CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF PAST RESEARCHES

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3.1 Introduction

Till nineteenth century there was, speculative, non-scientific approach to the study of the child. The first significant efforts to get away from the speculative philosophical approach and to turn more towards a child-study based on direct observations were stressed by the early biographers of the late nineteenth century.

The early infant school is the common origin of both the kindergarten and nursery school and it was frankly philanthropic in purpose. Infant school practice changed through the influence of various educational leaders. Among the men who struggled for reform and who profoundly affected the early infant school and later the kindergarten are Comenius, Rousseau, Oberlin, Owen Pestalozzi and Frebel.

3.2 Review of the Child-Study Movement

John Ames Comenius was the first modern theorist to fully appreciate the importance of training the child from birth. Forest summarised Comenius's contributions in the following statement.

"Because of the high value, which he set upon the child's spontaneous activity and because of his interest in the pre-school period, Comenius has been called "The Father of the Modern Kindergarten".
Jean Jacques Rousseau's ideas left an imprint on early education. He was a proponent of the experience-centered curriculum and stated in his influential book "Emile".

"As a general rule never substitute the symbol for the thing signified, unless it is impossible to show the thing itself; for the child's attention is so taken up with the symbol that he will forget what it signifies."

Rousseau firmly established three great modern principles of teaching: (1) the principle of growth, (2) the principle of pupil activity, (3) the principle of individualization - these basic principles that lay at the heart of all the pregnant reforms of Pestalozzi, Herber, Frobel.

Rousseau shared Commenins's belief that children were not miniature adults, but personalities in their own right.

In preparing to teach it is important to develop a clear understanding of what is meant by modern concepts of education and to know how they differ from older ones. A brief study of the development of certain educational attitudes, research studies and their implications for classroom practices is necessary. The development of a thoroughly reasoned concept of the school's function and the teacher's role in achieving this function is a major task for a career
in education. According to the classical tradition, knowledge (acquiring facts) is education. On the basis of this concept of education, teaching becomes a matter of acquiring the techniques of getting pupils to learn, the established content. Little concern is felt about how the children learn as long as they can 'parrot' back what they have heard or read.

Early thinkers considered children as miniature adults. The teacher attempts to get children to learn something because it will help them when they 'grow up' preparation for the future has been a dominating concept of education throughout.

Under the doctrine of the faculty of psychologists and phrenologists, exercise of the different faculties of the mind was the major importance in teaching. Teachers chose not only hard subjects but also the most difficult subject matter within each subject. The teacher's purpose for constant drill and the resulting rote memorization was not to facilitate of the material studied but rather to exercise the faculty of memory. If the faculty of memory or reasoning was trained, it would be able to transfer to other situation or skill.

The field of educational psychology has produced experimental evidence which raises many questions about the validity of a general transfer of training.
Festalossi (1746-1827) felt that children should be treated like human beings, educated in terms of their needs, and learn through the full use of their senses. His doctrine of interest 'to provide the motivation for learning caused a great deal of furor in his time. He insisted that "Learning should be a pleasant experience". Festalossi's greatest contribution to education was in the area of teacher training. He emphasised learning from objects and practical experiences. This and his analysis of various teaching methods may be considered the foundations upon which the scientific investigation of similar educational problems has since been undertaken.

Frebel (1782-1852) taught with Festalossi and he was very much impressed by Festalossi's sense of realism but he also leaned heavily upon the idealistic philosophy. Friedrich Frebel looked upon the child as an agency for the realization of God's will in human nature. It was through education that the child's spirit became linked with the spiritual unity of God. Frebel believed that the child had latent powers that were to be unfolded as he entered into the spiritual union with God. Education, then, would be a process of spiritual activity, a process that was creative and morally good. Since the educative process was so dedicated to the development of the child, Frebel felt that his process should start with the small child of three or four years. He called his school the kindergarten a garden
where children grew. In his garden, he introduced a new method of teaching that was designated the method of play-activity. Frobel felt that play was a natural and appropriate activity for small children, and therefore he wanted to capitalize on the child's interest in play-activity. He emphasized respect for the child and for his individuality. Frobel's educational principles are i. self-activity ii. social participation. An important foundation for the later concept of child-centred education was laid by Frobel's kindergarten.

During the past century science has contributed new understandings of human growth and development. Beginning with the work of the empirical psychologists, later scientific investigations in the areas of individual differences, measurement, and learning have contributed much to the improvement of educational practice.

