INTRODUCTION

Education is of basic importance in the planned development of any nation, as it helps in the fulfilment of the various tasks which a nation sets before itself through the plans, by making available in the various fields personnel of suitable quality at the required rate. And for the achievement of this objective, it is necessary that the educational machinery be geared up appropriately. The educational system is also responsible for determining the quality of the manpower and the social climate of the community. The role of education becomes crucial in a democracy, which can function effectively only if there is an intelligent participation of the people in the affairs of the country. Besides, the educational system should also stimulate the growth of the creative faculties, and develop a spirit of critical appreciation of the arts, literature and other creative activities.

After independence, the Government decided to follow the course of planned development. In the First, Second and Third Five Year Plans, Education has been given considerable attention.

In 1952, when the First Five Year Plan was put into
operation, the existing situation in the country vis-a-vis education left much to be desired. The overall provision of educational facilities, considering the size of the population, was very inadequate. The over-all structure of the educational system was top heavy, and the expenditure on education in proportion to the total revenues and population also varied from state to state. Educational facilities were not properly distributed between the urban and rural areas. Furthermore, the various stages of the educational system were not clearly and rationally demarcated. The duration and standards of the primary and secondary stages differed considerably in different states. There was much wastage in various forms at the different stages of education particularly at the primary and higher secondary levels. There were inadequate facilities for technical and vocational education. University education was expensive and very few scholarships and stipends were available. There was undue stress on examination and memory work and general neglect of the study of Indian culture.

Keeping in view the above points, and also realizing the limited resources at the disposal of the country, the planners made an earnest effort in the First Five Year Plan to revitalize the educational system.

Similar attempts were made in the Second and Third Five

1. First Five Year Plan - Government of India, 1952, Chapter on 'Education'.
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Year Plans in order to improve still further upon the previous efforts. Since independence, there has been growing conviction that education should also teach Indian values. As Dr. Humayun Kabir has put it, "The divorce of modern education from the Indian context is still a fact which threatens danger to the country's life."

Efforts are being made to synthesize the best of both western and Indian traditions, but it has not been easy because the education problem is linked with the larger problems of cultural conflict and assimilation which the country as a whole has not yet solved.

From the point of view of national policy, it is very important to pose such questions as: what should be the objectives of the educational process? What kinds of trained manpower will India require to accomplish the purposes decided upon by the Indian Parliament or by the Planning Commission? How many doctors, scientists, engineers, and other professionals does India need? How should the Indians be trained if they are to become factory managers, businessmen, economic planners and other useful citizens of a viable democracy? The successive Five Year Plans have laid down educational targets in qualitative terms, but the "quantitative" problems await solutions. For analysing effectively the factors which have caused deterioration in the

educational patterns of India, it would be useful to have a peep into the past.

Throughout her known history India was reputed for her devotion to intellectual pursuits and promotion of learning and scholarship which were held in higher esteem than wealth or power. This, is perhaps, the most valuable part of the Brahmanical tradition. Indian history records that knowledge as such was never denied to anyone. There is ample evidence to show that from Puranic times men of all castes, could achieve distinction in the various fields of knowledge. In the 17th and 18th century, there had been vigorous intellectual and artistic life in Madras, Maharashtra, Rajputana, Delhi and Lucknow.

With the arrival of the British, there was no quick change in education. The East India Company, which was merely interested in making profits, established schools, only for its own employees. It even severely restricted the activities of missionaries in the matter of establishing educational institutions. But in 1813, under pressure from evangelical reformers in England, the British Parliament insisted that the company should lift the restrictions placed on the missionaries, and as a result many missionary schools and colleges were established. In 1813, Parliament required the Company, to set aside some money each year for educational purposes. The issue arose as to whether that money ought to be spent to stimulate indigenous education, i.e., the learning of Sanskrit, Arabic,
Persian and other classical oriental languages or used to promote a western type of education with English as the medium of instruction. There were sharp differences of opinion among both Englishmen and Indians.

The Indian reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy in Bengal and Kesava Das in Travancore had opted for western knowledge and both of them and many others of their group were masters not only of English but of other European languages as well. But what was in store was something different from the voluntary pursuit of knowledge. In 1813, the Charter of the East India Company ordered that a modest sum of Rs. 1,00,000 or about £ 10,000, according to its then value, be set apart "for the revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India and, for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India."

