CHAPTER - I

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

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1.0 THE PRESENT STUDY

School Education is a preparation of better adult life. The right academic preparation is the means to achieve the goal of a successful, productive, rewarding and full life through the confluence of the right vocation. The socio-economic status, quality of cultural life, companions, place of work, social mobility, satisfaction, standard of living and contribution to social welfare are dependent on the right interlocking of purposeful learning in academic life with successful practice in Vocational life as two sides of the same coin.

India is a developing country. Hence it is confronted by a number of problems. One of the factors which can help in solving some of the problem of development is through Vocational Education and Vocationalisation of Education. Since Vocationalisation of Education has not yet been implemented in the State of Meghalaya, it was thought desirable to take up the study.

The present research report is divided into six chapters. Chapter One presents the theoretical background of the study. Chapter Two is devoted for a review of the related literature. Chapter Three discusses the method and procedure of the study. Chapter Four is set apart
for the analysis of data and the interpretation of results. Chapter Five depicts the conclusions, implications, suggestions for improvement of the situation and suggestion for further research. And the final Chapter draws a summary of the research report.

The purpose of Chapter One is reflected in eleven sections. The first-five sections, viz - section 1.1, The Study and its Setting, section 1.2, Unemployment, section 1.3, Manpower Planning, section 1.4, Technical Education in Meghalaya, and section 1.5, Vocational Education in Meghalaya, deal with the background of the study. Section 1.6 and section 1.7, describe the meaning of Vocational Education and concept of Vocationalisation of Education respectively. Section 1.8, depicts the five Components of Vocationalisation of Education. Section 1.9, portrays Vocational Education during Five Year Plans, section 1.10, discusses the different aspects of Attitudes and finally, the last section 1.11, gives a conclusion of the chapter.

1.1 THE STUDY AND ITS SETTING

Meghalaya was created as an Autonomous State within the State of Assam on April 2, 1970. The fullfledged State of Meghalaya came into existence on January 21, 1972.
The State is a land-locked territory of lovely hills with abounding sylvan beauty. It is bounded on the North by Goalpara, Kamrup and Karbi Anglong districts of Assam State and on the East by the District of Cachar and North Cachar Hills also of the State of Assam. On the South and West is Bangladesh.

Carved out of two hill districts of Assam, viz., United Khasi and Jaintia Hills District and Garo Hills District in 1970, Meghalaya (meaning "the abode of clouds") is essentially a Hill state with a people in varying stages of development.

Meghalaya lies between 25°47'N to 26°10'N latitude and 89°45'E to 92°47'E longitude.

Area

The total area of the State is 22,429 square kilometers with a population of 13,35,819. The State is now divided into five administrative districts. They are:

(1) Jaintia Hills District created on February 22, 1972;
(2) East Garo Hills District created on October 22, 1976 and (4) East Khasi Hills District and (5) West Khasi Hills District created on October 28, 1976. They are predominantly inhabited by the Jaintias, the Garos and the Khasis. These tribal communities are the descendants
of very ancient people having distinctive cultural traits and ethnic origins.

**Natural Features**

Khasi Hills and Jaintia Hills Districts of Meghalaya form a plateau generally of rolling grassland interspersed by river valleys, which in the southern portion take the form of ravines. Altitude varies from 1,200 metres to 1,965 metres above sea level and the area is characterised by heavy rainfall, especially in the southern region. The average annual rainfall of the State is 10,000 millimetres to 12,700 millimetres. In the Capital City of Shillong rainfall averages 2,032 millimetres per annum.

Cherrapunjee, 53 Kilometres from Shillong is noted for its heavy rainfall. The annual average is 10,871 millimetres which varies greatly, 22,987 millimetres was recorded in 1861 with a maximum precipitation in July of 9296.40 millimetres. The heaviest rainfall in the world is recorded in the nearby village of Mawsynram with an annual average of 12,163 millimetres. The excessive rainfall is due to situation on an amphitheatre relief and on the windward side of the monsoon.

The districts of Khasi Hills and Jaintia Hills are famous for the orange groves and the pineapple plantations.
Garo Hills, like the rest of the state, is a plateau which rises to a height of 657 metres and drops steeply to the Brahmaputra valley on the north and to the plains of Bangladesh on the south and west. The area has a very high amount of rainfall and is covered by thick forests.

The highest peak in the state is the Shillong peak, 1,965 metres. Nokrek in the East Garo Hills District is the second highest peak, 1417 metres.

A number of rivers, none of them navigable, drain this mountainous State. Damring, Jira, Bugi, Dareng and Simsang flow through Garo Hills. Kynshi, Ummawpa, Umngot, Umiam Mawphlang, Umtrew and Umiam Khwan flow through the Khasi Hills, while Kupli flows through Jaintia Hills. All these abound in cataracts and waterfalls. The most picturesque waterfall, the one called Nohsngithiang at Mawsmai village has an appeal unparalleled in the whole of India. Here the water of several rivulets are precipitated over a sheer cliff of several hundred feet high.

Meghalaya is a country of surpassing scenic beauty. Waterfalls and mountain lakes, rising peaks and billowing hills, meadows, valleys and rushing rivers combine to make a rich panorama.

The climate of the State is temperate. The mercury seldom rises above 26 degree celsius.
Flora is exceptionally rich in the state in the variety and number of plants, orchids being especially prolific.

Shillong

Meghalaya's capital, Shillong is a lovely hill station. Situated at an elevation of 1,496 metres above mean sea level, the capital city has a bracing climate throughout the year. This city has been the seat of the Government since the consolidation of British administration in this part of India over a century ago.

Shillong experiences occasional earth tremors and was devastated by the great earthquake of June 12, 1897.

Shillong is the political and social hub of Meghalaya. It is a lovely hill station with a number of beautiful spots. The Wards Lake, the expansive Polo Ground, the green golf course, the Lady Hydari Park and the peak overlooking the city all conjure up the idyllic beauty that is Shillong. Sprawling at the spurs of surrounding hills, Shillong offers arrangements for tourists with good hotel accommodation, facilities for sports, fishing and hiking.

Shillong is connected by good arterial roads with the rest of the country through Assam. A good road connects
Shillong with Sylhet in Bangladesh. It is also connected with other important towns of the state like Jowai and Tura. An airport at Umroi about 20 kilometres from Shillong known as Shillong Airport connects Shillong by air with the rest of the country.

Shillong is also the headquarters of the North Eastern Council. Here there is the North Eastern Hill University and the official residence of the Governor of Assam and Meghalaya. A Bench of the Gauhati High Court has been set up in Shillong.

Population

According to the 1981 census, Meghalaya had a population of 13,35,819 of which 6,83,710 are males and 6,52,109 females. Urban population is 2,41,333 and the density per square kilometer is 60. Rural population is 10,94,486.

The following table shows the district-wise area and population of Meghalaya:-

<table>
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<th>District</th>
<th>Headquarters</th>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Population</th>
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<tr>
<td>East Khasi Hills</td>
<td>Shillong</td>
<td>5,196 Sq. Km.</td>
<td>5,11,414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Khasi Hills</td>
<td>Nongstoin</td>
<td>5,247 Sq. Km.</td>
<td>2,62,576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Garo Hills</td>
<td>Williamnagar</td>
<td>2,603 Sq. Km.</td>
<td>1,32,260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Garo Hills</td>
<td>Tura</td>
<td>5,564 Sq. Km.</td>
<td>3,69,877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jaintia Hills</td>
<td>Jowai</td>
<td>3,819 Sq. Km.</td>
<td>1,56,402</td>
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The population of East Khasi Hills District as per 1981 Census, as seen above, is 5,11,414. Where the
rural population was 3,30,614 and urban population 1,80,800. The sex ratio (females per 1000 males was 969).

Cultural Heritage

Meghalaya is the homeland of three of India's ancient hill tribes, the Jaintias, the Garos and the Khasis. Dance, music and sports reflect their way of life. Festive sounds of merry-making echo from hill to hill revealing the pulsating life of the tribal people. Mindful of their cultural heritage, these simple-folks are jovial and hospitable.

The Khasis and Jaintias are held to be remnant of the first Mongolian overflow into India. They established themselves in their present homeland in the remote past and owing, primarily to their geographical isolation, they succeeded in maintaining their independence until the consolidation of the British administration in this part of India.