In 1831, Johann Herbart, published a volume entitled "Letters dealing with the Application of Psychology to the Art of Teaching". He laid the foundation for a field of psychology, called, "empirical psychology that was based upon the results of experience and observation.

G. Stanley Hall established a center for applied psychology in 1844 which devoted its efforts to the study of children's mental development. Hall is often referred to as the founder of child-study. It opened the door for
Growing out of the early work in empirical psychology and child study came a great deal of interest in all aspects of human growth and development. Research into the relative effects of heredity and environment set the stage for many investigations. As a result, educators began to learn more about which aspects of human growth are determined by heredity and/or environment.

Research provided information about the processes, pattern and rates of human growth. Investigations indicated that the process moved from generalized mass activity to specialized local activity. These findings became extremely influential in the selection of learning experiences for boys and girls at different age levels. The fact was finally established that the children are not miniature adults; they are qualitatively and quantitatively different. Through research it was found that children mature at different rates. It was also found that it is necessary for children to reach certain levels of maturity before they can benefit the most from the experiences provided from them. Education must be geared to the growth and development of pupils.
No longer could a teacher consider a whole group of students average, dull, lazy and the life. A range of abilities, attitudes, achievements, and physical characteristics existed in every class-room. Therefore a teacher no longer could expect every child to participate in a learning situation and achieve the same results as every other child. The measurement movement started with achievement and intelligence tests. It included aptitude and personality tests. From the elaboration of these instruments and techniques of measurement grew many studies in education. Contribution of the science of statistics and refinements of statistical methodology enabled educators to use more exact measuring devices for gaining insight into the development of individual children.

Darwin and Preyer kept careful notes on the development and behaviour of individual children over a period of months and years. They used longitudinal method to study the children. Only afterwards in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries the first scientific investigations of children were carried out by G. Stanley Hall (1844-1911) in France. They were mostly concerned with finding out causes of behaviour. Their findings and writings helped the people to understand, to some extent the causes of children's behaviours. Hall used questionnaire to gain information about child's behaviour and published "The content of children's minds", a study of concepts held by
Binet's professional contributions were many, including the development of a method of testing the intelligence of children.

Gesell and Ilg of Yale University, utilised "Clinical developmental examination, surveys and observations of home life, school life and nursery school behaviour and interviews with parents of the children in reporting on "The infant and child in the culture of today". They described their findings in terms of behaviour apt to occur in a child at a particular age-level. These descriptions constitute norms, to each side of which extends the variety of behaviours which make up the normal range of behaviour".¹

Contribution of Gesell, his colleagues and students is greater in the field of the behaviour typical of each age level. They have provided information on development from conception to adolescence - their motor behaviours, personal, social behaviour, language behaviour and adoptive or intelligent behaviour. They describe the kinds of behaviour typical for each age and which might reasonably be expected of normal children and given age norms. Though norms are merely average and as such they tell us nothing the rightness or wrongness, the healthiness or unhealthiness of behaviour. Comparative information has been prepared by Gesell for other ages, beginning with early infancy.

¹ Gesell, Arnold and Ilg, Francis L., Infant and Child in the Culture of To-day, London: Harish Hamilton Ltd., 1943, P.146
Another significant contribution on this line of study has been the emphasis on stages of readiness of the child which has helped us to outline the stages through which a child normally progresses from infancy to maturity.

Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) has contributed to more dynamic approach. He has developed an extensive and elaborate theory of the nature of human personality, based on fundamental instincts and drives. He has also helped us to see that human behaviour is often motivated at an unconscious level. According to Freud personality consists of three major divisions (i) the Id, the reservoir of basic energy giving rise to all forms of instinctual strivings (ii) the Ego, that part of the personality concerned with, among other things, reality and the child's position in relation to the realistic elements of his world; and (iii) the superego, concerned with normal values and the rightness or wrongness of behaviour.

John B. Watson (1849-1936) an American Psychologist was much concerned not only with the influence of learning experiences. He was mainly interested in knowing how the child's observable behaviour could be modified by the presentation of special experiences. He recognised the importance of biological processes as well as psychological processes as the basis for human behaviour. He felt that new habits are the modification of old ones through conditioning and experiences. His major philosophy of child-rearing
is expressed by the term 'habit training'.

