CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Significance of Education
1.2 Education in India
   1.2 (a) Pre-Independence Period
   1.2 (b) Post-Independence Period
1.3 Significant Legislations Concerning Education
1.4 Education Policies
   1.4 (a) National Policy of Education 1968
   1.4 (b) National Policy of Education 1986 with Modified Program of Action 1992
1.5 Structure of Education in India
   1.5 (a) Primary Education
       1.5 (a) (i) Support Organizations
   1.5 (b) Secondary Education
       1.5 (b) (i) Support Organizations
   1.5 (c) Higher Education
       1.5 (c) (i) Support Organizations
1.6 Rationale of Studying the Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya (JNV) Scheme
   1.6 (a) The Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya Scheme
   1.6 (b) State-wise Distribution of JNVs
1.7 Management of JNVs
   1.7 (a) Regional Offices of NVS
1.8 Punjab and its Education
1.8 (a) JNVs in Punjab

1.9 Review of Literature

1.9 (a) Inferences Drawn From Review of Literature

1.10 Objectives of the Study

1.11 Hypothesis

1.12 Significance and Scope of the Study

1.13 Research Methodology

1.14 Sampling Plan

1.15 Limitations of the Study
1.1 Significance of Education

Education is the process by which a human being develops the true form of his being. It determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of the people. It improves the quality of culture. Late Prime Minister Jawahar Lal Nehru quoted “To be successful in life what you need is education”. Education is a powerful tool for reducing poverty, unemployment and inequality, improving health and nutrition and promoting sustained human development led growth. Hence, a country can develop if its population is educated.

Education in India has a long history dating back to the ancient urban centers of learning at Taxila and Nalanda. Western education became ingrained into Indian society with the establishment of the British Raj. The Constitution of India allocates financial and administrative powers in the three lists mentioned in seventh schedule: These are the powers of the Centre (Union List); the powers of the State (State List); and those that are the dual responsibility of the Centre and States (Concurrent List). Education falls under the control of both the central government and the states i.e. concurrent list. A number of articles of the Indian constitution provide for education as a fundamental right.  

India is credited with developing the numeral system of the world. When the whole world was deep asleep in the darkness of ignorance India were extremely advanced in mathematics and science. However, the educational system in India today has become weak and faces a lot of criticism on account of non delivery of services in terms of quality, quantity as well as equality.

1.2 Education in India

Education in India has a very long history. Ancient India had the tradition of ‘Gurukuls’. Under this system students had to live at the ‘Ashram’ (abode) of the teacher and received education. This is known as ‘Guru-Shishya Pramapara’. At that time education was treated as a

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1 World Bank (2004), Attaining the Millennium Development Goals in India: Role of Public Policy and Service Delivery, Human Development Unit, South Asia Region, P. 69.
matter of personal concern and was not in the format of mass production like the modern education industry. The making of man was regarded as an artistic and not a mechanical process. According to the ancient Indian education system the training of the mind and the thinking process were essential for the acquisition of knowledge. The formal admission ceremony was known as 'Upanayana'. With the accomplishment of this ceremony the child had to leave his home for the 'ashrama' where he would receive education. This was considered to be the re-birth of the child and was known as 'Dvijya', which means, "twice born". Sanskrit, the language of the learned, was the language of teaching. The academies of higher learning were known as 'Parisads'. The education system involved three basic processes - 'Sravana', 'Manana' and 'Nidhyasana'. In the 'Sravana' stage of education, students received 'shrutis' knowledge, this was passed orally from one generation to another. The second stage was 'Manana' which means that pupils had to cogitate on what they had heard and they drew their own inferences, thus, assimilate the lesson taught by their teacher. The third stage 'Nidhyasana' means complete comprehension of truth and its use in life.

It is believed that in ancient India women were given equal right to education and teaching. Women seers like 'Gayatri' were prominent participants in educational debates and the proceedings of the 'Parishads' (Assemblies). It was mainly the Brahmins followed by Kshatriyas who received education at the Gurukuls; while the boys from the lower castes learnt their family trade from their fathers. Few of the most important universities of India in the ancient times were Taxila, Vikramshila and Nalanda. Taxila University of 7th century BC was famous for medical studies and a galaxy of eminent teachers such as Panini, the well known grammarian; Kautilya, the minister of Chandragupta Maurya; and Charaka, a medical teacher of repute. Nalanda was the highest center of learning in the entire South Asia and attracted students from foreign countries like China, Japan and Korea for higher studies. It had around 10,000 students and teachers on its rolls. The University had eight colleges and one of these colleges had a four-storeyed building; it is one of the earliest examples of a residential-cum-learning complex. Vikramshila University at Varanasi was famous for religious teachings.

In the South, Kanchi was famous for its studies while the Vallabhi University in Gujarat was no less. Hyun Tsang in his records mentions the university to be at par with Nalanda and Vikramshila universities. The concept of zero, decimal and the Pythagoras Theorem were all
developed here. As India progressed from ancient to medieval times its education system deteriorated. Various factors like invasions of Mughals and the British were responsible for the degradation this ancient education system of the world.\(^4\)

The history and growth of education in modern India has been discussed here under two heads:

A) Pre-Independence period

B) Post-Independence period

1.2 (a) Education during Pre-Independence Period

Wood's Dispatch of 1854 laid the foundation of the present system of education in India. Before the advent of the British in India, the education system in India was elitist. Traditional Hindu education was limited to the upper class that was taught to read and write by a Brahmin teacher. With the introduction of Wood's Dispatch, known as Magna Carta of Indian education, the whole scenario changed. Its main purpose was to prepare Indian clerks for running local administration. The medium of school instruction was the vernacular while higher education was granted in English only. The British policy on education in India reinforced the pre-existing elitist tendencies. The colonial rule contributed to the legacy of an education system which would preserve the position of the more privileged classes. Education served as a 'gatekeeper' permitting a path for upward mobility to only those who had resources.\(^5\) British government started granting funds to indigenous schools in need of help and thus, gradually the concept of government-aided schools came into being.\(^6\)

1.2 (b) Education during Post-Independence Period

India got independence in 1947 and became a Republic in 1950. The Constitution of India is the ultimate document which guides state policy in all sectors, including education. The most important features of the constitutional provisions regarding education are:


i) The 86th Constitutional Amendment Act (2002) via Article 21 A (Part III) seeks to make education a fundamental right for all children in the age group of 6-14 years. Consequently, Right to Education Act was passed in 2009. It incorporates that every child between the age 6-14 years will have a right to free education. Further, private and unaided schools will have to keep 25% seats for weaker sections. No child will be failed or expelled. Furthermore, the infrastructure of schools and the quality of education will be improved. The financial burden will be shared between the Centre and the states. Later in 2012, an amendment to the RTE Act was made in which inclusion of the children with disability (physical and mental) was done. In addition, option of home based education for children with severe and multiple disabilities was added. However, the RTE Act does not apply to Vedic Pathshalas, Madrasas and institutes imparting religious education.

ii) Education is the concurrent responsibility of the Union and the States. (Seventh Schedule)

However, to maintain coordination and to determine the standards of higher & technical education and institutions of national importance declared by parliament by law, are the responsibility of the union. Local authorities (panchayats and municipalities) are to be assigned a suitable role in education (especially school, adult and non-formal education) through individual state legislations. State governments and local authorities are expected to provide facilities for instruction in the mother tongue at the primary stage of education.

1.3 Important Legislations Concerning Education

In addition the constitution, state policy is articulated through legislations. Some of the important central legislations having a bearing on the subjects allotted to the Department of Secondary & Higher Education are:

1. The University Grants Commission Act, 1956
2. The Copyright Act, 1957

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3. The Institutes of Technology Act, 1961
4. The Apprentices Act, 1961
5. The All India Council for Technical Education Act, 1987
6. The National Council of Teacher Education Act, 1993
7. The Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights and Full Participation) Act, 1995
8. The National Council for Minority Educational Institutions Act, 2004

1.4 National Policies on Education

There have so far been mainly two comprehensive statements of the National Policy on Education, viz. those of 1968 and 1986. The former contained decisions of the central government on the recommendations of the National Commission on Education, 1964-66. The latter was a result of the renewed priority assigned to education by the government of Shri Rajiv Gandhi, who was Prime Minister during 1984-89. The 1986 policy was reviewed by a Committee constituted in 1990 under the chairmanship of Acharya Ramamurti. On the basis of the recommendations of this Committee, certain provisions of the 1986 policy were modified in 1992. Thus, in all, the following three comprehensive national policy statements exist on Education:


1.4 (a) National Policy on Education, 1968

The National Policy of 1968 marked a significant step in the history of education in post-Independence India. It aimed to promote national progress, a sense of common citizenship and culture and to strengthen national integration. It stressed on the need for a radical reconstruction of the education system, to improve its quality at all stages, and gave much greater attention to
science and technology, the cultivation of moral values and a closer relation between education and the life of the people.

National policy on education 1968 (a summary)

1. Broad Objectives:
   - Free and compulsory education up to the age of 14.
   - Spread of literacy.
   - Adult Education Program
   - Identification of talent at early age.

2. Education for social and economic development
   - Development of regional languages, implementation of Hindi, Sanskrit and the Three Language Formula.
   - Removal of regional imbalances in the provision of educational facilities, education of girls, mentally challenged persons, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.
   - Emphasis on National integration through community development programs on education.

3. Curriculum development
   - Science and mathematics be an integral part of the education system.
   - Emphasis on development of agricultural and industrial education.
   - Promotion of games and sports for fitness of students.
   - Restructuring of courses at undergraduate level. Setting up of centres for advanced studies and research.