The Khasi language, spoken by Khasis and Jaintias is believed to be one of the very few surviving dialects of the Mon-Khmer family of languages in India today.

A distinctive feature of the Khasi-Jaintia society is its customary law of inheritance by which inheritance to property and succession to tribal office both run
through the female line, passing from mother to the youngest daughter. Office and management of property is of course in the hands of the maternal uncle and not in the hands of the women themselves.

The Garo Hills is the homeland of nearly five lakhs of Garos. Legend has it that the Garos originally inhabited a province of Tibet named Torua. Leaving Tibet in the distant past under their Chiefs, Jappa-Jalimpa and Sukpa-Bongepa, the Garos wandered in the Brahmaputra Valley for centuries in search of a permanent home and survived the ordeals of wars and persecution in the hands of the kings ruling the valley. The Garos branched out into a number of sub-tribes, and the main body, under the legendary leader, Abong-Naga occupied Nokrek, the highest peak in Garo Hills.

The Garos are a part of the great Bodo race, a branch of the Tibeto-Burman family. They mainly practise Jhum cultivation. Like the Khasis and Jaintias they are a mtrilinear society. Life in the hills is hard, but these sturdy people are fond of dances, songs, sports and festivals.

Meghalayans are industrious people, generally good tempered, but they are occasionally prone to outburst of anger accompanied by violence. This is due to the
spirit of freedom which seems to be innate in them.

Administration

The State has a unicameral legislature. The Legislative Assembly consists of 60 member - 29 from Khasi Hills, 7 from Jaintia Hills and 24 from Garo Hills.

Meghalaya was originally comprised of two districts and three sub-divisions. In order to accelerate the pace of development and to bring the administration closer to the people, the State has been reorganised into five administrative districts and ten subdivisions. For an all-round development of the rural areas, the whole State is covered by 30 Community Development Blocks.

District Council

There are three District Councils in Meghalaya under the provision of the Sixth Schedule of the Constitution. They are the Khasi Hills District Council, the Jaintia Hills District Council and the Garo Hills District Council. These Councils look after local administration of primary education, forests other than reserved forests and minor development schemes. The Chief Executive Members with the help of other Executive Members, manage the affairs of the councils.
Economic Activities

Agriculture is the mainstay of the people of Meghalaya. Eighty-five per cent of the State population lives in rural areas and depend on agricultural produce for their livelihood.

Rice, Maize and millets are grown throughout Meghalaya. Wheat has been introduced recently and the result is quite encouraging. Citrus, pineapples and bananas are some of the important fruit crops. Sub-temperate and temperate fruits such as pears, peaches, plums, apples etc., are also grown in the central plateau region of the State.

Potato is one of the principal cash crops of the State. Jute and mesta, short staple cotton varieties and mustard are mostly grown in Garo Hills. Arecanut, ginger, turmeric, betel leaf, black pepper, pipul, tezpata etc., are some of the commercial crops of the State.

Jhumming or shifting cultivation practised in the predominantly agricultural state on a large scale, is one of the biggest problem to be tackled. The State Government has however, made a modest beginning with a scheme to help the farmers to settle on land suitable for steady cultivation.

Under the re-settlement scheme called 'Jhum Control
Scheme,' villagers hitherto depending on jhum cultivation are shifted to the developed lands and are supplied with seeds, fertilizers and irrigation facilities, etc., to start permanent cultivation in the developed lands.

The area under agriculture in the State is 2,23,756 hectares approximately. The State abounds in mineral and forest wealth which is yet to be fully exploited.

Transport and communication are Meghalaya's main bottle-neck. The State is not connected by railways. Roadways are coming up but many of the interior areas are still to be connected by roads.

The State is not so far industrially developed. However, new industrial units set up by or with the help of the Meghalaya Industrial Development Corporation are coming up fast. Some of them are:-

The Meghalaya Plywoods Ltd.
The Komorrah Limestone Mining Company Ltd.
The Associated Beverages (P) Ltd.
The Meghalaya Essential Oils and Chemicals Ltd.
The Meghalaya Phyto Chemicals Ltd.
The Meghalaya Towers and Trusses Ltd., and
The Umiam Calcenates Ltd.
The public-sector cement factory at Cherrapunjee known as the Mawmluh-Cherra Cements Ltd., has been expanded to a production capacity of 930 tonnes per day.

A number of small industrial establishments like saw mills, food processing units, bone mill, cotton ginning, bakeries, lime burning and lime products, rice mill, flour mill, watch assembly unit, etc., are also found in Meghalaya.

Food processing industries have vast scope in Meghalaya. Match Splint and veneer plant is coming up at Barapani Industrial Area. There is also a proposal to extract starch from Tapioca in Garo Hills. Projects like manufacture of calcium carbide, etc., are also likely to come up.

Both the Central and the State Governments offer various financial and other incentives to new units in the private sector.

The Central Government is offering 25 per cent capital investment subsidy and 75 per cent transport subsidy to units set up in Meghalaya. Transport subsidy is for transport of raw materials and finished products from prescribed railway station to the unit.

The State Government helps the units in procuring of raw material especially the scarce one. It also helps new
units to get financial assistance from various Banks.

An industrial area in Byrnihat about 80 Kilometres from Shillong on the Shillong-Gauhati Road, is being developed for providing facilities for setting up of industries. Two industries estates - one at Shillong and the other at Mendipathar in Garo Hills are being established.

The State Government have taken up implementation of an integrated programme for rehabilitation of the economy of the areas bordering Bangladesh, which were badly affected by the partition of the country in 1947.

Mineral Wealth

Meghalaya's mineral wealth is yet to be fully assessed. The estimated reserves of coal are about 1,200 million tonnes. Limestone reserves are of the order of 2,100 million tonnes, and clay deposits ten million tonnes. Sillimanite is found in Khasi Hills in the purest form and is believed to be the largest known deposit in the world.

Power

The state of Meghalaya has many swift flowing rivers from which cheap hydro-electric power can be generated.
There are at present four hydel projects with an installed capacity of 133.66 M.W. Another hydel project is under construction, the installed capacity of which will be 60 M.W. There is also a thermal project of 5.00 M.W. and a diesel project of 1.95 M.W. and a micro hydel project of 1.51 M.W.

Education

The North-Eastern Hill University at Shillong has started functioning since 1973 and Meghalayan students are in a position to obtain post-graduate education in Shillong itself. Besides, a pre-examination training centre for I.A.S. etc., examinations has also been started under the aegis of the North-Eastern Hill University. The Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages has also set up its branch in Shillong in 1974 and has been rendering valuable services to the youth of the State, especially the teaching staff of the different Educational Institutions in the State.

The State has at present 14 general college, one Law College one post-graduate training college, 208 High/Higher Secondary Schools, 488 Middle/Senior Basic Schools, one polytechnic, two Industrial Training Institutes and 4,010 Primary Schools and Junior Basic Schools.

The percentage of literacy in Meghalaya is 34.08
(census, 1981) which compares favourably with the All India average. The percentage of school dropouts was reported to be above 68 in the 1980's.

Health

There are at present nine Government hospitals, twenty-five primary health centres and fifty-seven dispensaries in the State. The number of beds in the Government hospitals is 1,849.

Forest

Meghalaya is rich in forests. The total forest area is 8,51,42 hectares. The principal timber species are sal, nahor, champa, chap, gonari, bholia and pine. Birch, schima, oak, makria sal, beech and magnolia are also found. The principal forest products are timber, bamboo, reeds, cane, ipecac, lac, medicinal herbs and plants, cinnamon and lemon grass.

Azaleas and rhododendrons grow wild in the forests of Khasi Hills and Jaintia Hills and many kinds of beautiful orchids are found in the woods.

Wild-life

Meghalaya is rich in wild-life, many of which are not to be found anywhere else in the world. There are
elephants, tigers, leopards, golden cats, leopard cats and jungle cats, deer of various kinds, bisons, slow loris, monkeys of different types including capped langurs and golden langurs, binturang and hoolock the only species of true ape is found in Meghalaya. There are also many rare and interesting birds including the hornbills, partridges, pheasants, teals, snipes, geese and ducks and drongos. All of these are protected by law.