No definite policy in the matter was laid down till Thomas Macaulay was appointed President of the Board of Education. Macaulay had an invincible faith in the greatness of European civilization, and in the value of the English language as the supreme expression of its spirit. More

4. East India Company Act of 1813.
unjustifiable was his contempt for all oriental learning for, as he declared, he was prepared to sacrifice the entire literature of the East for a shelf of English books. Dismissing with haughty arrogance the profound speculations and beautiful language of the Sanskrit classics, he said, "I doubt, whether the Sanskrit literature be as valuable as that of our Saxon and Norman progenitors." Macaulay's propositions were simple; he held that the Government funds should be spent on teaching that which is best worth knowing and from this point of view, in his opinion, English was the only language - far superior to Sanskrit or Arabic - which could be taught to the natives.

The Government of India accepted that view and in 1834 it laid down as a fundamental article of policy that the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India and the funds appropriated for education would best be employed in imparting instructions in the English language.

Following Macaulay's recommendations, the then Governor General, Lord Bentinck, adopted the policy of giving financial support only to those colleges which would teach such subjects in English language which were being taught in western educational institutions. Emphasis was invariably on higher

education rather than on primary or secondary education. No attempt was made to reach more than a small upper class elite. It was believed that from this elite western knowledge would filter down to the masses. Lord Macaulay himself said, "We must do our best to form a class who may be interpreters, between us and the millions whom we govern, a class of persons Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect." Macaulay's suggestions provided the basis of the system of education for the India of pre-independence days. Colleges and schools teaching English came into existence in the provincial capitals both as a result of public efforts and Government initiative.

It was only in 1854 that a co-ordinated educational system on a rational scale became the objective of British policy in India through the Wood's Education Despatch—a memorable document which may be said to have constituted the Charter of Indian Educational Development. 'It is neither

9. Syed Murullah, A History of Education in India (During the British period ) Macmillan and Co. Ltd., Bombay, 1951,2nd ed. "At this time, as at the earlier renewals of the Charter in 1813 and 1833, a Select Committee of the House of Commons held a very thorough enquiry into educational developments in India. On the basis of this enquiry, the Court of Directors sent down their greatest Educational Despatch on 19th July 1854. This document of immense historical importance is sometimes described as Wood's Education Despatch, because it was probably written at the instance of Charles Wood who was then the President of the Board of Control. It is a long document of a hundred paragraphs and deals with several questions of great educational importance."
our aim, nor our desire', the Despatch declared, 'to substitute the English language for the vernacular dialects of the country.... It is indispensable, therefore, that in any general system of education the study of them should be assiduously attended to, and any acquaintance with improved European knowledge, which is to be communicated to the great mass of people ... can only be conveyed to them through one or other of these languages.' Education was to be promoted on an all-India basis. Primary schools were to impart education in the vernacular language in every district. Higher education was to be given exclusively through the medium of English, though Indian languages were also made subjects of study.

In pursuance of Charles Wood's Education Despatch, Universities were established in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras reflecting the educational fashion of the time in England. A vast field was opened for missionary efforts and non-official Indian activity also entered the field in competition with missionary institutions. Although the Government later gave aid also to institutions teaching non-western subjects, English education became increasingly popular after 1849, when the Governor General, Lord Harding, ruled that Indians educated in the English type of colleges would be given

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priority in Government employment. A graduate degree thus became essential for success in life. Knowledge of the English language was considered to be a good qualification for any Government employment. This system did produce people like the late Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, Jayakar, Sirinivas Sastri, Gokhale, Maharishi Karve, Tilak, Nehru, Gandhi, Ashutosh Mukherjee, Pranjapye and many others in all spheres of life for whom the English language opened up broader avenues of knowledge and enlightenment but it had obvious defects from the national point of view. Gandhi, who was among its most uncompromising critics, put the position lucidly when he stated: "The medium of a foreign language through which higher education has been imparted in India has caused intellectual and moral injury to the nation. We are too near our times to judge the extent of the damage done. And we, who have received such education, have to be both victims and judges - an almost impossible feat."