4. Development of Educational Infrastructure
   - Establishment of new universities, new courses and research and training emphasized.
   - Improvement of quality of books and availability at low price.
   - Examination reforms to make evaluation a continuous process.
   - An expansion in educational facilities in all over the country at all levels. More than 90% of the country’s rural habitations should have school facilities within a radius of one km.
• A common structure of education throughout the country and the introduction of 10+2+3 system in the states.

5. Service conditions of educators
• Adequate and satisfactory teachers’ emoluments and other service conditions with regard to their qualifications and responsibilities.

1.4 (b) Recommendations of 1986 policy with Program of Action 1992

1. Broad objectives and forms for programs
• Development of international cooperation and peaceful coexistence through education.
• Promotion of equality
• Education for women’s equality.
• Equalization of SCs population with others in matter of education
• Emphasis on education of minorities.
• Adult education – initiation of National Literacy Mission (NLM)
• Special emphasis on early childhood care and education by opening up of day care centers promotion of child focused programs.

2. Development of Education Infrastructure
• Opening of primary schools in tribal area for promotion of education in ST population.
• Increasing the scope of operation Blackboard for upliftment of standard of primary education in India.
• Setting up of open universities and promotion of distance learning centers to promote the goal of education as a lifelong process.
• The AICTE to be responsible for maintenance of norms, standards, accreditation, funding and monitoring of technical management education in India.
• Improving training and education of teachers. Providing better facilities to the students.
• Overhauling the system of teacher education and establishment of District Institutes of Education and Training (DIET) to organize programs for elementary school levels.

3. Curriculum Development

• A common educational structure of 10 + 2 + 3 years for the whole India.
• Development of curriculum and study material in the language of tribal populations.
• The purpose of examination to be to bring out the quality improvement.
• Exposure of students to the differentiated roles, science, social sciences and humanities.
• Redesigning of courses of higher education.
• A combined perspective of technical and management education for the development of a spirit of inquiry and objectivity in the minds of the students.

National Policy of Education (1992) listed many objectives for the development of education system in India but it has not been successful in achieving all of them. The policy has specified that the education system in India seems to encourage rote-learning instead of experimentation and questioning, whereas, the policy has specified that the examination system should discourage rote-learning. There are some disparities such as variations of evaluation standards in the states, reservation on the basis of caste and religion and students politics. The policy pointed out these issues which need to be worked upon.

Though there are disparities between the objectives and their implementation the education has been declared a priority sector for development. It is evident from the fact that the year 2013-14 witnessed 17% hike in budget allocation which was Rs. 65,867 crore.10

Apart from the comprehensive policy statements, policy decisions on individual issues have been taken from time to time. These are in the form of resolutions, schemes, guidelines, orders, and so on.

1.5 Structure of Education in India

The education structure in India has 10+2+3 years of pattern. The first 10 years provide undifferentiated education for all students. The +2 stage is known as secondary education where the students are provided education in different academic and vocational stream. In +3 stage, the students go to colleges for higher studies in their chosen fields. All these years have been divided in mainly three categories: Primary; Secondary; and Higher studies explained below.

1.5 (a) Primary Education

Primary education in India has been divided into pre-primary, primary and upper-primary levels. Pre-primary education in India is not a fundamental right, therefore, a very low percentage of children receive preschool educational facilities. The largest provision is made under the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS); however, the preschool component in this remains weak. In the absence of government provisions, private sector has opened pre-primary schools to serve the better-off section of the society. The pre-primary consists of two stages i.e. lower kindergarten (LKG) and upper kindergarten (UKG). Typically, an LKG class would have children 3 to 4 years of age, and the UKG would have children 4 to 5 years of age. After finishing upper kindergarten, a child enters to Class I (or Standard I) of primary school. Primary classes end at class V and then upper primary consists of classes VI-VIII. The government has taken various initiatives to promote primary education in India.

1.5 (a) (i) Support Organizations: During the Eighth Five Year Plan the target of universalizing elementary education was based on three broad parameters: universal access, universal retention and universal achievement i.e. making education accessible to children, making sure that they remain in the system and also to achieve these goals by 2000.

In 2011-12, the number of primary schools has risen to 14,12,178 from 8,53,610 schools in 2002-03. 94% of rural population had primary schools with one km and 84% http://www.education.nic.in/ accessed on 20th April 2008.
had upper-primary schools. The enrolment in primary and upper primary schools has considerably increased since the First Five Year Plan. In 2002-03, an estimated 82% children in the age group of 6-14 were enrolled in school which rose to 100% in the year 2011-12. Many programs and schemes were launched to support primary education. The main programs are Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, Mid-day meal Scheme, operation blackboard, scheme of restructuring of teachers’ education, National Elementary Education Mission and so on. In addition, the constitution provides the promotion of elementary education under Directive Principles of State Policy. The 86th amendment act makes right to elementary education as fundamental right and fundamental duty. The Right to Education Act 2009, is also an important step towards achieving the goal of UEE. Further, various strategies namely: Media publicity and advocacy, economic incentives are the strategies adopted by GOI to increase the enrolments in the schools. In 2011-12, the pupil teacher ratio was improved to 1:30 from 1:36 in 2006-07.

However, the country has failed to meet the target to reduce dropout rate to 20% in the Eleventh Five Year Plan. According to non-government organization CRY dropout rate was reported 40% in the year 2013.12

1.5 (b) Secondary Education in India

Secondary Education serves as a bridge between primary and higher education. It prepares young pupils between the age of 14-18 for work and also entry into higher education. Secondary Education starts with classes 9-10 called higher secondary and ends at senior secondary classes 11 and 12. With the emphasis on UEE the increase in the enrolment in the secondary level was also expected. UNESCO reported that India has consistently improved the drop out. In 2000, the number of children for out-of-school was 20 million which reduced to 2.3 million in 2006-07 and to 1.67 million in 2010-11.

However, India has been placed at fourth place from bottom before Ethiopia (1.7 million), Nigeria (10.54 million) and Pakistan (5.43 million).\footnote{http://www.thehindubusinessline.com/economy/167-m-children-in-india-still-outofschool-unesco/article4800439.ece accessed on 14\textsuperscript{th} March 2014.}

\textbf{1.5 (b) (i) Support Organizations}

The secondary education is promoted under various schemes by GOI namely Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan, Model Schools Scheme, Girls’ Hostels Scheme, ICT@schools, Inclusive Education for disabled at secondary stage, scheme of vocational education, National means-cum merit scholarship scheme, National incentives to girls, Appointment of language teachers and so on. In addition to these schemes the organizations which support secondary education are:

i. Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE, 1929)

ii. National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT, 1961)

iii. Central Tibetan School Administration (CTSA, 1961)


v. Navodaya Vidyalaya Samiti (NVS, 1986)


A brief introduction to these organizations and their activities is as follows:

\textbf{i) Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE)}\footnote{http://www.cbse.nic.in/ accessed on 24\textsuperscript{th} March 2014.} The CBSE was set up by a special resolution of the Government of India in 1929 at Ajmer. It was then called as ‘The Board of High School and Intermediate Education’. It was established with a view to play a useful role in the field of secondary education, to raise the standard of secondary education, to make the services of the Board available to various educational institutions in the country and to meet the educational needs of those students who have to move from state to state. With the expansion of its territorial jurisdiction, the headquarters of the board was shifted to Delhi in 1962 and the board was re-constituted.
The main functions of the board are:

- To conduct Class X and XII examinations and grant certificates to persons who pass the examinations from affiliated institutions.
- To prescribe courses of instructions.
- Admit candidates and prescribe conditions for examinations.
- To affiliate institutions for the purpose of examinations. The CBSE also conducts all India entrance examinations at the undergraduate level for pre-medical/pre-dental, engineering and architecture courses.
- The CBSE has constantly been engaged in process of curriculum design, renewal and development, pedagogical support, pre-service and in-service teacher empowerment programmes and development of supplementary textual material.

Composition: Secretary (Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Education), Government of India is the controlling authority of the CBSE. The Board is headed by the chairman who is the Chief Executive. The Chairman is assisted by heads of departments like the Secretary, Director (Academics), the Controller (Examinations), and the Head (Special Exams).

The CBSE is a self-financing body and manages the entire financial requirement out of its own funds generated through collection of fees and sale of study material brought out by the Board. For proper execution of its business, the Board has several committees namely: Finance Committee, Curriculum Committee, Examination Committee, Result Committee, Affiliation Committee, All India Engineering Entrance Examination (AIEEE) Implementation Committee and Pre Medical Test (PMT) Advisory Committee. The decisions of these Committees are put before to the Governing Body for approval/report. The Governing Body of the Board is headed by the Chairman, CBSE and other members are representatives of education departments of States/UTs, Ministries of HRD, Health, Agriculture, Culture, and Universities; Principals of private and
government schools; persons representing professional bodies in the field of engineering, agricultural, fine arts, industry and eminent educationists.