In conclusion Meghalaya can be summarized as follows:

(A) The land (1981 Census)
1. Area - 22,429 sq.km.
3. Number of villages - 5,048
4. Number of towns - 12
5. Forest area - 8,51,42 hectares
6. Agricultural land - total cropped area - 2,23,756 hectares approximately.

(B) The people (1981 census)
1. Total population - 13,35,819
2. Rural Population - 10,94,486
3. Density - 60 per square kilometre.
4. Literacy - 34.08 per cent
5. Racial origin of the people - Austric, Tibeto, Burman and Aryan.

(C) Major Mineral Resources
Coal, Limestone, Sillimanite, dolomite, Fireclay, Felspar, Quartz and Glass Sand.

(D) Principal Forest Products
Timber, Bamboo, reeds, cane, ipeca, lac, medicinal herbs and plants, cinnamon, lemon grass and orchids.

(E) Principal Agricultural Products
Rice, maize, potato, cotton, orange, ginger, tezpata, arecanut, jute, mesta, banana and pineapple.

(F) Wild Life
Animals - Elephant, tiger, leopard, bear, panther, bison, etc.

Birds - Florican, hornbill, maina, etc.

1.2 UNEMPLOYMENT
India is an underdeveloped country. The nature of unemployment, therefore, sharply differs from the one that prevails in industrially advanced countries. The more developed countries of the world usually suffer from a functional and cyclical unemployment problem. It is meant for a temporary period. But in the case of an underdeveloped country it is a permanent feature.
Unemployment is now a common feature in all market economies irrespective of their level of development. Many in the State of Meghalaya, are unemployed, many without work, still many, though educated, find no or little work to use their skill. Thus it is not confined to unskilled workers but skilled workers sometimes having training in sophisticated technologies also fail to get jobs for long periods. Quite often their services are not required even at the prevailing wage rates. Thus this involves a colossal waste of the nation's human resources.

In all the situations, unemployment refers to a stage at which all workers who are capable of working and willing to work do not get employment. It amounts to a waste of the country's labour force. Frictional unemployment is a temporary phenomenon which occurs due to technical reason like break-down of machineries, storage of raw materials etc. Cyclical unemployment, on the other hand, is a serious involuntary unemployment problem in the advanced countries which occurs during a recession or depression, caused by the lack of effective demand in terms of consumption and investment. This problem can be solved by appropriate monetary and fiscal policies. But in a country like India, there is no such problem of lack of demand which can be easily removed through
the monetary and the fiscal policies.

Types of Unemployment

Broadly speaking, there are three types of unemployment in India:

i) Agricultural Unemployment
ii) Educated Unemployment
iii) Industrial Unemployment

(i) Agricultural Unemployment: A major proportion of labour force in India drifts to agriculture, which being backward, simply shares the existing work among larger numbers. An overwhelming part of them find some work, for some idleness for the rest of the year. This irregular unemployment constitutes the substance of the unemployment situation. This situation has operated over very many years in the past. For example, a historically unique fact about the Indian situation is that over the last six decennial censuses beginning with 1921, the share of agriculture in the work force has not diminished. It was 73 per cent in 1921, 74 per cent in 1971, and 74 per cent in 1981. And this continues even today unreduced. And this is despite an impressive development of the large scale manufacturing and infrastructure sectors. There is more of underemployment of those who are employed
in agriculture but are in fact not needed. The marginal productivity of such marginal workers is Zero. It is described as disguised unemployment.

(ii) Educated Unemployment: As early as 1931, the Royal Commission on Labour emphasized that the problem of educated unemployment is of an All India character. With a rapid expansion of educational facilities - both at the school and the university stage - the out-turn of educated persons has increased very fast. A greater part of the increase among the educated people belongs to those receiving liberal education. There has been a comparatively lesser growth of technical institutions, in view of the large amount of investment required to start them. Consequently, the number of persons seeking employment and clerical posts far exceeded those seeking employment in technical posts.

(iii) Industrial Unemployment: On account of a rapid increase in population, the size of the economically active population is bound to increase. With the spread of urbanisation, people from the rural areas have been shifting to the urban areas. Moreover, during the off season quite a good number of workers in agriculture came to the industrial centre to seek employment. The
rate at which the expansion of industries has been taking place, is not keeping pace with the growth of urban labour force. This has given rise to unemployment among industrial workers in India.

Estimates of Unemployment in Meghalaya

It is an undisputed and an accepted truth that quite a large number of workers are forced to remain jobless both in rural and urban areas. Statistics relating to magnitude of unemployment and of manpower resources is not much reliable because of the scanty information and absence of a clearcut demarcation of the areas of outright employment and underemployment.

While analysing the data of employment exchanges as an indicator of unemployment it was found that in Meghalaya, registration per year with employment exchange has risen from 5.2 thousand in 1974 to 10.2 thousand in 1976 but came down to 5.8 thousand in 1980 and increased further to 6.2 thousand in 1981. The placement effected in a year is not very helpful in reducing the number of unemployed on live registers which reached 10.4 thousand in 1981 against 7 thousand in 1974.

Thus, the problem of unemployment that exist in the state and India as a whole is the cumulative result
of a number of factors, namely lopsided and inadequate industrial development, the rapid growth of population after 1921, the decay of small-scale and cottage industries leading to greater pressure of population on land, the low level of investment resulting in lack of expansion of the secondary and tertiary sector, etc. In other words, the failure of the Indian economy to expand at a rate commensurate with the needs to absorb the additions to the labour force had a cumulative effect of increasing the back log of unemployment and underemployment. Unemployment can be removed by raising the level of investment and accelerating the process of industrialisation. Planning should be employment-oriented if it is to have any meaning for the masses.

1.3 MANPOWER PLANNING

The importance of manpower as an economic resource for overall development of country or a region needs hardly to be emphasised. But unless this resource is properly planned and effectively utilised it will likely to become a liability and not an asset. Manpower Planning, therefore forms an essential element of any policy of national development.

Mere availability of physical resources will not help in the development of a country or a region. Alongwith
the availability of other physical resources, the basic economic resource manpower must be available. Manpower resources alone will convert physical resources for the benefit of the society as a whole. The proper development of manpower through creative and effective utilisation of skills of people, should therefore, form a part of the development strategy. The effective utilisation of manpower resource will lead to faster growth of the economy of a country or a region.

Manpower planning has two aspects, namely, the aspect of surplus and the aspect of shortage. Planning for manpower will deal with the situation of surplus. In other words, the first aspect deals with planning of men for jobs and second aspect deals with planning of jobs for men. Manpower planning should not only take into account the situation of shortage but also a situation of surplus manpower. Historically speaking, however, manpower planning was started to deal with a situation of shortage and not of surplus. Manpower Planning is to take into account the existing situation as well as keep in view the shortage and surplus that are likely to arise in future. In other words, manpower planning should be perspective as well as prospective.

"Manpower Planning", as defined by Ministry of Home
Affairs (1960) states, "the process of developing and determining objectives, policies and progress that will develop, utilise and distribute manpower so as to achieve economic and other goals. It includes developing the necessary organisations. Manpower planning as an integrated plan for economic goals to be achieved. It must be part of the general plan of economic development of a country, a region or a state since the target to be achieved and the level of technology to be adopted are determined by the quantity and quality of the available manpower."

The essential element of manpower planning are the manpower assessment, forecasting of manpower requirements and manpower budgeting. A realistic assessment of the existing manpower and assessment of perspective requirements are necessary to make the manpower plan realistic. Manpower is one of the important factor for growth and development of the country.

1.4 TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN MEchalaya

At present technical education is imparted in four institutions in the state. They are as follows:

i) Shillong Polytechnic

ii) The Industrial Training Institute (ITI) in Shillong and Tura.

iii) The Don Bosco Technical Institute in Shillong.
The Shillong Polytechnic has an annual intake of 120 students. It offers a three-year course leading to a diploma in Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering. The purpose of this course is to prepare middle level technicians of government and other agencies. The entrance qualification is H.S.L.C. On an average about 50 per cent of the students obtain the Diploma every year but even those who fail to get the Diploma qualify for employment at lower levels. The two Industrial Training Institutes in Shillong and Tura are under the Department of Labour and reservation of seat is according to the Government Training Manual. The Don Bosco Technical Institute has an intake capacity of 230-250 students.

