.5
Tonk	8	75.0	12.5	12.5
Mathura	8	62.5	37.5
Burdwan	8	..	25.0	50.0	12.5	..	12.5
PERCENTAGE		43.9	28.0	15.2	4.6	1.5	6.8

The single-teacher school is found to be very common, accounting for 44% of the total. None of the sample schools was single-teacher schools in Bilaspur, Quilon, Tanjore and Burdwan. The proportion of single-teacher schools is much above the overall average in Purnea (75%), Mysore (80%), Sambalpur (60%), Tonk (75%) and Mathura (62.5%). Schools with two teachers accounted for 28% of the total but constituted a larger proportion ranging from 42% to 80%, in Bilaspur, Cachar, Kurnool and Saugor. Over one fourth of the total sample schools have three or more teachers and these schools are concentrated mostly in Quilon, Tanjore, Burdwan and Amreli.

4.20 *Teachers in Schools* : Table 4.13 presents a picture of the number of teachers working in the schools in each of the four separate years under reference.

Table 4.13

Teaching-staff in the selected schools—1947-61

District	No. of teachers as on 31st March							
	1947		1951		1956		1961	
	Total	Avr. per school	Total	Avr. per school	Total	Avr. per school	Total	Avr. per school
Kurnool . . .	11	1.4	18	1.8	19	1.7	22	2.0
Cachar . . .	4	1.0	4	1.0	11	1.4	15	1.5
Purnea . . .	5	1.3	5	1.3	8	1.6	11	1.4
Amreli . . .	15	2.5	13	2.2	14	2.0	18	2.3
Bilaspur . . .	3	3.0	2	2.0	8	1.6	11	2.2
Anantnag	1	1.0	4	1.0	18	1.6
Quilon . . .	13	3.3	17	2.9	33	5.5	45	7.5
Amravati . . .	4	1.3	9	1.8	25	2.3	19	2.4
Tanjore . . .	5	1.3	10	3.3	16	3.2	19	3.2
Saugor . . .	1	1.0	4	1.3	10	1.4	13	1.9
Mysore . . .	9	1.0	12	1.2	13	1.3	13	1.3
Sambalpur . . .	1	1.0	6	2.0	11	1.4	15	1.5
Hissar	2	1.0	7	1.0	11	1.4
Tonk . . .	2	2.0	1	1.0	3	1.5	14	1.8
Mathura . . .	1	1.0	8	1.3	10	1.7	14	1.8
Burdwan . . .	4	1.3	19	3.2	24	3.4	27	3.4
TOTAL . . .	78	1.6	131	1.7	216	2.0	285	2.2

Whereas the number of schools in the selected villages has increased from 48, in the year ending March 1947, to 132 (2.8 times), in the year ending March 1961, the number of teachers working in these schools has increased from 78 to 285 (3.7 times) in the same period. The average number of teachers per school has registered an improvement from 1.6, in the year ending March 1947, to 2.2 in the year ending March 1961. This is understandable because the new schools do not all at once attract students in large numbers. Moreover, the newly opened schools generally start as single-teacher schools and the number of teachers is increased with the increase in enrolment. Among the districts, Quilon (Kerala) shows the highest number of teachers per school (7.5), next come Burdwan (3.4), Tanjore (3.2) and Amravati (2.4). In the other districts Kurnool, Cachar, Purnea, Anantnag, Saugor, Mysore, Sambalpur, Hissar, Tonk and Mathura, the average number of teachers per school is below the overall average.

4.21 *Student-teacher ratio*: With a two-and-a-half fold rise in the number of schools in the sample area between 1947 and 1961, the number of teachers would also increase. Has it increased in proportion to enrolment? Depending on how it has increased, one can understand whether expansion has meant more of work-load on teachers or not. In order to assess the change in this aspect, the

student-teacher ratio in the sample schools has been worked out and is presented in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14

Student-teacher ratio in sample schools in specified years 1947-61.

District	Number of children per teacher as on 31st March			
	1947	1951	1956	1961
Kurnool	49.1	36.6	41.9	40.2
Purnea	16.9	29.2	26.2	54.6
Amreli	37.6	44.6	41.8	35.9
Bilaspur	23.3	53.0	37.5	30.4
Anantnag	30.0	70.0	32.9
Quilon	43.0	51.3	49.2	43.2
Amravati	36.9	30.5	31.8	29.7
Tanjore	55.2	35.4	29.6	31.4
Saugor	12.7	53.7	30.2	31.3
Mysore	29.8	24.6	30.2	30.0
Sambalpur	19.0	21.2	26.9	40.0
Hissar	28.5	26.5	26.9	25.1
Tonk	19.0	19.5	21.3	20.7
Mathura	47.0	34.0	22.2	25.1
Burdwan	19.2	25.0	24.2
TOTAL	26.0	29.7	30.7	31.2

It appears from the data in Table 4.14 that for all the schools in the sample areas in the selected districts, the student-teacher ratio rose from 26 in 1947 to 31.2 in 1961. The increase was much larger (from 26 to 29.7) between 1947 and 1951 and seems to have progressively slowed down in the Plan-period. If a ratio of 30 is accepted as a workable norm, the position at the overall level seems to indicate a slightly heavier work-load.

4.22 The selected districts show divergent patterns in the behaviour of the student-teacher ratio over the period between 1947 and 1961. It has decreased significantly in Kurnool, Amravati, Tanjore, Mathura and Hissar, increased in Purnea, Bilaspur, Saugor, Sambalpur; and has remained more or less the same in the other districts. Between 1956 and 1961, however, it has increased very largely in Sambalpur and Purnea and perceptibly in Tanjore, Saugor and Mathura. In the other districts, it has come down or remained steady. If the data in Table 4.14 are compared with those in Table 4.6, it will be seen that this ratio has jumped up in the initial spurt of expansion of school facilities in almost all districts but particularly in the relatively backward ones. In the second Plan period, it has tended generally to decline.

4.23 Looking at the data for 1961, it appears that the highest ratio is reported in Purnea (55), while Kurnool, Quilon and Sambalpur

have an average around 40 pupils per teacher. It was found to be lower than 30 in Tonk, Hissar, Mathura and Burdwan. It appears that there was a case for increasing the number of teachers in about one-half of the districts where the ratio was much above 30. There was, however, scope for an increase in enrolment in schools without increasing the staff in one-fourth of the districts studied.

4.24 *Enrolment of Harijan children*: In view of the high illiteracy and ignorance among the backward classes, especially the Harijans, and their so-called apathy towards education of children, it would be useful to analyse the proportion of sample schools having Harijan children, the number of Harijan children on roll and their proportion to total school children.

4.25 Particulars about the proportion of sample schools having Harijan children during 1951 to 1961 are given in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15

Proportion of Sample Schools reporting Harijan children

District	Percentage of schools reporting Harijan children on roll		
	1951	1956	1961
Kurnool	30.0	36.4	27.3
Purnea	Nil	40.0	66.7
Amreli	85.7	75.0	66.7
Bilaspur	100.0	80.0	100.0
Quilon	100.0	100.0	100.0
Amravati	71.4	88.9	90.0
Tanjore	40.0	33.3	57.1
Saugor	75.0	100.0	100.0
Mysore	58.3	58.3	75.0
Sambalpur	100.0	87.5	90.0
Hissar	50.0	77.8	80.0
Tonk	66.7	33.3	70.0
Mathura	16.7	57.1	55.6
Burdwan	100.0	100.0	87.5
TOTAL	60.3	69.2	74.2

Note : Data are not available for Cachar. In Anantnag, there were no Harijans in the sample or adjoining villages.

The proportion of sample schools having Harijan children on roll registered a steady increase from 60.3% in 1951 to 74.2% in 1961. In four districts, Burdwan, Sambalpur, Quilon and Bilaspur, all the schools in the sample villages reported having Harijan children on roll even as early as 1951. In the last mentioned district, the percentage figure is somewhat misleading as the number of schools reporting is only one. Among the districts with low percentage figures are Purnea (Nil), Mathura (16.7), Kurnool (30) and Tanjore (40). By 1961, the position considerably improved in almost all the districts

except Kurnool where only 27.3% of schools reported Harijan children on roll.

4.26 *Number of Harijan children on roll*: The percentage of sample schools reporting enrolment of Harijan children by itself cannot give a true picture of the extent of the utilisation of the school-facilities by the Harijans. A better index would be the number of Harijan children on roll at different points of time and its proportion to total. Data about the proportion of children attending schools from the sample families according to economic groups are presented in Chapter VII. Here the data about the number of children on roll in the sample schools as obtained from the school records for the period 1951-56, is given in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16
Enrolment of Harijan children in Sample schools.

District	No. of Harijan children on roll			Index of enrolment with 1951 as base	
	1951	1956	1961	1956	1961
Kurnool	25	30	16	120.0	64.0
Purnea	4	53
Amreli	33	31	39	93.9	118.2
Bilaspur	2	37	50	1850.0	2500.0
Quilon	114	225	276	197.4	242.1
Amravati	69	126	185	182.6	268.1
Tanjore	40	31	131	77.5	327.5
Saugor	28	72	107	257.1	382.1
Mysore	66	101	97	153.0	147.0
Sambalpur.	29	36	79	124.1	272.4
Hissar	8	38	50	475.0	625.0
Tonk	4	12	79	300.0	1975.0
Mathura	18	6	25	33.0	138.9
Burdwan	28	86	53	307.1	189.3
TOTAL	464	835	1240	180.0	267.2

The total number of Harijan children enrolled in all the sample schools increased from 464 in 1951 to 1,240 in 1961. The percentage increase works out to 267.2. Progress recorded was more or less the same during the two Plan-periods. Inter-district variations are, however, marked. In Purnea, none of the sample schools had any Harijan children on rolls in 1951; whereas in Bilaspur, Tonk and Hissar, the number of Harijan children on roll was very small. Rate of enrolment of Harijan children was much higher during the First Plan period than in the Second in Hissar, Burdwan, Saugor, Quilon and Bilaspur. In a few districts, Tonk, Purnea, Tanjore, and Sambalpur, enrolment of Harijan children made considerable progress during the Second Plan period. Kurnool is an exception where enrolment of Harijan children had decreased in 1961 as compared to 1956 and 1951. By and large, the enrolment of children seems to be showing a progressive increase.

4.27 Proportion of Harijan children to total is an important index of the extent the school-facilities have been taken advantage of by the Harijans. The relevant data are given in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17

Proportion of Harijan children on roll to total in the relevant Sample schools

District	1951		1956		1961	
	Total on roll	% of Harijan children	Total on roll	% of Harijan children	Total on roll	% of Harijan children
Kurnool	62	9.7	59	10.2
Purnea	45	6.7	408	9.8
Amreli . . .	445	6.1	309	6.1	312	5.8
Bilaspur . . .	53	3.8	253	14.6	334	15.0
Quilon . . .	892	12.8	1624	13.9	1945	14.2
Amravati . . .	260	25.8	470	26.4	524	29.4
Tanjore . . .	351	11.4	417	2.9	617	21.2
Saugor . . .	114	18.4	292	21.2	412	18.4
Mysore . . .	253	22.9	257	23.0	389	19.8
Sambalpur . . .	127	22.8	234	15.0	428	15.9
Hissar . . .	29	6.9	167	18.6	215	17.2
Tonk . . .	28	7.1	41	26.8	255	27.0
Mathura . . .	78	23.1	134	4.5	227	11.0
Burdwan . . .	368	7.6	596	14.4	607	8.7
TOTAL . . .	2998	13.6	5001	14.8	6732	16.1

The overall picture that emerges shows only a small increase. The proportion of Harijan children to the total in schools constituted 13.6% in 1951, 14.8% in 1956 and 16.1% in 1961. The increase in percentage recorded over the years has thus been somewhat small. If we consider the position in individual districts, five districts recorded a better performance as the proportion of Harijan children in schools in those areas in 1961 was much higher than in 1951. The proportion of Harijan children declined, however, between 1951 and 1961 in Mysore (Mysore), Sambalpur (Orissa), Mathura (U.P.) and Amreli (Gujarat). In the remaining districts it remained more or less stationary. Tanjore is an exception which recorded good progress during the Second Plan.

Increase in enrolment of Harijan and non-Harijan children :

4.28 In an earlier paragraph, we have discussed the increase in the enrolment of Harijan children in the sample schools during 1951-61. An attempt can now be made to compare the increase in the enrolment of Harijan children over the years with those of non-Harijans. The relevant data are presented in Table 4.18.

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Table 4.18

Percentage increase or decrease in enrolment of Harijan and Non-Harijan children in the sample schools.

District	1951-56		1956-61		1951-61	
	Harijan children	Other children	Harijan children	Other children	Harijan children	Other children
Kurnool	20.0	21.9	-40.7	15.5	-36.0	40.8
Purnea	115.8	1225.0	614.6	..	1442.0
Anreli	-6.1	-7.1	25.8	5.3	18.2	-2.2
Bilaspur	1750.0	415.7	35.1	8.0	2400.0	456.9
Quilon	97.4	80.3	22.7	19.1	142.1	114.5
Amravati	82.6	71.7	46.8	20.8	168.1	108.4
Tanjore	-22.5	42.1	322.6	64.0	227.5	133.1
Saugor	157.1	137.6	48.6	48.1	282.1	251.9
Mysore	53.0	25.8	-4.0	-5.8	47.0	18.4
Sambalpur.	24.1	132.6	119.4	128.9	172.4	432.6
Hissar	375.0	113.1	31.6	45.1	625.0	209.2
Tonk	200.0	56.8	558.3	152.6	1875.0	295.9
Mathura	-66.7	4.5	316.7	48.1	33.9	57.6
Burdwan	207.1	50.0	-38.4	18.6	80.3	77.9
TOTAL	80.0	50.3	48.5	34.3	167.2	101.9

The above data lend support to a few broad generalisations. First, in both the categories, the rate of increase in enrolment was higher during the First Plan period than in the Second. Moreover the growth of enrolment of Harijan children was higher in each of the two plan-periods than that of non-Harijan children. The percentage figures for the Harijan children for the two reference periods are 80.0 and 48.5 respectively as compared with 50.3 and 34.3 for the other children. Inter-district variations do not show any uniform trend as conditions are likely to differ from district to district. Considering the position during the Second Plan period, it is noticed that, in half of the districts, the percentage increase in the enrolment of Harijan children is found to be much higher than that of Non-Harijan children. The opposite tendency is noticeable in four districts viz., Burdwan, Hissar, Kurnool and Sambalpur. In districts such as Purnea, Tanjore and Tonk, the increase, in enrolment of Harijan children has been very outstanding. During the First Plan period, progress in the enrolment of Harijan children has been noteworthy in Bilaspur, Hissar, Tonk and Burdwan. On the other hand, the enrolment of Harijan children had declined towards the end of the First Plan period in 4 districts. Purnea is the only district which did not report any Harijan child in the sample schools during the First Plan period. If we consider the enrolment position during the two plan periods (1951-61), it is noticed that increase in enrolment of Harijan children was to the extent of 167% as compared to 102% for the other children. The percentage increase in enrolment of Harijan is uniformly higher than that of non-Harijans in all the districts except Kurnool, Sambalpur and Mathura. Moreover, difference in increase in enrolment of Harijan and non-Harijan children is very marked in Bilaspur, Tonk, Hissar, and Tanjore.

CHAPTER V

THE PHYSICAL PLANT, FACILITIES, AIDS AND TEXT-BOOKS IN SCHOOLS

5.1 One of the points that emerged from the analysis in the last chapter is that the growth in the number of schools has been rapid in most of the selected districts and has taken place within the last ten years. What has this phase of expansion meant in terms of buildings, equipment and facilities in the schools and the provision of services and text books? The quality and adequacy of schooling depend not only on teachers but also to a significant extent, on the nature and maintenance of the physical plant and the facilities and equipment prescribed for and available to the children. The term 'physical plant' has been used here to mean the school-building, its structure and accommodation and the materials and equipment in the school. An attempt will be made in this chapter to deal with these aspects of the 132 schools in the sample.

PHYSICAL PLANT

Accommodation :

5.2 Data collected from the 132 schools throw some light on the general condition, adequacy and maintenance of the physical plant. Table 5.1 gives data on the nature and ownership of the school building and adequacy or otherwise of the accommodation.

Table 5.1
Ownership and adequacy of school buildings or structures

District	No. of sample schools	% of schools housed in buildings or structures	% of schools having adequate accommodation	% of the school building		
				Owned by school	Rented	Rent free
Kurnool	11	100	64	..	73	27
Cachar	10	90	11	100
Purnea	8	100	13	88	..	12
Amreli	8	100	50	88	12	..
Bilaspur	5	100	40	100
Anantnag	11	91	40	10	90	..
Quilon	6	100	17	100
Amravati	8	100	25	88	..	12
Tanjore	6	100	50	50	17	33
Saugor	7	100	14	86	..	14
Mysore	10	60	33	83	..	17
Sambalpur	10	100	80	100
Hissar	8	100	75	100
Tonk	8	75	67	33	..	67
Mathura	8	100	38	63	..	37
Burdwan	8	88	14	100
TOTAL	132	93	41	72	15	13

5.3 Of the schools studied, 93% were housed in buildings or structures, while the remaining were reported to be held in the open. The largest proportion of the schools (40%) being held in the open was in Mysore where, according to data available, many of the village-schools are held in temple-premises. Ordinarily, these village temples do not have any proper covered accommodation for conducting the classes; and hence, more often than not, the classes have to be held in the open. It may further be seen from the table that about 71% of the school buildings were owned by the schools, 15% housed in rented buildings and 13% in rent-free buildings.

5.4 A perusal of the table shows that in districts like Hissar, Burdwan, Sambalpur, Quilon, Cachar and Bilaspur all the schools owned their buildings. On the other hand, in Kurnool, none of the eleven schools studied had its own building while only one out of eleven schools in Anantnag had a building of its own. Similarly, in Tonk, two out of eight schools owned the buildings in which they were housed. It is significant that the increase in the number of schools in those two districts has been comparatively recent and the period of functioning may have been rather short for those schools to acquire buildings of their own, though all those schools are run by the Government or Local Bodies. In Kurnool, however, 10 out of the 11 schools studied started long back, i.e. prior to 1947 (three of them started as far back as 1908, 1909 and 1911 respectively) and, though Government schools, these still continue to run in rented buildings.

Adequacy of Accommodation :

5.5. Though exact data relating to the covered area of school buildings were not collected, an attempt was made to assess the adequacy or otherwise of the accommodation in comparison with the prescribed norm of about 8 sq. ft. of covered area per student. As per this standard, only 41 per cent of the selected schools in the sixteen districts (Table 5.1) were reported to have adequate accommodation. The analysis of the data indicates an acute shortage of proper and sufficient accommodation in the majority of these schools. Most of the schools in districts like Cachar (Assam), Purnea (Bihar), Quilon (Kerala), Amravati (Maharashtra), Saugor (M.P.) and Burdwan (West Bengal) had shortage of accommodation. In general, there is considerable enthusiasm among the village people to get a primary school started in the village and a building constructed with the help of some local contribution. But the accommodation so provided does not in many cases come up to the standard set for the number of students enrolled.

5.6 The villages in Cachar being small in size, difficulties are reported to have been experienced in raising funds for the construction of school-buildings. At the same time, the School Board would not give a grant for the purpose unless a matching contribution by the people is forthcoming. The same reason was cited for schools in Purnea not having adequate buildings. For a new school, the village-people are expected to donate land and also to meet 1/3rd of the estimated cost of construction of the school building. Since this contribution from the people is not always forthcoming in sufficient measure, the schools have to perforce continue without adequate accommodation. In the case of one village-school, however, though the

Table 5.2
Condition of school building and environmental Sanitation

Districts	% of schools having satisfactory						% of schools having sanitation facilities	
	Walls	Roof	Floor	Ventilation and light	Drinking-water facilities	General condition	Urinal	Latrine
Kurnool . . .	64	36	73	64	..	27
Cachar . . .	89	100	33	100	20	63	10	10
Purnea . . .	13	25	25	25	25	25
Amreli . . .	88	88	75	100	13	88
Bilaspur . . .	60	20	80	80	..	100	20	..
Anantnag . . .	40	50	40	90	46	50	27	27
Quilon . . .	33	83	50	67	33	50
Amravati . . .	75	88	100	100	..	75	25	..
Tanjore . . .	67	100	67	100	50	83	17	17
Saugor . . .	71	29	14	71	43	43
Mysore . . .	67	67	50	33	20	100	..	17
Sambalpur . . .	60	60	70	80	20	50	30	50
Hissar . . .	88	63	75	88	25	75	25	13
Tonk . . .	83	83	100	100	13	83
Mathura . . .	63	63	63	75	38	63	..	13
Burdwan . . .	71	57	57	71	25	71
TOTAL . . .	64	63	60	78	23	62	10	10

finances were released long back by the Block for construction of another room to accommodate more students in the school, the construction work could not be completed owing to non-availability of building-materials like cement. In one or two villages of Amravati, the difficulty of raising public contribution and land donations, especially from the landlords, was highlighted. As far as the inadequacy of accommodation in the schools of Saugor and Mysore is concerned, the main reason reported is the increase in enrolment in the existing schools without a corresponding expansion of school accommodation. In Burdwan also, most of the new schools do not have adequate land or buildings, though the number of students attending them have been steadily increasing. In certain villages of this district, local factions and difference of political opinion among the leaders of the village-community are reported to have stood in the way of solution of this problem.