The network of CBSE schools includes government schools including Kendriya Vidyalayas (Central Government Schools), Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas (Residential Schools), Government & Government aided schools and Independent private schools. The territorial expanse of CBSE is vast with 15000 schools as on June 30, 2013. This number also includes schools in 24 other countries of the world. To ensure better communication and services to different users, the Board has six Regional Offices at Allahbad, Ajmer, Chennai, Panchkula, Guwahati and Delhi.

ii) National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT)15: The NCERT was established in 1961. It functions as a resource centre in the field of school education and teacher education. NCERT undertakes programmes related to research, development & training extension and dissemination of educational innovations etc., through various constituent departments at its headquarters in New Delhi and 11 field offices all over the country. Publications of school textbooks and other educational materials like teachers’ guides/manuals are its major functions. The NCERT undertakes time bound projects in pre-school education, education for girls and education for SC/STs. The NCERT has its constituent units. These are: (i) National Institute of Education (NIE) (ii) Regional Institute of Education (RIE) at Bhubaneshwar, Ajmer, Mysore, Bhopal and Shillong (iii) Central Institute of Education Technology (CIET) (iv) Pandit Sunder Lal Sharma Central Institute of Vocational Training (PSSCIVE), Bhopal.

iii) Central Tibetan Schools Administration (CTSA)16: Central Tibetan Schools Administration was established as an autonomous organization under Ministry of Education, Government of India in 1961 and was registered under Societies Registration Act XXI of 1860. The main objective of CTSA is to run, manage and assist institutions setup for the education of Tibetan children living in India while

preserving and promoting their culture and heritage. The CTSA runs 71 schools spread all over India. These schools are located at the places of concentration of Tibetan population in India viz Himachal Pradesh, Uttrakhand, Karnataka, Arunachal Pradesh, West Bengal, Chattisgarh and Maharashtra. There are approximately 10,000 students on the rolls of the schools run by CTSA. These schools are affiliated to CBSE and medium of instruction at Primary level is Tibetan while at higher secondary and senior secondary it is English. The CTSA offers post school scholarships and also has seats reserved in professional colleges for its students.

iv) Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan (KVS)

The scheme of Kendriya Vidyalayas (Central Schools) was approved in November 1962 by the Government of India on the recommendations of the Second Central Pay Commission. It recommended that the government should develop a scheme to provide uninterrupted education to the wards of transferable central government employees. Consequently, central schools organisation was started as a unit of the Ministry of Education (now the Ministry of Human Resource Development) of the Government of India. Initially, 20 Regimental Schools, then functioning at places having large concentration of defense personnel, were taken over as Central Schools during the academic year 1963-64. On December 15, 1965, an autonomous organization, namely, Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan was registered as a society under the Societies Registration Act, 1860 which took over the task of opening and managing the Central Schools, henceforth, called Kendriya Vidyalayas. The Sangathan is wholly financed by the Government of India. Over the years, the number of Kendriya Vidyalayas steadily increased and was 1094 on February 1, 2014.

The Kendriya Vidyalayas have a four-fold mission, namely:

a) to cater to the educational needs of children of transferable central government employees including defense and para-military personnel by providing a common programme of education;
b) to pursue excellence and set the pace in the field of school education;
c) to initiate and promote experimentation and innovations in education in collaboration with other bodies like the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) and the National Council for Educational Research & Training (NCERT) etc., and
d) to develop the spirit of national integration and create a sense of 'Indianness'

In pursuance of the above objectives, the Kendriya Vidyalayas have been set up with the following features:

a) Kendriya Vidyalayas primarily cater to the educational needs of the ward of transferable Central Government employees;
b) All Kendriya Vidyalayas are co-educational;
c) Common Text books, common curriculum and bi-lingual medium of instruction, i.e. English and Hindi are followed;
d) All Kendriya Vidyalayas are affiliated to the Central Board of Secondary Education. Some Kendriya Vidyalayas in Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu are also affiliated to the State education Boards at the +2 level;
e) Teaching of three languages - English, Hindi & Sanskrit from Class VI to VIII is compulsory. In Classes IX and X, any two languages out of English, Hindi and Sanskrit can be offered. Sanskrit can also be taken as an elective subject at +2 stage;
f) No tuition fee is charged from students up to Class VIII, the wards of KVS employees, SC/ST girl students and the children of the officers and men of the Armed Forces killed or disabled during the wars of 1962, 1965 and 1971 against China and Pakistan.
Kendriya Vidyalayas are also set up in the civil sector on the recommendation of various ministries/departments of central government/state government and the central government employees welfare co-ordination committee. Some Kendriya Vidyalayas are opened on the recommendations of the Ministry of Defense in the defense sector for which the expenditure is met by the Ministry of Defense. Kendriya Vidyalayas are also established in the institutes of higher learning and project sectors where the recurring and non-recurring expenditure are fully met by the sponsoring project authorities.

At present, there are 1094 Kendriya Vidyalayas spread across all States and UTs.

v) Navodaya Vidyalaya Samiti (NVS)\(^{18}\)

This is an autonomous organization which was set up to establish and manage fully residential co-educational schools covering class VIth to XIIth. These schools are known as Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas (JNVs). Their main aims are:

1. To provide good quality modern education up to Senior Secondary stage to the talented children predominantly from rural areas, without regard to their family’s socio-economic condition.

2. To play the trend setter and pace setter role in their area.

3. To serve, in each district, as a focal point for improvement in the quality of school education through sharing of experiences and facilities.

Admissions to the JNVs are made through a competitive examination conducted by the CBSE and children are admitted to Class VI. Education in Navodaya Vidyalayas is totally free. By 2013, 596 Navodaya Vidyalayas are in operation covering 34 states/UTs in the country except Tamil Nadu. The scheme envisages establishment of one JNV, on an average in each district of the country.

The Scheme started with 2 JNVs in 1985-86. The matter of establishment of JNVs is being perused with the concerned State Governments in remaining uncovered districts.

Opening of a Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya is based on the proposal from the concerned state/UT governments. It must offer 30 acres of suitable land free of cost for construction of JNV. In addition, it should provide sufficient temporary building and other rent free infrastructure with a capacity to accommodate 240 students and staff for three to four years till the building of the schools is constructed on the provided land.

vi) National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS)\(^\text{19}\)

The National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) formerly known as National Open School (NOS) was established in November 1989 as an autonomous organization in pursuance of National Policy on Education, 1986 by the Ministry of Human Resource Development. Open schooling was originally experimented in 1978 as a project of the CBSE and was later amalgamated with NIOS. It is the largest open schooling system in the world. Since October 1990, through a Resolution NIOS has been vested with authority to examine and certify students registered with it, up to pre-degree courses. Admissions take place during July-August through accredited institutions for academic courses and round the year for vocational courses through accredited vocational institutions. The NIOS provides the following programmes:

- Secondary Education Course
- Senior Secondary Education Course
- Vocational Education Programme
- Life Enrichment Programme
- Open Basic Education (OBE) for Universal Elementary Education (UEE), A Level, B Level and C level (Equivalent to class III, V & VIII respectively of Formal Education)

NIOS conducts examinations twice a year during April-May and October-November. Candidates are allowed to appear in one, two or more subjects and credits are accumulated till the certification criteria are fulfilled. A candidate can avail as many as nine chances to appear in public examinations and his/her admission is valid for a period of five years. NIOS serves its clients through its departments, regional centers and accredited institutions in India and abroad. These centers provide individualized support to its learners to facilitate the learning processes. By 2013, there were more than 2500 study centers (academic & vocational) and more than 200 Accredited Agencies (AAs) for OBE catering about 2.2 million students all over the country and abroad.

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<tr>
<th>Name of the Organization</th>
<th>Year of Establishment</th>
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<tr>
<td>CBSE</td>
<td>1929</td>
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<td>NCERT</td>
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<td>CTSA</td>
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<td>KVS</td>
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1.5 (c) Higher Education

India has the third largest higher education system next to United States and China. The higher education in India starts after secondary education. Indian higher education system has witnessed a fast pace growth by adding 20,000 colleges and approximately 8 million students in a decade from 2001 to 2011. In 2011, India has 42 central universities, 275 state universities, 130 deemed university. In 2012, there were 33000 degree colleges including 1800 women colleges. Distance learning and open learning is also a feature of higher education in India and is taken care by Distance Education Council. Among them, Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) is having approximately 3.5 million students on its rolls. Other institutes promoting professional higher education are IITs, IIMs, NIITs and so on. They are globally recognized for their standards in education.20

1.5 (c) (i) Support Organizations

The main support organizations for higher education are University Grants Commission, (UGC), National Assessment and Accreditation Council (NAAC), All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE), Association of Indian Universities (AIU), National Council for Teachers’ Training and Academic Staff Colleges.

The study proved that education at all levels suffers basic problems such as inadequate infrastructure facilities, low retention at primary and secondary levels and declining research standards, widespread geographic income, gender and ethnic imbalances.21

1.6 Rationale of Studying the Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas Scheme

The present study has focused on the scheme of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas (JNVs) under Navodaya Vidyalaya Samiti. National Policy of Education 1986 envisaged setting up of model school, one in each district of the Country. As a result, a scheme was formulated under which it was decided to set-up co-educational residential schools (called Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas). Since JNVs were established with the objectives of imparting modern and quality education especially to the rural children. The focus of the study was to evaluate the extent to which these objectives have been fulfilled.

1.6 (a) The Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya Scheme

JNV scheme was started in 1986 with a special kind of co-educational residential schools. The main emphasis of JNV scheme was two folds: National integration and quality education to poor and rural students. NPE 1986 states that national integration should be an integrated part of the activity of the government and its people. The importance of national integration was pointed out by NPE 1986 which mentioned that it should be adumbrated in the core curriculum itself, since the curriculum would naturally and inevitably contain the inputs of all regions and also contributions from the states. Another important measure under JNV scheme is the opportunity given to students at an early age to live and learn along with the peers from states others than own. Thus, mobilizing the students and to get acquainted and motivated by such experiences of National integration action. The National Education Commission (1964-66) stated that children with special talent or aptitude should get opportunities to proceed in the sphere of education. Such children are found in all the sections of the society. However, these children, if from poor or rural background are deprived of good quality education. Based on these considerations it recommended the selection of certain percentage of schools as pace-setter educational institutes. However, these schools were not selected from the pre-existing system.