Kurt Lewin (1890-1947) was the first person who related the theory to the growth and behaviour of children. Watson Lewin was concerned with the environment. But there is slight difference in their approaches. While Watson was mainly concerned with the effects of external environmental forces on the child, Lewin argued that a child has more than a passive receiver of stimulation from the outside. In his view the child's personality included numerous psychological systems which interacted with his environment in an increasingly complex manner. Lewin believed that the environment included objects and persons having powers of attraction and repulsion for the child. He tried to explain human behaviour in accordance with principles of mathematics and physics. His description of conflict situations are of special interest in the understanding of child's behaviour.

Haltwicks (1936) study suggested that the specific behaviour patterns may also change as a consequence of pre-school experience because observations and mother's reports indicated that children attending nursery school, eliminated more undesirable infantile dependent habits during the year than a matched group of peers who didn't go to nursery school. Also they acquired a greater number of "desirable habits" many of them indicating an emancipation from adults. So the period of attendance in the nursery school is one of the important factors.
Bonney and Nicholson (1958) reviewed various studies of the effects of pre-school training on children in later life. One study found that socio-metric scores of former nursery school children now in kindergarten, first grade second or third grade, were significantly higher than those of their age mates who had not attended nursery school. This shows that the nursery school has a definite influence in the social development of children.

The studies by Brenner (1957) and Brenner and Samuelson (1959) Pauline and Edith (1963) indicate that nursery school children show better readiness for the primary school. This proves how the nursery school experience helps the children in their intellectual development.

Speck and Gessel (1961) say that if the children enter elementary school without having had friends to play with in a play group they may be tense and fearful not only about the teacher but also about other children. For this reason children need to be given nursery school education and the satisfaction of playing and growing with other youngsters.

Dr. Montessori's contribution to pre-school education are many and all of them are equally important and great. It is not quite easy to single out one or two from the many
as more important and significant. The principles that she has discovered have a very wide applicability and cover all stages of education.

Her important contributions are:

i. Her discovery of the sensitive period in the early childhood and her emphasis on the need to make proper use of it.

ii. Her enunciation of the four principles of freedom, spontaneity, individual work and auto-correction to create the right atmosphere for the child so that it can gain the full advantage.

iii. The sensory material and material for language and mathematics which she has designed for the child so as to facilitate its self-learning by auto-correction methods.

iv. The opportunity she affords to child to adjust itself to society and to get into social habits conducive to social life.

v. The stress laid by her on an all round development of senses and muscular movements of the child.

vi. The opportunity and scope that she has given to the child for creative arts.
Dr. Montessori's structured and sequential approach with its major emphasis on sensory motor learning and with its stress on cognitive development of children, may be thought of as a key for reducing the learning difficulties faced by the children in school.

Barbara Berger in her study "Comparative investigation of Montessori and traditional pre-kindergarten practices say "despite the indication of professional interest in this teaching approach and extensive speculation pros and cons Montessori instruction, little has been done by way of systematically researching training outcomes. The findings of her study indicate that "significant training effects were apparent for children taught by Montessori and traditional approaches, indicating the psychological impact of classroom conditioning or cognitive style patterning to be a more meaningful and critical dimension of the training experience than the achievement impact of didactic procedures in developing perceptual and cognitive abilities.

Piaget was decidedly innovative in trying to apply the principles of biology to understand epistemology (the study of the origin and nature of knowledge). His best known works deal with children's cognitive development from infancy to adolescence, especially with their conceptions of causality, time, space, number etc., and with the course of language growth and moral development. Piaget grants that maturation has an important role to play in mental growth, but that it does not explain all development. The
very foundation of Piaget's theory is the organism - environment interaction. His postulation of the functional invariants of assimilation and accommodation involves a constantly moving, dynamic, flexible, mutually interacting process, and he goes as far as to imply that structural change in the organism occur as a result of its experience.

Montessori was concerned with establishing a new theory of education. Piaget with distilling a new philosophy of knowledge. For Montessori, the quest is essentially pedagogical, with the ultimate aim of maximising the child's potential through the provision of an optimal opportunity structure. She felt that the then existing methods of early childhood education were adult-oriented, and failed to take the needs and abilities of the young child into account. For Piaget, the origin and nature of the processes in the acquisition of knowledge became the vital issue for him, the study of the child was a means to an end rather than an end in itself.