Quality of accommodation :

5.7 Enquiries were also made about the structure of the school building, the condition of the walls, floor and roof, the adequacy of ventilation, and the availability of facilities like drinking water, urinals and latrines.

5.8 As may be seen from Table 5.2, 60 to 64% of the school buildings had satisfactory walls, roofs and floors and 78% had adequate ventilation. A perusal of the district-wise data shows that in districts like Amreli (Gujarat), Amravati (Maharashtra), Tanjore (Madras), Hissar (Punjab), and Tonk (Rajasthan), the overall condition of the school buildings was more or less satisfactory in the sense that they had good walls, roofs, floor and ventilation. On the other hand, the condition of the school buildings in Purnea (Bihar) was found to be far from satisfactory. Although all the eight schools studied in this district are run by the Government and own their school premises (except one school which is in a rent-free structure), most of these are housed in huts and the roofs of some of these school-structures are reported to be leaking.

Environmental Sanitation :

5.9. The data in Table 5.2 also give the position regarding environmental sanitation in the schools. Only in 23% of the schools, there was satisfactory arrangement for drinking water. Facilities for urinals and latrines were found to exist only in 10 per cent of the schools. The general condition of environmental sanitation, however, was reported as more or less satisfactory in 62% of the schools. In all, 38% of the schools thus did not have proper arrangements for environmental sanitation.

Present condition of school buildings :

5.10 The facts collected about the maintenance and the present condition of the school buildings are given in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3

School buildings according to state of maintenance

District	% of school buildings			
	In good condition	Needing minor repairs	Needing major repairs	% of schools needing repairs
1	2	3	4	5
Kurnool	9	55	36	91
Cachar	11	78	11	89
Purnea	13	..	88	88
Amreli	63	38	..	38
Bilaspur	60	20	20	20
Anantnag	40	..	60	60
Quilon	33	17	50	67
Amravati	38	38	25	63
Tanjore	33	67	..	67
Saugor	29	29	43	71
Mysore	50	17	33	50
Sambalpur	Nil	60	40	100
Hissar	63	25	13	38
Tonk	67	17	17	33
Mathura	38	50	13	63
Burdwan	14	57	29	86
PERCENTAGE	33	37	31	68

Only 33 per cent buildings were in good conditions; 37% required minor repairs, while the remaining needed major repairs. The majority of the school buildings in the sample in Purnea and Anantnag required major repairs. The reason for this unsatisfactory condition of the school buildings in Purnea has been indicated earlier. In Anantnag 9 of the 11 schools studied were functioning in rented buildings, the maintenance of which was the responsibility of their owners (Appendix Table A.3). It is reported that while four of them were being maintained well, the remaining ones were not being taken care of by their owners.

Agencies responsible for maintenance :

5.11 Different are the agencies responsible for the maintenance of the school buildings in different States as well as in different areas of

the same State. Information was collected regarding the agencies responsible for the maintenance of the three categories of school buildings, namely those belonging to the school, those taken on rent and those provided rent-free. Out of the 88 buildings owned by the schools themselves, 48% were maintained by Local Bodies and 14% by Government Departments (Appendix Table A.3). Twenty four per cent of the schools were maintained by individual managers who received maintenance grants from the Government while 15% of the schools were maintained by school Management Committees. It may be noted from the figures given above that the Government Departments and the Local Bodies together are responsible for the maintenance of the majority of the school buildings (62%) besides giving maintenance grants to other schools and thus being financially responsible to the extent of the grant.

5.12 Of the 16 school buildings under the rent-free category, 7 were maintained by the local bodies, 6 by individual manager/owners, 2 by School Management Committees and only 1 by Government Departments. No single agency was specifically responsible for the maintenance of the remaining one school under this category. For the 19 schools taken on rent, maintenance was looked after by individual managers or owners of the buildings.

Amenities provided by Schools :

5.13 Amenities like play-grounds, small farms, etc., help to diversify and improve education besides making schooling attractive to children. From the data presented in Table 5.4, it appears that only a small proportion of the schools were provided with such facilities. Vegetable and flower gardens constitute the most common of these facilities and were found to be attached to 45% of the sample schools. Only 38% of the schools had playgrounds and 15% had land for running small farms. Drinking water wells or hand-pumps existed in only 17% of the schools.

Table 5.4

Amenities in the sample schools

Facilities	Schools	
	No.	%
Play grounds	50	37.9
Land for small farms	20	15.2
Vegetable and flower gardens	59	44.7
Drinking water wells or hand-pumps	23	17.4
Children's Park	3	2.3
Total Schools	132	

5.14 District-wise details of the above are given in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5
Distribution of schools by amenities available

Districts	Percentage of schools having				
	Play ground	Land for Agri. farms	Land for vegetable & flower gardens	Drinking water wells or hand-pump	Children's Park
Kurnool	9.1	..	45.5
Cachar	10.0	33.0
Purnea	25.0	..	87.5	62.5	..
Amreli	75.0	12.5	12.5	25.0	..
Bilaspur	80.0	100.0	60.0	..	40.0
Anantnag	36.4	27.3	18.2
Quilon	33.3	50.0	..
Amravati	25.0
Tanjore	50.0	..	66.7	16.7	..
Saugor	57.4	14.3	100.0	57.4	..
Mysore	20.0	..	40.0
Sambalpur	30.0	30.0	100.0	30.0	..
Hissar	100.0	25.0	87.5	27.5	12.5
Tonk	12.5	..	25.0
Mathura	75.0	37.5	25.0	25.0	..
Burdwan	25.0	12.5	25.0
PERCENTAGE	37.9	15.2	44.7	17.4	2.3

It can be seen that in the district of Cachar (Assam), not even a single school in the sample had a playground, while in the districts of Kurnool (Andhra), Purnea (Bihar), Amravati (Maharashtra), Quilon (Kerala), Mysore (Mysore), Tonk (Rajasthan) and Burdwan (West Bengal) only a small proportion (25% or below) of the sample schools had playground facilities. Even in schools in other districts, where playgrounds were reported, it was observed that in most cases these were merely open spaces rather than well-maintained playgrounds.

5.15 The absence of the play-ground facility in most of the schools may probably be due to non-availability of sufficient land adjoining the schools. It may also be due to the village-community not coming forward to donate land, especially when it is remembered the Government grants were not given to any of the selected schools for this

purpose. Data collected on donation of land by the public during the period 1947 to 1961, for providing schools with playgrounds and school-farms, are revealing and presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6

Donation of land by the people for playground and agricultural farm and its value

District	No. of schools reporting donation of land		Value of the land donated (Rs.)
	No.	% to total	
Purnea	1	12.5	1000
Saugor	2	28.6	4000
Sambalpur	5	50.0	1800
Hissar	3	37.5	9000
Tonk	1	12.5	400
Mathura	2	25.0	1500
Burdwan	3	37.5	11100
TOTAL	17	12.9	28800

It appears that donation of land was confined to seven districts and involved only 17 schools. The total value of the land donated is reported to be Rs. 28800 or Rs. 1700 per school. A larger proportion of the schools in Sambalpur had reported donation of land than in other districts.

5.16 Quilon and Amravati are two districts where none of the sample schools had any school-gardens. In Amreli, Anantnag, Mathura, Burdwan and Tonk, these are found to exist in only one fourth or less of the sample schools. On the other hand, in Sambalpur and Saugor, all the schools and, in Purnea and Hissar, majority of them had vegetable or flower gardens. Gardening by school children can serve to make the acquisition of knowledge more realistic and also instil in them a love for manual work and develop useful habits and attitude. But the educative value of such activities can be fully realised only if it is done under proper conditions and guidance. It has been observed that in most of the schools, gardening by children is carried on in a routine manner.

5.17 As far as school-farms (i.e. schools having land for agricultural use) are concerned the table shows that in Bilaspur all the sample schools had such farms. In seven districts none of the schools had school farm. Out of these, three districts (Kurnool, Purnea and Quilon) did not have any basic school in our sample; and the non-basic schools need not necessarily have school-farms. In the other two districts of Amravati and Mysore, though there was one basic school each, there was no agricultural farm attached to them. In the case of the basic school in Amravati, the school was converted into basic

in 1954 and except for the introduction of spinning as a craft in the school, no other change initiated in the school curriculum. However, the Senior Basic School, to which this primary basic school was attached, had 20 acres of land given by the Government under the Grow More Food Scheme. The table further shows that though all the eight schools studied in Mathura come under the basic type, only 3 schools were having school-farms.

5.18 Another amenity available in some of the schools studied is drinking water well or hand pump. Only 17% of the schools studied were found to have wells or hand-pumps to provide drinking water to children. In the sample schools in districts like Kurnool, Cachar, Anantnag, Amravati, Mysore, Tonk, Burdwan and Bilaspur this facility was totally lacking. Data were collected about the extent of public contribution and government-grants for the construction of drinking water wells in schools during the period 1947-61 and are presented districtwise in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7

Public contribution and Government Grants for drinking water wells in schools during 1947-61

District	No. of schools in the district	No. of schools benefited	Drinking water wells	
			Value of contribution (Rs.)	Government grants (Rs.)
Kurnool	11
Cachar	10
Purnea	8	5	343	192
Amreli	8	1	104	313
Bilaspur	5
Anantnag	11
Quilon	6	1	..	800
Amravati	8
Tanjore	6
Saugor	7	2	2567	2333
Mysore	10
Sambalpur	10	3	..	3100
Hissar	8	3	1700	..
Tonk	8
Mathura	8	2	250	600
Burdwan	8
TOTAL	132	17	4964	7338

The data confirm that not much of public contribution or government grant came up during the period 1947-61, for enabling the schools to provide drinking water facilities in the school-premises. Only in five

districts some public contributions and Government grants were made available to a few schools for this purpose.

5.19 The inadequacy of these facilities may have been the result of rapid expansion of schools in fifties. If this is so then the problem is essentially one of time lag. An attempt has been made to understand the period of this time lag. Data pertaining to time-lag between starting of schools and provision of these facilities are given in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8

Time-lag between the year of inception of sample schools and the year of provision of various facilities.

Facilities	Year of inception of relevant schools	No. of relevant schools	Period of time-lag							Average time-lag per school (Yrs.)
			No lag	Less than 2 yrs.	2-4 yrs.	4-6 yrs.	6-8 yrs.	8-10 yrs.	Over 10 yrs.	
1. Play-ground	Before 1947	20	11	1	8	15
	1947-51	7	4	1	..	1	1	8
	1951-56	13	9	2	1	1	1
	1956-61	10	6	..	3	1	1
		50	30	3	4	3	..	1	9	7
2. Land for agrl. farm.	Before 1947	5	1	1	3	24
	1947-51	3	3	12
	1951-56	6	3	1	1	1	2
	1956-61	6	5	..	1	4 months
		20	9	2	2	1	6	8
3. Land for garden	Before 1947	24	13	1	1	9	13
	1947-51	8	5	1	..	1	..	1	..	2
	1951-56	18	13	2	1	2	1
	1956-61	9	6	..	2	1	1
		59	37	4	4	4	..	1	9	6
4. Drinking water Wells or handpump	Before 1947	11	2	1	8	37
	1947-51	5	2	1	1	1	6
	1951-56	6	4	..	2	1
	1956-61	1	1	2
		23	8	..	3	..	1	2	9	15

The time-lag has been greatest in the provision of drinking water wells and hand pumps as compared with the provision of other facilities. The average time-lag between the provision of this facility (drinking water) and the starting of the school works out to nearly 15 years. The corresponding time-lag for the provision of other facilities like playground, garden and farm ranges from 6 to 8 years. However, 33 to 60% of the schools reported little or no time-lag in the provision of the different facilities. Schools started at different periods have recorded different periods of lag between inception of the school and the provision of the various facilities. The average lag for schools started before 1947 was 37 years in respect of drinking water, 24 years for farm, 15 years for playground and 13 for garden. By 1956-61, the lags had steadily decreased so much so that the period of lag for the respective facilities in this period worked out to 2, 0.33, 1 and 1 years only. This indicates that the facilities have recorded a progressive growth in creation since 1947, and an acceleration in tempo since 1951.

Equipment and material :

5.20 The equipment and material in the schools can be classified into the following broad categories:—

1. Furniture
2. Teaching aids like black-boards, maps, charts, etc.
3. Craft equipment and materials.
4. Sports and games equipment, and
5. Recreational instruments and equipment like radio, gramophone, drums, harmonium and local musical instruments.

The Appendix Table A.4 gives the distribution of schools in the sample having no equipment of different types and Appendix Table A.5 the distribution of schools having these in inadequate or insufficient number. A perusal of these tables will show that about 12 to 14% of the schools did not have any furniture like table or chair while it was reported to be inadequate in 26 to 29% of the schools. Similarly, about 15% of the schools did not have maps and charts and about 5% no black-board, while about 36% and 39% had these in insufficient numbers. It appears, therefore, that 40 to 50 per cent of the schools were either without or short of furniture, maps and charts and black-boards, which are considered to be the basic essential equipment for any school.

5.21 The district-wise data show that many of the schools in the districts of Purnea (Bihar), Mysore (Mysore) and Sambalpur (Orissa) had no furniture like tables and chairs while in the selected districts of Kurnool, Amreli, Bilaspur, Quilon, Amravati, Tanjore and Hissar all the sample schools had some furniture of this kind. As regards teaching aids like maps and charts, many of the schools studied in districts other than Bilaspur, Quilon, Tanjore, Hissar and Tonk did not have these. In fact, there were a few schools even without blackboards. Even in the schools which had some furniture

and equipment these were inadequate in many cases. The headmasters or the teachers in-charge of these schools, who were interviewed, stated that the major reason for the shortage of these items was inadequate supply from the Government or the Education Department. Some of them also added that certain items of furniture, like chairs and tables, were pretty old and unusable.

5.22 The data in Appendix Table A.4 and A.5 also show that about 75 to 80% of the schools did not have any sports and games equipment while only 2.3% of schools had radios and other musical instruments for purposes of recreation, etc. As far as the craft-equipment are concerned about 82.6% of the schools did not have them. However, it may be pointed out that the need for craft equipment is usually associated with the basic-type of schools which will be discussed in another chapter. It is interesting to note that even certain non-basic schools in Bilaspur, Saugor, Sambalpur, Hissar and Tonk reported having some craft-equipment.

5.23 Broadly speaking, the above analysis of the physical plan of the sample schools show the problems of rapid expansion. While it is true that most of the schools have been provided with a building or structure of some sort, the condition of the buildings and their maintenance have much scope for improvement. But the real strain of expansion has been felt in the provision of facilities like playgrounds, farms, drinking water etc. and even of the basic equipment like furniture, maps, and blackboards. The lack or inadequacy of these varies among the districts. But by and large, the deficiencies are relatively much larger in districts where the school expansion has been recent and rapid.

Stipends and other incentives :

5.24 In view of the financial difficulties of parents in sending children to school, the success of the universal primary education programme depends on the extent to which stipends and other aids are extended to the deserving children. It was, therefore, considered desirable to study the availability of such help. The teachers were asked about stipends and other incentives offered by schools to deserving students. The data collected from 132 schools in 6 districts regarding the number of schools offering the various benefits and the number of beneficiaries under each have been presented in Table 5.9.

Judging from the proportion of sample schools reporting the facilities, the average number of beneficiaries per school and the percentage of beneficiaries to the total children enrolled in the relevant schools, it is evident that the coverage of the programmes has been very limited. Stipends and free supply of books were reported in 14% and provision of free uniform in 9% only of the sample schools. The number of beneficiaries per school reporting these facilities ranges from 4 to 16 and the proportion of beneficiaries to total number of children enrolled in the relevant schools ranges from 8% for supply of free clothes to 21% in respect of supply of free books. Thus 86 per cent of the sample schools had no provision for stipends or

Table 5.9

Provision of stipends, free books and free uniforms and the number of beneficiaries in the sample schools as reported by teachers

District	Stipends			Free Books			Free Uniform		
	Percentage of schools not providing the facility	Average No. of beneficiaries per school reporting	Percentage of beneficiaries to total No. of children enrolled in relevant school	Percentage of schools not providing the facility	Average No. of beneficiaries per school reporting	Percentage of beneficiaries to total No. of children enrolled in relevant school	Percentage of schools not providing the facility	Average No. of beneficiaries per school reporting	Percentage of beneficiaries to total No. of children enrolled in relevant school
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Kurnool	100.0	100.0	100.0
Cachar	100.0	100.0	100.0
Purnea	100.0	100.0	100.0
Amreli	100.0	75.0	6.0	5.1	100.0
Bilaspur	20.0	2.5	3.9	20.0	25.3	39.1	20.0	5.5	8.5
Anantnag	63.6	2.0	3.9	100.0	100.0
Quilon	Nil	39.2	12.1	100.0	100.0
Amravati	87.5	1.0	0.6	100.0	100.0
Tanjore	100.0	83.3	26.0	13.8	100.0
Saugor	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mysore	100.0	70.0	26.0	41.3	70.0	3.3	5.7
Sambalpur	90.0	7.0	4.7	20.0	9.8	14.7	50.0	3.6	5.4
Hissar	100.0	100.0	100.0
Tonk	87.5	20.0	35.7	100.0	100.0
Mathura	87.5	1.0	1.9	100.0	100.0
Burdwan	100.0	100.0	100.0
ALL DISTRICTS	86.4	15.7	10.0	86.4	16.4	21.0	90.9	4.2	8.1

free books and 91% did not provide any free uniform to the needy children.

Stipends :

5.25 Stipends were offered to students only in 7 districts. In Quilon, this facility has been reported in all the sample schools and in Bilaspur in 80% of the schools. In the remaining districts, except Anantnag it is reported only in a small percentage of schools (less than 13 per cent). The overall average number of beneficiaries per school reporting these facilities is 16. However, variations among the districts are marked. At the one end is Quilon with an average number of beneficiaries of 39 per relevant school and Mathura and Amravati at the other extreme with the number of beneficiaries as low as one. Tonk is another district, besides Quilon, reporting a large proportion of beneficiaries per school. Since the average number of children enrolled in schools differs among the districts, it would be better while making comparison between schools, to relate the number of beneficiaries to total number of children enrolled in the relevant schools. From this angle Tonk ranks first where stipends were given for over one-third of the students on roll. Next comes Quilon with a percentage figure of 12. In other districts, the percentage figures range from 0.6 to 4.7.

Free books :

5.26 Supply of free books to the students was reported in five districts only. Out of these, two districts, namely, Bilaspur and Sambalpur, had also extended facilities of stipends to student. The average number of beneficiaries per reporting school exceeds 25 in Tanjore, Mysore and Bilaspur, and below 10 in the remaining districts. The proportion of beneficiaries to total number of children enrolled in the relevant schools is high in Mysore (41%) and Bilaspur (39%), and lowest in Amreli (6%). In the remaining two districts, the percentage figures range from 13 to 15.

Free uniform :

5.27 Supply of free uniform to poor and needy students was not a facility provided by the schools in a majority of the districts. Even in places where it has been reported, it touches only a small fraction of the students. Free uniforms was reported to have been given in the schools only in 3 districts; Bilaspur, Mysore, and Sambalpur. The number of beneficiaries per school and percentage of beneficiaries to total children enrolled are found to be much lower than the figures for the other two facilities.

Free Milk and Mid-day-Meals :

5.28 The under-nourishment of the children in the rural areas makes any scheme for the provision of free milk or mid-day meals to children not only desirable but also imperative. Besides, its importance as a factor contributing to the improvement of enrolment in schools cannot be minimised. But progress made so far in the different States has, according to our data, been meagre. Relevant

information about this programme in the sample schools are given in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10

Percentage of schools providing free milk & mid-day meals and the average number of beneficiaries.

District	Free Milk		Mid-day Meals	
	% of schools in which facility was provided	Average No. of beneficiaries per school	% of schools in which facility was provided	Average No. of beneficiaries per schools
Kurnool	18.2	60
Quilon	100.0	261	100.0	261
Tanjore	50.0	60	100.0	39
Saugor	14.2	69
Sambalpur	10.0	90	20.0	24
Mathura	12.5	7
TOTAL	7.6	183	13.6	113

The above table shows that free milk and mid-day meals were given in 7.6 and 13.6 per cent of the schools respectively, the average number of beneficiaries per reporting school being 183 for free milk and 113 for mid-day meals. The mid-day meals programme has been reported in a larger number of districts than the milk programme. Both the programmes have received special attention only in Kerala and Madras where all the sample schools in the selected districts had the mid-day meal programme. Orissa has a special balanced nutrition programme assisted by the Government of India, the U.N. I.C.E.F. and the F.A.O. and this is reflected in the figures for Sambalpur. Other districts reporting the mid-day meal programme are Kurnool (18%), Saugor (14%) and Mathura (13%).