Instead in accordance with the NPE 1986, GOI started Navodaya Vidyalayas (presently known as Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas), during the Seventh Five Year Plan
(1985-90). It was decided that on an average one JNV would be opened in each district of the country. Thus, the scheme came into being in 1986 by opening of JNVs as pace setter schools mainly for rural talented students and to promote national integration.

**Objectives of the Scheme**

The main objectives of Navodaya Vidyalayas are:

1. To provide good quality modern education that includes a strong component of culture, inculcation of values of the environment, adventure, activities and physical education to the talented children predominantly from rural areas.

2. To ensure that students attain a reasonable level of competency in three languages.

3. To promote national integration through migration of students from Hindi to non-Hindi speaking states and vice-versa

4. To serve in each district as a focal point for improvement of quality of school education. This would be done in general through sharing of experiences and facilities of these schools.

**Salient Features**

The salient features of the JNV scheme are: the entrance on the basis of merit, reservation of the SCs, STs and Girls students, co-educational residential free schooling, adherence of three language formula, promotion of national integration and focus on academic excellence explained below:

1) *Entrance on the Basis of Merit*: JNV select their students from talented children on the basis of a merit test called Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya Selection Test (JNVST). It was designed, developed and conducted by NCERT initially and later by the CNSE. The test is held annually on an All India basis and at block and district levels. It...
is an objective, class neutral and is so designed as to ensure that rural children are not at disadvantage.

ii) **Reservation for Rural, S.C., S.T. and Girls:** JNVs admit students primarily from the rural areas. There is a provision of 75% seats for rural children. In addition, seats are reserved for children from the SC and ST communities in proportion to their population in the district but not less than the national average; 1/3rd seats are for girl students; with a view to promote inclusive education 3% of the seats are disabled children.

iii) **Co-educational Residential Schools with Free Education:** JNVs offer free education to the selected children from Class-VI to XII. JNVs are affiliated to the CBSE. Entry to a Navodaya Vidyalaya is mainly in Class-VI. In addition, lateral entry into Class IX & XI is also provided under the scheme. Each JNV is a co-educational residential institution providing free boarding and lodging, expenses on uniforms, text books, stationery, to and from rail and bus fare are fully funded by GOI. However, a nominal fee @ Rs. 200/- per month is charged from students of Class IX to XII on account of Vidyalaya Vikas Nidhi (School Development Fund). The students belonging to SC, ST, girls, disabled and families below poverty line are exempted from this fee.

iv) **Adherence to Three Language Formula:** The medium of instructions from class VI-VII is the regional language. From class IX onwards for Science and Mathematics it is English and for Humanities it is Hindi.

v) **Promotion of National Integration:** Navodaya Vidyalaya aim at inculcating values of national integration through their scheme of migration i.e. 30% students in class IX are sent on change to other regions for one academic year. The inter regional exchange of students between Hindi and non-Hindi speaking states and vice-versa. It is expected to promote better understanding of the unity in diversity and cultural heritage of India through various activities.
vi) Location of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas: Navodaya Vidyalayas are mainly located in rural areas across the country. The state governments are to offer cost free land and rent free temporary buildings for the setting up of a Navodaya Vidyalaya.

vii) Academic Excellence: The object of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas is to develop competencies among students in scholastic and non-scholastic areas of education which leads to effective personality development of each child. The comparison of average pass percentage of NVS and that with other schools systems like Kendriya Vidyalayas and independent schools has been done over the years. Navodayas pass percentage is significantly higher than the national average of other schools affiliated to JNVs.  

1.6 (b) State-wise Distribution of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas

Accordingly to the Navodaya Vidyalaya Scheme, one Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya is to be set up in each District in a phased manner. As on March 31, 2012, there are 596 Vidyalayas spread in 27 States and 7 Union Territories. The State-wise distribution of JNVs is presented in Table 1.2.

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22 [http://navodaya.nic.in/welcome%20sbs.htm](http://navodaya.nic.in/welcome%20sbs.htm) accessed on 12th March 2014.
Table 1.2
State-Wise Distribution of JNVs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>JNVs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerala</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakshadweep</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arunchal Pradesh</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madhya Pradesh</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andaman &amp; Nicobar Islands</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maharashtra</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipur</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chandigarh</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meghalaya</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chattisgarh</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mizoram</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delhi</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nagaland</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daman &amp; Diu</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odisha</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dadra &amp; Nagar Haveli</td>
<td>01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punjab</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goa</td>
<td>02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pondicherry</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gujarat</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rajasthan</td>
<td>34</td>
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<tr>
<td>Haryana</td>
<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sikkim</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tripura</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jammu &amp; Kashmir</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttar Pradesh</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jharkhand</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uttrakhand</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnataka</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Bengal</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>596</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual Report of NVS, 2010

1.7 Management of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalyas

The chain of JNVs is managed by the Navodaya Vidyalya Samiti which is an autonomous organization under the Department of Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development. The Samiti has been registered as a Society under the Societies Registration Act (XXI of 1860) on February 28, 1986 at Delhi. The Samiti functions through an Executive Committee which is assisted by two subcommittees i.e. Finance Committee and Academic Advisory Committee. The Samiti has eight Regional Offices located at different states for administration of JNVs under their respective regions. Each JNV has a Vidyalya Advisory Committee and Vidyalya Management Committee for its general supervision. District
Magistrate is the Chairman of these committees with local educationists, public representatives and officials from the District as members. NVS presently is located at NOIDA.

**Mission of the NVS:** The Samiti has the mission listed below

i) To identify and develop talented children predominantly from rural areas who do not have access to good educational opportunities.

ii) To set up one JNV in each district of the country and serve as the centre for learning through sharing of facilities with the local community and schools.

iii) To provide quality education in the schools through effective academic, co-curricular and adventure activities.

iv) To provide free facilities to student which include expenses of boarding, lodging, textbooks, uniform, stationery etc.

v) To promote national integration through its migration policy for students.

1.7 (a) Regional Office of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya, Chandigarh

The NVS has eight regional offices all over the country i.e. Chandigarh, Bhopal, Shillong, Pune, Hyderabad, Lucknow, Jaipur and Patna.

**Role of Regional Offices**

(i) To supervise and monitor the functioning of JNVs under its jurisdiction and to take corrective steps to realize the objectives of the organization.

(ii) To strengthen the JNVs by equipping them with infrastructure and requisite man-power.

(iii) To release funds to the JNVs for their smooth and effective functioning.

(iv) To make additional academic inputs, if, required by deputing teachers from one JNV to another JNV.

(v) To organize training for teaching and non-teaching staff in order to develop their skills in their respective areas of work for effective discharge of their duties.
(vi) To maintain the CPF (Contributory Provident Fund) / GIS (General Insurance Scheme) of field and Regional Office (R.O.) staff. The Regional Office supervises and monitors the functioning of JNVs under its jurisdiction and to take corrective steps to realize the objectives of the organization.

Hence, NVS is an autonomous organization under MHRD. The eight Regional Offices of the Samiti help in the administration of JNVs across the country.
1.8 Punjab and its Education

Punjab literally means five rivers and has derived its name from five rivers that flow through the region. The partition of India in 1947 had a great impact on Punjab since the larger half of Punjab went to Pakistan. Further, in 1966 the smaller half was further trifurcated into Punjab, Haryana and Himachal.

Punjab is an agrarian state though the inhabitants are good entrepreneurs. Over 80% of Punjab’s land is cultivated. It is called the ‘Granary of India’. Punjab produces 2% of the world’s wheat and 1% of the world’s rice. The extensive canal system in Punjab has made the land very fertile. The major rivers Rave, Satluj and Beas have divided the state into three regions i.e. Malwa, Majha and Doaba.23

Punjab scores fairly well in agriculture but not so well in education. The Annual Status of Education Report 2012 showed Punjab school of education had degraded in the past decade. It said that Punjab has lost students to private schools on quality issues. Only 40% of the students who were in class III could read a standard II text book in Punjabi. In standard II only 16.5% could read their class text book. The standard of learning in government schools has been very

23 http://ssapunjab.org/subpages/state_profile.html accessed on 3rd July 2014
low. In 2012, 50% of students in class III could read a class I Punjabi text book in government schools. The report concluded that education in Punjab has very low standards though the literacy rate has increased to 76.7%.\textsuperscript{24}

A national level assessment by ASSOCHAM on ‘North India Rural Education Future Outlook’ placed Punjab at 12\textsuperscript{th} rank. The assessment hoped that Punjab would improve its position in the upcoming years since the attendance of teachers and students have gone up by 80% in the last two years. The mid-day meal scheme in rural schools has helped to decrease the dropouts. \textsuperscript{25}

1.8 (a) JNVs in Punjab

Punjab has 22 districts as on 2012 (Figure 1.3). Among these, 21 districts have established JNVs (Annexure 1). Location of JNVs is denoted by dots in figure 1.3. All JNVs in Punjab claimed to have a great infrastructure such as ventilated classrooms, library, computer classes, medical room, gymnasium hall and so on. Among these the study focused on JNVs of Muktsar, Nawanshahar, Patiala and Ropar.