In the Harijan, Gandhi discussed the immense wastage involved in studying all subjects through the medium of English. Noting his personal experience he said: "I knew what I took four years to learn of arithmetic, geometry, algebra, chemistry and astronomy, I should have easily learnt in one year, if I had to learn them not through English but Gujarati. My grasp of the subjects would have been easier and clearer I would have made use of such knowledge in my own home. The English

11. Young India, September 1, 1921.
medium created an impassable barrier between me and the members of my family who had not gone through English schools. I was fast becoming a stranger in my own home."

Besides creating a wide gulf between the English educated classes and others, including those educated in the traditional way, this system of education placed a wholly disproportionate emphasis on literary studies to the neglect of vitally important ones. In the earliest stage at least, the result of this system of education was a large-scale production of youngmen with a knowledge of English who were suitable only for the subordinate ranks of administration but uncertain of their surroundings. They had lost touch with their own culture and were mentally divided in their allegiance. This system of education had a tendency to de-Indianize them intellectually, but, because of the iron grip of the joint family and the social system, it could not be very effective.

However, inspite of this criticism, it cannot be denied that firstly, the system of higher education in English enabled Indians to know more about the literature of other countries, especially the writings of John Ruskin, Garibaldi, Rousseau, and others, which almost revolutionized the thought of educated Indians. Secondly, its continuity and persistence achieved the socio-religious revolution on which the life of modern India is based.

It is a point of major significance in the evolution of India as a single nation that this uniform system of education throughout India, through a single language, produced a like-mindedness amongst a certain section of the population. A common language for political action and thinking is of less importance than the creation of this like-mindedness, community of thought, feeling and ideas which created the Indian nationality. Against this historical background of the Indian Educational system, the contemporary educational pattern is to be examined.

(b) Contemporary Educational Pattern.

The educational pattern can be divided into four main categories i.e., Pre-Primary, Primary and Basic Education, Secondary Education and Higher Education.

Pre-Primary.

At the pre-primary stage, nursery schools of various types exist in some States, but on a very small scale. At this stage the child is introduced to learning through companionship and recreational activities and is slowly guided in proper habits of life, cleanliness and healthy modes of living as well as in the cultivation of social habits. These nursery schools are primarily run by private organisations or by Missions. There is no large expansion of such nursery schools because of the cost involved and the lack of adequately trained personnel. The age of admission to Nursery Schools varies from 3 to 5 years.
Primary and Basic Education.

Under Article 45 of the Constitution, it is the responsibility of the state to provide free and compulsory education up to 14 years by 1960. For several socio-economic reasons, it was not possible to implement this programme within the time specified. The Panel of Educationists appointed by the Planning Commission, therefore, suggested at its meeting held in Poona in 1957 that an intensive effort should be made to provide universal education for children in the age group of 6-11 by 1965-66. Their recommendations were accepted by the Government of India and since 1958-59 continuous efforts have been made to implement this revised programme. The implementation was divided into two stages. In the first stage which was spread over the third year of the Second Plan itself, three centrally sponsored schemes were undertaken and an attempt was to be made (i) to expand enrolment in the age group of 6-11, (ii) to adopt preliminary measures for increasing the enrolment of girls and (iii) to expand the facilities for teacher training. In the second stage, which was to be co-terminus with the Third Plan, an attempt was to be made to provide universal education in the age group of 6-11.

Secondary Education.

At the Secondary School level, there are two divisions,
the Junior and the Senior. The Junior stage of secondary schools is known in some cases as middle schools or lower secondary schools and, in some, as the Senior Basic Schools. It covers a period varying in different areas, between three and four years. In the majority of States, the pattern is one of three years.

High school correspond to the Senior School stage of secondary schools. In the large majority of cases this stage extends over a period of three years. In a few states, the High School period is limited to two years, the Middle School being of four years duration.

The Higher Secondary School is the latest type of institution, where the education imparted is, in some cases, of 3 years and in some cases 4 years, depending upon the period of study required for the high schools in the State. The higher secondary schools have been formed by the addition of one year which is taken from the intermediate stage of university education.