Montessori has built into her educational system the concept of individual differences Piaget's theory is centred around the notion of the child's striving for cognitive equilibrium through his adaptive mechanisms of assimilation and accommodation and that implies that the child's unique innate faculties as well as the specific environment he functions in, determine his level of equilibrium at any given time.
Cognitive development was considered as a natural off-shoot of sensory-motor functionary, intelligence as an extension of physical sensibilities. Montessori says.\(^2\) It is (this) physiological education which prepares for mental education, by perfecting the organs of the senses and the nervous tracks of projection and association.\(^3\)

It was noted earlier that Montessori was a strong upholder of the order and lawfulness of maturation. She has continuously emphasised this.\(^3\)

"The child will grow in stature and psychological capacity as a programme laid down by nature has ordained. We must not therefore set ourselves the educational problem of seeing mean whereby to organise the internal personality of the child and develop his characteristics. The sole problem is that of offering the child the necessary nourishment."

According to Elkind\(^4\) Piaget considered himself as the man in the middle between the arch empiricists and the arch

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empiricists and the arch nativists. In his theory, maturation is not the dominant explanation for development, where we do have some data, we see that maturation consists essentially of opening up new possibilities and thus constitutes a necessary but not in itself a sufficient condition for the appearance of certain behaviour patterns. Maturation is only one of the many factors involved and the influence of the physical and social milieu increases in importance with the child's growth.

Flavell indicates that Piaget's beliefs about education are as follows:

"In trying to teach a child some general principle or rule, one should so far as is feasible parallel the developmental process of internationalization of actions. That is, the child should first work with the principle in the most concrete and action-oriented context possible; he must be allowed to manipulate objects himself and see the principle operate in his own actions. Then it should become progressively more internalised and schematic by reducing perceptual and motor supports, e.g. moving from objects to symbol of objects, from motor action to speech, etc. Piaget's theoretical emphasis on the action (and active) character of intelligence thus provides the rationale for certain specific recommendations about the teaching process.

Piaget highlighted the importance of physical activity and social interactions as necessary ingredients to experience, in turn, is always necessary for intellectual, or cognitive development.

Hunt, too, stressed that during the phase of concrete operations, it appears important for the development of the intellect to provide opportunities to cope with a variety of materials, objects and gadgets. In other words, concrete materials are a requirement for the child's thought operations.

Torrance clarified: "Man fundamentally prefers to learn in creative ways - by exploring, manipulating, questioning, experimenting, risking, testing and modifying ideas. Teachers generally have insisted that it is more economical to learn by authority. Recent research suggest that many things, though not all, can be learned more effectively and economically in creative ways rather than by authority".6

Children do employ the essential elements of the process of concept formation - that is, associating ideas, attempting to discover cause and effect relationships, classifying and generalizing about things in the environment.

Murphy Gardner stressed that "Concept formation occurs by means of repeated experiences with people, objects, situations and events. The child's ability to form useful concepts is not only reflection of his level of mental development, it is a direct aid in his intellectual growth, with meaningful concepts serving as the basis for the development of other, additional concepts. One builds on the foundation of others. The general process of concept formation moves from the concrete tangible and specific toward the more general, less tangible, and more abstract".  

Smith describes it thus:

"In classical psycho-analytic and Piagetian theory, the play of child is said to have mainly compensatory function. For the analyst, play has significance for intellectual growth except as it helps to reduce the amount of tension that might be impeding intellectual activity somewhere else. While most of the sociologists emphasize the social value of play some also stress cognitive implications".

Erikson stated that "The child uses play in order to gain mastery over his environment, while the adult uses

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it as a 'vacation from reality' for Piaget, the child who
plays is actually getting to know and deal with his environ-
ment. He described symbolic play or imaginative play as
the purest form of egocentric and symbolic thought. 9

"Play creates many practical situations in which the
child discovers and observes, and reasons and solves
problems".

First and foremost need is for trained talented
educators. The personal quality in teaching is more important
than ever before. Those who work for and with children
can encourage the development of a positive self-concept;
promote copying tendencies and the growth of a healthy
outlook on life.

Erikson commented, "In order to create people who
will function effectively... even the most 'savage' culture,
must strive for what we vaguely call a 'strong ego'....
and above all to emerge from a long and unavoidably fearful
infancy with a sense of identity and an idea of integrity".