5.29 In conclusion it may be observed that the incentives offered in the sample schools to augment enrolment were confined only to a limited number of districts, schools and students. In Cachar, Purnea, Hissar and Burdwan, none of the above discussed facilities were provided in any of the sample schools. In many other districts, only one of the facilities was provided and that too in a few schools. From the foregoing account, it appears that efforts to increase enrolment in schools should be supported adequately with positive incentives such as stipends, free books, mid-day meals etc. It is only in these ways that a larger number of poor students can be attracted to schools. Such measures are necessary since the growth in enrolment of children in schools over the Plan period has been more through the opening of new schools than through an increase in the roll-strength per school.

Text books, their quality, price, availability & frequency of change :

5.30 With the rapid growth of schools and enrolment, there has been a corresponding increase in the requirement and demand for

text books. How is this demand being met? Has the programme for the preparation and publication of text books been geared to the universal extension of free primary education? Since education is a State subject, the policy and practice in different States are not uniform. A few observations on the inter-State variations in policy and practice may be useful and in place before we turn to the field data collected from the teachers in the sample schools.

5.31 In some States the Government have adopted the policy of nationalisation in respect of text books with a view to improving their quality and making them available at a reasonable price. However, the extent to which nationalisation has been actually enforced varies considerably. In States like Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan and Punjab writing, printing, distribution and sale of text books have been taken over by the Government. In other States, there has been partial nationalisation; and only books in certain subjects and for some classes have been nationalised. Text book committees or other bodies have been appointed in most of the States for the planning, preparation, scrutiny and in some, even the publication of the text books. Different agencies—cooperatives, private book-sellers have been made responsible for the production of nationalised text books, and their distribution. With the data available with us, it has not been possible to make any assessment of the extent to which the quality of text books has improved and whether the prices have gone down as a result of those steps. A few State Governments—West Bengal, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh and Mysore have stated that there has been some fall in prices of text books and some improvement in their quality. In some States, a separate section has been created in the Education Directorate to deal with these matters. By and large, our impression is that in spite of an announced policy of the State Governments to provide inexpensive text books in time, the progress in most States has been slow.

5.32 The administration of a nationalised text book programme has, however, to contend with a number of difficulties. In the first place, a State monopoly in the preparation of text books may result in the loss of incentive among persons with literary talent to stay away from independent work of their own. Secondly, even if delays in preparation, scrutiny and approval are overcome the printing and distribution of the very large number of such books require a high degree of business acumen and procedural flexibility, apart from the timely procurement of printing paper. As illustrations of the type of problems that State Governments have faced in the publication of text books, we may mention two difficulties that the Bihar Government ran into. The Finance Department of the Bihar Government was not agreeable to the principle of producing the nationalised text books on no-profit no-loss basis, whereas the Education Directorate felt that unless this principle was adopted, good books could not be produced at lower and reasonable prices. Another difficulty experienced was in respect of arrangements for the sale of the text books. It was reported that last year the contents of the nationalised text books with slight modifications were brought out on inferior material by private publishers and sold at slightly cheaper rates much before the release of the books by the Department. As a result, the books published by the Department were not in demand

and could not be sold. The department is now trying to produce the books well in time so that the students may not have to purchase unauthorised publications.

Opinions of Teachers on Text Books :

5.33 The teachers in the sample schools were asked to give their assessment of the convenience and timeliness in the availability of text books, reasonableness of their price and frequency of change. The data bearing on some of these aspects are presented in Table 5.11.

Table No. 5.11
Views of Teachers on Text Books

District	Percentage of teachers reporting		
	Books available in time	Books available at convenient place	Price of books reasonable
	%	%	%
Kurnool	15.8	15.8	15.8
Cachar	46.7	26.7	33.3
Purnea	72.7	27.3	100.0
Amreli	100.00	100.0	100.0
Bilaspur	18.2	..	100.0
Anantnag	87.5	81.3	62.5
Quilon	77.8	44.4	61.1
Amravati	86.7	67.7	100.0
Tanjore	72.2	55.6	61.1
Saugor	33.3	41.7	66.7
Mysore	13.3	20.0	20.0
Sambalpur	14.3	100.0	..
Hissar	54.5	45.5	72.7
Tonk	100.0	80.0	90.0
Mathura	72.7	63.6	72.7
Burdwan	62.5	43.8	31.2
TOTAL	57.5	50.4	58.4

The majority of the teachers in the sample considered that the text books were available in time, at convenient places and at reasonable prices, the proportion of teachers holding these opinions being 58, 50 and 58 per cent, respectively. In a number of districts, however, the proportion of teachers holding contrary views was more than 50 per cent and in some very high. These districts in order of importance of the contrary view, are: Mysore, Sambalpur, Kurnool, Bilaspur, Saugor and Cachar, in respect of non-availability in time; Bilaspur, Kurnool, Mysore, Cachar, Purnea, Saugor, Burdwan, Quilon and Hissar as far as non-availability in convenient place is concerned; and Sambalpur, Kurnool, Mysore, Burdwan and Cachar in respect of unreasonableness in price. It is significant that the teachers in a number of these districts held unfavourable views about the availability and price of text books. There is obviously considerable room for improvement.

Frequency of change in text books :

5.34 Frequent changes of text books impose a financial burden on the parents. Whatever may be the reason for such changes—genuine need for improvement in text books or undue influence exerted by the publishers, such changes result in considerable wastage of paper. Data about the frequency of change of text books in three subjects, language, arithmetic and general science, were collected from the sample schools. Of the 123 sample schools for which relevant data were available a large majority (82.1%) reported changes in text books during the last five years. All the sample schools in 11 districts reported change of text books. On the other hand, Anantnag and Amravati are found to be exceptions where none of the sample schools reported any change (Appendix Table A.6). Table 5.12 gives particulars about the frequency of change of text books in the sample schools, classwise and subjectwise.

It will be observed that language books for all classes were changed more frequently than the text books in the other two subjects in a large number of schools. The proportion of sample schools reporting more than one change during the last five years ranges from 26% in case of Class IV to 38% in case of Class I. Between 30 and 40 per cent of schools reported change of language books once during the last five years. In the majority of the sample schools, arithmetic and general science books were not changed during the last five years. A larger proportion of schools reported change of these text books in the higher classes than in the lower classes. 47% of the schools reported change of arithmetic books in Class V as against 15% of the schools reporting change in Class I. Corresponding percentage figures for change of general science books are 59 and 13% respectively. In general, it may be said that changes in text books have been much more frequent in the language than in the arithmetic or general science subjects. Changes in language books have occurred almost equally in all classes, while that in the other two subjects it has taken place mainly in the upper primary classes.

Possession of text books, slates, etc. by students :

5.35 *Text books :* The teachers were also asked to give an estimate of the proportion of students in each class who did not have text

Table 5.12

Frequency of change of text books in sample schools

Subject	Class I (Relevant schools 125)			Class II (Relevant schools 125)			Class III (Relevant schools 123)			Class IV (Relevant schools 101)			Class V (Relevant schools 64)		
	O	M	No. change	O	M	No. change	O	M	No. change	O	M	No. change	O	M	No. change
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Language No.*	41	47	37	44	39	42	37	36	50	40	26	35	23	23	18
Books %	32.8	37.6	29.6	35.2	31.2	33.6	30.1	29.3	40.6	39.6	25.7	34.7	35.9	35.9	28.1
Arithmetic No*	12	7	106	19	22	84	19	28	76	24	19	58	12	18	34
Books %	9.6	5.6	84.8	15.2	17.6	67.2	15.4	22.8	61.8	23.8	18.8	57.4	18.8	28.1	53.1
General science No*	9	6	110	13	9	103	29	16	78	38	17	46	20	18	26
Books %	7.2	4.8	88.0	10.4	7.2	82.4	23.6	13.0	63.4	37.6	16.8	45.5	31.3	28.1	40.6

*No. of schools.

O—Once in last five years.

M—More than once during last five years.

books, slates and other writing materials. Given in Table 5.13 is the information on the percentage of students not having at least two books in each class.

Table 5.13

Proportion of students not having text books as reported by teachers.

Class	Teachers reporting following per cent of students not having at least two text books				
	0%	1 to 10%	10 to 40%	40 to 70%	70% and above
I. No. of teachers reporting	55	20	52	49	40
%	25.5	9.3	24.0	22.7	18.5
II. No. of teachers reporting	87	27	58	26	9
%	42.0	13.0	28.0	12.7	4.3
III. No. of teachers reporting	106	31	47	17	7
%	51.0	14.9	22.6	8.2	3.3
IV. No. of teachers reporting	108	27	30	18	6
%	57.1	14.3	15.9	9.5	3.2
V. No. of teachers reporting	79	7	24	4	3
%	67.5	6.0	20.5	3.4	2.6

From the table above, it appears that the proportion of teachers who reported that all students have at least two text books each, were 25.5% for Class I, 42% for Class II, 51% for Class III, 57.1% for Class IV and 67.5% for Class V. The percentage of students not having at least two text books, on the other hand, was estimated at 70% and above by 18.5% of teachers as far as Class I was concerned and by 4.3 and 3.3 per cent for Classes II and III respectively. The relevant percentage of teachers estimating this was 3.2 for Class IV and 2.6 for Class V. It appears that the proportion of teachers who estimated that more than 40% of the students did not have two text books was 41.2% for Class I, 17% for Class II, 11.5% for Class III 12.7% for Class IV and 6% for Class V. These data tend to show that the problem of students not having text books is most acute in the lower classes, specially in Class I.

Slates :

5.36 The relevant data about availability of slates with students are given in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14

Proportion of students not having slates :

Class	Teachers reporting following per cent of students not having slates				
	0%	1—10%	10% to less than 40%	40% to less than 70%	70% and above
I. No. of teachers reporting .	83	19	61	27	15
%	40.5	9.3	29.7	13.2	7.3
II. No. of teachers reporting .	132	18	40	8	10
%	63.5	8.7	19.2	3.8	4.8
III. No. of teachers reporting .	160	13	23	2	2
%	80.0	6.5	11.5	1.0	1.0
IV. No. of teachers reporting .	150	9	13	1	4
%	84.7	5.1	7.3	0.6	2.3
V. No. of teachers reporting .	107	6	3	1	2
%	89.9	5.1	2.5	0.8	1.7

The proportion of teachers who reported that all students have slates were 40.5% for class I, 63.5% for class II, 80% for class III, 84.7% for class IV and 89.9% for class V. The figures, it may be noted, show that a comparatively larger proportion of students were having slates than text books. Conversely, the percentage of teachers who said that 70% and above of the students were not having slates are relatively low, varying from about 1 to 7.3% for all classes. The proportion of teachers reporting 40% or more of student going without slates varies from 20.5% for class I to about 2.5% for Class V. As in the case of text books the problem of students not having slates is more in Class I.

Other writing materials :

5.37 Information regarding students not having other items of stationery especially note books, pencils was also obtained from the teachers. The details are given in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15

Proportion of students not having other writing materials.

Class	Teachers reporting following per cent of students not having other materials.				
	0%	1 to 10%	10% to less than 40%	40% to less than 70%	70% and above
I. No. of teachers reporting	143	5	11	13	15
%	76.4	2.7	5.9	7.0	8.0
II. No. of teachers reporting	148	8	16	13	4
%	78.3	4.2	8.5	6.9	2.1
III. No. of teachers reporting	151	13	20	5	2
%	79.1	6.8	10.5	2.6	1.0
IV. No. of teachers reporting	143	11	12	3	1
%	84.1	6.5	7.1	1.7	0.6
V. No. of teachers reporting	99	5	3	1	..
%	91.7	4.6	2.8	0.9	..

The percentage of teachers who reported that all students had these accessories is 76.4% for Class I, 78.3% for Class II and 79.1% for Class III. About 84.1% of the teachers replied in the same way for class IV and about 91.7% for Class V. Only a very small proportion of teachers (the highest being 8% in case of class I) reported that 70% or more of the students did not have any writing materials. In general, non-possession of the writing material does not seem to be as much of a problem, according to teachers, as non-possession of text books or even of slates.

5.38 The analysis of the data presented in this chapter has tended to show that the physical plant of the majority of the schools stand in need of extension and improvement. While the general condition of the buildings of nearly two-thirds of the schools was satisfactory, a very small proportion of the schools had amenities like playground or farms or even vegetable gardens and a much smaller proportion had drinking water and other sanitary facilities. A negligible proportion of the schools had provided stipends or free books or free uniform, though free midday meals were being extended on a larger scale in Tanjore, Quilon, Sambalpur, Bilaspur and a few other areas. The availability and price of text books were also not considered timely, convenient and/or reasonable in certain districts but not in all. Finally, it was the students in the lower classes, specially Class I who suffered to a much larger extent for not having text books, slates and other materials though changes in text books had been more frequent in the upper classes and generally most in respect of language books.

CHAPTER VI

TEACHERS—THEIR WORKING CONDITIONS AND ATTITUDES

6.1. An idea was given in Chapter IV, of the increase in the number of primary school teachers since 1947 and the variation in their teaching or student load. Since the success of schooling depends ultimately on the quality of the teacher, an attempt was made to assess the background, qualifications and attitudes of the persons who have been recruited as teachers during the current phase of expansion and to understand how they have adjusted to their work. A set of schedules seeking such information was canvassed with 226 teachers in the sample schools. The number of teachers interviewed per district varied from 10 to 19 depending on the number of villages and schools selected for study and the size of schools in these villages. It is on the basis of these data an analysis will be made in this chapter of the educational qualifications of the teachers, their training, period of service, working conditions, attitude towards job and their assessment of future prospects.

6.2 *Distribution of teachers by age :*

The age-composition of the teachers is an indicator of the effect of expansion on recruitment and has important bearings on the efficiency and attitude of teachers. Table 6.1 gives data on the distribution of teachers by different age-groups, as in March-April 1962.

Table 6.1
Distribution of teachers by age—March-April 1962

District	No. of teachers	Below 20 yrs.	20-25 years	25-35 years	35-45 years	45 yrs. & above	% of teacher below 35 years
Kurnool	19	1	3	6	8	1	52.6
Cachar	15	1	2	5	4	3	53.5
Purnea	11	..	2	5	1	3	63.6
Amreli	14	..	5	2	5	2	50.0
Bilaspur	11	1	4	5	..	1	90.9
Anantnag.	16	2	8	2	2	2	75.0
Quilon	18	..	4	8	2	4	66.7
Amravati	15	1	3	7	3	1	73.3
Tanjore	18	..	3	11	3	1	77.8
Saugor	12	1	4	5	2	..	83.3
Mysore	15	..	1	5	8	1	40.0
Sambalpur	14	1	4	5	1	3	71.4
Hissar	11	..	7	3	..	1	90.9
Tonk	10	1	4	5	100.0
Mathura	11	4	..	2	4	1	54.5
Bardwan	16	..	4	8	2	2	75.0
TOTAL	226	13	58	84	45	26	
%.		5.8	25.7	37.2	19.9	11.5	68.6

It appears that in 1962 nearly 32% of the teachers were below 25 years of age and nearly 69% below 35 years of age. This is natural in view of the fact that the expansion of schools has been accelerated in the plan periods, particularly in the First Plan period. The school expansion programme has obviously led to recruitment from the younger age groups and there is, at the moment, a predominance of teachers in these age groups.

6.3 In nine districts, the proportion of teachers below 35 years of age was above the overall average. In Tonk, all the teachers and in Hissar and Bilaspur, 91% of them were below 35 years of age. These are also the districts that have recorded a substantial increase in the number of schools in the Plan period. In Saugor, Tanjore, Anantnag and Burdwan the proportion ranges from 75 to 83%. Only in five districts, Mysore (40%), Amreli (50%), Kurnool (53%), Cachar (54%) and Mathura (55%), the proportion of teachers below 35 years is much below the overall average. The proportion of younger teachers is, therefore, relatively higher in the States which started expanding school facilities later than others.

Year of passing the highest examination :

6.4. The year of passing the highest examination is another indication partly of the age-group of the teachers and partly of the time-distance separating them from their academic period. Table 6.2 gives the distribution of teachers according to the year they passed their highest examination.

Table 6.2
Distribution of teachers by the year of passing the highest examination.

District	Before 1947		1947—51		1951—56		1956—61	
	No.	% to total	No.	% to total	No.	% to total	No.	% to total
Kurnool . . .	8	44.4	1	5.6	5	27.8	4	22.2
Cachar . . .	6	50.0	3	25.0	2	16.7	1	8.4
Purnea . . .	6	54.5	2	18.2	2	18.2	1	9.1
Amreli . . .	5	38.5	3	61.5
Bilaspur . . .	2	18.2	2	18.2	7	63.6
Anantnag . . .	4	25.0	1	6.3	3	19.7	3	50.0
Quilon . . .	5	27.8	3	16.7	3	16.7	7	38.9
Amravati . . .	3	21.4	4	28.6	5	35.7	2	14.3
Tanjore . . .	6	33.3	2	11.1	6	33.3	4	22.2
Saugor . . .	2	16.6	1	8.4	2	16.6	7	58.4
Mysore . . .	4	26.7	6	40.0	3	20.0	2	13.3
Sambalpur . . .	5	35.8	2	14.3	5	35.7	2	14.3
Hissar . . .	1	10.0	5	50.0	4	40.0
Tonk	2	20.0	4	40.0	4	40.0
Mathura . . .	2	18.2	2	18.2	3	27.2	4	36.4
Burdwan . . .	4	28.6	3	21.4	3	21.4	4	28.6
TOTAL . . .	63	29.0	32	14.8	53	24.4	69	31.8

NOTE : Data not available for 9 teachers.

Nearly two-thirds of the selected teachers of the sample schools passed their highest examination during 56-61. In Hissar, Mathura, Bilaspur, Anantnag and Tonk, 70 to 90 percent of them passed their highest examination after 1951. For Burdwan, Mysore, Purnea and Cachar, however, the figure is much lower.

6.5 With a view to finding out whether teachers had attempted to improve their educational status while in service, the year of passing the highest examination by teachers was analysed according to their period of service. The relevant data are presented in Table 6.3. Detailed districtwise data are given in the Appendix Table A.7.

Table 6.3

Distribution of teachers by year of passing the highest examination and total length of service

Period of service	Total No. of teachers*	No. and percentage of teachers according to year passing the highest examination				
		Before 1935	35-47	47-51	51-56	56-61
Upto 5 years	87	..	3(3.4)	3(5.7)	22(25.3)	57(65.5)
5-10 years	48	2(4.2)	2(4.2)	11(22.9)	25(52.1)	8(16.7)
10-15 years	38	..	14(36.8)	16(42.1)	6(15.8)	2(5.3)
15 years and above	44	19(43.2)	23(52.3)	2(4.5)

As may be expected, there is a close correlation between the period of service as teachers and the years of passing of the highest examination. The highest proportion (66%) of teachers with less than five years of service passed the examination during 1956-61; whereas, over one half (52%) of the teachers with 5-10 years of service passed it during 1951-56. Among teachers with 10 to 15 years of service, 42% passed their highest examination during 1947-51, but another 21% from six districts reported to have passed their highest examination between 1951 and 1961, when they were already in service. Of the teachers who passed their highest examination during 1956-61, nearly 17% did it while in service, the corresponding proportion during 1951-56 being nearly 11%. The data indicate that only a small proportion of the teachers, after they joined the service, attempted to improve their educational status.

Educational Status of Teachers :

6.6 Table 6.4 gives data on the educational qualifications of the teachers in the sample schools.

*Information not available for 9 teachers.

Table 6.4

Distribution of teachers by educational qualifications

District	Total No. of teach- ers	Educational qualifications of teachers							
		Below Middle		Middle		Matric		Above Matric	
1	2	3	4	5	6				
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Kurnool . . .	19	1	5.3	11	57.8	7	36.8
Cachar . . .	15	13	86.7	1	6.7	1	6.7
Purnea . . .	11	4	36.4	3	27.3	3	27.3	1	9.1
Amreli . . .	14	8	57.1	2	14.3	4	28.6
Bilaspur . . .	11	7	63.6	4	36.4
Anantnag . . .	16	6	37.5	9	56.3	1	6.2
Quilon . . .	18	4	22.2	5	27.8	9	50.0
Amravati . . .	15	5	33.3	6	40.0	4	26.7
Tanjore . . .	18	11	61.1	7	38.9
Saugor . . .	12	8	66.7	1	8.3	3	27.9
Mysore . . .	15	1	6.7	9	60.0	5	33.3
Sambalpur . . .	14	12	85.7	2	14.3
Hissar . . .	11	1	9.1	8	72.7	2	18.2
Tonk . . .	10	3	30.0	7	70.0
Mathura . . .	11	11	100.0
Burdwan . . .	16	2	12.5	14	87.5
TOTAL . . .	226	23		103		88		12	5.3
			10.2		45.6		38.9		

It appears that 10% of the teachers had an education below the middle standard and another 46% had passed the middle standard examination. Thus, the majority of the teachers (56%) did not pass the matriculation examination. The position varies considerably among districts with Burdwan at one end having 88% of the teachers with matriculation background, and Cachar at the other with only

7% in this category. The districts where one-half or more of the teachers were without a matriculation background are 11 out of 16, namely Kurnool, Cachar, Purnea, Amreli, Amravati, Tanjore, Quilon, Saugor, Mysore, Sambalpur and Mathura. And, among these, again, Amreli, Purnea, Amravati and Quilon had a large proportion with below-middle qualifications. There is obviously considerable scope for up-grading the educational background of the primary teachers.