In the field of secondary education the Ministry of Education has been pursuing a number of programmes for diversification and qualitative improvement in secondary education. The Secondary Education Commission in 1953 made a thorough study of the problems of schools at this level. It expressed

disappointment with the existing set up of secondary education and emphasized that this education was too bookish and mechanical, stereotyped and rigidly uniform and did not cater to the different aptitudes of the pupil. Nor did it develop those basic qualities of discipline, co-operation and leadership which were calculated to make them function as useful citizens. The stress on examinations, the over-crowded syllabus, the methods of teaching and lack of proper material amenities tended to make education a burden rather than joyous experience to the youthful mind. It pointed out that secondary education in India is of particular importance because not even one out of ten secondary students goes on to a University. For the remaining nine, secondary education is the terminal point, therefore, it is essential that secondary education should have more of a professional or vocational nature. The Commission recommended diversification in curriculum and the establishment of trade schools and junior technical schools. It held that education at the secondary level should stress preparation of life rather than for university entrance.

Since, the suggestions were made by the Secondary Education Commission, 2000 "multi-purpose" high schools have been established which theoretically offer courses in agriculture, technology, home economics, business administration, commerce, crafts and technical training, as well as the arts and the humanities. Still the number of such schools is very
small. These schools are experiencing difficulties in finding teachers adequately trained for the new courses with the result that they have not yet changed much from the old academic pattern. However, increasing sums were to be devoted for their development under the Third Five Year Plan (1961-66).

**HIGHER EDUCATION**

A University Education Commission was set up by the Ministry of Education, Government of India, in pursuance of its resolution No. 55-5/47-D/3 of the 4th November, 1948 "to report on Indian University Education and suggest improvement and extensions that may be desirable to suit present and future requirements of the country."  

The Commission had visited 27 universities and observed that generally their was deep awareness of the importance of higher education for national welfare and an uneasy sense of the inadequacy of the present pattern while it was generally recognized that the Universities should provide the best teaching over the entire field of knowledge and that they should extend by original inquiry the frontiers of learning but simultaneously university men and women were aware of the seious shortcomings in the functioning of the universities in regard to these matters.

"The wonder is not that the universities have fallen

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short in many respects, but that they have achieved some measure of success in several directions. But this is no cause for complacency. The marked deterioration of standards in teaching and examinations and increasing dissatisfaction with the conduct of university administration and elections in the universities are matters of great concern."


The University Education Commission prescribed the following aims of university education:

I. New India


II. Democracy


III. Justice


IV. Liberty


(contd...)
The Commission laid down a comprehensive list of the aims of university education and made a number of suitable suggestions for promoting research both in the sciences and humanities. It also emphasized that adequate facilities and better service conditions are essential to create a congenial atmosphere both for the development of higher education and research. The First Five Year Plan acknowledged the work done by the University Education Commission and commented that "the Commission has suggested comprehensive and far-reaching reforms. We have received valuable help from the Commission's report in framing our recommendations in the

15 (Contd. from prepage)

V- Equality

VI - Fraternity - National

VII - Uninterrupted continuity of Indian Culture

VIII - History of India

IX - Fraternity - International
light of our resources and the over-all needs of the country."

The Plan suggested that the re-organization of University Education should be based on these points, firstly, the reform of the existing system to enable it to yield the best result it is capable of yielding. Secondly, the building up of a new system or systems more suited to our national needs and thirdly, the working out of the relationship of the various systems, while they exist side by side. Two concrete proposals of the University Education Commission, i.e., the setting up of the University Grants Commission and the Rural Universities were emphasized in the First Plan.

The total provision for university education in the First Five Year Plan was Rs. 15 crores while in the second Five Year Plan it was increased to Rs. 57 crores (in which an allotment of Rs. 27 crores for the University Grants Commission was also included) and in the Third Five Year Plan, it touched Rs. 82 crores. The upward trend clearly establishes, the increasing concern of the government for the development of higher education. With the expanding base at the elementary and secondary stage of education, the demand for higher

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16. First Five Year Plan, p.539.
education has greatly increased over the past decade. The number of universities has increased from 27 in 1950-51 to 32 in 1955-56 and to 46, in 1960-61 and about a dozen more universities are likely to be added during the Third Plan.

The Government of India is responsible for the maintenance of the Central Universities—Aligarh, Benaras, Delhi and Visva Bharati. It is also responsible for the co-ordination and maintenance of standards in higher education and it is for this purpose that the University Grants Commission was constituted in 1953. In addition to the constitutional obligations, the Government of India gives grants-in-aid to State Governments and voluntary organizations for the development of higher education and operates several programmes of international co-operation for the development of higher education in India. It also conducts significant pilot projects in higher education of which the most important are those of rural institutes (Rural institutions have been discussed in detail later in this chapter under the heading 'Higher Education in the Rural Areas'.