In Combs view 10 "positive experience must be
provided that can teach individuals that they are positive


10. Combs, Arthur W., and Donald Snygg. Individual
people. Recent studies indicate that children are not only aware of their teachers' feelings about them, but to see themselves in the same light, and perform accordingly. It is important to learn as much as possible about this secret world of childhood. The teachers working with children conceive their role to be that of a lubricant to speed children along the path of growth with regard for the differences, the life styles, the hopes, aspirations and fears of these children. It is vital to understand the child's view of life, his evaluation of his world and his place in it. These are all important factors in his growth and development, and later solid achievements, when a child is given the feeling that he is capable, worthwhile human being, one who can learn and grow to be what he most desires to be, he will be more likely to succeed. His actual performance on learning tasks will be improved.

Havighurst stated \[11\] that developmental tasks originate during periods of the growth sequence from infancy through adolescence. The successful achievement of these tasks leads to the child's feelings of satisfaction and sense of achievement. While failure leads disapproval by society, difficulty with later tasks and unhappiness in the child. Developmental tasks according to Havighurst, arise from

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physiological maturation, pressures from the cultural and social milieu into which the child is born, values, desires and personal goals emerging within the individual personality. Timing is all important. Utilisation of the 'teachable moment' is the critical factor in determining whether or not the child will learn. The key to successful achievement and personal satisfaction is found in the wholesome, positive, personal relationships and interrelationships established in the early childhood classrooms. It is every child's birth right to have adults who believe in him.

Spodek states 12 "Young children can learn. Young children want to learn. Young children need little incitement to learn when the modes of learning provided to them are consistent with their own wishes for exploration and their own needs for movement, and when the activities designed for them by the teacher are tailored to their needs, their behaviour patterns, and their developmental levels. The teacher of young children could benefit more by looking for new than by devising crude ways of moving and inciting children to function in dull, inappropriate classroom activities.

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It is revealed from the above studies that from about last two centuries child-study movement has been steered by so many thinkers in the world but in India it is unfortunate that very few thinkers or educationists have paid any attention to this type of studies i.e. pre-primary education or pre-primary teacher-training programme. Unfortunately very few studies caught sight of by the investigator in India on training of teachers though there are some pre-primary school studies which includes teacher-training. They are as follows:

3.3 Review of Past Researches in India

3.3.a. Pre-Primary Education in Poona University Area

Bapat B.G. An Investigation into the conditions of Pre-Primary Education in the Poona University area with a view to finding out problems and suggesting solutions to some of them; Ph.D. Education, Poona University, 1957.

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

Data for this study were collected through (i) questionnaire (ii) visits to institutions (iii) discussions with heads and parents (iv) interviews with leading social workers
(v) documentary evidence from official and non-official reports, books, and periodicals. Percentages were calculated for analysis of data.

The survey of the pre-primary institutions revealed some problems which discussed in terms of:

i. The ideology of the pre-primary schools.

ii. The qualifications and such other aspects of the head and other members of the staff.

iii. The controlling authority.

iv. Location, accommodation and equipment.

v. Classification.

vi. Working hours, working days, holidays, records, procedures of work, methods followed, inspection and affiliation.

vii. Parent-teacher relations.

viii. Transfer from pre-primary to primary school.

ix. Government's policy and position.

x. Finance.

xi. Extension of pre-primary education.

Problems pre-primary teacher-training institutions were related to (i) members of the staff (ii) the pupils (iii) apparatus (iv) finance (v) practicing schools (vi) methodology (vii) examinations (viii) refreshers' course.
The survey of the pre-primary school children showed a few more problems which included:

i. pre-primary school accommodation, equipment, and working,

ii. the teachers of the pre-primary (from the parents' point of view),

iii. the fees, the finance of the school,

iv. responsibility of the government,

v. preparation of the parents,

vi. parent-teacher organization.

About the preparation, the survey identified problems like:

i. the age group which is the liability of the parents,

ii. nature of preparation of prospective parents,

iii. nature of subjects to be included in the regular education,

iv. nature of guidance to the newly weds,

v. nature of compulsion on newly weds concerning babies,

vi. nature of child-clinics to guide parents,

vii. arrangements for working mothers,

viii. nature of records to be kept by parents,

ix. co-operation between the parents,

x. care about feed, body movement, language development and psychological growth of children.
Comparison of the state of pre-primary education in the Poona University area with that in other parts of India and abroad was also attempted.

The important problems identified in the study included:

1. philosophy of pre-school education,
2. accommodation and space,
3. methods of grouping, socialisation, free play, activities, apparatus,
4. medical check-up, supply of food,
5. costs and control of preschool system,
6. parental co-operation and parent-teacher relationships,
7. training of pre-school teachers.