The State has at present no facilities for higher level technical or vocational Education. However, there are provisions for reservation of seats for students belonging to the state in Institutions in other parts of the country. It is a happy augury that the foundation Stone for establishment of Indira Gandhi National Medical College in Shillong has already been laid. And the steps are in full swing to organize courses in the near future.

There is also provision for reservation of seats for M.Sc. (Agril), for Ph.D. in Veterinary, Science and Agriculture and courses in Sericulture and Weaving. There
are also seats in craftsman training in institutions in other States. Reservation of seats is also provided for Medical and Engineering course in different states of the country.

One serious difficulty reported is that there is no overall coordination at the State level in the selection and deputation procedures, resulting in delay and forfeiture of seats. This must be remedied through suitable arrangements to ensure coordination of action at the State level.

1.5 VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN MEGHALAYA

Vocational Education has been particularly mentioned for consideration because of the serious lacuna and sad lack of this essential field of work and education in Meghalaya. Vocational Education has an important role to play in bringing about progress, development and transformation in the State. Greater provisions for Vocational Education is needed not only for the exploitation of the natural resources but also making use of the opportunities which emerge out of the developmental programmes in the State.

One of the significant trends in the education system in the country is to make it more relevant to
vocational requirements. One of the proposals is to design a vocational stream at the Higher Secondary Stage to channel off half of the students.

Apart from the provision of a vocational stream at the Higher Secondary Stage, it is necessary that facilities for Vocational Education are made available at other levels also. These programmes need not necessarily prepare people for paid employment. They can be self-employment oriented, and can also be aiming at development of vocational skills relevant to job situation.

It may be advantageous to establish vocational training institutes to make available Vocational Education at Pre and Post Secondary levels. In developing the context and organisational structure of different programme in these institutions, it will be desirable to conduct a survey of the existing vocational position and future prospects.

Steps are also necessary to give vocational information to school and college students to help them make a proper vocational choice. The State which offers vocational courses needs a system of Vocational guidance, which should gradually extend its functions to all the High schools and Colleges in the State. To start with, Information Boards, may be set up in these institutions
where regular bulletins containing vocational information can be displayed. In Shillong, a student information bureau is set up to make available information about job opportunities, careers and educational programmes, by the SCERT for the school level, and by the Directorate of Employment and Craftsmen training, Department of Labour for the College level.

It has been recommended that Vocational Education and the problem of a vocational stream should be under the Directorate of Education.

1.6 MEANING OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Smith (1942) states that "Vocational Education means getting people ready and keeping them ready for the types of serving we need. The term has no limitations as to the kind or level of such needed services. Vocational Education is good education, good sociology, good economics, and good democracy." The American Educator's Encyclopaedia (1982) defines Vocational Education as 'a part of the school curriculum designed to make the student employable in at least one occupation....Vocational Education includes the fields of agriculture education, business and office education, distributive education, health occupations education, wage earning, home economics
education, trade and industrial education and technical education." The Encyclopaedia American (1985) defines Vocational Education as "the preparation of young people and adults for skilled trades and semi-professional careers. It is most frequently offered at the high schools or junior college level and does not normally include training for professions such as law and medicine." According to the New Encyclopaedia Britannica (1985) it states that Vocational Education is "instruction intended to equip person for industrial or commercial occupations. It may be obtained either formally in trade schools, technical secondary schools or in the job training programme or more informally, by picking up the necessary skills or the job without actual supervision."

An analysis of these definitions of Vocational Education reveals the totality of experiences through which one learns about and prepares to engage in work as part of him or her way of living (which includes livelihood). It refers to all formal as well as non-formal instruction for students at the secondary and senior secondary level which prepares them for initial entrance and advancement within an occupation or group of related occupations.
1.7 CONCEPT OF VOCATIONALISATION OF EDUCATION

Vocationalisation of Education at the plus two stage is the cornerstone of the new system of Education. Vocationalisation of Education under the new pattern is proposed not only from economic point of view but also from moral and social points of view.

Vocationalisation means, training in a particular vocation at the school stage, secondary and higher secondary and this vocational training may be of the terminal stage. In the second sense, Vocationalisation means training in some vocation at the higher secondary stage along with general education. This is the most acceptable meaning of vocationalisation. The Indian Education Commission (1966) in this connection says, "We visualise the future trend of school education to be towards a fruitful mingling of general and Vocational Education - a general education containing some elements of pre-vocational and technical education and vocational education in turn, having an element of general education."

India at present is moving towards industrialisation. As a result the villagers are shifting to towns and education is getting an urban orientation. Vocationalisation prepares ground for efficient and effective workers for the fast developing country and on the other hand develops
the dignity of labour in the students.

In the Vocationalisation particularly at the plus two stage, the important aim is to change the educational system from one which was oriented to knowledge or knowledge's sake and clerkdom in a colonial administration to a process which specifically prepares children for wide range or avenues in work life. The goal is not that of meeting specific manpower planning needs, it is rather to orient pupils to a range of work areas in technical, commercial, agricultural, pre-primary teaching, home management, paramedical and other areas and to determine the range in response to local employment needs.

The key concept of the higher secondary stage has become a diversification of pupils' choices in situation of serious unemployment and under-employment of highly educated Indians. There is a need to discourage and divert a proportion of pupils from continuing through higher education, since their talents could be better used in the occupation which require technical skills. The Dictionary of Education defines Vocational Education as all activities in or out of school, designed to contribute to occupational proficiency. It includes apprenticeship, guidance in schools, training programmes, on the job training, retraining personnel. Modern definitions include career orientation,
specific skill training and eventual job placement.

Shoemaker states that "Vocational Education helps to give definite purpose and meaning to education by relating it to occupational goals. It provides the technical knowledge and work skills necessary for employment." Vocational Education is challenged in terms of developing an appropriate attitude and respect for work.

Schools were regarded as places of academic learning for knowledge and not for training character. This concept is now charged as a result of the introduction of the plus two with Vocationalisation of Education. Presenting students with a curriculum which includes technical, craft and physical skills is intended to broaden their ability and interest in such productive processes. The aim is to develop proper attitude towards work, to inculcate the dignity of labour, eradicate status and class distinctions and to stress the principles of productivity. The introduction of Vocationalisation of Education at the plus two stage aims to achieve all these objectives.

Important of Vocationalisation of Education

The importance of Vocationalisation of Education may be assessed from the following points:-
(i) The feeling of fullness in life - Only Vocational or general Education makes the development of the individual one-sided. But Vocationalised Education may bring fullness in his life. General education makes an individual unemployed and dependent on others for economic assistance. Vocationalised Education alone may make a child a skillful workers in some areas, but not a fully developed individual.

(ii) Hope for getting employment - Vocationalised Education gives one a capacity to earn his living. Today the problem of unemployment of our youths has not yet been solved because education has not been vocationalised.

(iii) Hope for economic development of the society and nation - There are enough natural resources. But because of lack of Vocational Education exploitation of these natural resources have not been done fully. Consequently, our nation is behind many other countries of production. Vocationalised Education creates the traits of productiveness in the individual. With this trait he may learn how to exploit the natural resources intelligently. This will ultimately add to the economic prosperity of the nation,

(iv) Hope for creating a spirit of self-dependence - Vocationalised Education creates a spirit of self-dependence in the individual, because through this education he begins to earn something during his school or college career. Thus ultimately he becomes a useful member of the society.

(v) Hope for satisfaction of many psychological tendencies - Through Vocationalised Education, the individual
may satisfy his instincts of construction and self-display. Many of his latent interests, too, may get full play. He acquires some abilities. If he has talent, it may also be further developed. Needless to say that in Vocationalised Education, the student is not a passive listener. In fact, he becomes an active partner in the very process of his education. He learns by doing things. Various types of vocations should be incorporated in a vocationalised curriculum in order to cater to the varying needs, interests and aptitudes of students.

(vi) Development of feeling of respect for manual works - In the Vocationalised Education one has to do some manual work for learning some vocational skill. This feature develops in him a feeling of love for manual work. This is not possible when the education is purely general and academic.