6.7 In order to ascertain whether the recent expansion of higher education in rural areas has attracted better educated youth to the teaching profession, the qualifications of the teachers were analysed according to their period of recruitment. Relevant data are given in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5

Distribution of teachers by educational qualifications and their period of recruitment.

Year of recruitment	Total No. of teachers	% of total teachers in each row			
		Below Middle	Middle	Matric	Above Matric
Before 1951	84	21.4	56.0	21.4	1.2
51-'56	56	3.6	48.2	37.5	10.7
56-'61	86	3.5	33.7	57.0	5.8

From the above data, it is evident that the teachers recruited during the Plan period (51-61) were better qualified than those recruited earlier. The majority of the teachers (63%) recruited during the Second plan period '56-61 were matriculates or more whereas those with the middle or lower standard qualifications predominated among those recruited in 1951-56 and even more among those taken before 1951. The proportion of middle passed teachers shows a steady decline among teachers recruited since 1951. Before the Plan period slightly over one fifth of the teachers were below Middle passed, whereas the corresponding percentage figures in the other two categories are 3.6 and 3.5 respectively. The districts deviating from this general pattern include Kurnool, Amravati, Sambalpur, Mysore and Saugor.

6.8 The policy of appointing teachers possessing inadequate educational qualification might have been forced to some extent by the sudden expansion of the educational programmes. But a middle-passed teacher today can hardly attain a reasonable standard of efficiency, especially, if he is called upon to teach the upper classes in the primary stage. It is, therefore, necessary to provide in-service training to teachers having low educational qualifications. How far this has been done will be clear from a review of the training background of the teachers.

Training background of the teachers :

6.9 The role of the primary school teacher in the social improvement of the community has gained an importance since the initiation of the Plans. In order that the teachers may be professionally competent and socially more acceptable, they should have systematic training of different types. The inadequacy of the educational background can be partially met through teacher-training programmes. Training can be categorised into two types; regular training and orientation training, the former being relatively of a longer duration and comprising of teacher-training, basic training and physical culture training. Orientation and refresher courses are somewhat limited in scope and generally pertain to a subject such as adult literacy, Lok Sena Sahayak, scouting, first aid etc. Also their duration is brief. Table 6.6 gives districtwise position of proportion of teachers trained in the sample schools.

Table 6.6

Proportion of teachers trained in the sample schools

% of teachers trained	Districts
Below 40	Bilaspur—27, Mysore—33
40—50	Anantnag—44, Burdwan—44, Cachar—47
50—60	Sambalpur—50, Amreli—52, Amravati—53, Saugor—58
60—70	Quilon—61, Mathura—64
70—80	..
80—90	Purnea—82
90—100	Kurnool—100, Tanjore—100, Hissar—100, Tonk—90
Over-all Percentage	63.3

63.3% of the teachers in the sample schools were reported to be trained. Only in 3 districts (Kurnool, Tanjore and Hissar) all the teachers in the sample schools were trained teachers. The proportion of trained teachers is found to be very low in Bilaspur (27%) and Mysore (33%). In 4 other districts (Anantnag, Burdwan, Cachar and Sambalpur) only half or less than half of the teachers were said to have undergone regular training.

6.10 In order to find out whether the training facilities have kept pace with the expansion of schools, the training status of teachers was analysed according to the year of their recruitment. The relevant data are given in Table 6.6A.

Table 6.6 A

Training status of teachers according to year of recruitment.

District	Year of Recruitment							
	Before 1951		1951—56		1956—61		All teachers	
	Total no. of teachers	% trained	Total no. of teachers	% trained	Total no. of teachers	% trained	Total no. of teachers	% trained
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Kurnool . . .	10	100.0	4	100.0	5	100.0	19	100.0
Cachar . . .	8	37.5	2	50.0	5	60.0	15	46.7
Purnea . . .	6	100.0	3	66.7	2	50.0	11	81.8
Amreli . . .	7	85.7	1	100.0	6	16.7	14	57.1
Bilaspur . . .	3	33.3	2	100.0	6	..	11	27.3
Anantnag . . .	6	83.3	2	100.0	8	..	16	43.8
Quilon . . .	8	100.0	4	75.0	6	..	18	61.1
Amravati . . .	5	80.0	3	66.7	7	28.6	15	53.3
Tanjore . . .	7	100.0	3	100.0	8	100.0	18	100.0
Saugor . . .	1	100.0	6	50.0	5	60.0	12	58.3
Mysore . . .	4	75.0	9	22.2	2	..	15	33.3
Sambalpur . . .	6	100.0	3	33.3	5	20.0	14	50.0
Hissar . . .	1	100.0	3	100.0	7	100.0	11	100.0
Tonk . . .	2	100.0	1	..	7	100.0	10	90.0
Mathura . . .	6	100.0	1	100.0	4	..	11	63.6
Burdwan . . .	8	62.5	5	40.0	3	..	16	43.8
TOTAL . . .	88		52		86		226	
PERCENTAGE . . .		83.0		61.5		44.2		63.8

The rapid expansion of schools have necessitated employment of untrained teachers on a large scale; and although they have been in service for many years, majority of them had not undergone any regular training upto 1961 when this survey was conducted. Only 44% of the teachers recruited in 1956-61 were reported to be trained as compared to 61.5% of the teachers recruited in 1951-56 and 83% in respect of teachers recruited before 1951. If we examine the position in different districts, it is noticed that in five districts, Cachar, Bilaspur, Anantnag, Mysore and Burdwan, the majority of the teachers were untrained. At the other end are Kurnool, Tanjore, Hissar, and Tonk where all the teachers recruited since 1951 were trained. None of the teachers recruited during 1956-61 were trained in six

districts; Bilaspur, Anantnag, Quilon, Mysore, Mathura and Burdwan. The proportion trained was low in Amravati (28.6%), Sambalpur (20%) and Amreli (16.7%).

In a majority of the districts, a larger proportion of teachers recruited during 1956-61 have remained untrained than those recruited during 1951-56. Cachar, Saugor and Tonk are exceptions with higher proportion of teachers recruited during 1956-61 having undergone the training.

Type of Training :

6.11 In order to understand the scope of the training undergone by the teachers in the different districts, the type of training undergone by the teachers is indicated in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7

Distribution of teachers by type of training acquired

District	% of teachers trained	% of teachers having both teachers & basic training	% of teachers having teachers training only	% of teachers having basic training only	% of teachers having physical culture training
1	2	3	4	5	6
Kurnool	100.00	5.26	78.95	26.32	..
Cachar	53.33	..	25.00	37.50	25.00
Purnea	81.82	..	100.00
Amreli	57.14	50.00	87.50	62.50	100.00
Bilaspur	27.27	..	33.33	66.67	..
Anantnag	43.75	28.57	42.86	71.43	..
Quilon	61.11	9.09	100.00	9.09	..
Amravati	86.67	..	38.46	23.08	23.08
Tanjore	100.00	..	83.33	11.11	..
Saugor	58.33	57.14	85.71	71.43	..
Mysore	40.00	..	66.67
Sambalpur	71.43	30.00	100.00	30.00	10.00
Hissar	100.00	..	9.09	90.91	..
Tonk	90.00	..	33.33	66.67	..
Mathura	63.64	28.57	100.00	28.57	..
Burdwan	43.75	..	57.14	14.28	28.57
TOTAL	67.70	11.11	67.32	34.64	10.46

Of the 153 trained teachers, 67% had undergone teachers' training, whereas 35% of them had basic training. 11% of the teachers had

received both teachers and basic training. In a few districts, training in basic education had received considerable attention and a large proportion of teachers had the benefit of this training. None of the teachers in Mysore and Purnea had undergone basic training. A majority of the teachers, 60 to 91% were trained in basic education in Amreli, Anantnag, Bilaspur, Saugor, Hissar and Tonk. Three districts, Quilon, Tanjore and Burdwan reported only a small proportion of teachers trained in basic education. Almost all the teachers or a large proportion of them received teachers' training in Purnea, Quilon, Amreli, Tanjore, Saugor, Sambalpur and Mathura. Training in physical culture was reported in 5 districts. Amreli is the only district where all the teachers were reported to have undergone this training.

6.12 Besides the regular training of teachers, arrangement seems to exist in all districts except Anantnag for some sort of an orientation or refresher course for teachers. Out of the 153 teachers who had undergone regular training, 43% had the benefit of this short term training also. The most common item of such training is the orientation and refresher course and was reported by 14.4% of the teachers. Scout camps and physical training were reported by 8.5 and 7.2% of the teachers respectively. It is also significant to note that the short term training programme had benefited mostly the teachers already trained. Out of the 73 untrained teachers, only a small percentage (9.6%) reported participation in the orientation and the refresher courses (Appendix Table A.8).

6.13 The analysis of the training received by the teachers given above brings out clearly that there is a great need for expanding training facilities of both types the regular and the refresher courses. There is need to expand them in such a way that the untrained teachers are covered first. Besides, orientation courses on various subjects should be periodically and systematically organised.

Service condition of the Teachers :

6.14 Besides educational qualification, training and experience, there are other factors influencing the efficiency of a teacher. These may be discussed, for the sake of convenience, under two heads; conditions of service and attitudes, though the two are not independent factors, the former determining the latter to a significant extent. It has not been possible in the course of this survey to cover these areas very thoroughly. Only a few important aspects were enquired into. The probe into service conditions covers the employment status of the teachers, security in their posting, place of residence, regularity in receipt of salary, and source of income. It is these aspects that will be discussed in this section.

Employment Status :

6.15 Data on the employment status of the teachers are presented in Table 6.8. It appears that 56% of the selected teachers were Government employees, 31% were employees of local bodies, and only about 13% were employed by private organisations. Nearly all or a large majority of the teachers in Amravati, Saugor, Tonk, Mathura and Kurnool were employed by the local bodies. The distinction between Government and local bodies has not probably been drawn very clearly in the course of our field work. For example, a number of districts other than these mentioned above have School

Boards or District Boards in charge of the primary schools though the teachers in these districts have been shown as Government employees. In any case, this distinction is fast disappearing with the extension of Panchayati Raj and the handing over of primary education to the Panchayati Raj bodies in most States. It seems that eventually all primary teachers except those in private schools will be employees of local bodies. The private schools, according to the data in Table 6.8 are important only in two or three areas, most notably in Quilon (Kerala).

Table No. 6.8

Distribution of teachers by employment status and period of service

District	Employment Status			Period of service in the sample schools					Total no. of teachers
	Employees of			Up to 6 months	6 months to less than one year	1 yr. to less than 1½ yrs.	1½ yrs. to 2 yrs.	More than 2 yrs.	
	Govt.	Local body	Private Organisation						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Kurnool	1	15	3	5	5	3	1	5	19
Cachar	13	1	1	1	..	1	3	10	15
Purnea	11	1	1	9	11
Amreli	14	1	1	2	4	6	14
Bilaspur	11	3	3	1	3	4	11
Anantnag	16	4	3	2	3	4	16
Quilon	6	..	12	1	2	..	4	11	18
Amravati	..	15	2	4	2	7	15
Tanjore	1	3	14	1	3	2	..	12	18
Saugor	..	12	..	3	..	1	5	3	12
Mysore	15	1	2	3	3	6	15
Sambalpur	14	2	4	1	..	7	14
Hissar	11	3	1	7	11
Tonk	..	10	..	2	5	..	3	..	10
Mathura	..	11	..	8	1	..	1	1	11
Burdwan	14	2	3	1	12	16
TOTAL	127	69	30	36	28	23	35	104	226
%	56.2	30.5	13.3	15.9	12.4	10.2	15.5	46.0	

Duration of service in the sample school :

6.16 The analysis of the duration of the service of the selected teachers in the same school shows the extent of staff turn-over in the selected schools. Less than one-half (46%) of the selected teachers had remained in the sample schools (same school) for over two years. About 28% of them had put in less than one year of service. The transfer of teachers appears to be less frequent in districts, such as Purnea, Burdwan, Cachar, Quilon, Tanjore and Hissar. In these districts, 63 to 80% of the teachers had put in more than two years of service in the same schools. Staff turnover is

found to be most frequent in Tonk, Mathura and Kurnool. It has been observed that in some of the districts where block samitis have been set up, there has been a tendency to frequently transfer the teachers for various considerations. This mobility of teachers is apparently not conducive to their effective functioning. Perhaps, this is one of the important considerations that weighed with some of the State Governments (e.g. Punjab and Maharashtra) in deciding not to delegate powers of transfer of teachers to the newly set-up Panchayati Raj bodies.

Place of residence of the teacher :

6.17 The school can grow into a centre of cultural and community activities only if the school teacher devotes his leisure time to foster these activities. He can do this, if among other things, he is living with his family in the village where he is posted. Otherwise, he is likely to rush back to his place of residence immediately after school hours. His contacts in such a situation with the village population or even with the parents of the school children can only be superficial. Table 6.9 gives data on the place of residence of the selected teachers.

Table No. 6.9
Distribution of teachers by place of residence

District	No. of teachers				
	Living in the school village	Percentage	Living within 2 miles from school village	Living within 2-5 miles from school village	Living beyond 5 miles from school village
1	2	3	4	5	6
Kurnool	17	89.5	1	..	1
Cachar	9	60.0	5	1	..
Purnea	10	90.9	1
Amreli	6	42.9	4	3	1
Bilaspur	7	63.6	3	1	..
Anantnag	3	18.8	5	5	3
Quilon	5	27.8	8	3	2
Amravati	13	86.7	..	2	..
Tanjore	9	50.0	8	1	..
Saugor	9	75.0	3
Mysore	9	66.7	3	3	..
Sambalpur	6	42.9	1	4	3
Hissar	6	54.5	2	3	..
Tonk	6	60.0	1	2	1
Mathura	6	54.5	1	2	2
Burdwan	5	31.3	5	4	2
TOTAL	126	55.8	51	34	15
%			22.6	15.0	6.7

About 56% of the teachers reported that they lived in the villages in which they were posted, 23% lived within a radius of two

miles, 15% within 2 to 5 miles and 7% beyond 5 miles. The position among the districts varies considerably depending on local and personal factors. 80% or more of the teachers in Kurnool, Purnea and Amravati stayed in the villages of posting and 60% to 80% in Saugor, Bilaspur, Mysore, Cachar and Tonk. The proportion of teachers living in the villages of posting was low in Burdwan (31%), Quilon (28%) and Anantnag (19%). On the whole, however, the position is not particularly difficult in this respect. It is only in Sambalpur and Anantnag that 50 per cent or more of the teachers lived beyond 2 miles of their school village.

6.18 Reasons for staying away from the school village were ascertained from the teachers; and data on their responses are presented in Table 6.10.

Table No. 6.10

Reasons for staying out of village of posting as given by teachers

District	Number of teachers reporting according to reasons					
	Accommodation not available	Native village outside the village of posting	Staying with parents/relatives/families	Others	No reason given	
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Kurnool	..	1	1	..
Cachar	..	2	3	..	1	..
Purnea	1
Amreli	2	8	5	..
Bilaspur	..	3	11
Anantnag	13
Quilon	11	..	2	..
Amravati	..	1	3
Tanjore	..	4	2	..	2	..
Saugor	2	1	1	..
Mysore	..	2	8	3
Sambalpur	8
Hissar	..	2	2	1	1	..
Tonk	..	1	2	1
Mathura	5
Burdwan	11
TOTAL	..	16	65	11	13	3

Out of 100 teachers staying outside the school-village, nearly two third was staying in their native village or with some relations in nearby villages. Only a small proportion of teachers (16%) from 8 districts

reported that they were staying away from their villages of duty on account of the non-availability of accommodation. However, it happens to be the most important reason in Bilaspur and Tanjore. It is obvious that considerations of economy and convenience have influenced the choice of place of residence by the teachers.

Payment of Salary :

6.19 Table 6.11 gives the views of the selected teachers on the regularity or otherwise of payment of salary to them.

Table No. 6.11

Views of the teachers regarding regularity in Payment of salary

District	Total reporting	Percentage of teachers reporting salary being paid regularly	No. reporting salary being paid monthly	No. reporting payment of salary on fixed date	Percentage of Col. 5/4
1	2	3	4	5	6
Kurnool	19	5.3	19
Cachar	15	20.0	13	1	6.7
Purnea	11	..	11
Amreli	14	100.00	14	14	100.0
Bilaspur	11	27.3	11
Anantnag	16	93.8	15	13	81.2
Quilon	18	77.8	16	3	21.4
Amravati	15	..	15
Tanjore	18	100.0	18	14	77.8
Saugor	12	..	9
Mysore	15	100.0	15	15	100.0
Sambalpur	14	14.3	13
Hissar	11	100.0	11	11	100.0
Tonk	10	100.0	10	10	100.0
Mathura	11	27.3	9
Burdwan	16	81.3	16	1	6.3
TOTAL	226		215	82	
%		54.0	95.1	36.3	36.3

Only about 54% of the teachers reported that they received their salary regularly. All the teachers in 5 districts Amreli, Tanjore, Mysore, Hissar and Tonk stated that salary was being paid regularly. Anantnag, Burdwan and Quilon are three other districts where a large majority of teachers—78 to 94%—reported regular payment of salary. Irregular payment of salary was reported mainly in Kurnool, Purnea, Amravati, Saugor, Sambalpur, Mathura and Cachar, and in many of these districts by an overwhelming majority of the sample teachers.

6.20 As to the periodicity of payment, an overwhelming majority (95%) of the teachers reported that they got their salary on a monthly

basis. Only about 5 per cent of the teachers were not getting paid every month, probably because some of them were new recruits whose salary bills were yet to be regularized. About 36% said that they got the salary on a fixed date, whereas a majority (64%) reported that they did not get their salary on any fixed date. The districts where this was reported by a majority of the sample teachers are Kurnool, Cachar, Purnea, Bilaspur, Quilon, Amravati, Saugor, Sambalpur and Mathura. Payment of salary to the primary teachers on a fixed date every month is matter in which improvement is possible and urgently needed.

Subsidiary income:

6.21 Since the pay of the primary school teachers is low, it would be useful to know whether they have any other sources of income and, if so, the average monthly income from such sources. Table 6.12 gives the relevant information on these points.

Table No. 6.12

Distribution of teachers according to age and additional income

District	No. of teachers below 35 years of age	Percentage of reporting additional income	No. of teachers of 35 years of age and above	Percentage reporting additional income	Total No. of teachers	Percentage reporting additional income
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kurnool	10	20.0	9	44.4	19	31.6
Cachar	8	50.0	7	85.7	15	66.7
Purnea	6	..	5	40.0	11	18.2
Amreli	7	..	7	28.6	14	14.3
Bilaspur	10	50.0	1	..	11	45.5
Anantnag	12	16.7	4	25.0	16	18.8
Quilon	12	33.3	6	83.3	18	50.0
Amravati	11	45.5	4	25.0	15	40.0
Tanjore	14	42.9	4	25.0	18	38.9
Saugor	10	30.0	2	50.0	12	33.3
Mysore	8	25.0	7	28.6	15	26.7
Sambalpur.	9	11.1	5	80.0	14	35.7
Hissar	10	..	1	100.0	11	9.9
Tonk	10	10	..
Mathura	6	50.0	5	60.0	11	54.5
Burdwan	12	91.7	4	100.0	16	93.7
TOTAL	155	31.0	71	52.1	226	37.6

Nearly 38% of the teachers reported that they had additional income from other sources. In Burdwan 94% of the teachers, 67%

of the teachers in Cachar and 55% in Mathura reported income from other sources. All the teachers in Tonk reported that they had no other income whereas only a small proportion of teachers (10 to 20%) in Anantnag, Purnea, Amreli and Hissar had additional sources of income.