3.3.b. Pre-Primary Education in India

Saxena S., Pre-Primary Education in India; Ph.D. Edu., Lucknow University, 1959.

The study attempted to survey and evaluate the present status of pre-primary schools and training institutes of India. Information could be collected from only one-sixth of the existing pre-primary schools. One-third of such teacher training institutions and one half of the children's organisations. Review of the emergency of pre-primary education and four main methods of child-education including the pre-basic was made.
Pre-primary education in India appeared as an exotic phenomenon standing towards the end of the 19th century. Despite of the initial momentum during and after the World War II, its development has been very slow. The present position needs to be increased about 71/2 times and even then one tenth of the pre-school age children would be able to attend such schools. As for the training programmes in the existing training institutions, there is a scope for improvement by raising the minimum qualifications of the trainees to high school pass, by extending the course of training to one year and enriching the curriculum. The private management effort came into the field as early as in the 1920's. Some of the early institutions served to arouse public consciousness towards child-welfare and child-education. There existed, however, a need for an all India agency of child-education to vitalise the development and co-ordinate the efforts. Pre-primary education was not specially advantageous in raising the educational attainment of children belonging to middle and upper socio-economic groups while, however, it helped the emotional and social development of the child's personality and improved a bit of his thinking and reasoning powers. It was beneficial for the lower and educationally backward sections, at the same time helping the introduction of compulsory primary education among these sections.
3.3.c. **Status study of Pre-Primary Training Colleges in Maharashtra (S.I.R.)**

The study was undertaken with the following objectives:

i. To know the patterns of organization of pre-primary training institutions in the state which includes management, selection of trainees and admission procedure.

ii. To investigate into the academic aspects of the institutes such as curricula, time allotment, material needs, facilities available and accommodation for the classes as well as hostels and suitability of the location.

iii. To study the overall picture of the financial status of the institutions.

The study revealed that:

i. One out of eleven institutions was run by the Government, while other ten by private management but recognised by the government;

ii. Two of the institutions were started in 1964, while the rest were started during the last decade;

iii. All institutions except one at Dhulia actually admitted only women teachers during 1963-64, and even then untrained women teachers were greater in number;
iv. though the demand for admission was greater, the intake capacity of the institutions had remained static;

v. eight colleges admitted students both for one year and two year courses, two colleges admitted students only for two year course;

vi. few students received financial help from the sponsoring institutions;

vii. almost all the colleges levied tuition fees ranging between Rs. 72 and Rs. 180 per annum;

viii. all institutes followed common curriculum with daily teaching practice;

ix. all colleges had libraries, and there were special teachers for drawing and handicrafts in two colleges only;

x. all colleges but one, were located in urban areas, three of them had their own buildings and the remaining were run in rent-free buildings;

xi. with the exception of one hostel facilities were inadequate, even though the demand for hostel admission was great;

xii. nine colleges had good play-ground.
3.3.d. **Modern Trends in Teacher-Training Programme and Problems of Teacher Training in Madhya-Pradesh**

Mallaya, in 1968 studied the modern trends in teacher training programme and the problems of teacher-training in Madhya Pradesh with a view to suggesting ways and means to make it more effective. The study revealed that the pre-primary teacher-training facilities were insufficient in Madhya Pradesh and Montessori training was very costly and needed reorganisation. It was observed that there was no proper dissemination of research findings in the field.

3.3.e. **Case Studies of Primary Teacher Training Institutions**

State Institute of Education, Gujarat (1966) conducted case studies of primary teacher training institutions of Gujarat and emphasised the need for providing science laboratories, reading rooms, equipping libraries and organising refresher courses for staff-members.

3.3.f. **A Survey of Unrecognised Institutions offering Pre-school/Elementary Education in Hyderabad, Secunderabad and Delhi, NCERT.**

Educational Survey Unit: A survey of unrecognised institutions offering Pre-school/Elementary Education in Hyderabad, Secunderabad and Delhi, NCERT, New Delhi. 1970.

The survey aimed at studying the functioning of pre-primary/elementary institutions with respect to school
management and administration, enrolment of teachers, equipment, assessment and to make suggestions for improvements by heads of these institutions.

An attempt was made to cover all the institutions in Hyderabad, Secunderabad and Delhi. In all, data from 164 institutions from the twin cities of Hyderabad and Secunderabad were collected. A special proforma was prepared to fulfil the objectives and the investigators personally collected the data.