Figure 1.3
Punjab’s Districts (map not to scale)
Locations of JNVs in Punjab (mere representation)
1.9 Review of Literature

A large amount of literature exists in the area of educational administration. Government documents, books, journals, newspapers and material from the internet has been approached with the view to understand the context, background, major aspects and challenges in the field of education. The literature reviewed broadly falls into the following categories.

a) History of education in India
b) Education and the Constitution; Government policies and Acts
c) Committees and Commissions on Education
d) Comparative Education (UK, US, European Countries, India)
e) Educational Administration
f) Challenges to Education
g) Human Resource Management and its Aspects
h) Delivery of Public Services
i) Literature on Navodayas

a) History of education in India

Safaya (1970) outlined the progress of education during the post independence era along with the prevalent structure of education. The major problems faced on this journey and their possible solutions have been discussed. The book is based on secondary data mainly reports issued by the Department of Education and some monographs prepared by Indian Education Commission. The various recommendations including that of Indian Education Commission (1964-66) viz. advancement and enrichment of programmes at different levels, three language formula, work experience programmes, fixing minimum size of the class, civic freedom to teachers etc. have been presented. The author concludes that these recommendations, if followed, will be a landmark towards the development of education.


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Aggarwal (1975)\textsuperscript{27} tells about a brief history of education in India. The book is secondary data based on government publications, history on education, recommendations of advisory boards and committees on education. The author describes the constitutional provisions about education at different levels Central, state and advisory boards are discussed. The objectives of primary, elementary, secondary education and higher education have been studied in detail. The Education Policy of 1968 and its recommendations have been reproduced. Proper educational planning has been suggested as a remedy to the educational problems.

Bhatt (1995)\textsuperscript{28} has dealt with the history of education in India during the British Period. The thesis being that Britshers wanted to develop English education in India for their own selfish motives, mainly to have Indians man the clerical cadres. In the process, viceroys like Lord Curzon established institutions of higher education. Subsequently, post-independence, a constitutionally established planning process was provided for educational development. This book is based on secondary sources like the National five years plans and books dealing with the history of education. It has been concluded that primary, secondary, higher and professional education can be developed in a big way through planning.

Shukla (2004)\textsuperscript{29} discussed various aspects of value education, human rights and cross-dimensional value concerns. He clarified the value concept in value education by explaining different approaches to value education, sources, types and historical development of values. Besides this, theories of value development, population education, environmental education, human values and human rights are also discussed by him. He points out the fundamental issues of value degeneration and also describes major concerns for population education, environmental education and human rights education. Finally, he discusses Indian cultural heritage and its value system enshrined in the Indian Constitution with its relevance to the modern context. His book is a critical review of secondary data from various books.

\textsuperscript{27} J.C. Aggarwal (1975). \textit{A Sourcebook of Indian Education}, Arya Book Depot, New Delhi.
Kumar (2005)\textsuperscript{30} analyzed that the colonialist and nationalist ideas and practices in education in India are not antagonistic. They incorporate the terrain of gender and also present discussions linked to caste, class and religion. The author draws upon biographies and cultural history that highlight the revolutionary context in which girls’ education made its reluctant start in the 19th century. While emphasizing upon women’s education, the author brings into focus a set of linkages between the emerging system of education and policies, the social structure and ethos which make an innovative study of educational ideas and practices.

Pathak (2007)\textsuperscript{31} outlines the history of achievements and failures of Indian education. In the post-independence era India faced numerous demands on education like that of universalizing education. It faced the problem of people with vested interest having entrenched themselves in the exclusive and prestigious institutions. The discussed problems like the professional and quality institutions, excluding the poor; the Three Language Formula being followed as an exception rather than a rule and so on. The entire educational scene is muddy and needs reconstruction. Thus, the author makes a detailed examination of the history, development, important contemporary problems, issues and emerging trends of Indian education. The chapters of the book cover background, needs, significance, emerging trends, issues, policies, commissions and examination reforms of Indian education. The book is based on the contribution of persons working in institutions like National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA), Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU), Jamia Millia Islamia (JMI), Central Institute of Education (CIE), State Council Educational Research and Training.

\textsuperscript{30} Krishna Kumar(2005), A Political Agenda of Education: A Study of Colonialist and Nationalist Ideas, Sage Publications.
b) Education in Constitution, Government Policies and Acts

Naik (1975)\(^{32}\) represents three dimensions of Indian education i.e. equality, quality and quantity. The issues raised are educational equality, access to education, educational opportunities, Indian educational systems, social inequality, primary education, non-formal education and educational development. Various reports and educational statistics in the context of the Indian constitution and work of experts have been relied upon. It has been concluded that Indian education needs equality, quality as well as quantity.

Kaul (1977)\(^{33}\) describes the importance of non graded schools saying that a non-graded school is far from the caste class or grade of elitist society. The system provides for individual differences thus offering a new and refreshing concept of equality of opportunity. Further the author favors non graded schools as they build a positive ingredient of human psyche. It roots out the concept of failure and aftermath of frustration, self hate and revenge. The non graded school system, therefore, seems to have great promises in the country particularly at primary level. The book is based upon surveys, reports and different articles and statistics provided by Ministry of Human Resource Development.

Kapoor (1984)\(^{34}\) presents a comprehensive view of education and development in India. He traces out the political economical social and cultural developments in the country and their impact on contemporary education. Salient concepts, dimensions of development, goal of education and the barriers to national development have been thoroughly discussed. The book attempts a critical assessment of the problems of education vizi-a-vizi India’s development programs with a special focus on new patterns of education, education for rural development, academic standards, and educational finance. Various reports of finance ministry, five year plans, reports and articles, Ministry of Human Resource Development reports are the sources relied


upon. The book concludes critically appraising the current educational system. It has been concluded that Indian educational system, comprising formal & non formal education requires drastic over-hauling through making it more pervasive, relevant, valid, and purpose oriented and consonant with the national goals of development.

Mohanty (1994) describes about the challenges at national, international and global level on the issue of ‘Education for All’ (EFA). In India different programs for EFA like universalization of elementary education, early childhood program, education for girls, SCs, STs, BCs, disadvantaged, and minorities have been detailed out. Different components of EFA like adult education, non-formal education; National Literacy Mission (NLM), etc. have been mentioned in detail. Various operations in different states by Government of India have been mentioned like Operation Black Board in Andhra Pradesh, Primary Education Project in Madhya Pradesh, promoting Primary Education, Project in Maharashtra. Teachers for Universalization of Project of Rajasthan, Women Empowerment (Mahela Samkhya), through education, Lok Jumbish, Women’s movement and Minimum Level of Learning approach for quality and quantity etc. The book has been concluded with the remark that Minimum Level of Learning (MLL) and quality and equality are needed to fulfill the challenge of ‘Education for All’.

Ram and Sharma (1995) present an overview of National Policy on Education of 1986. The book contains 17 articles on various aspects of the policy by various reputed experts, educationists, and managers of education. The contributors emphasized on the implementation aspect and suggest realistic, practicable, approaches and workable strategies to attain the avowed goals. Within the overall framework of the policy, critical analysis are presented wherein areas of strengths and weaknesses are located, case studies and micro planning favored, integral and holistic viewpoints commended. The various issues in National Education Policy of 1986 like, Women’s Equality, Education of SCs and STs, Adult Education, National

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Literacy Mission, Quality Education, Vocationalisation, National Open Schools, Open Universities, Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangthan etc. have been discussed. The book has been based on the Government statistics, data and eminent scholars’ articles.

Aggarwal (2003)\(^{37}\) presents collection of those vital documents which have shaped the development of education in India since 1813. The material has been collected from various proceedings of important conferences, seminars, workshops reports of expert committees, five year plans, policies and resolutions on education of the government of India, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Education and allied departments. Documents published by University Grants Commission (UGC), Association of Indian Universities, National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) etc have been duly taken note of. The Educational records form the core of educational thought in India. The book sets people thinking constructively and creatively on questions such as- why educational schemes are not successful, why solutions could not be found for the accepted problems and why we cannot fulfill, what we agree and resolve to do at many local level state and national level conferences.

Ratan (2003)\(^{38}\) discusses various programs and schemes during the Ninth and Tenth Five Year Plan of India. The case study is secondary data based. It has been told that though the educational expenses and progress in the field of education has increased but still some achievements are yet to be made. Issues raised are Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, different programs, allocation of funds at different levels of education, focus of Ninth and Tenth Five Year Plans, educational issues, their objectives have been discussed. It has been suggested that the enforcement of minimum standards of education, modernization of syllabi, examination reforms and greater attention to the issues of governance of universities and colleges are needed.


The data sources of article are secondary, like government’s publications and reports of different ministries.

**National Charter for Children (2004)** adopted by Government of India reiterates its commitment laid down in the Constitution towards children in order to see that its children are not hungry, sick and illiterate. The Articles dealing with children rights and principles of state policy towards children, in part III and Part IV of the Indian Constitution, have been laid down as the charter.

**Chakrabarti and Joglekar (2006)** studied government financing of education in India over a span of two decades (1980-1999) across 15 major states of the country. The focus was on analysis of structural break in pattern of expenditure during pre-economic and post-economic reforms. According to them economic reforms have affected the education sector in particular as liberalization and commercialization of higher education has been induced. The government expenditure on all levels has been significantly lower after liberalization vis a vis pre-reforms era. This is particularly for vulnerable sections of society i.e. female, SCs, STs and backward social groups. In addition to this it has been found that privatization exerts a negative impact on higher education. Also, it has been found that government’s commitment was lower in those states where proportion of private engineering and medical colleges is relatively higher than the national average rate.

The article by **Singh (2007)** is based upon the reports of government ministries and departments. The figures of Tenth Five Year Plan are also tabulated. It discusses about the various plans and schemes launched for Elementary Education during Tenth Five Year Plan. The parameters have been outlined for elementary education are: i) Universal Access ii) Universal Enrollment iii) Universal Retention iv) Universal Achievement and v) Equity. It has also been emphasized that to achieve these targets regular monitoring is needed. Further, decentralization as a mean for maintaining

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elementary education cess and *Prarambhik Shiksha Kosh* for better education has been suggested. To reduce gender disparity, it has been suggested that some measures adopted like recruitment of 50% of female teachers, and establishment of *Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalayas* should be undertaken. *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*, universalization of mid day meal at primary level has also been emphasized. It has been found that the continuity of the students from primary level to upper primary and secondary level are not in pace. This link between primary and upper primary and upper primary to secondary should be monitored so as to minimize the dropout rates in the schools.