Aims of Vocationalisation

In the wake of the acceptance of the recommendations of the Kothari Commission, Programmes for the vocationalisation of higher secondary education in the 10+2 pattern of school education were initiated in the year 1976 by some states. Some most important aims of the programme were:

i) To reduce the excessive and wasteful pressure on university education by diverting a sizeable numbers of students at the +2 stage to vocational courses.
ii) To increase the employability of youth and to develop their capacity for self-employment.

ii) To correct the mismatch between supply and demand of labour by training youth for middle level jobs for which there is high demand but little supply.

iii) To ensure a steady flow of skilled workers in existing and emerging areas by developing necessary occupational competence.

v) To link education with productivity thereby ensuring increased production of goods and services for raising the standard of living of the people.

vi) To promote the economic development of the country by supplying well training workers to manage diverse jobs in diverse fields.

vii) To accelerate rural development by training manpower for those vocations which have the potential for better utilisation of agricultural resources.

viii) To ensure optimum development of human resources by training youth for work in accordance with their aptitudes and interests.

1.8 COMPONENTS OF VOCATIONALISATION OF EDUCATION

Vocationalisation of Education has been considered a major instrument for the transformation of the educational system in India. The important components may be divided into five categories such as,
(i) Work Experience

The Education Commission, 1964-66 has defined work experience "as participation in productive work in school, in the home, in a workshop, on a farm, in a factory or in any other productive situation." It recommends that "work experience should be introduced as an integral part of all education - general or vocational." Work Experience has been envisaged by the commission as an instrument of relating education to life and productive.

The system of education in our country has, in spite of various attempts made in the past, remained largely bookish and literary. All educationists are agreed on the need of introducing work experience at all stages in schools. As the Education Commission has pointed out:

i) Work experience can be an effective educational tool.

ii) Work experience can inculcate among pupils the habit of hard and responsible work.

iii) Work experience can lead to better social cohesion.
iv) Work experience can increase national productivity.

v) Also, with growing unemployment among the educated youth of the country, it has become imperative to divert, at appropriate stage, a large number of pupils to courses of a vocational character.

The National Policy on Education 1986 pointed out that "work experience, viewed as purposive and meaningful manual work, organised as an integral part of the learning process and resulting in either goods or services useful to the community is considered as an essential component at all stages of education, to be provided through well-structured and graded programmes. It would comprise activities, accord with the interests, abilities and needs of students, the level of skills and knowledge to be upgraded with the stages of education. This experience would be helpful on his entry into the work force. Pre-Vocational programmes provided at the lower secondary stage will also facilitate the choice of the vocational courses at the higher secondary stage."

Thus, the first essential attribute of work experience should be its predominantly manual character which should help inculcate among the students a sense of dignity of labour and develop their stamina for hard work. Manual work should also be purposive i.e. educative in that it should help develop knowledge, understanding work
skills, attitudes and personal - social qualities which are necessary for the solution of problems which the students meet in their day-to-day life. Further, Work experience should be meaningful i.e. it should - help in the satisfaction of the students' basic life needs such as food, clothing, shelter, health, hygiene and recreation through production of goods or rendering of services. Social or community service for the welfare/development of community or society at large should also form an essential component of Work Experience.

(ii) Socially Useful Productive Work

Socially Useful Productive Work has been described by the Ishwarbhai Patel Committee (1977) as purposive, meaningful, manual work resulting into either goods or services which are useful to the community. Socially Useful Productive Work should as far as possible, be predominantly manual. The range of Socially Useful Productive Work is very wide. Therefore, it may not be difficult to select items which select opportunities of enough physical exertion and imbibing the gospel of dirty hand.

It is essential that the Socially Useful Productive Work should either result into some material product or involve the children in some form of service. The latter may be remunerative or performed as social service.
Primarily, the benefits of this programme should be enjoyed by the school and local community directly. However, production of marketable goods and rendering of remunerative service are not ruled out. But this should not be encouraged at the cost of educational outcomes.

The Ishwarbhai Patel Committee has strongly recommended that Socially Useful Productive Work must find a central place in the school curriculum. The nature of this curriculum area is such that it draws its knowledge contents from different subjects of the school curriculum. It has further recommended that Socially Useful Productive Work is to be developed in the light of the Gandhian philosophy of basic Education which was work-centered. The Adiseshiah committee (1978) has also recommended allocation of 15 per cent of the working time to this programme in general education course for the higher secondary education.

The contents of Socially Useful Productive Work should be need-based and depending upon the problems of the child, the school and the community. Therefore, it will be very flexible in nature and no fixed programme can be prescribed in all the schools at a time. Even the details of the programme may vary from year to year.
in the same school according to the changing needs.

The total programme of Socially Useful Productive Work will have two broad components, viz. - a core programme comprising simple activities belong to the need areas - food, shelter, clothing, health and recreation, community and social services which may be common to all the schools. These activities will not require much investment. The other component will be an elective component concerned with production of goods and services related to the needs and facilities available.

From the point of view of the learning and skill development process, experience in every productive work or service has to be provided in three phases, viz. (i) exploration of the World of work with the help of observation, discussion and very simple manipulation, (ii) experimentation with materials, tools and techniques, (iii) work practice in the form of work projects or crafts trades and services. This aspect should be reflected in the plan of the components.

(iii) Vocational Guidance

The General Conference of International Labour Organization in its Vocational guidance recommendations described "Vocational Guidance" as "assistance given
to an individual in solving problems related to occupa-
tional choice and progress with due regard for the indi-
viduals characteristics and their relation to occupational
opportunity."

In the definition adopted by the National Vocational
Guidance Association, U.S.A., in 1937, "Vocational Guidance
is the process of assisting the individual to choose
an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon and progress
in it."

UNESCO in its recommendation of 1974 on Technical
and Vocational Education defined it as a "Comprehensive
term embracing those aspects of educational process invol-
vine, in addition to general education, the study of
technologies and related sciences and the acquisition
of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge
relating to occupations in various sectors relating to
economic and social life. Such an education would be
an integral part of general education and a means of
preparing for an occupational field and an aspect of
continuing education. Technical and Vocational Education
should further contribute to the achievement of society's
goals of greater democratisation and social, cultural
and economic development, while at the same time developing
the potentials of the individuals for active participation
in the establishment and implementation of these goals. It should lead to the understanding of the scientific and technological aspects of the contemporary civilization in such a way that man comprehend their environment and are capable of action upon it while taking a critical view of the social, political and environmental implications of scientific and technological change. Given the necessity for new relationship between education, working life and community as a whole, technical and vocational education should exist as a part of a system of lifelong education adapted to the needs of each particular country."

The aim of Vocational guidance is to serve the individual and Society. For the individual, the main objectives are to prevent the unfortunate consequences arising from maladjustment to an occupation, and to contribute to his total well-being and happiness through job adjustment. Vocational maladjustment may lead to undesirable consequences of various kinds, ranging from mild job dissatisfaction, to serious effects on mental and physical health. From a more positive point of view, vocational guidance is a means of promoting the general well-being of an individual.

Vocational guidance aims at efficient use of manpower and greater economy in the execution of work in industry,
business and government offices. Furthermore, when govern-
ment make funds available for the provision of vocational
guidance services in schools and colleges and employment
exchanges, they do so because they view such services
as a part of the labour force and thus as one means of
coping (indirectly and on a long-range basis) with unemploy-
ment and underemployment.

Vocational Guidance at the College Stage

The main function of vocational guidance at the
college stage is to make students increasingly aware
of the expanding field of work and the unlimited oppor-
tunities that are open before them to earn their living
and contribute to the welfare of the society by engaging
themselves in many types of creative work based on private
enterprise. Too much dependence on service jobs should
be discouraged.

Medhi (1968) gave a list of some of the specific
functions of college guidance programme which are listed
as under:

i) Helping students to relate their studies to the
vocations that are open to them at the end of their
college career.

ii) Helping them to make a comprehensive study of the
careers which they would like to pursue.
iii) Helping them to acquaint themselves with the different avenues of work. This supplements the information given to them in the school.

iv) Helping them to acquaint themselves with avenues for higher studies.

v) Helping them to know about the various programmes of financial assistance - scholarships, fellowships for improving their prospects.

(iv) Vocational Education

Mahatma Gandhi states, "For the all-round development of boys and girls, all training should, so far as possible be given through a profit yielding vocation. In other words vocation should serve a double purpose - to enable the pupil to pay for his labour and at the same time to develop the whole man or woman in him or her, through the vocation learnt at school." Gandhiji insisted that handicrafts are to be taught not merely for productive work but for developing the intellect of the pupils.