The study reveals the following:

i. All the institutions concerned are privately run either by individuals or societies. Out of 164 institutions of Hyderabad, fifteen are meant for pre-primary stage. One for elementary stage and 148 for both while in Delhi nine are for pre-primary stage and twenty-seven for both the stages. These institutions are known as Montessori, Nursery, Kindergarten or schools with preparatory classes. In Hyderabad the maximum number of schools (97) were established during the years 1962-67.

ii. One hundred and fifty three institutions in Hyderabad and thirty three schools in Delhi have age restriction for admission. Age limit is generally three to five in both places. Most of the institutions do not require advance registration.
iii. At Hyderabad, the working days in a year range between 201 and 280, while in Delhi it is between 171 and 280, working hours per week range between fifteen and thirty five hours for both the cities. Two institutions at Hyderabad devote three hours for curricular activities and three institutions at Delhi devote five to ten hours. Time devoted to curricular and other activities varies. Majority of the institutions have a two year course of pre-school education. Session starts at different times of the year at different places.

iv. There are certain institutions in Hyderabad which do not charge any fee. One institution levies admission fee upto Rs. 30/-, while in Delhi, it is observed that certain institutions charge lunch fee.

v. In Hyderabad, total area varies from 12 sq. yards to 12,000 sq. yards.

vi. In Hyderabad, there were 8,597 children at pre-primary stage in January, 1969. Enrolment has increased since 1966 to the extent of 176.3 percent at pre-school stage and 231.9 percent at elementary stage. In Delhi, there were 1972 children at primary stage and 1201 at elementary stage. In January, 1969, increase from 1966 onwards being 117 percent and 98 percent at pre-primary and elementary stage respectively.
vii. In Hyderabad, there are 814 teachers working in 161 institutions of which 245 are trained and 569 are trained. Majority of them (71.6 per cent) have high/higher secondary education as their qualification and pay scales are very low. Only three teachers get pay between Rs. 201 and Rs. 230, others get in the range of Rs. 57 to 80, or even below that, in Delhi, 156 teachers are working in thirty six institutions. Out of those 106 are trained and 50 untrained. Eighty seven of them are high/higher secondary passed eleven teachers get pay between Rs. 210 and Rs. 230 per month, while only one teacher gets less than Rs. 50/-.  

viii. Various types of equipments are being provided at both the places.  

ix. In Hyderabad, as in Delhi, most of the institutions undertake curricular activities through coaching of subjects.  

x. Generally, English is the medium of instruction at both Hyderabad and Delhi. But in Hyderabad, there are institutions with more than one medium also.  

xi. Majority of the institutions give home-assignments. Majority of the institutions at both the places conduct periodic tests. Number of tests varies from institution to institution while in Delhi, no child
is detained at this stage, seventy institutions at Hydrabad detain children.

xii. The heads of the institutions at both the places are in favour of some national system of education. They oppose formulæ of education. A few suggest moral education to form a part of instruction and the play way method to be practised at this stage. A few head masters at Hydrabad have recommended training facilities for the teachers and extension of pre-primary education in rural areas.

3.3.3. A Survey of Montessori Classes in Bombay


The objective of this investigation was to study the impact of Montessori movement in education, the extent of its influence, and its popularity.

Fortynine Montessori classes from Greater Bombay were visited. A proforma to collect information about the establishment, medium of instruction, enrolment, training of the staff, and montessori apparatus, was prepared.

The survey revealed that among the forty-nine classes visited, one was established as early as 1905 and two as recently as 1969. Most of the schools have English as the
medium of instructions. Only a few have Marathi and Gujarati as medium. The overall enrolment is 5339. There are 240 teachers and sixty four helpers. Only 150 teachers are Montessori trained. Thirty seven schools have reported the use of original apparatus. While twelve use the modified ones. The special difficulties faced by the schools are due to lack of trained personnel, high teacher-pupil ratio, and the lack of understanding of Montessori method by the public at large and parents in particular.

Keeping in view of the relevant studies and research literature in the area of pre-primary teacher training the present investigator has attempted to present the plan and the procedure for developing the programme for teacher-training at pre-primary level in Gujarat, the details of which have been discussed in the next chapter and the programmes etc., proposed have been in light of data collected and analysed, have been presented in the chapters that follow.