Rao (2008)\(^4\) says that economic growth depends largely upon the infrastructure of an economy. There are different things which contribute to the infrastructure of an economy namely: public goods, transports, airways etc. However, education is the most important social infrastructure in achieving rapid growth. Although Indian Constitution, in Art. 45 guaranteed education, but according to author, this goal will not be achieved even by 2030. It is because of lack of more effective, efficient and planned strategies. It has been concluded that in India the Centre spends more on higher education than that of primary and secondary level education. Therefore, the burden falls on the state governments. Finally it has been suggested that the central government shall not only increase its allocation for higher education but also come forward liberally to share the states burden at primary and secondary level. The article is based upon the various reports on primary and secondary education level.

**Right to Education Act (2009)**\(^4\) provides free and compulsory education for children of the age group-6-14 years in India. In addition, it provides norms and standards of teacher pupil ratio, building infrastructure, school working days, teacher working hours, appointment of trained teachers, development of curriculum for children in consonance with the principles enshrined in the Constitution and so on.

Also, it ensures child’s over all development by providing him fearless, child-friendly and child-centered learning environment in schools.

c) Committees and Commissions on education

Bhatt and Aggarwal (1969) present a collection of official educational documents. The chronological events in the history of Indian Education, during the last 150 years, have been listed. These throw light on a number of problems, human as well as professional, which people have to face when a foreign educational system is imposed on a country with a cultural continuity of 5000 years. A genuine search for educational goals and contents was made in a number of documents such as the Woods Dispatch, Hunter Commission Report, Indian University Commission Report and finally Indian Education Commission Report (1964-1966). The tendency to postpone the implementation and recommendations to better times on grounds of lack of resources because education is not suitably geared to economic growth has been a long standing problem. It was concluded that education could contribute to progress and would develop minds and characters of those educated.

UNICEF (1989) summarizes 54 articles of Convention of Right of Child (CRC) and their implementation measures in various countries. It defines a child as a person who is below 18 years. The convention emphasizes that each child has the right to non-discrimination, protection, privacy, access to information and so on. It is the responsibility of governments, parents and communities to protect and guide their children about their rights. Those countries which ratify the conventions have the obligation to abide by them convention in their countries.

International Commission on Education for the Twenty First Century Report to UNESCO (1996) discussed the concept of education in its broadest meaning. It talks from pre-school and higher education, including both formal and
non-formal education, and the role of agencies and providers about the need to advance towards a learning society. Learning should be throughout life. For this broadening international co-operation in global village is emphasized. It has been said that as we move on to the twenty first century multiplicity of challenges is faced and to meet these challenges requires well trained and prepared leaders. The teachers should be trained to educate the talented children. Quality in education and equality in opportunities has also been emphasized. Education in the framework of different south Asian countries and western countries has been discussed. It has been concluded that interaction of human cultures and opening of minds for a better life for all should be there for a better development. The report is prepared by consulting eminent scholars, professors in the field of education and international educational institutions.

Report of the Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE) Committee (2005)\textsuperscript{47} recommended that principles of universal access of secondary education should be universal access, equality, and social justice, relevance and development, and structural and curricular considerations. A paradigm shift is required in the conceptualization of Secondary Education. Norms should be developed in each state with common national parameters as well as state specific parameters. Decentralized micro level planning is also recommended. The para teachers should be avoided and fully paid skilled teachers should be there. Heads of schools must be trained and commercialization of school education must be curbed. The report is based upon surveys, reports, publications of government documents and articles in journals.

Anandkrishanan (2007)\textsuperscript{48} critically appraises the report of the National Knowledge Commission (NKC) on Indian higher education system. The author says that the report of NKC has prescribed approaches to revamp the higher education system. It has dealt with issues relating to expansion, curricular concerns, governance, and financing of the universities. However, the author draws attention to


several new trends that are missing in the report such as regional imbalances, uni-
disciplinary universities, resistance to the credit system and proliferation of a standard
distance education system. He suggested that the recommendations of report should
be implemented. The article is based upon the reports of UGC, GOI reports,
education commissions, and publications on higher education.

A Summary of National Achievement Survey of class VIII (2012)\(^49\) by
NCERT compared the achievement levels of students of class VIII across India across
a male/female and rural/urban stratification. It showed that nationally there was no
significant difference between boys and girls achievement levels in Mathematics,
Social Science and Science. However, in Kerala girls performed better than boys and
in West Bengal they performed less in these subjects. In reading comprehension, girls
outperformed boys except in Bihar. Further, rural students outperformed urban
students in science and mathematics; in social sciences they performed equally well.
However, in reading comprehension rural students performed lower than urban
students.

d) Comparative Education (UK, USA, European Countries, India)

Mason (1999)\(^50\) says that the key to development of any nation is through the
education of its people. It has been said that no civilized society can deny the right
to education to its citizens specially its children. Development oriented education is a
fundamental condition for improving the child quality of life, including moral and
spiritual dimensions, and his/ her ability to function fully as a constructive member of
society. Education must take the present and future well being of the younger
generation as its ultimate goal, of which one of the most important conditions is to
ensure the full realization of its rights as stipulated by the conventions based on
children education, and publications and reports of various international organizations
like UN on children education. The article is also based upon the personal
observations of the author.

Class%20VIII.pdf accessed on 6\(^\text{th}\) August 2014.
Chaube and Chaube\cite{chaube2003} (2003) have dealt with the nature and basic problems at the various stages of education of some leading occidental and oriental countries namely Great Britain, France, Republic of Russia, USA, India, Japan, China and Turkey. The book is based on both primary and secondary data, personal experiences, observations of standard work of authorities and concerned government publications have been used. Attention has been drawn towards the similarities among and variations between the educational problems appeared to be common in their essential nature and spirit. The variations between the educational problems appeared to be common in their essential nature and spirit. The variations were found depending upon differing environmental factors. For instance these countries have different political, social and economic conditions.

Arcardo (2006)\cite{arcardo2006} describes that quality works in education as well as in business. The book describes the importance of establishing a shared definition of quality within school or district. A successful quality program develops a common vision among administrators, staff, teachers, students, parents, business, government and the community. He suggested that the quality in schools require a vision and mission, moreover customer focus. Total involvement, measurement, commitment as well as continuous improvement also contribute to the quality of schools. The book is based on primary first hand experience, interviews and observation based in different developed countries like UK and USA.

Davila and Naya (2008)\cite{davila2008} analyze the situation of the right to education in Europe. Their article analyses some educational aspects underlying the Convention on the Rights of the Child such as obstacles to the enjoyment of the right to education, access to that right, discrimination in education against the disabled and minorities, school discipline and human rights based-education. The key obstacles that a real and effective exercise of the right to education, and also of rights in

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\textsuperscript{51} S.P. Chaube, and Akhilesh Chaube (2003), \textit{Education Abroad and in India}, Anamika Publishers & Distributros (P) Ltd., New Delhi.


\textsuperscript{53} Davila Pauli and Maria Luis Naya (2008), “Education and the Rights of Child in Europe”, \textit{Springer}, 10\textsuperscript{th} April.
education, may be summarized in three issues: the failure to ensure access to education; blatant discrimination against the disabled and minority; and the scarcity of school programs that promote education in human and children rights. The conclusions suggest consideration of European map, highlighting certain difficulties in such areas as access to education, discrimination against particular groups and certain ambivalence in relation to the use of corporal punishment. The article is based on research funded by Ministry of Education and Science and articles from journals on children rights of education at international levels.

Lees (2014) explored parents’ learning about additional legal alternatives to schooling other than conventional schooling in England. She argues that dominance of formal schooling has ultimately limited the scope of the ability to imagine the full range of educational possibilities. Based on an empirical case study of families in England she discovered the possibility of elective home education. She gives a globally relevant analysis of the state’s relationship to education, parental choice and related human rights issues in her book. Pointing out the fact that education is used in various contexts around the world.

e) Educational Administration

Aggarwal (1972) focuses on the role of educational administrators, supervisors, principals and the teachers. The book is based on secondary data like books, reports, journals and government publications. The book deals with the theories and principles of educational administration; structure of education administration in India; the theory and practice in the educational supervision; the problems connected with educational planning and financing and the principals’, teachers’ and students’ role in administration and planning. The book concludes that present day schools must be organized and operated on democratic principles. If this point is lost sight of, then the very purpose of educational administration and supervision goes into

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54 Helen E. Lees (2014), Education without Schools: Discovering Alternatives, University of Bristol.
55 J.C. Aggarwal (1972), Educational Administration, Inspection, Planning and Financing in India, Arya Book Depot, New Delhi.

Khan & Khan (1980)\textsuperscript{56} discuss what an administrator should do and why. His book deals with the various issues involved in educational administration on both the theoretical and practical context. It provides a broad approach to the understanding of the problem of educational administration. This secondary data based work critically appraises the theories of public administration like Scientific Management, Human Relations Theory, Systems Theory and Leadership Theories. The author finally concluded that educational administration solely depends upon the intelligence and capabilities of the administrators.