6.22 Table 6.12 also gives data on the relationship between age of teachers and additional sources of income.

There is some correlation between the age of teachers and the additional sources of income. A larger proportion of teachers (52%) in the higher age group (above 35 years) had other sources of income, than the younger teachers (31%). However, Amravati and Tanjore show deviations. In 5 districts, Cachar, Quilon, Sambalpur, Hissar and Burdwan, 85 to 100% of the teachers in the higher age group mentioned other sources of income. In Hissar, although the percentage figure in this group is 100, the number of teachers is only one. In most of the remaining districts, the percentage figures for teachers in the higher-age group are much below the overall average and, except in Mathura, below 50. As regards teachers in the younger age-group, none of the teachers in 4 districts (Purnea, Amreli, Hissar and Tonk) reported any other source of income. In Sambalpur (11%) and Anantnag (17%), only a small proportion of the younger teachers reported additional income. It is only in Burdwan that the percentage figure is very high (92) even for younger teachers.

6.23 Details about the average income from other sources are given in Table 6.13.

The average income of the teachers from other sources works out to Rs. 34 per month. It is found to be lowest in Hissar (Rs. 8) and highest in Tanjore (Rs. 74). The income of the teachers from other sources is found to be high in Sambalpur also where the figure is Rs. 64. In Mathura and Cachar it is found to be Rs. 44 and Rs. 39 respectively. In Burdwan, Amravati and Amreli it is around the overall average, whereas it is considerably below the overall average (below Rs. 20) in Mysore, Saugor, Purnea and Kurnool. In the remaining districts also it is somewhat low and ranges from Rs. 20 to Rs. 27.00. Analysis of the additional income of teachers according to broad income-groups gives a better picture of the differences in additional income among the teachers in each of the districts. Majority of the teachers, 37 out of 85, reported an average income of Rs. 15 per month, whereas 20 others had an average income of Rs. 31 only. About one fourth of the teachers had an average income exceeding Rs. 50 per month. Among them 12 teachers had an additional monthly income as much as or more than the salary they would be getting as teachers. Tanjore is a notable exception with 4 teachers reporting an additional monthly income exceeding Rs. 200. The extent of reliance on other sources of income by the primary teachers is determined by a number of factors. Need for it is no doubt one of the important urges.

Sources of income :

6.24 In order to understand the importance of the sources of income, relevant data were analysed according to the source from which income was obtained by the teachers and their proportion to total additional income. Relevant details are given in Table 6.14.

Table No. 6.13

Income of teachers from other sources

District	Total No. of teachers.	No. reporting addl. income	% to total teachers	Avg. income per teacher reporting (Rs.)	Range of monthly income from additional source										
					Up to Rs. 10/- p.m.		Rs. 10-25 p.m.		Rs. 25-50 p.m.		Rs. 50-75 p.m.		Rs. 75 & above		
					No. reporting	Average income per teacher (Rs.)	No. reporting	Average income per teacher (Rs.)	No. reporting	Average income per teacher (Rs.)	No. reporting	Average income per teacher (Rs.)	No. reporting	Average income per teacher (Rs.)	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
Kurnool	19	6	31.6	18.00	6	17.50
Cachar	15	10	66.7	39.00	5	18.00	2	27.50	1	60.00	2	90.00	..
Purnea	11	2	18.2	19.00	1	10.00	1	25.00
Amreli	14	2	14.3	33.00	2	32.50
Bilaspur	11	5	45.5	20.00	1	5.00	2	10.00	2	37.50
Anantnag	16	3	18.8	27.00	2	15.00	1	50.00
Quilon	18	9	50.0	21.00	3	7.29	4	16.00	2	50.00
Amravati	15	6	40.0	35.00	2	11.00	2	30.50	1	50.00	1	85.00	..
Tanjore	18	7	38.9	74.00	1	2.50	1	41.75	1	50.00	4	204.14	..
Saugor	12	4	33.3	16.00	1	10.00	2	26.50
Mysore	15	4	26.7	11.00	1	5.00	2	7.50	1	25.00
Sambalpur	14	5	55.7	64.00	2	12.50	1	50.00	2	115.00	..
Hissar	11	1	9.1	8.00	1	3.00
Tonk	10
Mathura	11	6	54.5	44.00	2	12.50	1	40.00	2	50.00	1	100.00	..
Burdwan	16	15	93.8	33.00	7	17.14	6	28.83	2	100.00	..
TOTAL	226	85	37.6	34.00	6	6.60	37	14.56	20	30.69	9	51.10	12	134.30	..

Table 6.14

Additional income of teachers by sources

Source	No. of districts reporting	No. of teachers reporting	Percentage of teachers reporting	Percentage to total additional income
Agricultural land	13	69	81.2	86.1
Post Master	4	6	7.1	5.2
Private tuition	4	7	8.2	4.2
Adult literacy class	3	3	3.5	1.8
Other part-time employments	6	6	7.1	2.7

It may be seen that the majority of the teachers (81%) obtain their additional income from agricultural land and it constituted 86% of the total income. Other part-time employment reported is not found to be important.

Satisfaction with the job :

6.25 Given the capacity and aptitude of a person for a job, his efficiency depends on the satisfaction he derives from the job. Table 6.15 gives data on the proportion of teachers reporting satisfaction with their job.

Table 6.15

Distribution of teachers by their attitude towards their present job.

District	Total No. of teachers	% of teachers expressing satisfaction
Kurnool	19	89.5
Cachar	15	66.7
Purnea	11	56.3
Amreli	14	92.9
Bilaspur	11	63.6
Anantnag	16	75.0
Quilon	18	88.9
Amravati	15	73.3
Tanjore	18	77.8
Saugor	12	66.7
Mysore	15	100.0
Sambalpur	14	78.6
Hissar	11	100.0
Tonk	10	60.0
Mathura	11	81.8
Burdwan	16	81.2
TOTAL	226	78.3

Nearly 78% of the teachers reported satisfaction with their present job, which is indeed a high proportion. All or nearly all of the teachers in Hissar (100%), Mysore (100%), Amreli (93%), Kurnool (90%) and Quilon (89%) reported satisfaction with their job. At the other end of the scale were districts like Cachar (67%), Saugor (67%), Bilaspur (64%), Tonk (60%) and Purnea (56%). It may be noted that these happen to be the districts (except Cachar) where a majority of the teachers did not report any additional source of income. In any case, in all but three of the districts, two-thirds, or more of the sample teachers expressed that they were satisfied with their jobs. This is, indeed a striking feature of their attitude.

6.26 An analysis of the attitude of the teachers towards the job according to their period of service, as may be seen in Table 6.16, shows that teachers with longer years of service were more satisfied than those with a shorter period of teaching. This may, perhaps be due to the fact that the older ones get reconciled to their lot.

Table 6.16

Distribution of teachers according to the duration of service and satisfaction with their present job

District	Percentage of teachers reporting satisfaction with job according to period in service			
	Below 5 years	5—10 years	Less than 10 years	10 years and above
1	2	3	4	5
Kurnool	83.0	75.0	80.0	100.0
Cachar	60.0	67.0	63.0	71.0
Purnea	50.0	25.0	33.0	40.0
Amreli	83.0	100.0	86.0	100.0
Bilaspur	50.0	100.0	63.0	67.0
Anantnag	78.0	Nil	64.0	100.0
Quilon	67.0	100.0	83.0	100.0
Amravati	67.0	75.0	70.0	80.0
Tanjore	69.0	100.0	75.0	100.0
Saugor	60.0	67.0	64.0	100.0
Mysore	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sambalpur	71.0	50.0	67.0	100.0
Hissar	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Tonk	43.0	100.0	50.0	100.0
Mathura	100.0	100.0	100.0	67.0
Burdwan	75.0	60.0	67.0	100.0
TOTAL	72.0	77.0	74.0	88.0

Nearly 88% of the teachers with 10 years or more of service were satisfied with their present employment as against 77% of teachers with 5 to 10 years of service and 72% with less than 5 years of service or 74% of those with less than 10 years of service. However, in

a large number of the districts, the data show a divergence from this pattern. In two districts, Mysore and Hissar, all the teachers in each of the service period groups have reported satisfaction. In 11 out of the 16 districts, all the teachers having 10 years or more of service reported satisfaction with their job; whereas only in 6 districts all the teachers in the younger age group (5 to 10 years of service) reported satisfaction. It is only in Purnea and Tonk that less than 50% of the teachers in service for more than 10 years were satisfied with their jobs. In all other districts that proportion was much more than one-half (50%).

6.27 Table 6.17 presents data on the reasons given by teachers for satisfaction with their job.

Table 6.17

Reasons for being satisfied with the job as given by teachers

District	No. of teachers reporting satisfaction for the following reasons								
	Total reporting	Liking for the profession	Job best suited to qualifications	Near the native place	Service to the community	Other jobs not suitable	Less responsibilities	Scope for further study	Others
Kurnool	17	11	..	5	1
Cachar .	10	5	1	2	1	1
Purnea .	4	1	3
Amreli .	13	2	9	1	1
Bilaspur	7	3	..	1	1	1	..	1	..
Anantnag	12	9	1	..	1	1	..
Quilon .	16	6	6	4
Amravati	11	1	7	2	1
Tanjore .	14	2	..	1	1	3	4	..	3
Saugor .	8	..	5	2	1
Mysore .	15	2	4	3	5	..	1
Sambalpur	11	8	2	1	..
Hissar .	11	10	1
Tonk .	6	1	1	1	..	2	1
Mathura	9	1	2	2	2	1	1
Burdwan	11	10	1
TOTAL	175	71	36	18	9	14	12	7	8
%		40.5	20.6	10.3	5.1	8.0	6.8	4.0	4.6

Forty one per cent of the teachers who reported satisfaction with their job maintained that they liked the profession, another 21% accepted the job as best suited to their qualification. About 10% of the teachers considered the fact of their posting near the native village, enough of a reason for their liking the job. Other reasons advanced by a few teachers were that the job amounted to community service, that other available jobs were not suitable, that there

was less responsibility and more scope for further study. A scrutiny of the reasons given by the teachers show that these can probably be lumped under three broad groups. Liking for the profession or the opportunity it provides, say, for community service is one category that has weighed with nearly 46% of the teachers. Secondly, ease and convenience on account of either the proximity of the job to native place or less responsibility or scope for further study were the reasons for satisfaction with 21 per cent of the teachers. The remaining 34% or so apparently adjusted themselves to the job for lack of other opportunities.

6.28 The district pattern shows variations. In Hissar, Burdwan, Anantnag, Sambalpur and Kurnool, a large majority of the teachers who were satisfied with their job liked the profession. 60 to 70% of the teachers in Amreli, Amravati and Saugor felt that the job was suitable to their qualifications. In districts like Kurnool, Tanjore and Mysore, the teachers' attitudes reflect to some extent considerations of ease and convenience to a very large extent.

Reasons for dis-satisfaction :

6.29 Table 6.18 presents information on the reasons for dissatisfaction as given by the teachers who were not satisfied with their jobs.

Table 6.18

Reasons of dissatisfaction as reported by the teachers

District	Total reporting	No. of teachers reporting dissatisfaction for the following reasons					Others
		Meagre Salary	Irregular payment of salary	Away from family	Difficulties experienced with the management or villagers		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Kurnool	2	1	1	
Cachar	5	4	1	
Purnea	7	7	
Amreli	1	1	
Bilaspur	4	2	..	1	..	1	
Anantnag	4	4	
Quilon	2	..	1	1	
Amravati	4	..	3	1	
Tanjore	4	4	..	
Saugor	4	3	1	
Mysore	
Sambalpur	3	3	
Hissar	
Tonk	4	3	1	
Mathura	2	2	
Burdwan	3	2	1	
TOTAL	49	28	4	3	6	8	
	%	57.1	8.1	6.1	12.2	16.3	

It is apparent that more than one-half of the dis-satisfied teachers (57%) mentioned as reason the meagre salary that they were paid. Irregular payment of salary was mentioned only by 8% of teachers from two districts, Amravati and Quilon. All the teachers in Tanjore mentioned difficulties experienced with the management or the villagers. In two districts, 3 teachers mentioned separation from their families as the reason for their unhappiness. Large number of teachers (16%) gave various other reasons of a personal nature.

Future prospects :

6.30 Table 6.19 presents the views of the teachers regarding future prospects in their job.

Table 6.19
Views of teachers on future prospects of their job

District	% of teachers reporting satisfaction
Kurnool	33.3
Cachar	35.7
Purnea	100.0
Amreli	100.0
Bilaspur	81.8
Anantnag	46.7
Quilon	50.0
Amravati	6.7
Tanjore	94.1
Saugor	40.0
Mysore	86.7
Sambalpur	85.7
Hissar	80.0
Tonk	60.0
Mathura	90.9
Burdwan	46.2
TOTAL	58.3

NOTE.—4.4% of the teachers did not give any views.

It is interesting to note that whereas only 22% of the teachers expressed dis-satisfaction with their job, about 42% expressed dis-satisfaction with the future prospects in their job. The proportion of teachers expressing dis-satisfaction with the prospects was as high as 100% in Purnea and 93% in Amravati. About 50 to 67 per cent of the teachers in Kurnool, Cachar, Anantnag, Quilon, Saugor and Burdwan reported dis-satisfaction with their future prospects.

On the other hand a large proportion of teachers (over 80%) in Amreli, Tanjore, Mathura, Sambalpur, Mysore and Bilaspur were rather optimistic about their future prospects.

Willingness to continue as teacher:

6.31 The teachers were also asked to give their opinion as to whether they were willing to continue in their job. Table 6.20 presents information on their views in this respect.

Table 6.20

Teachers reporting their willingness to continue as teachers

District	No. reporting @			Reasons for willingness				
	Will- ing- ness	Unwill- ingness	Likes tea- ching	No alter- native job/ served many years	Can't get better job	Belongs to this area and can attend to domestic affairs	Social service	Others
Kurnool	19	..	8	6	3	1	1	..
Cachar	15	..	10	4	..	3	1	..
Purnea	8	3	1	..	5	2
Amreli	13	1	1	12	..
Bilaspur	11	..	4	5	1	1
Anantnag	14	2	7	3	2
Quilon	17	1	1	6	..	1
Amravati	15	..	1	7	8
Tanjore	18	..	14	..	1	..	2	3
Saugor	12	..	9	1	1	1
Mysore	15	11	4
Sambalpur	12	2	10	1	..
Hissar	10	1	10
Tonk	9	1	6	1	..	1	1	..
Mathura	11	1	6	1	2	..
Burdwan	12	2	3	5	2	1	..	1
TOTAL	211*	13	85	44	30	15	20	10
%	94.2	5.8	41.3	20.9	14.2	7.1	9.5	4.7

Nearly 94 per cent of the teachers reported their willingness to continue in their job. The reasons given for their willingness were more or less similar in frequency and importance to those given for being satisfied with their job. Over one-third of the teachers (41%) expressed their willingness to continue as teachers because

@ 2 teachers did not report.

*15 teachers did not give reasons for willingness.

they liked the profession. About 21% felt that they had no alternative employment available to them as they had served in this capacity too long to think of any other job at this stage. Another 14% said that they wanted to continue as they could not get a better job. About 7% stated that they belonged to the area and could thus conveniently attend to their domestic affairs. Only a small proportion, about 9%, wanted to continue in this line because of the opportunity in it for social service. The importance of these reasons, of course, differed from area to area. Liking for the profession has been mentioned mostly in Kurnool, Cachar, Anantnag, Tanjore, Saugor, Hissar and Tonk. Reasons such as lack of alternative jobs, and fixation in the present job because of long years of service were mentioned mostly in Mysore, Amravati, Burdwan and Bilaspur. That they had not been able to get better jobs had been reported as the reason for willingness to continue as teachers, mainly in Purnea, Amravati, Mysore and Mathura.

6.32 The above analysis reveals that whereas the majority of the teachers are by and large satisfied with their present job and are hopeful of future prospects, a very significant minority, although willing to continue in the job for want of a better alternative, does not like it or does not feel hopeful about the future prospects. The most widely expressed dissatisfaction is the low salary of the teachers and the lack of any chance of betterment in the future. Since the majority of the teachers, especially the younger ones, cannot supplement their income from other sources, they can only think of an upgrading of their pay scale as the measure necessary to remove their general discontent. The extent to which such upgrading can benefit them will, however, depend also on their qualification and the possibility of its improvement. Unfortunately, our data show that a large proportion of the teachers have rather inadequate educational qualifications and training.

In the total sample of all villages, only 58% of the sample households were sending their children to school. Variation among the districts is marked. In districts such as Amritsar, Tanjore and Quilon over 80% of the households were sending their children to school. At the other end of the scale are Purnea, Saugor, Tonk and Anantnag where the proportion is low, ranging from 33 to 48%. Sambhalpur and Hissar are two other districts below the overall average in this respect.

7.3 As between the school and the non-school villages, a significantly larger proportion of households in the former were sending their children to school than in the non-school villages, the respective proportions being 63 and 50 per cent. This is found to be the situation in all districts except Bikaner and Amravati. In these two districts school facilities have been utilized to a slightly greater extent by the sample households in the non-school villages than those in the school villages. In two other districts, Quilon and Amravati, the proportion of households sending children to school does not differ

CHAPTER VII

THE HOUSEHOLD BACKGROUND OF CHILDREN AND THEIR SCHOOLING (1962)

7.1 Whereas in chapter IV, the growth in the enrolment of children in primary schools was analysed on the basis of data collected from the records of the sample schools, the attempt in this chapter will be to assess the position regarding school-going and enrolment with reference to the children in the sample households. The objective in this chapter is not only to obtain an idea of the proportion of children in the school-going age attending schools in households of different classes, but also to analyse the pursuits of children who never attended schools, the suggestions of parents and teachers to improve attendance and enrolment in schools and, in general, to look at the field from the angle of the households. Relevant data were collected from two types of households in the sample villages; (i) a sample of all households having children of school-going age in these villages; and (ii) a smaller sample of households which did not send any of their children to school. (These are referred to in the report as 0.1 and 0.2 households). These samples were drawn for each of the sample villages, the latter comprising, again, of school and non-school villages. In deriving estimates for all sample villages, appropriate weightage has been given to the sub-sample estimates for the school and the non-school villages.

Proportion of sample households sending children to school :

7.2 A hypothesis generally accepted is that if schooling facilities are available in or near the village, parents show a greater readiness to send their children to school. In order to test this hypothesis, the proportion of sample households sending children to school was analysed separately for villages with school from those without school (non-school villages). The relevant data are given in Table 7.1 which shows the position at the time of this investigation, i.e. during early part of 1962.

In the total sample of all villages, only 59% of the sample households were sending their children to school. Variation among the districts is marked. In districts such as Amreli, Tanjore and Quilon, over 80% of the households were sending their children to school. At the other end of the scale are Purnea, Saugor, Tonk and Anantnag where this proportion is low, ranging from 33 to 49%. Sambalpur and Hissar are two other districts below the overall average in this respect.

7.3. As between the school and the non-school villages, a significantly larger proportion of households in the former were sending their children to school than in the non-school villages, the respective proportions being 69 and 50 per cent. This is found to be the situation in all districts except Bilaspur and Amravati. In these two districts, school facilities have been utilised to a slightly greater extent by the sample households in the non-school villages than those in the school villages. In two other districts, Quilon and Amravati, the proportion of households sending children to school does not differ

Table 7.1

Proportion of sample households sending children to primary school at the time of investigation (1962)

District	Proportion (%) of households sending children to school		
	School villages	Non-school villages	All villages (Weighted percentage)
Kurnool .. .	63.8	[—]	63.8
Cachar . . .	75.0	62.5	70.0
Purnea . . .	64.5	41.7	48.9
Amreli . . .	87.6	[—]	87.5
Bilaspur .. .	62.9	69.2	68.3
Anantnag . . .	40.0	25.0	33.0
Quilon . . .	98.6	96.7	97.7
Amravati . . .	78.7	81.3	79.3
Tanjore . . .	81.3	[—]	81.3
Saugor . . .	68.4	37.5	46.2
Mysore . . .	75.7	21.1	63.7
Sambalpur . . .	59.4	5.9	54.1
Hissar . . .	59.2	11.8	51.0
Tonk . . .	42.1	42.9	42.2
Mathura . . .	65.3	53.1	61.3
Burdwan . . .	78.7	55.6	74.3
TOTAL . . .	69.1	50.2	59.1

(—) Indicates no non-school village in the sample.

much between school and non-school villages. In the remaining 12 districts, however, the differences are noticeable; and in the so-called relatively backward districts such as Sambalpur, Hissar and Tonk, the disparity in utilisation of school facilities between school and non-school villages is even more marked. These data provide, therefore, support to the hypothesis that the existence of a school in a village induces the parents to send their children to school.

Variation among occupational groups :

7.4 In order to find out whether the economic status of the household makes any difference to the schooling of children, the data on the proportion of households sending children to school were analysed according to five broad occupational groups. These are presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2

Proportion of households sending children to school by occupational group of household. (1962)

Occupational group	% of households sending children to school		
	School villages	Non-school villages	All villages (Weighted)
Big cultivators	84.4	66.0	75.0
Medium cultivators	73.6	48.1	60.1
Small cultivators	64.0	46.2	54.6
Landless labourers	51.5	35.6	43.1
Other occupations	74.3	56.0	64.6

The data in Table 7.2 show a systematic increase in the proportion of households sending children to school, as one goes up the scale of economic status from landless labourers (43%) to small (55%), medium (60%) and big cultivators (75%). Households in other occupations form a small, heterogenous group and are, therefore, placed a little above the middle of the scale. Secondly, a larger proportion of households in the school villages from each of these occupational groups has availed of the schooling facilities than in the non-school villages. These data confirm the general hypothesis that the appreciation of the need for educating children and willingness to send them to school vary directly with economic status or class of households.