He observed, "our boys do not know what to do on leaving schools. True education is that which draws out and stimulates the spiritual, intellectual and physical faculties of the children. This education ought to be for them a kind of insurance against unemployment."

In the words of Karl Marx, as quoted by Aggarwal and et al (1987) "The education of the future will in
the case of every child at a certain age, combine productive labour with education not merely as one of the methods of raising social production but as the only method of producing fully developed human beings.

Vocational Education should aim at helping individuals enter and find a rewarding place in the world of work. It enables individuals to advance economically and socially. It enhances the sense of adequacy of individuals through release and exercise of the creative impulse within them. It checks imbalances in the world of work. It aims at the stability and growth of the local, state and national economies that sustain it, and it aims at increasing national wealth and national progress.

Some of the particular features of Vocational Education can be summarised as: (i) Vocational Education is a programme for the purpose of preparing students for remunerative employment. (ii) Vocational Education emphasises the development of trade skills and occupational competence. (iii) Vocational Education provides for the selection of students with reference to their attitude for work. (iv) Vocational Education programmes provide working conditions and equipment basically parallel to industry. (v) Vocational Education programme are carried on for three or more hours per day in trade practices.
and related subjects. (vi) Work assignments are based upon practices in the trade. (vii) Standards of workmanship is judged in the light of demands of trade. (viii) Content courses and duration of courses are arranged through advisory committees. (ix) Teachers are also selected from trades and given professional courses or programmes. (x) Vocational courses are usually offered in classes 11 and 12 and also out of school youth. (xi) Vocational Classes may be held in school or industrial establishments. (xii) Vocational Education is concerned with livelihood. (xiii) Vocational Education stresses the acquisition of skills but their acquisition is not all. (xiv) Vocational Education is important to all individuals and extends from the cradle to the grave.

Hence, "Vocational Education" as stated by Prof. Arthur B. Mays in his 'Principles and Practices of Vocational Education', "In its broader sense, it could mean education preparatory to the entering of all occupations, both professional and non-professionals, and thus encompasses the entire educational process."

(v) Vocational Environment

Donald Super (1957) advanced a conceptual framework defining the vocational environment which influences
the vocational development and vocational maturity of the adolescents as, "Vocational development is conceived as one aspect of individual development. Like social development, emotional development, and intellectual development, it has both distinctive characteristics which make focusing on it worthwhile and common characterization which reveal it as one way in which general development of the individual manifests itself......Like other aspects of development, vocational development may be conceived of as beginning early in life, and as proceeding along a curve until late in life."

The component of general environment are: (i) The culture in which the individual lives, e.g., The Indian Culture; (ii) The sub-culture in which the individual lives, e.g. Social-economic class, racial background and geographical region; and (iii) The immediate environment of the individual, which includes his family, school, community and church.

Crites (1969) states that immediate environment of the individual has the most direct and significant impact upon his vocational choice of all the stimulus variables. As the basic social and psychological unit in the transmission of the culture and the development of personality, the family conditions in almost all the
responses the individual makes early in life and continues to exert control over his behaviour into adolescence and sometimes adulthood. Similarly the school acts as a socialization agent which rewards and punishes the individual for his actions and thereby teaches him to respond in certain ways and not in others and to develop certain attitudes and values about such vocationally relevant matters as achievement and satisfaction. Each of these institutions, in its own way, as well as collectively, presumably influences the individual in his selection of an occupation.

Dole (1964) has identified a number of educational choice such as social class, father's occupation, parental education, family income, national, ethnic and religious background, and place of residence are associated both with Vocational and educational choice. Sex is also an important factor. So, too, are such psychological determinants as talents, school achievement, confidence and expressed vocational objectives.

Roe (1966) also indicate that Equality of educational and occupational opportunity is another factor in Vocational Planning.

Ventre (1966) has reviewed the findings of School Environment Research Projects which were conducted at
the University of Michigan, USA. These studies, pioneering as they are, link environment with human behaviour. The strategy of environment research project is that environmental variables interact with each other and induce certain variations in observed behaviour and these immediate behaviour variables in turn, influence performance measured with some specificity.

It is rather difficult to define vocational environment specifically. Equally difficult is to find its dictionary meaning. The total environment is too complex to measure. Total environment may be considered to be composed of specific environment that are likely to be related to the development of different human characteristics. These characteristics can be social, emotional, intellectual as well as vocational.

At least one authority in the field of guidance has tried to define the scope of vocational environment. Holland (1966) conceptualises that there are six categories of people with definite interest orientations as realistic, intellectual, social, conventional, enterprising and artistic.....There are six (corresponding) kinds of environment: realistic, intellectual, social, conventional, enterprising and artistic....People search for environments (at the time of making vocational decision) that will
permit them to exercise their skills and abilities, to express their attitudes and values, to take an agreeable problems and roles and to avoid disagreeable ones. Adjustive orientations (vocational choice) in fact, correspond to the six occupational environments which are designated as motoric, intellectual, supportive, conforming, persuasive, and aesthetic.

1.9 VOCATIONALISATION OF EDUCATION DURING FIVE-YEAR PLANS

The following are the various recommendation on vocationalisation of education from five year Plan No.1 to 7.

1. Vocationalisation Education in the First Five Year Plan 1951-56

A. Secondary Education

i. Secondary Education must be closely related to the psychological needs of the adolescents for whom it is being designed.

ii. It should be vitally related to the existing socio-economic situation, to directive principles of State policy laid down in the constitution and the approved schemes for social and economic reconstruction. In order to equip the youth adequately for the needs for the existing socio-economic situation, it is necessary to give secondary education a vocation bias.
iii. Secondary Education would grow from the education that is being given at the primary stage i.e., it should be closely integrated with the basic education and its essential principles.

B. Professional Education

Organisation of facilities for professional education cannot be strictly related to the existing opportunities for employment but should take into account the developments planned in the various other sphere of national activity which require technical personnel. It is also necessary to turn out young men with initiative and grit in excess of the numbers indicated by the normal employment position in order that new ideas may be developed and small scale ventures might receive an impetus.

The greatest need for expansion of training facilities is at the level of artisans and craftsmen. Institutions run by the Ministry of Labour, trade, schools, industrial schools, production-cum training centres should be opened on an extensive scale, so that the skills of the large numbers of people, engaged in production or likely to be so engaged, are developed.

A sum of Rs.21.45.4 lakhs (9.90.4 for states and 11.55.0) per Centre was allotted for technical and Vocational Education which was 14.2 per cent of the total allocation of the First Plan.
2. Vocationalisation of Education in the Second Five Year Plan 1956-1961

The problems of reorganisation of the system of education may be viewed as comprising a series of practical objectives, such as expansion in the numbers for whom educational facilities are available, provision of larger opportunities for girls and for women generally, diversification of education by education stage, replacement of the traditional primary education by education along basic lines, development of social education, adequate provision for technical and vocational education and improvement of education in the universities. Behind these tasks lie more fundamental aims. With so much lost ground to recover, to advance rapidly the nation needs unity, cooperation in all fields and a high spirit of endeavour.

3. Vocationalisation Education in the Third Five Year Plan 1961-66

The secondary Education Commission recommended the setting up of multipurpose schools, which would offer a number of practical courses along with the academic stream, so as to present the pupil with a variety of courses, out of which he could make his choice according to his special interests. During the first two plans 2115 multipurpose schools were established. These offer
more practical courses in Technology, Agriculture, Commerce, Home Science and Fine Arts in addition to humanities and science. Although the concept of the multipurpose schools has been readily accepted and the scheme has expanded rapidly, certain difficulties have been encountered, such as the lack of teachers trained to teach the practical subjects, insufficient teaching material, specially text-books limited range of elective courses and inadequacy of educational and vocational guidance facilities. During the Third Plan, therefore, it is proposed to concentrate on the consolidation of the scheme by strengthening the institutions already established, the programme of expansion being limited to about 331 new schools. An integrated teacher training programme for the multipurpose schools is to be undertaken, and for this purpose four regional training colleges will be established which will prepare teachers for the multipurpose schools through in-service and pre-service training programmes both in the practical and the scientific subjects. Steps will also be taken to stimulate greater experimental work in multipurpose schools for providing courses of study suited to different levels of ability, including special programmes of education for gifted students.
children who do not intend to continue their general education beyond the elementary stage. These courses have to be of varying durations, depending upon the trades and vocations proposed to be learnt. The Industrial Training Institutes will meet a part of this demand. To prepare students to take up employment after the secondary stage, a number of vocational courses are being provided after Class X in industrial training institutes, polytechnics, schools for nursing, and agricultural schools. It will also be necessary to devise a number of additional courses in response to new demands. Provision is being made for pilot projects for the purpose.