(c) Technical and Professional Education.

During the period of the British rule, India had developed a considerable interest in science. Though the system of education that the British had introduced was broadly humanistic and literary, and paid but little attention to the

physical sciences, the interests of the Government and of British Capital in India obliged them to encourage technological skills in certain limited fields. For example, the great irrigation projects required engineers. The development of railways under company management required skilled technicians at least at the lower levels. A few engineering colleges and technical institutions came into being as part of the universities that had already been established in India, but there was no marked encouragement for scientific research except a few institutions like the Tropical School of Medicine in Calcutta, Pasteur Institute, Kasauli, etc. The beginning of the twentieth century found India living in an almost pre-scientific age, with but little interest in the advancement of science. The rise of Indian capital, bringing with it the desire to create new industries, made the more far-sighted leaders of India realize the urgency of the problem. Two persons deserve special mention in this connection. Jamshedji Tata, a leading industrialist of Bombay, realizing that without advanced scientific research no country could make progress, made the first notable endowment which led to the establishment of the Indian Institute of Science in Bangalore (1908). Equally far-sighted was the action of Maharaja Sayaji Rao of Baroda, who established in his own state the first Institute of Industrial Technology. The nationalist agitation in Bengal, following the partition of that province, saw the establishment of the Council of National Education which also emphasized the study of modern
technology and the institution which it created for the purpose has now been accorded the status of a University. In the period following the First World War there was a growing demand for scientific and technical education and the Universities which came under popular control following the Montague-Chelmsford reforms of 1919 responded to this growing national need. This period may be said to have witnessed the establishment of scientific work in India. The award of the Noble Prize to Sir C.V. Raman for his discoveries in physics may well be considered as a recognition of India's entry into the fields of science. Though India had thus a considerable number of scientists at the beginning of her independence, neither in technology nor in the field of application of science to industry had she made any headway. One of the significant achievements of India, immediately after her independence, was the organization of a network of laboratories for the advancement of research. These institutions fall into three categories: institutions for pure research, in science like the National Physics Laboratory, National Chemical Laboratory and Tata Institute of Fundamental Research; Central Institutes connected with the application of science to industry like the Fuel Research Institute, the Electro-Chemical Research Institute, the Metallurgical Laboratory; and other institutions subsidized by the Government of India but financed mainly by specific industries to deal with their special problems. The sugar, cotton, textile, and jute industries provide notable
examples of co-operative research. Their contribution to the industrial progress of the country has been considerable.

Even more significant is the progress that India has made in the matter of atomic research. As early as in 1948, India set up an Atomic Energy Commission with the object of developing atomic energy for peaceful purposes. It was a very challenging task, because though India had a considerable supply of basic material, the question was: did she have the scientific personnel necessary to carry out advanced research? The working of the Atomic Commission for the past 18 years has proved the potentiality of Indian efforts.

Apart from the personal interest shown by Jawaharlal Nehru the credit for this achievement in the field of science goes to such scientists as Dr. Homi Bhaba and Dr. C.S. Bhatnagar, Sir J.C. Bose and P.C. Ghosh, etc.

Besides the development of higher scientific research, India embarked on a large-scale policy of training technical personnel at all levels. The programme that the Government of India decided upon was firstly to expand the existing institutions so as to provide additional facilities to more aspirants for higher technical education.

Secondly, the Government planned from the beginning to establish higher institutions for post-graduate and research studies on the model of the Massachusetts Institute of
Technology in four major centres of India. The Kharagpur Institute, in the Eastern Zone, developed mainly with the co-operation of the U.S.A.

In addition to this programme of expansion, the Government of India utilized the facilities afforded by the universities and educational institutions of the West and promoted schemes for the higher training of their technicians in factories abroad.

The creation of an adequate technical personnel and the maintenance of a high standard of scientific research are dependent on the quality of general education available in the country. The problem of education in India is indeed stupendous. The programmes for the Third Plan laid particular stress on increasing the number of trained personnel in different fields at all levels. Provision of scholarships and fellowships for trained students; introduction of part-time, short-term and correspondence courses; development of special courses in certain fields, the proper utilization of the available facilities; reduction of wastage and promotion of research were the few schemes envisaged in the Third Plan.