7.5 Figures for the average of all districts given in Table 7.2 conceal a tremendous inter-district variation. The position in the selected districts in respect of the utilisation of school facilities by households in the different occupational groups is brought out in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3

Proportion of households sending children to school by occupational group and district (1962).

District	Proportion (%) of households sending children to school					Total
	Cultivators			Landless labourers	Others	
	Big	Medium	Small			
Kurnool	93.3	60.0	66.7	33.3	63.6	63.8
Cachar	95.0	80.0	55.0	37.3	88.0	70.0
Purnea	63.3	22.1	54.4	48.1	51.2	48.9
Amreli	87.5	93.8	81.3	81.3	93.8	87.5
Bilaspur	84.6	66.3	66.7	70.7	38.8	68.3
Anantnag	50.0	22.3	28.3	10.9	55.1	32.7
Quilon	100.0	91.8	96.6	100.0	100.0	97.7
Amravati	86.2	79.7	81.5	72.8	60.5	79.3
Tanjore	93.3	93.3	73.3	60.0	86.7	81.3
Saugor	60.5	73.3	42.5	12.3	14.0	46.2
Mysore	69.5	68.3	65.6	48.3	70.2	63.6
Sambalpur	73.2	64.4	28.1	50.7	54.0	54.1
Hissar	48.8	43.9	43.9	33.3	100.0	48.8
Tonk	69.1	45.4	7.0	9.3	22.3	26.7
Mathura	87.5	62.6	54.2	41.7	66.5	61.3
Burdwan	100.0	95.2	85.5	20.3	65.2	74.3
ALL DISTRICTS	75.0	60.1	54.6	43.1	64.6	59.1

The position revealed by Table 7.3 may be summarised as follows. As far as the *big cultivators* are concerned, all or nearly all of them

(above 90%) were sending their children to school in Quilon, Burdwan, Cachar, Tanjore and Kurnool. Less than three-fourths of them, which was the average for this group in 1962, were sending their children in Hissar, Anantnag, Saugor, Purnea, Mysore, Tonk and Sambalpur. Among the *medium cultivators*, more than 90% were sending their children to school again in Burdwan, Tanjore, Amreli and Quilon; whereas in Cachar and Amravati the proportion was 80%. In 1962, the districts below the average for this group (60%) were Purnea, Anantnag, Hissar and Tonk. As regards *small cultivators*, the districts with more than 80% of households sending children to schools included Quilon, Burdwan, Amravati and Amreli while districts below the average for this group (55%) were Tonk, Sambalpur, Anantnag, Saugor, Hissar, Purnea and Mathura. In the case of landless labourers, however, there were only two districts with figures more than 80%, namely Quilon and Amreli. Among the districts below the very low average for this group (43%), are not only districts like Anantnag, Tonk, Saugor and Hissar; but also districts like Burdwan, Cachar and Kurnool which showed a very high figure for the cultivators group. Households belonging to other occupational groups hold a position somewhere along the middle of the cultivator groups.

7.6 These data show not only a disparity in the behaviour of households in the matter of sending children to school as between different occupational groups, but also a disparity in this respect even among the members of the same occupational group in different districts. It can only be assumed here that such disparate behaviour arises not only because of differences in economic status of households but also differences in educational background of parents and other family members, the tradition of primary education and value attached to it in each area. If school enrolment is to be increased further and the parents are to be motivated to send their children to school, the nature of effort as well as its concentration among groups would naturally have to be orientated to the situation in each district. From this point of view, the data in Table 7.3 can offer a few guide lines. In the first place, in a district like Quilon (as is to be expected in Kerala) the motivation for the education of children seems to be widespread among all occupational groups, so-much-so that nearly all families have been sending their children to school. The position in Amreli comes closest to that in Quilon. In a second group may be placed Amravati and Tanjore where the landless labourers or some of the small farmers and some of the other occupational groups are somewhat lagging behind and can, with a little more inducement or motivation, help raise the proportion for these areas to the level of Quilon. In the third group may be categorized districts like Burdwan, Cachar and Kurnool which show the widest disparity between the poorest sections like landless labourers and the big and medium cultivators. In such districts, the growth of enrolment will depend very largely on the extent to which the landless labourers can be persuaded to send their children to school. Hissar, Tonk and Anantnag may be put in a fourth category, in as much as the enrolment position in these areas is among the lowest for all occupational groups and efforts to induce parents to send children to schools have to be directed to all occupational group, probably with more concentration on landless labourers and the weaker section. The remaining districts can form the residual category in which efforts need to be made not only to correct the

disparity among the occupational groups but also to raise the level in each group.

Proportion of school-going children by age-group :

7.7 It is generally assumed that children attending primary schools belong to the age group 6-11 years. On this basis, the proportion of children of school-going age attending primary school is usually worked out. Such estimates tend to inflate the proportion of enrolment. To obtain an idea of the extent of such inflation, the school-going children in the sample households have been classified according to their age and their distribution by age worked out. The relevant data are presented in table 7.4.

Table 7.4

Distribution of children attending primary school by age-group (1962)

Age group years	Percent of total school going boys, girls and children								
	School villages			Non school villages			Overall average		
	Boys	Girls	All children	Boys	Girls	All children	Boys	Girls	All children
5—6	4.3	4.9	4.5	2.3	..	1.7	3.2	2.3	3.0
6—11 years	72.2	78.4	74.2	66.6	78.7	69.8	69.3	78.5	71.9
11—15 years	23.5	16.7	21.3	31.1	21.3	28.5	27.5	19.2	25.1

It appears from the data in Table 7.4 that among the school-going children in all the sample households, those in the age group 11-15 years constituted one-fourth (25%) of the total. This is indeed a fairly high figure. The proportion of children attending primary classes belonging to the age-group 5-6 years was small (3%), whereas the children in the age-group 6-11 years accounted for 72%. As between boys and girls attending school, a larger proportion of boys belonged to the age-group 11-15 years (28%) as compared to girls (19%). This is perhaps due to the general tendency of parents to discontinue the schooling of girls when they attain puberty.

7.8 There is also a perceptible difference in the age composition of the children attending primary classes as between the school and the non-school villages. The proportion of school-going children in the age group 11-15 years was higher in the non-school villages (28.5%) than in the school villages (21.3%), the corresponding figures for boys being 31.1 and 23.5 per cent, and for girls 21.3 and 16.7, respectively. The opposite tendency is noticed among children in the age-group 5-6 years who naturally cannot be expected to be allowed to go to school outside their village except when the school-village is almost like an adjacent habitation.

Proportion of children of sample households, attending school by age-group :

7.9 Of all the children in the sample households, what is the proportion going to school? For the purpose of this analysis, the children in the age-group 5-15 years in the sample households have been taken into account and the proportion of them going to primary and other schools worked out by age-group. The relevant data are given in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5

Proportion of all children in sample households attending school by age-group (1962).

Age group	All villages	School villages	Non-school villages
5— 6 years	14.7	22.6	7.9
6—11 years	52.4	63.2	42.8
11—15 years	*	53.1	52.7
5—15 years	48.9	55.9	42.7

In the sample villages only one half (49%) of the children between 5-15 years in the sample households attended schools in 1962. The figure for school villages was higher (56%) than for non-school villages (43%). The proportion varies considerably among the different age groups. The proportion of children attending school was naturally much lower in the age-group 5 to 6 years. The proportion in the age-group 6-11 years and 11 to 15 years is more or less the same (52 and 53% respectively). A little less than one-third (15.7% against 52.9%) of the children in the age-group 11 to 15 years was, however, attending classes above the primary level. Thus, over two-thirds of the children between 11 and 15 years going to school were attending primary classes. The stagnation of children in the same class for more than the normal period and higher age at the time of admission are the factors contributing to this.

7.10 The above data also show that a larger proportion of children attended schools in the school villages than in the non-school villages; the proportion being 56% for the school villages and 43% for the non-school villages. The difference is not noticeable in respect of children in the age-group 11-15 years, where the proportion is more or less the same for both the school and the non-school villages. Our data support the general hypothesis that parents are generally hesitant to send their children, especially, young ones, to schools located outside the villages, if they are not within an easy walking distance.

7.11 The position in the selected districts is given in the data presented in Table 7.6.

*37.2% were attending primary school and 15.7 were in above primary classes.

Table 7.6

Proportion of all children in sample households attending school by age-group and district.

District	All Children					Total
	5 to 6 years	6 to 11 years	11 to 15 years			
			Primary	Above primary		
Kurnool	15.4	67.7	15.0	5.0	20.0	50.6
Cachar	36.3	65.9	50.6	18.8	69.4	62.0
Purnea	..	35.2	3.1	3.1	6.2	26.8
Amreli	..	83.8	46.5	4.2	50.7	54.1
Bilaspur	44.8	65.7	44.8	16.8	61.7	54.7
Anantnag	..	23.0	12.8	40.1	52.9	29.8
Quilon	27.8	93.6	42.7	32.4	75.1	83.1
Amravati	..	74.7	36.0	20.2	56.2	62.2
Tanjore	57.1	78.6	29.1	27.3	56.4	69.2
Saugor	30.7	34.6	23.3	12.0	35.3	33.8
Mysore	26.0	53.9	21.7	16.9	38.7	50.7
Sambalpur	48.0	50.0	25.2	3.6	28.8	50.1
Hissar	20.8	37.6	26.5	6.5	33.0	33.8
Tonk	4.9	24.3	54.6	0.9	55.5	29.5
Mathura	3.6	49.6	39.5	11.4	50.9	40.0
Burdwan	14.3	65.5	63.1	19.3	82.4	66.2
TOTAL	14.7	52.4	37.2	15.7	52.9	48.9

It appears that 52.4 per cent of the children in the sample households, aged 6 to 11 years, were going to primary school in 1962. Quilon is the only district showing a very high proportion of school-going (94%); with Amreli (84%) coming next. The proportion was between 70 and 80 per cent in Tanjore and Amravati and between 60 and 70 per cent in Kurnool, Burdwan, Cachar and Bilaspur. The districts showing figures below the average were Anantnag (23%), Tonk (24%), Saugor (35%), Purnea (35%), Hissar (38%), Mathura (50%) and Sambalpur (50%). The relative position for different districts is more or less the same as is reflected by the data on the proportion of households sending children to school.

7.12 When the proportion going to school (primary and above) of all children in the age-group 5-15 years is considered, it is found to be a little lower (49%) than the figure for the age-group 6-11 years (52%). But the relative position in different districts does not change even when this figure is used.

7.13 Analysis of children attending school by age and occupational group of the household is given in table 7.7.

Table 7.7

Proportion of children attending school according to age and occupational groups.

% of children in sample households

Occupation	11-15 years			Total	All children 5-15
	5-6 years	6 to 11 years	Above primary		
Big	23.5	64.2	47.9	24.8	72.6
Medium	7.1	54.9	30.8	15.2	46.0
Small	11.5	43.0	42.0	9.6	51.6
Landless	9.9	39.4	24.4	7.2	31.7
Others	12.7	60.2	50.8	21.7	72.5
All groups	14.6	52.3	37.2	15.7	52.9

The proportion of children attending school in all the age-groups seems to differ among the occupational groups. The big cultivators and others enrolled in schools the highest proportion of their children (61%). This proportion was lowest for the landless labourers (35%). For the remaining two occupational groups the percentage figures are found to be 42 and 49 respectively. Big cultivators appear to enrol their children in school much earlier than others with the result that nearly one-fourth of the children between 5 and 6 years were attending schools, whereas in the remaining occupational groups this proportion ranges from 7.1 for medium cultivators to 12.7% for the other occupational groups. Big cultivators and others were also sending relatively higher proportion of children belonging to other age groups also. The proportion exceeds 60%. In the remaining occupational groups, the proportion of children attending school is found to be much less. It is also significant to note that the majority of the children in all the occupational groups in the age-group 11 to 15 years were attending primary classes.

7.14. There is a significant difference between the proportion of boys sent to school and that of girls, as will be apparent from the following figures:

	Proportion (%) going to school			
	5-6 years	6-11 years	11-15 years	5-15 years
Boys	19.5	59.4	61.1	56.4
Girls	8.5	41.7	36.0	36.6

Thus, a significantly larger proportion of boys was attending schools than girls. 56% of the boys from the sample households attended

schools as compared to 36.6% of the girls. The disparity in the proportion of boys and girls attending school is marked in all the age-groups. 19.5% of the boys in the age-group 5-6 years, 59.4% in the age group 6-11 years and 61.1% in the age-group 11-15 years were attending school. The corresponding figures for girls are considerably lower, 8.5, 41.7 and 36.0% respectively. In view of such large differences between boys and girls in respect of school-going, a more detailed treatment of the position among the girls is attempted below separately from that among boys.

School-going among girls vis-a-vis boys:

7.15 Schooling of girls is known to have lagged behind that of boys, specially in rural areas. It is for this reason that the target for enrolment of girls has been stepped up in the Third Plan. The position regarding school-going of girls in the sample households is given in Table 7.8 for each of the selected districts. The table presents data on the proportion of girls attending school according to specified age groups. To facilitate comparison with the position among boys, figures of the proportion of boys in the age-group 6-11 years attending school are also given in Table 7.8. Data on boys attending school in other age-groups are given in the Appendix Table A.9.

Table 7.8

Proportion of boys and girls of the sample households attending school by specified age-groups (1962)

District	% of children attending school by age group (years)							Total
	Boys			Girls			Total	
	6-11	5-6	6-11	11-15		Total		
			P*	AP*				
Kurnool	64.9	12.5	71.4	5.9	..	5.9	47.1	
Cachar	71.1	20.0	47.6	12.0	..	12.0	38.4	
Purnea	40.8	..	15.5	9.8	
Amreli	85.2	..	82.9	41.7	..	41.7	53.8	
Bilaspur	78.4	2.3	43.0	18.6	18.6	37.2	38.8	
Anantnag	28.4	..	10.9	20.4	..	20.4	11.6	
Quilon	93.5	..	93.5	40.0	30.1	70.1	79.8	
Amravati	88.1	..	58.3	17.1	5.7	22.8	31.0	
Tanjore	97.4	..	52.2	19.0	14.3	33.3	52.2	
Saugor	52.9	14.0	10.7	10.2	
Mysore	69.2	39.0	25.0	25.3	..	25.3	32.0	
Sambalpur	60.7	50.0	57.0	44.1	
Hissar	55.1	11.2	6.2	9.2	..	9.2	8.0	
Tonk	26.8	..	35.0	34.0	
Mathura	53.5	..	20.9	14.7	
Burdwan	71.3	27.0	56.6	73.0	..	73.0	58.5	
TOTAL	59.5	8.5	41.7	25.2	10.8	36.0	36.6	

*P—Primary.

*AP—Above primary.

Although the overall proportion of girls in the age group 5-15 years, attending school is found to be 37 per cent, the position in the different districts shows marked fluctuations. Judging from these figures, it may be said that the progress of girls' education was much below the over-all average in districts such as Hissar, Purnea, Saugor, Anantnag and Mathura, where the proportion of girls going to school in 1962 ranged from 8 to 15 per cent. Other districts with figures below the average were Mysore, Tonk and even included Amravati. Quilon with a figures of 80% could claim the highest progress, which was also well above the overall average in 5 other districts Burdwan (59), Amreli (54), Tanjore (52), Kurnool (47) and Sambalpur (44). The remaining districts were somewhat around the overall average.

7.16 Data in Table 7.8 indicate that there are differences in the proportion of school-going girls in the different age-groups. Generally speaking, school-going among girls aged 6 to 11 years was much better than in the other age-groups in all the districts. In all the districts except four, a majority (more than 50%) of the girls in the age-group 6-11 years attended schools in 1962. Thus the position regarding school-going among girls shows an improvement in most of the districts if only the girls in the age-group 6-11 years are taken into account. The average for this age-group was 42% in 1962. The relative position of the different districts does not, however, show much of change, except that Amravati, Kurnool, Amreli and Sambalpur move up considerably.

7.17 These data tend to show that parents generally do not favour sending their daughters to schools if they are too young (below 6 years) or when they attained puberty (11-15 years). It is only in Sambalpur, Mysore, Burdwan and Cachar that large proportion of girls below six years were attending school. Of the girls aged 11 to 15 years going to school, the majority were attending primary classes. It is only in four districts (Quilon, Bilaspur, Tanjore and Amravati) that they were attending classes above the primary, the proportion varying from 30.1 in Quilon to 5.7 per cent in Amravati. In this age-group, those attending primary classes recorded the highest proportion in Burdwan (73%) followed by Amreli 42 and Quilon 40 per cent. The figures are much below the overall average in Kurnool, Hissar, Cachar and Amravati. Purnea, Saugor, Tonk and Mathura are the districts where none of the girls in the age-group 11 to 15 years attended school in 1962.

7.18 A comparison of school-going among boys and girls in the age-group 6-11 years has also been attempted in Table 7.8. The overall proportion for boys in 1962 was 60 against 42 per cent for girls. In all the districts the proportion for boys was much higher than for girls (Tonk and Kurnool being a peculiar exception). The districts where the disparity was very large in 1962 are Hissar, Saugor, Purnea, Anantnag, Cachar, Bilaspur, Amravati, Tanjore, Mysore, Mathura and Burdwan. It may be said on the basis of all the data in Table 7.8 that special and more effective steps will have to be taken in all these districts except Quilon, Amreli and probably Kurnool, if the Third Plan targets of enrolment of girls in primary schools is to be achieved.

7.19 An attempt has been made in Table 7.9 to compare school-going among boys and girls belonging to households in different occupation groups. Only the data for all the sample households in the

selected districts are presented here without any breakdown district-wise.

Table 7.9

Proportion of boys and girls attending school by age and occupational groups.

Occupation	Percentage of boys/girls by age-group (years)					
	5-6		6-11		11 to 15	
	Primary	Above primary	Primary	Above primary	Total	5-15
BOYS						
Big	34.2	72.5	61.3	24.2	75.4	69.1
Medium	9.4	61.9	36.6	15.8	52.3	55.1
Small	16.4	49.5	50.4	14.7	65.1	50.1
Landless	9.7	45.8	27.4	11.7	39.1	40.6
Others	17.3	65.8	53.7	21.9	75.6	69.8
All groups	19.5	59.4	42.8	18.3	61.1	56.4
GIRLS						
Big	14.9	50.7	40.7	27.2	68.0	47.8
Medium	5.2	44.0	12.0	19.8	21.8	35.1
Small	12.5	32.4	26.1	0.8	27.0	27.4
Landless	10.2	30.4	17.3	..	17.3	26.4
Others	7.8	53.3	30.1	30.2	70.3	47.2
All groups	8.5	41.7	25.2	10.7	36.0	36.6

The proportion of boys 5-15 years, going to school in 1962 ranged from 41 per cent among landless labourers to nearly 70 per cent among big cultivators and others. In the households of the medium and the small cultivators, only 50 to 55 per cent of the boys were attending school. In the different age-groups, the boys from the households of big cultivators recorded the largest proportion, from 34.2 per cent in the age-group 5 to 6 years to 75.4 per cent in the 11 to 15 years' group. Next came other occupational groups. The proportion of boys attending school in all the age-groups is lowest for the landless labour households. Looking only to the age-group, 6-11 years, it appears that there was not much difference between landless labourers and small cultivators in respect of proportion of boys attending school. The scope for increase in the school enrolment of boys depends, therefore, on the extent to which these sections can be motivated and/or enabled to send their children to school.

7.20 In all the occupational groups, the proportion of girls attending school was considerably lower than that of boys. This holds true practically for all the age-groups. The pattern of variation among the different occupational groups is also more or less the same for girls as for boys. Thus the largest proportion of girls attending

school in 1962—around 47% for the age-group 5-15 and 51 to 53% for the group 6-11—belonged to big cultivator and other groups, whereas the proportion for landless labour households was the lowest—26% for 5-15 and 30% for 6-11. The position among small cultivators is very close to that for landless labourers. Future increases in girls' enrolment can, on the basis of these data, be said to depend on the extent to which not only landless labourers and small cultivators, but also medium and large cultivators and others are motivated to send them to school.

7.21 A rather surprising fact brought out by the data in Table 7.9 is the very high proportion (68 to 70%) of girls in the age-group 11-15 years going to school from the households of big cultivators and others. These figures are considerably higher than those for the age-group 6-11 years and are in fact close to the figures of boys for the corresponding age-group. The main explanation for this lies in the incidence of marriage among girls in this age group. Since details were not obtained from the sample households of girls in this age-group married and coming to live in these families as wives, the denominator used in calculating this percentage includes only girls born to these households and still living with them, thus excluding girls who had left the households after marriage.