5. The report of the Fifth Five Year Plan (1975-79) on Vocationalisation of Education was not available. Hence it cannot be given in this section.

6. Vocationalisation of Education in the Sixth Five Year Plan 1980-85

One of the important links between education and development is provided by manpower development through vocationalisation of secondary education related to employment. This has to be carefully designed based on detailed surveys of existing and potential work opportunities and of available educational and training facilities. It should also keep in view the specific roles and
responsibilities of the different agencies and ensure coordination at the operational level between the developmental programmes and educational system. Such a differentiation would normally commence after the secondary stage and may cover varying periods depending upon the vocation area, group of occupations and the nature and level of skills needed. It envisages deepening of practical bias in the school education to be supplemented by appropriate apprenticeship in actual fields, farm or factory situations. It is not necessary to follow a rigid sequence in the order of acquiring the several skills and it should be possible to supplement exclusive vocational training courses with necessary educational component. In this way, suitable linkages need to be established with a system for occupational mobility and career development over one's employment/working life. For the provision of relevant practical skills agencies like Krishi Udyog and Van Vikas Kendras and other vocational training centre would be utilised particularly for learning by doing. Similarly, experienced craftsmen and practitioners of the arts would be used for imparting operational skills without undue insistence of pedagogic certificates. Wherever new facialities are to be created, they would be located, to the maximum extent possible, in the rural areas.
7. Vocationalisation of Education in the Seventh Five Year Plan - 1984-90

In this section only the relevant paragraphs quoted in the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-1990) were used for the study. (vide caption No. 10.13; 10.41; 10.42; and 10.43).

10.13 Vocationalisation of education at the higher secondary stage was one of the important reforms included in the Sixth Plan. This programme has made limited progress with an enrolment of about 55,000 (72,000 in 1986) students in Vocational education, confined to nine states and three Union Territories where it has been introduced. Measures have been initiated to establish the necessary links confining Vocationalisation, skill training, inplant apprenticeship and placement in gainful employment as composite parts of an integrated efforts to raise the level of utility of the programmes, and its wider acceptance, and success. The organisational requirements for the planning, implementation, supervision and evaluation of the integrated programmes, along with the mechanism for effective coordination among the concerned agencies, are being assessed and defined.

10.41 The Socially Useful Productive work programme components seek to highlight the link between work and education and to develop positive work ethics and work habits.
The programme would allow for better utilisation and integration of community expertise in the teaching-learning process and the use of facilities available with local industry and development institutions. Besides, the supports system for development, training, management and supervision available for vocationalisation programmes will be utilised for the programmes of Socially Useful Productive Work at the secondary stage. Some courses activities of prevocational character will also be introduced for more effective implementation of this programme.

10.42 In view of the importance of linking education with productivity, a major impetus will be given in the Seventh Plan to Vocationalisation of the higher secondary stage. Facilities for Vocational Education will be suitably diversified to cover a large number of fields in agriculture, industry, trade and commerce, and services. It will be ensured that there is no duplication of course between technical and vocational institutions and the schools. The skills imparted, will be of adequate standard for securing gainful employment or self-employment. At the same time, opportunities for pursuing higher general and professional education would be provided.

10.43 Vocational/Career courses in educational institutions will be introduced in a flexible manner
linked to emerging work opportunities. The current intake will be considerably increased introducing vocational courses in many more institutions.

10.44 Based on the evaluation of the on-going scheme of Vocationalisation, States are taking steps to re-organise and improve the programme.

1.10 ATTITUDES
Concept of Attitudes

An attitude is a kind of mental disposition which is build through experience. According to Cantril (1934), "attitude is more or less a permanent enduring state of readiness of mental organisation which predisposes an individual to react in a characteristic way to any subject or situation with which it is related." Farris (1931), has observed that "an attitude is a way of conceiving an object; it is the mental counterpart of an object." Morgan (1934) is of the view that "attitudes are literally mental postures, guides for conduct to which each new experience is referred before a response is made."

An attitude can be considered as a readiness or preparation for response. Chave (1928) observes, "an attitude is a set of complex feelings, desires, fears, convictions, prejudices or other tendencies that give
an individual readiness to act because his varied experience." Warren defines attitude as "a condition of readiness for a certain type of activity".

An attitude can also be considered as a hypothetical construct which is not directly open to observation but which can be inferred from verbal expression of overt behaviour. Attitudes belong to the category of hypothetical constructs, since one is able to infer them from a limited set of observations. According to English and English (1968), a hypothetical construct is "an entity or process that is inferred as actually existing and as giving rise to measurable phenomena other than the observables that lead to hypothesising the construct."

An attitude may be positive or negative. It provides behaviour that is favourable or unfavourable, i.e., positive or negative, towards the object or class of objects. According to Bogardur (1931), "an attitude is a tendency to act towards or against some environmental factor which becomes thereby a positive or negative value." Sarnaff (1960), observes that attitude is a "disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects." Collins (1870) is of the view, "an attitude is a residue, record or measurement of previous experience with the attitude object." Kruger and Reckless (1931) held that an attitude
is roughly "a residuum of experience by which further activity is conditioned and controlled." The experience may be a direct experience with the attitude object or socially mediating experience such as verbal or printed information about the object. The attitude object may be concrete or abstract.

Attitudes are psychological tendencies consisting of cognitive, affective and behavioral components. The cognitive component consists of the person's perception or beliefs about the object. The affective component of the attitude deals with the person's feeling towards the object. The behavioural component of attitude deals with the tendencies to react towards the object in given ways.

There are different types of functions associated with an individual's attitude. They are: Object appraisal, social adjustment and externalisation. The object appraisal function refers to his attitudes' usefulness in orienting him to the object in his environment. This helps him in classifying them. The social adjustment function refers to the part played by his attitudes in maintaining as well as disrupting social relationships. It is obvious that the social adjustment function of one's attitude helps in the mediation of 'self-other' relationship.
Attitudes perform the 'externalisation' function when they defend the individual's ego from anxiety.

An individual's attitude may be inconsistent. Social pressures produce sometimes the necessity for an individual to act contrary to his attitudes. Here, there is a disparity between an individual's private attitude and public commitments. There may also be some inconsistency between the cognitive and affective components of an individual's attitude i.e., in his beliefs and feelings.

**Developing Attitudes:**

For the successful practice of a vocation, one must have the attitudes appropriate to one's particular calling. Such attitudes as the following are involved in most occupations: pride in one's vocation, a persistent desire for the highest degree of efficiency, a feeling of social responsibility as a worker in the particular field involved, jealousy for the prestige of the calling, and high standards of vocational ethics in dealing with clients or employers and with fellow workers. Attitudes of this sort, as well as the opposite kind, are in large measure acquired by unconscious process.

One is likely to assume, by gradual degrees, the attitudes of his associates or his superiors in authority
in the vocation. Vocational attitudes are, however, much too important to leave wholly to chance, and it therefore becomes a part of the work of vocational education to build desirable vocational attitudes. Some attitudes are essentially emotional in character, the problem is to produce appropriate or desirable, "feelings" with reference to the vocation. Basic factors are vocational self-respect and occupational pride. The other desirable attitudes seem to be predicated upon these two; hence it is important, as a phase of training, to develop these fundamental feelings.

An effective means of leading a learner to an attitude of vocational self-respect is to bring him, through effective training, to a feeling of mastery. There can be no large degree of self-respect as a practitioner unless one is conscious of the possession of skill and expert knowledge. Nothing can take the place of such consciousness. Mere overconfidence, or egotism, does not produce the necessary attitude; it must come from genuine possession of knowledge and skill. For this reason the vocational teacher should be much concerned with imparting a rich store of professional, or occupational, lore and technical facts, as well as with rapid development of a high degree of skill.
Occupational pride, on the other hand, grows from a knowledge of the economic and social significance of the occupation to which one belongs and from a feeling of an exclusive fellowship with other members of the occupation. This feeling comes in part from the stressing, by the vocational teacher, of the importance of the vocation; and from putting the student in possession of the history and "secrets" or "mysteries" of the craft. Few things will produce the needed pride of occupation as effectively as a special knowledge of its history and "Mysteries," and the realisation that such knowledge is the peculiar possession of the members of the craft or profession. Inspirational talks, membership in professional or occupational societies, and more than all other influences, perhaps an unimpeachable occupational attitude maintained consistently by the instructor, are also means of producing a desirable occupational pride.