Kochar (1981)\textsuperscript{57} points out the need for proper education and re-education of the supervisory personnel to ensure the implementation of new ideas and trial of innovations and experiments in the dynamic field of education. The author attempts to analyse the educational supervision and inspection both in terms of realities of practice and research. The book is based upon the extensive and detailed discussions with teachers and supervisors at various levels. There are eight units in the book. Each unit deals with a significant aspect of supervision. Supervision performances for both primary and secondary schools have been suggested. Sound and scientific footing help achieve the desired aim of school improvements.

Bhatt and Ravishankar (1985)\textsuperscript{58} cover the intensive and extensive research on the changing concepts and practices of education administration in this edited volume which has contribution from India and abroad. The book critically assesses syllabi of Indian universities and provides, at the same time, information of current issues of education administration in the international context. Its main emphasis is that effective educational planning and application of new administrative techniques is the key to the development of a healthy educational system. The book emphasizes the

nature and importance of educational policy and planning as the foundational factors in the system of education administration.

**Tyagi (2008)**[^59] critically analyses various issues of governance of school education in India. His paper highlights the major strengths and weaknesses related to educational policy, administration, academic support and quality improvement. The basis of the paper is several research studies conducted in administration of school education at national and state levels. The paper proposes a complete overhaul of administrative structures, processes and functions. Good governance for school education would need for a coordinated effort of all sectors of educational administration. The paper finally advocates a consultative mechanism and policy formulation, decentralized structure, strengthening academic support and revitalizing personnel management.

**Baffur-Awuah (2011)**[^60] presented the teachers and head teachers’ perspective during the supervision of public primary schools in Ghana. His thesis resulted that teachers agreed that supervisors should praise the particular teaching behavior. Further, it was suggested that supervisors should establish open and trusting relationship with teachers.

**Mahure (2011)**[^61] in her research paper explained the meaning and concept of national integration. Further, she critically analysed the issue of national integration. She concluded that India being a multi-ethnic nation follows mixed strategies for national integration and its basis are accommodation and equality.

**Grauwe (2008)**[^62] provided the various models of school monitoring systems and their impacts on various Asian countries. The paper concluded that there is no ideal


NCERT (2010) drafts a ‘code of ethics’ for all teachers (school teachers covering government, private or full time/ part-time teachers at elementary and secondary schools) who hold administrative and supervisory positions. It provides a framework of principles to guide them in discharging their obligations towards students, parents, colleagues and community. It also emphasized on awareness among them to ensure professionalism among teachers. Further, it prescribes for a mechanism to deal with violation of ethics at school/block, district, state and national level.

f) Challenges in Education

Lakshmi (1989) discusses that when advanced nations are planning to universalize higher education, India is still struggling to universalize primary education. The researches on dropouts, wastage and stagnations are gathering dust in libraries at research centers and universities. The teachers in the school are more interested about their increments rather than the development of pupil personality. Further, cause for concern is that quality is also neglected. There is poor accountability. It has been suggested that the parents and teachers should come and address all these concerns with the help of government agencies. The book is based upon various reports of the Education Commissions, Government Publications and observations by the author.

Panchmukhi (1996) brings together the major strands of ideas on socio economic perspectives about selected educational reforms in India. Four major reforms suggested are: imparting Basic Education, Multipurpose Schools, Free and Compulsory Primary Education and Protective Discrimination. Analyses of causes

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and consequences of educational changes have been done elaborately. These are based upon various studies of several educational reforms brought out by the Indian Institute of Education.

**Shukla (1996)** focuses on the issue of education for all. Topic is more important particularly for developing countries of today. Indian scenario shows a phenomenal progress in the field of education but universal elementary education and total literacy remain somewhat elusive. The problem of enrolment of children, particularly girls, and high drop outs is the major concern. The lack of enthusiasm towards the problem also increases illiterates. All these pose a serious challenge towards the planners and managers of education. It has been concluded that the democratic decentralization of educational administration under the Panchayati Raj Systems will provide for greater and more active participation of the local people and their responsibility and same will yield faster and better results.

**Prahallada (1996)** describes the problem of indiscipline among the universities’ students. General deterioration in academic life in universities is due to the loss of leadership qualities of teachers. They are just serving the institutions as paid workers like any other employees; they neither have any professional status nor social status. This has led to mounting indiscipline in colleges and universities.

**Chadha (1997)** discusses the proposed fundamental right of elementary education which would make it obligatory for the state to provide necessary infrastructure and facilities within a given time frame. The citizens would be within their right to challenge the government for lack of provision of educational facilities in the courts of law. On the other hand, the state would be well within its right to make parents liable for punishment for not sending their children to school without any reasonable justification as it would tantamount to violation of a fundamental right.

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Anati (1997)\textsuperscript{69} outlines many ills that plague Indian colleges and indicates lack of planning in the academic and administrative fields. The third world countries cannot ignore manpower resources of the colleges and organizing and developing them. He criticizes the caste based management in colleges of India and compares it to the cancer, which will die sooner or later and the Government will be mute witness to it. He suggests that the departments of collegiate education should identify experts to monitor the academic performance of teachers.

Naqvi (2001)\textsuperscript{70} draws attention to the poor literacy rate in India. In spite of 93\textsuperscript{rd} amendment, making education a fundamental right up to the age of 6-14 years, the working class does not send their children to school. The reasons cited are poverty and ignorance about the value of education. Hence, the literacy rate does not improve even if the state provides free education. Further, state programs like ‘Operation Black Board’ and Adult Literacy programs fail to raise the literacy levels. This has been attributed to the lack of political support, corruption and poor conditions in the government schools. Some schools exist on papers only; the teachers are on the rolls only to receive salary. It has been suggested by the author that new initiatives should be taken; private enterprises should be rewarded for attracting poor children and younger generation also to be included in the programs.

Madhusudan (2003)\textsuperscript{71} tells about the problem of primary school dropouts due to shifting cultivation in the northeast state of Meghalaya. This is an observation based case study. It was observed that Garos, the dominant tribes, go to the fields early dawn and children are left unattended and the onus of going to schools in the absence of the parents is on the children. The second difficulty is the distance of the school and the third problem lies with the lack of education of parents. Hence, Village Education Committees are ineffective. The author concludes that an attempt should be made to provide an initial frame to understand some important issues concerning agricultural practices, culture, society, and schooling. The study draws attention to

\textsuperscript{69} Anati (1997), “Wanted: A Management System for Colleges” Deccan Herald, 23\textsuperscript{rd} March.
\textsuperscript{70}L.H. Naqvi (2001), “Education as Fundamental Right”, The Tribune, 8\textsuperscript{th} December.
the complexities of the situation expects the social scientists, educationists of take due note of the effect agricultural perspective in the low enrolment and dropout problem.

The survey made by Rajaram and Sunil (2003) reveal survey that in India there exists a wide variation in enrolling the children in primary schools in India. Some states like Bihar, Rajasthan, Arunachal Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh have a very high variation. There is a great gender disparity in the school enrollment and completion among children. The decision about the completion and enrollment of children to the school depends upon the household characteristics. Hence, the local educational policies should take into account these household characteristics in order to improve the situation. It has been suggested that educational programs to promote the importance and advantages of education like adult education should be there in local levels. Programs with similar objectives not only benefit the older parents but would eventually create a positive environment for younger generation. The survey is based upon the data given by National Family Health Survey, authors’ observations and government’s publications.

Singh (2003) discusses the various aspects and suggestions for a global education and society. It has been said that during the last fifty years the human race has seen so many technological, transportation, and other scientific inventions like computers, which have broken the space barrier. However, some developments in destructive areas like arms, weapons, nuclear drugs, trafficking in human beings have an adverse effect on the younger generations. While, all dimensions of education are necessary and important, it is during the course of secondary education that the minds of adolescents are most impressionable and contours of their consciousness can be decisively shaped. The four pillars of education are:

- Learning to know (For Knowledge)
- Learning to do (Practicability)
- Learning to live together (Peace and Harmony)

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Learning to be (A Good Human Being with Universal Values)

The suggestions for better global education within the framework of UNESCO Commission Report are:

- The ecology of earth should be preserved.
- Hatred and bigotry should be replaced with friendship and cooperation.
- Supremacy through war should be avoided and the golden thread of spiritual aspiration that binds them together must be strengthened instead.

Finally it is suggested that there should be innovation on the part of youth; the challenge is to the educationists around the world. It is upon the texture and content of our educational systems around the world that future consciousness of human race will crystallize.

Chand, Joshi and Dhabi (2004)\(^\text{74}\) while drawing the experiences of earth quake rehabilitation efforts in Gujarat on Jan 26, 2001, emphasized the need for introducing emergency education dimension in traditional educational policies. They put forth that emergency education is essential in developing countries, as they are subjected to variety of disasters, thereby, disrupting the regular education of millions of children. This calls for expanding the scope of traditional educational policy so that the children do not get deprive of their right to education. They suggest that the local administration, bureaucrats, and ministers concerned should take care of emergency education while framing the educational policies.

Singh (2004)\(^\text{75}\) has dealt with those educational issues which have been ignored for a long time. The book is observation based publications of government documents, statistics provided by the Ministry of Human Resource Department (MHRD) have also been used. He implies that the quantum of problems has been reduced. However, they have not been fully resolved. These problems suffer the nature of

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gaps and omissions i.e. there exists a huge gap between the policy making and implementations. The author examines that the role of state governments which is negligible in policy making serves as the weakest link of Indian Education System. The dimensions of professional education and the mishandling of distance education are also discussed.

Panda and Basantia (2005)\textsuperscript{76} discuss the problems of children living in streets and on railway platforms and their education program initiated by the Government. It has been pointed out that there is a difficulty at the Government level as well as the personal problems of these children to achieve education. The suggestions made for the education of these children are made like mobile schooling, part time schooling etc. for these out of school children. The article is based on surveys and reports, different workshops, seminars conducted on these ‘platform and street moving children’.