Children who never attended school :

7.22 We have discussed so far the characteristics of the children attending school. In the sample villages and households, there were also children who were not attending school at the time of investigation (early 1962). These children may be classified into two categories, those who had attended school in the past but dropped out or completed the schooling, and those who had never been to school. Position regarding withdrawal and drop-out of children is discussed in the next chapter. An analysis of children who had not at all been to school by the time of investigation is presented in this section. Such children were found in all the school-going ages. A certain proportion of them would, conceivably, go to school at a later age, since children above 11 have also been found to be going to primary school. Data on the proportion of such children in the sample households are given in Table 7.10.

It appears that over one-third (37.3%) of the children of the sample households never attended school. In five districts—Purnea, Tonk, Anantnag, Saugor and Mathura—the majority of the children never attended school, the proportion ranging from 52 to 68 per cent. In the districts with a very high spread of schooling, such as Quilon, Tanjore and Amravati, the proportion of such children is very low, the percentage ranging from 6 to 14. The proportion of children who never attended school in 1962 was, surprisingly, lower than the overall average in districts such as Sambalpur, Cachar and Bilaspur. Mysore, Kurnool, Amreli and Burdwan also fall in this group.

7.23 It also appears that a higher proportion of girls than of boys never attended schools; the respective figures being 48 and 31 per cent. In majority of the districts, this overall trend is noticeable. Only in three districts—Tonk, Burdwan and Amreli—the disparity between boys and girls who never attended schools is not marked.

Table 7.10

Proportion of children of school going age who never attended school.

District	School villages			Non-school villages			All villages (Weighted %)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Kurnool	21.1	34.1	26.7	*	*	*	21.1	34.1	26.7
Cachar	15.0	40.3	23.7	23.3	54.5	31.7	18.3	46.0	26.9
Purnea	31.1	53.6	38.3	73.1	100.0	80.6	60.0	85.6	67.5
Amreli	25.3	20.4	22.8	*	*	*	25.3	20.4	22.8
Bilaspur	37.0	47.3	41.4	11.4	65.0	30.9	15.0	62.5	32.4
Anantnag	44.0	46.8	44.8	61.9	100.0	74.1	55.7	72.9	59.1
Quilon	1.9	8.8	5.3	2.2	10.2	6.4	2.0	9.5	5.8
Amravati	4.7	19.0	10.5	4.8	50.0	22.9	4.7	27.3	13.8
Tanjore	6.0	20.2	12.9	*	*	*	6.0	20.2	12.9
Saugor	19.2	51.7	31.4	46.5	88.9	63.0	38.9	78.5	54.2
Mysore	14.2	41.8	25.9	42.9	81.8	53.8	20.5	50.6	32.0
Sambalpur	16.4	33.3	24.6	66.7	100.0	84.2	21.5	40.0	30.5
Hissar	19.0	76.3	39.6	48.0	28.6	41.0	25.4	65.8	39.9
Tonk	45.5	87.1	62.6	66.7	50.0	64.7	58.8	63.7	64.0
Mathura	40.2	74.0	50.6	53.3	91.4	64.3	44.5	79.8	55.1
Burdwan	23.0	30.8	26.3	42.3	50.0	45.5	26.6	34.4	29.9
TOTAL	22.9	39.8	29.9	37.1	55.8	43.8	30.5	48.3	37.3

*There are no non-school villages in these areas.

7.24 The variation in the proportion of children who never attended school as between school and non-school villages is also brought out by the data in Table 7.10. A large proportion of children never attended school in the non-school villages than in the school villages, the respective figures being 44 and 30 per cent. There is also a large variation among the districts. For the school villages, it varies from 5.3 in case of Quilon to 62.6 per cent in case of Tonk. Corresponding figures for the non-school villages are 6.4% in case of Quilon to 80.6% in case of Purnea. Another feature is that a larger proportion of girls than of boys had not attended school. This holds true both for the school and for the non-school villages with a few exceptions (Amreli in respect of school villages, and Hissar and Tonk of non-school villages). However, the proportions of boys and girls not attended school are not very different in the school villages in Amreli, Anantnag, Burdwan and Bilaspur. Such a tendency is met with to some extent in the non-school villages in Tonk and Burdwan also.

Economic pursuits of children who never attended school:

7.25 In order to know whether the children who never attended schools were engaged in any gainful or other activities, an attempt was made to ascertain their pursuits. The distribution of such children by the pursuits followed by them is given in Table 7.11.

Table 7.11

Pursuits of children who never attended school.

Pursuits	% of boys and girls having a pursuit					
	Boys		Girls		All villages	
	School villages %	Non-school villages %	School villages %	Non-school villages %	Boys %	Girls %
Grazing of cattle . . .	42.0	44.4	7.7	..	43.3	3.6
Farm Work . . .	17.0	15.6	16.3	..
Household work . . .	11.9	22.2	62.4	66.7	17.4	64.7
Misc. labour . . .	10.2	4.4	7.1	..
Caste profession . . .	8.0	2.2	1.6	..	4.9	0.8
Agr. labour . . .	3.4	2.2	5.1	18.3	2.8	12.1
Other pursuits . . .	7.4	8.8	23.7	15.0	8.1	19.1
TOTAL . . .	100	100	100	100	100	100
% HAVING NO PURSUITS					47.1	31.7

In all the sample villages 47 per cent of boys and 32 per cent of girls did not follow any pursuit. Among those who were engaged in activities, the most important occupation for boys is stated to be grazing of cattle and this accounted for 43.3% of them. Next in importance comes household work reported by 17.4% of boys, followed by farm work reported by 16.3%. Other occupations were mentioned for a small percentage of boys. The majority of girls

(65%) were said to be busy helping in household work. Agricultural labour is another pursuit followed by 12.1% of girls. The variation in the relative importance of the pursuits followed by boys and girls in the school and non-school villages is significant but does not alter the broad pattern.

Pursuits of children according to economic group of households:

7.26 Pursuits of children who never attended schools were analysed separately for the two occupational groups of households, landless labour and the remaining occupations (cultivator and other). The details are given in Table 7.12.

Table 7.12

Distribution of children by pursuits followed and broad occupational groups.

Pursuits	% of boys and girls having pursuits			
	Boys		Girls	
	Non-landless labour	Land less labour	Non-land less labour	Landless labour
Grazing of cattle	43.1	52.0	6.8	1.3
Farm work	22.6	9.6	7.0	3.8
Looking after children	4.9	1.6	15.3	10.2
Household work	14.9	8.3	63.0	78.9
Caste profession	2.4	6.2
Misc. labour	7.6	17.4	2.1	..
Agri. labour	0.8	3.2	..	3.2
Others	3.7	1.6	5.6	2.6
TOTAL	100	100	100	100
% NOT REPORTING PURSUITS	49.0	41.0	32.2	27.2

About one-half (49%) of the boys in the non-labour households did not follow any pursuit. In the case of landless labour households, the corresponding figure is 41, which shows that a comparatively higher proportion of boys in the labour household who had not attended school were pursuing some occupation or the other than those in the non-landless labour households. In any case, it is significant that slightly less than one-half of the boys who had not attended school were not engaged in any recognizable activity and could not therefore, be said to have been held back because of the need to work. The proportion does not vary very much according to the occupational status. If household work and care of children is not considered a deterrent to going to school, the proportion goes up to more than one-half.

7.27 Among the pursuits followed by boys in both non-labour and labour households, grazing of cattle is the most common one being followed by 43% and 52% of boys respectively. Farm work comes next in order of importance for boys in non-labour households and accounts for 22.6% of boys with pursuits, while for the landless labour households, miscellaneous labour comes second in importance, accounting for 17.4% of the boys. As may be expected, very few boys of the labour households were reported to be engaged in farm work. Household work is more common among boys of non-landless labour households than among those of landless labourers.

7.28 Proportion of girls not following any pursuit is comparatively lower in both the occupational groups of households than in respect of boys i.e. 32% in non labour households and 27% in landless labour households. Household work tops the list of pursuits in the case of girls, nearly 63% of girls in the non-landless labour households and 79% in the landless labour households were stated to be engaged in it. Second in importance comes care of children in both the categories of households, the percentage figures being higher for the non-landless labour households (15.3), than for landless labour households (10.2). Other occupations accounted for only a small proportion.

Reasons for not sending children to school :

7.29 Parents who reported that some or all their children were not sent to school were also asked to give reasons for the same in respect of each child. Responses received are presented in Table 7.13 in terms of the distribution (in percentage) of children by reason.

Table 7.13

Reasons	Percentage of children not sent to school according to reasons		
	School villages	Non-School villages	Weighted %
BOYS			
1. Financial difficulties	37.2	23.2	29.8
2. Under-aged	8.4	12.5	10.5
3. School at a distance	1.4	43.8	23.9
4. Farm work	10.9	5.4	8.0
5. Cattle grazing	13.5	2.7	7.7
6. Not satisfied with the working of the school	1.4	—	0.7
GIRLS			
1. Financial difficulties	22.2	12.1	16.8
2. Needed for domestic work	20.8	8.1	14.1
3. Indifference/lack of interest	13.1	7.1	10.0
4. School at a distance	4.2	52.5	29.8

Two important reasons for not sending boys to school in the sample villages were financial difficulties and the distant location the school. These accounted respectively for 30 and 24 per cent of the boys not sent to school. In the case of girls, the same two reasons accounted for high proportions of girls. But their relative importance differs from that of boys. In the case of girls, the distance of the school is more of a deterrent factor than financial difficulties. Farm work and cattle grazing together accounted for 16% of the boys not sent to school. Another 11% of the boys were not sent to school as they were considered to be under-aged by their parents. In difference, lack of interest and domestic work were the other reasons found to be important for not sending girls to schools and those accounted for 10 to 14% of the girls. There is also some variation in the response of parents between school and non-school villages for not sending their children to school. In the case of non-school villages, location of the school in another village is found to be the main consideration for not sending boys and girls to school. This reason is not found to be of any importance in the case of school villages. The other reasons were mentioned only by a smaller proportion of parents of the non-school villages as compared to the school villages.

7.30 Reasons for not sending children to school are given below in Table 7.14 separately for landless labour households and the rest of the households.

Table 7.14

Reasons for not sending children to school (as given by parents) by broad occupational groups.

Reasons	All villages (Weighted %)			
	Boys		Girls	
	Labour households	Other than labourers	Labour households	Other than labourers
Financial difficulty	53.8	20.4	27.2	13.4
School at a distance	13.3	27.6	20.4	32.6
Cattle grazing	5.1	8.9	..	2.0
Needed for farm work	1.6	10.8	0.4	0.6
Needed for domestic work	3.1	3.9	20.5	12.4
Indifference	2.0	3.4	5.9	11.1
Under-aged	6.8	12.1	4.6	6.5
Marriagable age	5.0	2.3
Social barrier	1.1	3.3
No lady teacher	2.1
Others	14.4	13.0	14.8	14.0

The above data support the general hypothesis that the children of the landless-labour households do not attend the school mainly for economic reasons. This holds true in respect of 54% of boys and 27% of girls belonging to households in this category. Corresponding

percentages for 'other than landless' category are comparatively lower, 20% for boys and 13% for girls. Location of the school at a distance was stated to be the major reason by non-labour households both for boys (28%) and girls (33%). This reason is of significance only in the non-school villages. 'Farm work' is found to be a less important reason in the case of landless labour as compared to non-labour households; the percentage figures being 1.6 for the former and 10.8 for the latter as far as the boys are concerned. As regards girls, the need for girls to remain at home for domestic work was reported by a larger proportion of labour households than the non-labour households, the relevant percentages being 20.5 for the former and 12.4 for the latter.

Reasons for boys not attending school as given by teachers :

7.31 The reasons for boys not attending schools were ascertained from the teachers also. Table 7.15 gives the relevant details.

Table 7.15

Reasons for boys not attending schools as given by teachers

Reasons	% of teachers reporting
1. Parents cannot afford expenses on uniforms, books etc.	61.9
2. Boys help their parents in their occupation	58.0
3. Boys add to family income	56.2
4. Working families require the boys to look after younger kids	49.1
5. Parents do not appreciate the value of education	39.8
6. Atmosphere at home not conducive for studies	16.4
7. Concession like stipends are not given more liberally	8.4
8. Extension workers do not take interest in increasing enrolment and attendance	4.0
9. School inaccessible in rainy season	3.5
10. Inadequate accommodation in the school	4.0
Total teachers reporting—226	

More than one half of the teachers mentioned economic factors for parents not sending their boys to schools. The reasons in order of importance were 'parents cannot afford the expenses' (61.9%); 'boys help their parents in their occupation' (58%); 'boys supplement the family income' (56%) and 'boys look after the younger ones' (49%). It is significant to note that over one-third of the teachers thought that parents did not sufficiently value the education of their children. Other reasons were given only by a small proportion of teachers and they were mentioned only in a few districts. The teachers generally did not refer to difficulties such as inadequacy of accommodation in schools or inconvenient location of schools.

7.32 Reasons given by teachers for the parents not sending their girls to school were analysed separately and presented in table 7.16.

Table 7.16

Reasons for not sending girls to schools

Reasons	% of teachers reporting
Working families require girls to look after younger kids	73.5
Parents do not appreciate the value of girls' education	51.8
Girls add to family income	46.9
Parents can't afford expenses on uniforms, books etc.	42.5
Girls help their parents in their occupation	27.0
Parents feel that education is not meant for their girls	15.0
Atmosphere at home not conducive to studies	15.9
Purdah system	8.4
Girls if educated will become modernised and less adapted for traditional role in the family	9.3
Parents want separate primary schools for girls	6.6

According to the teachers, the parents have different reasons for not sending girls to schools. Girls were required more than boys for taking care of the children at home and this was mentioned by 73.5 per cent of the teachers. The next important reason is found to be lack of appreciation of the need to educate girls and was stated by a little over one-half of the teachers. Other important reasons given by the teachers were 'girls supplement family income' (46.9%) or 'they help in family occupation' (27%). That the parents could not afford expenses on books is also found to be an important consideration. However, this reason is reported by a lower proportion of teachers for girls than for boys. It is interesting to note that the proportion of teachers attributing non-enrolment of girls in schools to social factors is rather low. For example, only 6.6% teachers mentioned the need for separate schools for girls and only 8% mentioned 'purdah'. As in the case of boys, reasons such as inadequacy of school facilities, distance of the school from the village etc. were not considered significant or important by the teachers.

CHAPTER VIII

ATTENDANCE, STAGNATION AND DROP-OUT OF CHILDREN

Attendance :

8.1 An analysis of attendance of the children in the sample schools has been attempted from two angles; (i) proportion of children on roll attending school and (ii) average number of days of attendance per child per year. Data on the first aspect were collected through the spot-checking of attendance on one day during the course of the investigation. These were supplemented with data on attendance obtained from the school records. Table 8.1 gives the attendance position in the sample schools on the date of investigation.

Table 8.1

Percentage of children on roll attending school on the date of investigation.

District	% Attendance
Kurnool	63.2
Cachar	72.4
Purnea	69.0
Amreli	80.2
Bilaspur	94.7
Anantnag	78.7
Quilon	75.7
Amravati	83.1
Tanjore	68.9
Saugor	71.3
Mysore	71.2
Sambalpur	72.8
Hissar	81.8
Tonk	74.4
Mathura	80.1
Burdwan	74.8
TOTAL	75.0

Three fourths (75%) of the children enrolled attended the sample schools on the date of investigation. The proportion of children on roll attending school was much above the overall average in Bilaspur (95%) and above 80% in Amravati (83%), Amreli (80%), Hissar (82%) and Mathura (80%). It was around the overall average in Burdwan, Tonk and Quilon. In districts such as Kurnool, Purnea, and Tanjore.

the percentage of children attending school on the date of investigation ranged between 63 and 70 per cent.

8.2 In order to ascertain whether there is any difference in attendance between boys and girls, relevant data were analysed separately and presented in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2

Distribution of districts according to the proportion of children on roll attending school on the date of visit

Percentage of attendance	Boys	Girls		
Below 50		Tonk . . . 48		
		Mathura . . . 54		
50—60		Sauger . . . 57		
	60—70	Kurnool . . . 65	Kurnool . . . 60	
Purnea . . . 60				
Anantnag . . . 63				
Tanjore . . . 64				
Sambalpur . . . 64				
Hissar . . . 66				
Cachar . . . 69				
70—80				Mysore . . . 72
				Mysore . . . 72
				Burdwan . . . 74
	Amreli . . . 74			
	Quilon . . . 75			
	Saugor . . . 74			
	Purnea . . . 74			
	Burdwan . . . 75			
80—90		Quilon . . . 76		
		Tonk . . . 77		
		Sambalpur . . . 78		
		Amravati . . . 80		
		Bilaspur . . . 89		
90 and above		Mathura . . . 84		
		Amravati . . . 85		
		Amreli . . . 85		
90 and above		Bilaspur . . . 96		
OVERALL AVERAGE		77.6		
		69.9		

The figures in Table 8.2 show that on the whole, the attendance of boys on the date of investigation was better than that of girls. The figures are 78 and 70 per cent respectively. The proportion of enrolled boys attending school was highest in Bilaspur (96) and lowest in Kurnool (65). In Anantnag, Amreli, Amravati, Hissar and Mathura, 80 to 90% of the boys on rolls attended schools on the date of investigation. There is a marked variation in the attendance of girls among the sample districts. The figure is lowest in Tonk (48%), highest in Bilaspur (89%), and much below the overall average in five districts. It is significant that the proportion of boys attending school on the date of visit is more or less the same as that of girls in Quilon, Amravati, Mysore and Burdwan. The disparity in attendance between boys and girls is very high in Mathura, Anantnag and Tonk.

8.3 Since the problem of absenteeism is assumed to be more acute in the lower than in the higher classes, the data on attendance of children in the sample schools on the date of investigation were analysed for three selected classes, namely, Class I, Class II and Class V and summary of the same is given in table 8.3.

Table 8.3

Proportion of children attending school by class on the date of investigation

Class	Boys	Girls	All Children
Class I	76.1	66.9	72.8
Class II	75.8	70.9	74.4
Class V	84.2	67.0	80.2

As may be seen, the proportion of enrolled children attending school was lower in class I than in class II and significantly lower in these two classes than in Class V. The percentage figures are 72.8 for class I, 74.4 for class II and 80.2 for class V. In all the three classes, girls have attended in much smaller proportions than boys.

*Attendance per child per year**

8.4. Data were also collected from the records of the sample schools to compute the average attendance per child per year. The details are given in Table 8.4.

*Average attendance per year per child was arrived at by dividing the total attendance of all children for the year by the number of children on rolls on 31st March of the year. Therefore the figure tends to be on the high-side, as in many cases, the number on rolls on 31st March of the year was lower than for other months.

Table 8.4

Percentage of working days per year attended by children

District	Distribution of schools by percentage of working days for which children actually attended						
	Below 40%	40% to 50%	50% to 60%	60% to 70%	70% to 80%	80% to 90%	90% to 100%
Kurnool	1	2	4	1	..
Purnea	1	1	5	2	..
Amreli	1	2	6	..
Bilaspur	1	2	2
Anantnag.	3	2	4
Quilon	1	1	4
Amravati	5	5	..
Tanjore	1	3	2	1
Saugor	2	2	4	..
Mysore	2	1	3	4	1
Sambalpur	1	1	3	1	3	1	..
Hissar	1	5	4
Tonk	1	..	2	5	2
Mathura	1	5	3	..
Burdwan	1	..	2	3	2	..
TOTAL	2	2	8	11	43	45	18
%	1.5	1.5	6.2	8.5	33.3	34.8	13.9

NOTE.—Relevant data were not available for Cachar.

In interpreting the data in Table 8.4, one should bear in mind the limitation imposed by the standard of accuracy of the record of attendance maintained in the schools. It has been observed that, in general, a child is marked absent only when he is absent consecutively for a number of days. Again, it is not unusual for children to attend one or two periods and absent themselves for the rest of the day. Such children are usually marked present. It has not been possible for us to determine the extent to which the attendance figures have got inflated as a result of all these practices. That it is a fact has, however, been confirmed by the low attendance of children noticed in a number of schools during the time of investigation.

8.5. In over two-thirds of the schools, a child on an average, attended more than 80% of the working days. These schools occur both in the so-called educationally advanced and other districts. For example, in Quilon, Amreli, Mysore and Amravati, 50 to 80% of the schools reported high attendance figures; and so did schools in some of the not-so-advanced districts like Tonk, Bilaspur, Anantnag and

Hissar where the attendance of children was very encouraging. There is, however, a substantial number of sample schools where the attendance of children cannot be considered satisfactory.

8.6 Table 8.5 gives district-wise information about the average number of working days per school per year, the average number of days attended per year per child enrolled and the percentage of working days in a year attended on an average by a child in the sample schools.