Proper attitudes of social obligations can be developed through example and precept, and through the insistence, on all suitable occasions, upon the practice of a high type of social and occupational ethics. It is not safe to trust to vocational ethics. If the vocational training agency neglects the building of desirable attitudes they may not be developed by occupational practice. Its importance makes it one of the major obligations of Vocational
Education. Above all techniques or methods is the example of the vocational teacher. His attitudes will inevitably affect the attitudes of his pupils.

Aspects of Attitudes

Attitudes are generally agreed to encompass three different aspects. These features are:

i. A cognitive aspect - pertaining to the ideas or propositions that express the relation between situations and attitudinal objects.

ii. An affective aspect - pertaining to the emotion or feeling that accompanies the idea.

iii. A behavioural aspect - pertaining to the predisposition or readiness for action.

These aspects are considered to characterize the internal states that are the learned attitudes. In other words, each such state has an affective, or emotional, component, a cognitive component; and an "action tendency", or behavioural, component (Rosenberg and Hovland, 1960). Differences among theories of attitudes pertain to questions about which of these components is primary or which is a cause of the others. Many theorists hold that discrepancies in "beliefs" (cognitive component) result in attitude change (for example, Festinger, 1957). Others emphasize the learning of emotional (affective) responses to stimulus
objects by conditioning (Staats and Staats, 1958). A third and different view maintains that the attitudes follow from the individual's self-perception of behaviour (Bem, 1970). Actually, there is evidence to support each of these viewpoints, and it is difficult to choose among them. For purposes of considering how attitudes function, such a choice may not even be necessary.

Attitudes and Values

Values are often spoken about in the same breath with attitudes. Some investigators make no distinction between these two words, and this is perhaps the simplest point of view to adopt at the present moment. Others consider that value is a name given to a social attitude that enjoys wide-spread societal acceptance.

A widely held view of the relationship of attitudes and values is that the former may be arranged on a continuum that represents increasing degrees of internalization ranging from those that are lightly held to those that are strongly valued.

The most lightly held attitudes, according to this conception, fall into the general category of personal action called Receiving. An example of willingness to receive is "accepting differences of race and culture,
among people known." Increasingly greater degrees of internationalization of attitudes are indicated by the categories of Responding and Valuing. Preference for a value, for example is indicated by the kinds of action reflected in the descriptions "assumes an active role in current literary activities" and "writes letters to press on issues he feels strongly about."

Still greater degrees of internalization of attitudes are indicated by the categories of Organization and Characterization by a Value Complex. Since more than one value may be relevant to a situation values become organised, first, by being conceptualised and later by being conceptualised and later by being formed into a value system in which some are more dominant than others. At the peak of the internalization process a generalised set and a characterization of values is attained that is reflected in the development of conscience, codes of behaviour, and a philosophy of life.

During the course of individual development, different kinds of values, perhaps exhibiting differing degrees of "internalization," may become evident from the individuals' choice of personal action Kohlberg (1966) has described six stages of moral development covering ages from childhood to adulthood. A brief summary of three
stages, categorized in three levels, in as follows:

i. Preconventional level - Stage 1 is "the punishment and obedience orientation," in which choices of action depend upon the physical consequences of the action. Stage 2 is called "the instrumental relativist orientation"; Choices are made that satisfy the child's own needs and occasionally the needs of others.

ii. Conventional level - In stage 3, attitudes are characterized by "the interpersonal concordance or 'good boy - nice girl' orientation," a tendency to act in ways that please or help others and bring their approval. Stage 4 is "the 'law and order' orientation," leading to choices in accordance with authority and fixed rules.

iii. Post-conventional, autonomous, or principled level - Stage 5 is described as "the social-contract legalistic orientation, generally with utilitarian overtones," in this stage, there is consideration of general individual rights and accepted societal standards. Stage 6 is "the universal ethical principle orientation," in which right actions are chosen in accord with self-selected ethical principles (the conscience).

While Kohlberg considers that such stages represent increasing degrees of maturity, he points out that moral development is not automatically achieved, and that some
adults do not attain the highest level. It follows, therefore, that the more nature attitudes need to be a part of what is learned as children grow into adults.

Education in the realm of morality aims at the development of moral character rather than simply a change in attitude in a narrow or temporary sense. A number of dimensions of character have been identified by Hogan (1973).

i. Socialization, as shown by behaviour conforming to the established moral code.

ii. Empathy, indicated by an understanding of other people's behaviour and an appreciation of their feelings.

iii. Autonomy, the tendency of the individual to make moral choices consistent with his or her integrity as a person.

iv. The ethics of personal conscience, or the ethics of personal responsibility.

Presumably, then, it is stable individual characteristics like these that represent the aim of "character education" in educational systems. It is difficult to identify the social forces, institutions, and experiences that affect such development in the human individual, for they are many. One can realize, however, that the
foundations for these stable character dimensions begin with the instruction for the young child in the family environment and in the early school grades.

Relatively simple, commonly occurring social situations can establish the attitudes that, when reinforced over a period of time, eventually become part of the individual's character. For example, the parent or teacher can exhibit the action choices of a human model in conforming to a prevailing moral code when the child is confronted with the question of respecting mother child's property or "turn" in a game. Likewise, the influence of the human model on an attitude of empathy can be exhibited in a social situation such as the hitting or kicking of another child of course, as the individual grows older, the normal decision to be made become more difficult. Their basis, however, remains in the concrete situations in which a variety of human models are seem to make choices of action.

Problems in Attitude Testing

Kochlar (1984), indicated a number of problems in attitude testing:
i. Attitude is a complex affair which cannot be wholly described by any single numerical index. It is just as legitimate to say that we are measuring attitudes as it is to say that we are measuring tables or men.

ii. People's attitudes are subject to change. When we have measured a student's attitude on any issue such as dictatorship as a form of government, we shall not declare such a measurement to be in any sense an enduring or constitutional constant. His attitude may change. Thus it becomes essential that the attitudes are tested after some reasonable interval. At the same time, the scales which are useful at present, may become obsolete after some time.

iii. It is also difficult to get valid responses. The correlation between paper-pencil questionnaires and observed behaviour is low.

iv. The scores of the individuals generally concentrate in the middle. That means their attitude is neutral. It is difficult to find out what are neutral attitudes - does this mean an individual who is undecided, who has not decided on either side, or an individual who is least bothered about us or our scale? It is also possible that the individual is not aware of the trait being tested.

v. Discrepancies between verbally-expressed attitudes and overt behaviour have also been noted in the number of studies.
vi. Every observation of overt behaviour may not always provide an accurate index of attitude.

1.11 CONCLUSION

This Chapter presented the background of the study. It has been seen that Vocational Education and Vocationalisation of Education has an important role to play in the District Development. Unemployment can be eradicated to some extent if the students' attitudes towards Vocationalisation of education are favourable. In order to meet and cope with the new demands, there is a need for internal restructuring and modification of content in education and for developing strong links between the school and departments, agencies and enterprises concerned with development such as industries, commerce, agriculture, health, etc. New thinking and consciousness are needed among educationists and leadings people in other spheres of life. Manpower planning can be effective for improvement and also filling the gaps of demand and supply.

As Vocationalisation is a major transformation in education and cannot be achieved without structural and functional change in the whole set up, education is to be organised in such a manner as can enable the individual, particularly the school-goer, to be equipped as to be able to find opportunities for self-employment.
or for work in actual life. In this regard different education commissions right from the Calcutta University Commission (1919) to the Kothari Commission (1966) and the National thrust upon Vocationalisation of Education. The different Five Year Plans have also shown its importance and the need of implementing it in the country as a whole. A review of related literature is given in the next chapter.
There was a time when the world acted on books; now books act on the world.

- Joubert