"In Engineering and Technology, provision has been made in the Third Plan for expansion of facilities at the degree and diploma levels... In addition there is provision for different types of part-time and correspondence courses and for the
establishment of some specialized institutes. As against programmes for education estimated to cost Rs. 560 crores, Rs. 142 crores are accounted for by schemes of technical education in the field of engineering and technology. As against 13 and 19 per cent respectively in the First and Second Plans, technical education represents about 25 per cent of the total outlay on education in the Third Plan.

Social Education.

Social education aims at providing education for the betterment of life for the adult population especially those who, for certain social or economic reasons, are forced to lead a life of drudgery and ignorance. Some of the important objectives envisaged under the head "Social Education" are conducting pilot projects in the education of industrial workers; training of workers in library service; assisting voluntary organizations and institutions and supporting certain ancillary services such as production of literature for neo-literates.

The ultimate aims in view are: stimulating a desire for knowledge among the working class; arousing a sense of social and civic responsibility in them; affording facilities for general education and for enlarging the range of their interest; and, providing wholesome recreation.

21. Third Five Year Plan, p.607.
In a democratic set-up the success of planned development, which encompasses the needs of millions of people, depends on the spread of social education and a progressive outlook and the growth of a sense of shared citizenship. Yet, the educational aims of agriculture, community development, health and other welfare programmes are among the most difficult to realize.

As between 1951 and 1961 literacy increased only from about 17 to about 24 per cent which was not very encouraging. The introduction of Panchayati Raj at the district and block levels and the important role assigned to village Panchayats render it imperative that in as short a period as possible a substantial proportion of the adult population should become capable of reading and writing. This is essential as much in their own interest as in that of a community as a whole.

A democratic society, if it is to function properly, requires continuous education for its people at all levels. The technological and other changes which are transforming Indian society make it necessary to take the new knowledge to the doorstep of every person and to make him understand its importance and value. In fact, social education is envisaged to contribute substantially to the development of a democratic society.

Education of the Handicapped.

The handicapped person, whether physically or mentally
handicapped, if he is not able to receive the requisite medical attention, or when such attention is found to be of no avail, has to depend upon his family for maintenance and shelter. Absence of family support leads him to beggary or dependence upon public charity. Inadequate medical treatment, absence of vocational training, and lack of opportunities for social adjustment of handicapped persons to the environment have contributed to the sufferings of large numbers, who ought to receive the intelligent assistance of the community and, if possible, effective assistance from the state.

Physically handicapped persons are classified as:

1. those lacking in one or more physical senses, i.e. blindness and deafness or a combination of both the handicaps;
2. those suffering from movement difficulties, i.e. orthopedic complaints, malnutrition and cardiac diseases and (3) lepers, epileptics, rachitics and dumb persons. The total number of afflicted persons in India has never been correctly estimated. This is due to defective enumeration, lack of adequate definitions and the desire of persons to avoid publicity being given to their handicaps.

However, with the advance of education and social enlightenment the handicapped people themselves now come forward and seek help wherever it is offered, especially in the urban areas. There are many institutions, which are working for the welfare of the handicapped, some of them are
voluntary while others are state institutions. Even voluntary institutions are receiving a considerable amount of financial aid from the Central Social Welfare Board for their various activities. The schools for the education for the handicapped can be classified under two heads: (1) for the mentally handicapped and (ii) for the physically handicapped.

Schools for the mentally handicapped provide psychological and psychoanalytical treatment to the suffering children and train them to be useful members of society.

Schools for the blind provide instructions of the elementary standard by means of the Braille code adopted to regional languages. Besides, training is also imparted in arts and crafts like spinning, weaving, carving, basket-making and knitting. Provision for the teaching of music, both vocal and instrumental, also exists in most of these schools. For the deaf, lip-reading and articulation form the main basis of instruction, besides, the teaching of the three R's. Students are also trained for tailoring, carpentry and other crafts in these schools. The training section of the Deaf and Dumb School, Lucknow, continues to provide facilities for the training of teachers for the deaf. The training centre for the Adult Blind, Dehra Dun, has been doing good work. The sheltered workshop for the blind attached to the centre provides remunerative employment for
many blind workers.