Table 8.5
Percentage of working days attended by children

District	Average no. of working days per school	Average no. of days attended per year per child enrolled	Percentage of working days attended by children
Kurnool	222	160.6	71.2
Purnea	246	194.8	78.1
Amreli	229	199.7	85.7
Bilaspur	232	193.4	84.1
Anantnag	216	183.3	85.3
Quilon	181	178.8	90.6
Amravati	195	157.7	80.4
Tanjore	218	180.0	82.6
Saugor	209	153.6	74.0
Mysore	215	185.3	85.3
Sambalpur.	252	167.8	66.4
Hissar	211	184.8	87.3
Tonk	216	181.4	82.3
Mathura	233	182.7	78.5
Burdwan	177	130.1	73.7
TOTAL	215.4	174.7	81.1

From the above data it is seen that the average number of working days per school comes to 215.4 per year. There is a significant variation among the districts in respect of the average number of working days per school per year. It ranges from 252 days in Sambalpur to 177 days in Burdwan. In about one-half of the districts, the average number of working days per school per year ranges from 200 to 226. The overall average number of days attended per year per child enrolled comes to 175 days. Among the districts, it ranges from 130 in Burdwan to 200 in Amreli.

8.7 In the sample schools the children on an average attended 81% of the working days. However, the percentage figure varies from 91 in Quilon to 66 in Sambalpur. By and large, the attendance position was found to be more satisfactory in Quilon, Hissar, Amreli, Anantnag and Tanjore than in other districts. The problem of absenteeism may said to be of some magnitude in Sambalpur, Kurnool, Burdwan and Saugor.

Stagnation of children in Schools :

8.8 An aspect of the rapid expansion of educational facilities in the rural areas, that causes concern, is the wastage resulting from the stagnation of children. Pupils study in the same class longer than the normal period of one year. This prolongation of the period of study results in a wastage of the precious years of the child and of the money of the parents. Also, a child who is retained in the same class for more than the normal period, may develop a tendency for inferiority complex which may ultimately damage his personality. There is also the adverse psychological effect on the attitude of parents who may find fault with the functioning of the school and show reluctance to keep their children in school till they complete the primary stage of education, which is essential for providing permanent literacy. The result often is the withdrawal of children from school after one or two years of schooling.

8.9 Table 8.6 gives details about the number of children enrolled and the number attending the same classes for two and three years. Figures are given separately for boys and girls.

Table 8.6

Proportion of children remaining in the same class for more than the normal period during 1960-61

District	Percentage of Boys enrolled		Percentage of Girls enrolled	
	Attending for the 2nd year	Attending for the 3rd year	Attending for the 2nd year	Attending for the 3rd year
Kurnool	20.2	6.2	31.9	6.3
Purnea	21.4	11.3	15.1	10.9
Amreli	22.7	8.9	21.3	19.0
Bilaspur	9.9	..	7.8	..
Anantnag	7.6	0.9	7.7	..
Quilon	24.7	0.8	18.7	0.3
Amravati	19.7	1.9	14.2	3.8
Tanjore	18.5	0.5	14.6	..
Saugor	10.4	1.4	58.9	5.4
Mysore	30.2	9.4	33.3	3.5
Sambalpur	10.9	6.4	17.8	2.9
Hissar	14.6	1.5	20.0	..
Tonk	12.3	3.9	5.6	5.6
Mathura	24.7	0.9	35.0	2.5
Burdwan	20.8	8.4	35.8	14.7
All Districts	18.5	3.8	21.6	5.3

N.B.—Relevant data were not available for the Schools in Cachar.

The data show that 19% of the boys on roll on March, 1961 were attending the same classes for the second year and 4% for the third year. The corresponding figures for girls are slightly higher, 22 and 5 per cent, respectively. Inter-district variation in stagnation is very large. In the case of boys, the proportion attending the same class for the second year ranges from 8% in Anantnag to 30% in Mysore and for the third year from less than one-half of one per cent in Tanjore to 11% in Purnea. It may be said on the basis of

data in Table 8.7 that the stagnation of boys is heavier in incidence and more of a problem in districts like Mysore, Amreli, Purnea, Kurnool, Quilon, Burdwan and Mathura.

8.10 The data in Table 8.6 show that stagnation of girl students is greater than that of boys. The range of variation in the stagnation of girls among the districts is much wider than in the case of boys. Stagnation of girls for the second year varies from 6% in Tonk to 59% in Saugor and for the third year from nil in Bilaspur, Anantnag and Hissar to 19% in Amreli. It is interesting to note that in seven districts—Purnea, Bilaspur, Anantnag, Quilon, Amravati, Tanjore and Tonk—the figures for girls are lower than for boys. The stagnation of girls is generally very high in Saugor, Burdwan, Mathura, Mysore and Kurnool. The fact that certain districts like Bilaspur, Anantnag, Tonk, or even Hissar and Sambalpur show a consistently lower figure of stagnation whether among boys or among girls, probably reflects a better performance by the teachers in these areas. For, stagnation of children in primary schools testifies more to the failure of the teacher than of the students.

Stagnation of children in different classes :

8.11 In order to find out whether the problem of stagnation is greater in the lower than in the higher classes, the cases of children studying in the same class for more than a year were analysed class-wise from the records of the school. The summary data for 1960-61 are given in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7

Stagnation of children in school according to class and no. of years 1960-61

Class	% stagnating to total on roll	Percentage Stagnating	
		For the second year	For the third year
I . . .	30.5	77.8	22.2
II . . .	24.0	86.0	14.0
III . . .	19.4	93.1	6.9
IV . . .	19.5	94.0	6.0
V . . .	18.9	87.1	12.9
All classes . . .	25.0	83.6	16.4

The above data reveal that one-fourth (25%) of the students on roll in the sample schools were stagnating in 1960-61. The proportion of students stagnating was highest (31%) in class I, and 24% in class II. In the three higher classes, the proportion is much lower and nearly the same (19%). The problem of stagnation is, therefore, much more grave and extensive in the lower primary classes, particularly in the first standard than in the upper three classes. The magnitude of the problem appears in clearer perspective when it is remembered in this connection that the number of children on rolls in the first two classes is much higher.

8.12 The period-wise data on stagnation also shows that a relatively higher proportion of the stagnating children in class I and also in Class II were in the same class for the third year ^{five} ~~year~~ in the upper classes. Nearly 84% of the stagnating children were in the same class for the second year and 16% for the third. Incidentally, stagnation for the third year rises sharply in class V because of the students' desire to pass the primary school leaving examination.

Stagnation of children as reported in the sample households:

8.13 It would be interesting now to compare the data obtained from the school records with those collected from the sample households. Such a comparison would make for a better assessment of the problem of stagnation of children in the rural schools. Of the sample households in the school villages, only 30.6% reported stagnation of their children at one time or the other. In the non-school villages also, more or less the same percentage (32.6) of families reported this. Summary data about the proportion of children in the sample families who ever attended school and stagnated are given in Table 8.8 along with their distribution among classes.

Table 8.8

Proportion of children of sample households, stagnating in different classes

Category	% of boys and girls in each class starting					
	I Class	II Class	III Class	IV Class	V Class	All Classes
<i>School villages</i>						
Boys	38.2	22.7	15.0	17.2	6.9	16.8
Girls	42.5	25.0	11.7	15.8	5.0	18.4
Total	39.6	23.5	13.9	16.7	6.2	18.4
<i>Non-School villages</i>						
Boys	27.8	19.4	16.6	19.4	16.6	16.8
Girls	27.8	11.1	27.8	22.2	11.1	21.9
Total	27.8	16.6	20.4	20.4	14.8	18.2
<i>Weighted total of all villages</i>						
Boys	32.7	21.0	15.8	18.4	12.0	16.8
Girls	34.7	17.7	20.2	19.2	8.3	20.2
Total	33.3	19.8	17.3	18.6	10.7	18.2

The data obtained from the households generally corroborate the findings derived from the school data. The proportion of children who stagnated in schools works out to 18% of all children who ever attended school, the proportion being slightly higher for girls (20%) than for boys (17%). The data also show that there is no difference between the school and the non-school villages as far as the extent of stagnation of children is concerned.

8.14 It also appears that of the children who stagnated, the highest proportion (33%) did so in class one and the lowest proportion (11%) in class five. This was so in the case of both boys and girls.

and supports the proposition stated earlier, regarding inter-class differences in stagnation, on the basis of the school data. The only difference that emerges from the household data seems to be a relatively lower figure of stagnation in class II, particularly in the case of girls. Correspondingly, the proportion of stagnation in the third and fourth classes looks higher on the basis of the household data than from the school reports.

8.15 A comparison between the school and the non-school villages reveals that in the non-school villages stagnation in the upper three classes ^{was} have accounted for a higher proportion of stagnating children than in the school villages. This gap has particularly been noticeable in respect of girls, only one-third (33.5%) of whom was accounted for by the first two classes in the school-villages as compared to 39% in the non-school villages. On the whole, a slightly higher proportion of girls (22%) stagnated in the non-school villages than in the school villages (18%). In short, while the problem of stagnation both of boys and girls in school villages follows the pattern described in the earlier sections, a slightly different pattern is noticeable in the non-school villages. In the latter areas, a higher proportion of the stagnating children were in the upper classes and, in case of girls, the problem seems to have been as acute in Class I as in classes III and IV.

Reasons for stagnation of children in schools :

8.16 The analysis in the last few paragraphs has been geared to an assessment of the extent of the problem of stagnation. This should be followed up by an enquiry into the reasons for stagnation, at least as perceived by the parents. The views of the parents on this question were ascertained in respect of those children, who stagnated at the primary stage at one time or the other and are given in Table 8.9.

Table 8.9
Reasons for stagnation as given by parents

Reasons	% of responding parents giving each reason				Weighted total of all villages	
	School Villages		Non-School villages		Boys %	Girls %
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls		
Indifference of child . . .	33.2	30.8	48.5	50.0	41.3	41.0
Illness	17.6	17.8	12.1	18.8	14.7	18.4
Poor in studies	14.6	13.1	15.2	12.5	14.9	12.8
Irregular attendance	14.1	5.7	15.2	6.3	14.8	6.0
Domestic work	3.5	24.2	1.6	11.4
Farm work	5.5	2.6	..
Teaching unsatisfactory	4.5	4.8	6.1	..	5.3	2.2
Teachers do not take interest	3.0	1.4	..
School does not open regularly	2.0	0.9	..
Others	2.0	3.6	3.0	12.5	2.5	8.3

Broadly speaking, the reasons can be grouped under three general classes; (i) those pertaining to deficiencies in the child (indifference, poor in studies, irregular attendance, illness, etc.), (ii) demands from the family and domestic circumstances (domestic work, farm work, poverty) and (iii) deficiencies in the school (teachers do not take interest, school does not open regularly, etc.). This is admittedly a crude classification, for indifference of the child may not necessarily be due to any deficiency in him but may reflect inadequate or faulty methods of teaching. Anyway, the figures in Table 8.9 reveal that the last two categories of reasons are not of much importance, as far as stagnation of boys is concerned. In the case of girls, demands from the family for domestic work is, however, an important reason. It also appears that the parents do not seem to give any thought to the deficiencies in the school when it comes to education and stagnation of girls.

8.17 The pattern of responses of the parents regarding the reasons for stagnation does not show much of a difference between boys and girls. Indifference of the child has been stated as most important factor, though it is more important in non-school villages than in school villages. Most of the other reasons are of equal importance in the school and the non-school villages. The most important reason for stagnation of the children is stated to be indifference of the child. Next in importance comes illness followed by children being poor in studies. Irregular attendance is another reason prominently mentioned. In the case of girls, domestic work is found to be second in importance. This was not reported in the non-school villages. The data tend to show that the parents do not expect much from the school and have a tendency to put the blame for failure and stagnation on the child. The parents do not seem to realise or emphasise the fact that the problem of stagnation is not wholly to be attributed to the children and their deficiencies but also to other factors such as the inadequacy of the teaching methods followed.

Drop-outs of children from the school:

8.18 Another wastage at the primary stage of schooling arises from the drop-outs of children. According to the Second Plan Report the drop-out is reported to be as high as 50% in the rural areas. The Second Plan Report observed that "out of 100 pupils who join first class at school, scarcely 50 reach the 4th class, the rest drop-out before completing four years of school, which is regarded as the maximum period for providing permanent literacy".

8.19 The proper procedure for finding out the extent of the problem of drop-outs would be to work out the proportion of the children joining the first standard, who manage to complete the fourth standard. In other words, the drop-out should be calculated for a group of children over a period of years. However, this has not been possible because of difficulties in getting the required data. Hence data on drop-outs were collected for the sample schools for the year 1960-61 only. These give some idea of the extent of the problem. Table 8.10 gives distribution of districts by the proportion of children enrolled, who discontinued their studies in the sample schools during the year 1960-61.

Table 8.10

Proportion of children enrolled in the schools dropping out in the year 1960-61

Percentage group	Districts	
Upto 10	Burdwan	8
10-20	Tanjore	13
	Quilon	15
	Purnea	17
20-30	Hissar	2
	Bilaspur	29
0-40	Anantnag	30
	Mysore	33
	Tonk	36
40-50	Saugar	46
	Amravati	46
	Kurnool	14
	Sambalpur	16
	Mathura	25
	Amreli	33

The over-all average of drop-outs for all the sample schools works out to 23%. But inter-district variation is very high, the proportion varying from 8 to 46 per cent of the enrolled children. The drop out is lowest in Burdwan (8%) and highest in Amravati and Saugor (46%). It is also very high in Tonk, Amreli, Mysore and Anantnag. In the last 5 or 6 districts between one-third and one-half of the students enrolled in 1960-61 dropped out of school in the year. This is a stupendous wastage. A comparison of the drop-out data with those of stagnation in the districts does not seem to indicate any systematic relationship.

Drop-outs classwise :

8.20 Data from the school records were analysed classwise for the year 1960-61 and presented in Table 8.11.

Table 8.11

Percentage of children dropped out to number enrolled by class

Class	% dropped out to total on roll
I	13.6
II	13.3
III	11.7
IV	14.6
V	32.8

It appears that the maximum proportion of enrolled children dropped out in the fifth class, the proportion being as high as 33%. The proportion of children discontinuing studies tends to be nearly the same and uniformly low in the classes other than V and ranges from 11.7% to 14.6%.

Drop-outs in selected households :

8.21 In addition to the data collected from the school records, information was obtained from the selected households regarding the

withdrawal of their children from school. The magnitude of the problem of "drop-out" of the children would be clear if we relate the number of children dropping out to total who ever attended primary school. The relevant data have been analysed separately for children of the landless households from those of other households and are given in Table 8.12.

Table 8.12
Drop-out of children in the sample households

Category	School villages		Non-School villages		All villages (weighted %)	
	% of households reporting drop-out of children	% of children who dropped out	% of households reporting drop-out of children	% of children who dropped out	% of households reporting drop-out of children	% of children who dropped out
Landless labour	23.0	15.5	17.8	20.0	20.2	17.9
Other than landless labour	23.8	14.4	12.3	14.7	17.7	14.6
All households	23.7	14.6	13.3	15.9	18.1	15.3

Whereas 18% of the total sample households reported children discontinuing studies at various stages of schooling, the overall percentage of children dropping out to all those who ever attended school work out to 15.3. The problem of children discontinuing studies is not as acute in the landless labour households as is generally presumed. But in terms of percentage of households reporting drop-out of children and percentage of children withdrawn from school, households other than those of landless labourers fared a little better than the landless labour households. In the former households children discontinued studies in 17.7% of households as against 20.2% of households in the latter. The proportion of children who were withdrawn from school in the two categories of households were 14.6 and 17.9, respectively. The problem of drop out of children between school and non-school villages also tends to vary in intensity. Whereas a lower proportion of labour households reported drop-out of children in the non-school villages as compared with school villages, the percentage of children who dropped out is higher in the non-school villages than school villages. In the case of non-landless labour households, the proportion of children dropping out is found to be more or less the same in the school and the non-school villages.

Reasons for children discontinuing studies :

8.22 In order to understand the problem of drop-outs, it is necessary to go into the reasons inducing or forcing the parents to discontinue education of their children. An analysis of the reasons as given by the parents for the withdrawal of their children from schools is presented in Table 8.13. The figures in the table relate to the proportion of children withdrawn for each category of reasons

Table No. 8.13

Important reasons given by parents for withdrawing their children from school

Reasons	School villages		Non-school villages		Weighted per centage (all villages)	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
	%	%	%	%		
Financial difficulties	22.6	4.5	22.2	..	22.4	2.1
Needed for domestic work	20.9	77.5	11.2	14.3	15.7	44.0
Not interested/or weak in studies/ failure in exam.	21.7	6.0	22.2	14.3	22.0	10.4
Needed for farm work	16.5	3.0	22.2	..	19.6	1.4
Indifference of parents	14.3	..	7.6
Irregular functioning of school	5.2	2.4	..

The reasons for discontinuation of education of children fall broadly under three categories, similar to those for the stagnation of children. They pertain to (i) deficiencies in the child (lack of interest, failure in examination), (ii) demand from the family and domestic circumstances (farm work, domestic work) and (iii) deficiency in the school system (irregular functioning of the school, ineffective teaching methods). The data in Table 8.13 reveal that domestic circumstances and demands from the family accounted for the withdrawal of 35 per cent of boys and 45 per cent of girls. If financial difficulties of the parents are added to these, the proportion goes up to 58 and 48 respectively. Deficiencies in the child were advanced as reasons in respect of 22 and 10 per cent of boys and girls respectively. Girls seem to fare better than boys.

8.23 In spite of the universal free primary education, financial difficulties seem to weigh heavily with the parents for not sending children to schools or discontinuing their studies. Practically in all areas a large proportion of parents mentioned financial difficulties as one of the main considerations. Financial difficulties pertain mainly to expenditure incurred on text books, slates, other writing materials, clothes, uniforms etc. There is not much ground for the assumption that parents tend to attribute the poor progress made by their children to the deficiencies in the school system such as the teaching methods, irregular functioning of the school, etc. That is why a large group of children were said to have been withdrawn from school for reasons such as lack of their interest in studies. The hypothesis that the children are not sent to school as they may be required for family work or domestic work is also not fully substantiated by our data. Further, domestic work is a major consideration only in respect of girls for discontinuing studies both in the school and non-school villages. In case of boys, this accounts only for a small proportion. Therefore, if any inference is to be drawn, it is that parents need to be motivated so as to have a greater appreciation of the value of educating their children. Of course, financial stringency will be a problem and handicap, unless aids in the form of stipends, free books and uniform are extended on a much larger scale.

Present pursuits of children :

8.24 In the previous paragraphs, reasons given by parents for discontinuing the education of their children were analysed. In order

to have a corroboration of their responses and to find out how the children were occupied, the present pursuits of the children withdrawn from school before the completion of primary education were ascertained. The relevant data are presented in Table 8.14.

Table 8.14

Present pursuits of children withdrawn from schools as reported by parents

Pursuits of the children	School villages		Non-school villages		Weighted per-centage (all villages)	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
	%	%	%	%		
Farm work	43.5	1.2	27.3	..	34.9	0.6
Domestic work	9.7	96.5	18.2	55.6	14.2	74.8
Grazing of cattle	17.7	8.3	..
Agricultural labour	2.3	18.2	11.1	9.6	7.0
Helping father in his work	8.8	..	18.2	..	13.7	..
Labour	6.4	..	18.2	33.3	12.6	..
Other pursuits	4.0	1.9	..
No pursuit	23.5	14.0	15.4	30.8	19.2	22.9

It is evident from the above data that the boys and girls were engaged in different occupations. In the case of boys about one-half of them (49%) were engaged in some work in the family—35% engaged in farm work and 14% in domestic work. From 9 to 14% of the boys were said to be engaged in assisting their fathers in their work or engaged in casual labour. About 20%, however, did not have any pursuit. In the case of girls, the only important pursuit mentioned was domestic work which accounted for 75% of them. Only 7% of the girls were said to be engaged in agricultural operations. Further, 23% of the girls were not engaged in any economic activities. The boys and girls without any economic activity can probably be brought to the school more easily than others who were engaged in some economic pursuits or the other.

8.25 There is also some difference in the pursuits followed by the boys and girls in the school as distinct from the non-school villages. A lesser proportion of boys in the non-school villages was engaged in farm work as compared with those in the school villages. The percentage figures of boys in the non-school villages engaged in other occupations are generally much higher than for those in the school villages. Our analysis of the attendance, stagnation and drop-out indicates the interplay of many factors which influence the successful functioning of the school. Problems of attendance, stagnation and drop-out can be remedied to a great extent through better teachers, better amenities in the schools, and cooperation from parents and local leaders. Secondly, financial difficulties might not come in the way of extending education to all children if incentives such as supply of free books, writing materials, mid-day meals, etc. are provided more liberally. Lastly, a systematic motivation of parents is called for in order to bring about a change in their attitude and perception of the value of education of their children which is as much in their own interest as in that of the children.