The Committee set up in January, 1956, to report on the completion of the National Centre for the Blind suggested measures for the re-organization of the Centre, which were accepted in principle. One of the most important developments in the education of the handicapped children was the establishment of the Model School for Blind Children in Dehra Dun. The School forms a part of the National Institute for the Blind.

Higher Education in the Rural Areas

On the recommendation of the Rural Higher Education Committee, a National Council for Higher Education in Rural Areas was established in 1956 to advise the Government on all matters relating to the development of higher education in rural areas. The Council had selected 13 institutions for development into rural institutes and these started functioning at Sriniketan (West Bengal), Gandhigram (Madras), Jamia Millia (Delhi), Udaipur (Rajasthan), Birouli (Bihar), Bichpur (U.P.), Sanosora (Gujarat), Coimbatore (Madras), Gangoti (Maharashtra), Amravati (Maharashtra), Rajpura (Punjab), Wardha (Madhya Pradesh) and Hanumanmath (Mysore). Recognition of the Diploma in Rural Sciences as equivalent to the first degree of a University for purposes of employment has been secured.

Problem of Mass Communication in India

The media adopted for mass communication, viz. the
radio, films, the press and television play an important part in the daily life of the people, whether of a developed or under-developed country, whether they are under a democratic or totalitarian regime. The media of mass-communication are an effective link between the ruler and the ruled and also between the different sections of the population.

How effectively these media are spread out in the country depends upon the development and economy of a particular country.

In India, the problems of mass-communication are closely related with the low literacy percentage in the country, with linguistic and regionalism. These factors become particularly poignant when focused in the framework of Indian democracy.

The Constitution of India has provided the right of vote to all Indian nationals above the age of 21 years, subject to certain conditions. Universal adult franchise as conferred by the Constitution poses a particular problem in the case of India where the literacy figure is very low. The problem arises as to how to communicate effectively with the masses on certain issues of national importance, while these masses are privileged to be active participants in a democracy. Apart

22. Article 326, Constitution of India.
from the low degree of literacy, this problem is further linked up with the low income of the people. India's population is predominantly rural, the agricultural and allied fields absorbing more than 72 per cent of the total working population. The per capita income in rural areas is much lower than in the urban areas. How much could people in the low income group be expected to spend on newspapers, periodicals, journals or radio sets, while they have not enough even to provide themselves with the basic necessities of life.

A low percentage of literacy and low income are very much co-related. If a person is not educated, he or she has no incentive to buy any reading material. Conversely, if a person is literate and able to read newspapers or journals, he may not be financially in a position to purchase them. It has often been observed during the course of interviews by the author among the lower middle class group in Delhi, Kanpur, Bombay, Chandigarh, Bangalore and Calcutta during sample surveys that a low income proves to be a greater disincentive to expenditure on newspapers than the low percentage of literacy. According to a National Sample Survey of Newspaper Readership, the average Indian family spends about one rupee on newspapers yearly. In order to overcome the problem of the low literacy

rate, the Government has encouraged the education of children by setting up more primary schools both in rural and urban areas and social centres for holding adult literacy classes for the illiterate adult population. Apart from these arrangements, Higher Secondary schools, Colleges and Universities have also programmes to hold summer camps in villages for organizing adult literacy classes. Though some improvement has been made, it has not touched even the fringes of the problem.

The radio is another important and effective medium of mass-communication, but of the people owning radio sets the number of those in the urban areas is larger than those in the rural ones. Therefore, again, because of poor finances the majority of the population is deprived of the benefits of a simple radio set. In recent years, the production of radio sets in India has increased and they are cheaper, too, but the low income and rising prices have proved considerable deterrents to the purchasing capacity of the people. Under the Community Development Programme, some villages have, however, been provided with radio sets at the Community Centres.

These factors apart, there are certain technical difficulties because of which it has not been possible to maintain a sustained service for the whole national area. For example, techniques of production acceptable for medium wave

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broadcasting are not always suitable for transmission on short waves. Secondly, the necessity to assume marked differences in the character and composition of programmes, intended respectively for urban and rural listeners, involves a very high quantum of broadcasting. Since the majority of the population lives in the rural areas, the need to develop broadcasting for a large rural audience is much greater.

Programmes for the rural audience need special planning. Firstly, they have to be addressed to the community as a whole. Secondly, the need of the village communities is for composite programmes of a limited broadcast duration at a time convenient to them, since their work starts very early in the day and continues till dark. Furthermore, the entire family remains out in the field for almost the whole day. Thirdly, the composite programmes should include news presented with explanations, plenty of background information and other items of special interest to rural listeners. Lack of communication obviously can keep this huge rural audience somewhat cut off from radio stations in the urban areas, but an effort is always made to maintain contact with it through programmes that are suited to their needs and are useful for them.

The film also can be a very effective medium of mass communication in India where the degree of literacy is very low, where the standard of living of the people is poorer in comparison to that prevailing in other developed countries
and as a result of which they have very few modes of entertainment. There are roughly two main categories of films produced in India. Firstly, the commercial or feature films produced in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay and secondly, documentary films produced by the Films Division of the Government of India. Films of the first category have no clear focus of their own nor do they depict what exists in India, or what is exhibited in the foreign films. They are shabbily hybrid in story, music and characterization. Of course, there are exceptions, but these are very few. Whatever be the influence they have left on the Indian audience, it is not of a constructive nature, it has rather been the reverse.

Documentaries produced by the Government of India are good and they maintain a high standard. Some of them have won awards in important international film festivals, but they fall short of the needs of the masses. What we require is large-scale production of short films, which especially keep in view the needs of the rural population and the slum dwellers of the urban areas. These films could be on various subjects, in particular on family planning, sanitation in the home and the village, personal hygiene, elementary alphabet teaching, simple stories depicting the value of education, films on some trade and craft training, on the folk music and dances of other States. Such programmes would not only provide free entertainment but would also be of immense educative value.
The Department of Audio-Visual Education in the Ministry of Information & Broadcasting, New Delhi, has a small programme for screening films of educative value in the rural areas, but keeping in view the vast needs of the people, it is inadequate.

CONCLUSION

The system of education in India as anywhere else has a determining influence on the rate at which economic progress is achieved because economic development makes growing demands on human resources and in a democratic set-up it calls for values and attitudes in the building up of which the quality of education is an important element. The socialistic pattern of society the nation aspires to, assumes widespread participation of the people in all activities and constructive leadership at various levels. In a period of intensive development the resources to be allocated for education and the targets to be achieved are among the difficult issues which have to be faced in drawing up a plan of economic and social development.

In recent years, there has been a great deal of re-examination of the pattern of education and on several issues the opinion of educationists has crystalised into fairly specific proposals the need for change, as indicated in the recommendations of the University Education Commission, the Secondary Education Commission and the number of committees
which have enquired into educational problems. The recommenda-
tions of the Secondary Education Commission to make secondary
education more vocational in nature and less of the purely
general education type was commendable. The multipurpose
higher secondary schools which have been set up in pursuance
of one of the recommendations of the Commission, suffer from
two drawbacks. Firstly, as mentioned in the earlier pages,
there is lack of adequate trained teachers for particular
crafts to be taught in the multipurpose schools. Secondly,
the type of training imparted at this level in certain crafts,
like carpentry, agricultural science, black-smithy, etc. is
too elementary to prepare students for any suitable vocation
after they finish their higher secondary education. There is
the need to start vocational training in these schools soon
after the primary level, keeping in view the type of vocations
available in the country. In about six years time a student
can pick up a workable knowledge of particular trade, which
he may wish to take up later. A rational adoption of this
system will minimize the great rush of students to the arts
courses in the colleges and universities.

University education needs great efforts for improvement.
There is the need of a screening test for evaluating the
mental ability and capacity of a student entering the
University so that after finishing his higher education he
is really equipped to enter into the profession he selects
rather than waste his time trying to obtain a post-graduate degree without having the proper aptitude for the study of a particular subject and consequently passing out with very poor marks, which does not enable him to take up any job easily. The weight of higher education remains heavy on his mind, which compels him to seek a white collar job only. The competition for such jobs is so keen that a person who has not had a very bright academic career, cannot hope to have an easy time. Such a situation results in large-scale frustration which weakens the basis of a democratic system. The need of the hour for India is a completely work-oriented education.