Lees (2014)\textsuperscript{77} explored parents’ learning additional legal alternatives than conventional schooling. She argued that dominance of formal schooling has ultimately limited the scope of ability to imagine the full range of educational possibilities. Based on an empirical case study of families in England she discovered the possibility of elective home education. She gives a globally relevant analysis of the state’s relationship to education, parental choice and related human rights issues in her book. Pointing out the fact that education is used in various contexts around the world.

Kumar (2014)\textsuperscript{78} examines the grammar of rural-urban relations by emphasizing the modernity in rural areas through education. He says that the only way to modernize rural people is to develop symptoms of the urban. As a universal instrument of modernity, education is under compulsion to encourage the rural to become urban.


\textsuperscript{77} Helen E. Lees (2014), \textit{Education without Schools: Discovering Alternatives}, University of Bristol.

He concludes that rural education has been conceptualized and defined over the last two centuries as a means to uplift villages and their reconstruction. However, implementation and outcome of this vision has worsened the situation of the dependent status of the village both economically and culturally.

g) Human Resource Management and its Aspects

Stahl (1956)\textsuperscript{79} considers recruitment as the ‘cornerstone’ of the public personnel structure. Further, he says to achieve an appropriate mix between internal and external recruitment is a difficult problem for managers. Therefore, recruitment policy in the public organizations should be sound so that a competent staff is hired to meet their needs.

Compliance Advisory Ombudsman (2008)\textsuperscript{80} provides a guide to implement and design grievance redressal mechanisms on various development projects. It describes the grievance, grievance redressal mechanism, need and prescribes the requisites for grievance redressal mechanisms. It also suggests evaluating the grievance redressal mechanism by giving clear standards and criteria.

Aswathappa (2010)\textsuperscript{81} gives an in depth study of HRM by covering its various aspects in his book such as recruitment, placement, selection, training and development, wage administration, performance appraisal, grievance redressal and industrial relations. These aspects have been discussed with various case studies in the book.

Garner (2013)\textsuperscript{82} discusses the need for improving training skills in business organizations. He says in present scenario it is seen as a vital function instead as a reward or punishment. People being most valuable asset should be trained well to get


maximum output. He explains the processes, models and designs of training and also their importance to improve employees’ potential. Finally, he emphasizes on the assessment of training programs.

**Bates and Davis (2010)**\(^83\) opined that training programs are successful only when the trainees are able to practice the theoretical aspects learnt during training in their practical work environment. They highlighted various training techniques such as role playing, simulation, computer based learning for exposure to real world situations.

**Mamoria and Rao (2012)**\(^84\) gives an in depth analysis of personnel management such as its nature, functions, role, policies, growth and challenges in present scenario. They discuss various aspects of personnel management namely HR planning, recruitment, selection, placement, performance appraisal, training, executive development, motivation, morale, employee grievance redressal, discipline and so on. Further, employee benefits, human dynamics, employees’ welfare, role of trade unions, collective bargaining, industrial relations and resolution to industrial conflicts have been duly emphasized. Their book is based upon various textual matters, examples and insights of corporate world, case studies and analysis.

**Garner (2013)**\(^85\) discusses the need for improving training skills in business organizations. He says in present scenario it is seen as a vital function instead as a reward or punishment. People being most valuable asset should be trained well to get maximum output. He explains the processes, models and designs of training and also their importance to improve employees’ potential. Finally, he emphasizes on the assessment of training programs.

\(^83\) Tony Bates and Alan Davis (2010), Challenges in Blended Learning.


h) Delivery of Public Services

Right to Information Act (2005):\(^{86}\) enables the citizens of India to seek any information from a public authority. The provisions of act are applicable to all states and UTs except Jammu & Kashmir. The Act covers all government organizations even non-government organizations if funded substantially, directly or indirectly by the government. The organizations must appoint Public Information Officers (PIO) along with Assistant Public Information Officers (APIO) in their organizations. The stipulated time period is 30 days of the application by PIO and 35 days by an APIO. In case of failure, provisions of appeal are also given in the Act.

Second Administrative Commission (2005)\(^{87}\) has highlighted the measures to achieve accountable, sustainable, responsive, proactive and efficient administration. The commission considered to improve organizational structure, ethics in governance, strengthening of financial management systems, steps to ensure effective administration at state and district levels, crisis management and so on. The commission has recommended modifications in the Right to Information Act, 2005 such as to repeal Official Secrets Act, 1923 to bring more transparency; to establish independent public authorities at state levels to deal with complaints etc. Further, it recommended promoting ethics in governance by constituting national ombudsman which should cover all the union ministries and chief ministers, MPs but not the PMs office; abolition of scheme under which MPs and MLAs are allocated funds for their local area development etc. Furthermore, it has recommended promotion of local democracy by setting more local self-governing bodies; strengthening their finance.

Mathur (2012)\(^{88}\) has dealt with Public Service Guarantee Act in India that comprises of statutory laws that guarantees time bound delivery of public service rendered by the governments to its citizens. It provides a mechanism for punishing the errant public official who does not provide the service in the stipulated time under

\(^{86}\) righttoinformation.gov.in accessed on 12 August 2014.
\(^{87}\) www.arc.gov.in accessed on 12th July 2014.
\(^{88}\) Tina Mathur (2012), Right to Public Services: A Comparative Perspective of Implementation of Guarantee of Public Services in Selected States of India, Centre for Organization Development, February.
the law. This Act has been passed by fourteen states at present. Madhya Pradesh was the first to adopt it in 2010 and the latest state is Goa in 2013. The other states which have passed the Public Service Delivery Act are: Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, Jammu and Kashmir, Bihar, Rajasthan, Uttrakhand, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Jharkhand and Chhattisgarh. The act is significant as it places the onus of delivery on the service provider with penalties for delays in services. The document provides an overview and comparison of implementation mechanisms in five states of Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan and Delhi. It has been said that while the provisions of Right to Public Services Act remain same across different states however, they vary significantly in terms of mechanisms adopted for implementation and the features on penalties and appeals in the early stage of implementation. The document reported that Rajasthan has maximum number of services under its Right to Public Services Act; Delhi has been significantly different in its focus on Information technology based mechanisms while UP has least number of services under the Act. Further, Bihar has followed mass awareness mode and a phased IT backbone in the implementation of the Act. The document concludes that the mass citizen awareness about the Act is necessary for its proper implementation.

Lokpal Act (2013)\(^{89}\) is an anti-corruption Act passed by the Government of India in 2013. It provides to establish a body named lokpal for the union to inquire into allegations of corruption against certain public functionaries. The Act extends to whole India and all public servants in and outside India. This is expected that the Act would make them more accountable by curbing corruption in organizations.

Whistle Blowers Protection Act (2014)\(^{90}\) establishes a mechanism to receive complaints relating to disclosure on any allegation of corruption or willful misuse of discretion against any public servant and to inquire or cause an inquiry into such disclosure. Further, it provides adequate safeguards against victimization of the person making such complaint.


Jena (2014)\(^{91}\) Points out the importance of participatory governance and stakeholders’ participation as the guiding principle for administration. It was emphasized during the preparation of twelfth five year plan when it was uploaded in the face book website and comments were invited so that people are consulted at the planning stage itself. The article talks about the good governance, open door system initiative of participatory government, RTI Act 2005 and Right to Public Delivery of Services. It concludes that an enlightened and educated public is the best mechanism to enforce accountability and transparency in government dealings and to ensure effective and efficient delivery of services.

\textbf{i) Literature on Navodayas}

Gautam (1992)\(^{92}\) concluded in her study that the development of the talent can be enhanced by improving the school climate in Navodaya schools by introducing open classroom teaching methods like drama, warming up sessions, brain storming, role playing, project activity, and open debates on academic, social, economic and political issues. This will encourage the student with the provision of more opportunities for expression and students’ involvement in various activities, thereby leading to more initiative among students to be non-conventional in their approach to learning. For this outcome teachers should be refined, structuring of text books on socio-psychological principles of curriculum for the gifted students. Hence, it was suggested that creative arts be used as vehicles for teaching and practicing creative thinking more vigorously among Navodaya Vidyalayas students so that creative talent, too get an opportunity to develop to the fullest.

Avanija (1994)\(^{93}\) studied the concept of ‘self’ among the student of Navodaya Vidyalayas. In his study only five independent variables namely area (Urban/Rural), sex (boy / girl), Socio Economic Status (SES), academic achievement and personality adjustment have been studied in relation to ‘self’ of both Navodaya Vidyalayas and

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\(^{91}\) Vandana Jena (2014), People Centric Administration, \textit{Yojna}, March, pp. 53-57.


Government High School students in Karnataka. It has been found that Navodaya Vidyalayas students have manifested better ‘self’ profile than the Government High School students. The low ‘self’ profile of Government High School students is due to the poor schooling facilities. It has been suggested that the tone and tenor of the Government Schools especially in rural areas should be improved.

Gaddam (2003)⁴⁴ concluded in her studies that a well articulated belief system could strengthen the program of Navodaya Vidyalayas. This would require retention of some current aspects, but necessitated the concept of giftedness, the change of student and teacher selection process, and a more individualized application of curriculum.

Kharparde, Srivastava, and Meganathan (2004)⁵⁵ explored the management devices in successful schools in the Indian context. In-depth case studies of three successful Navodaya schools were carried out. The schools were identified on the basis of the academic performance of students in the last three years in the national examinations and their participation in co-curricular activities at the regional and national levels. The study employed triangulation approach in which data were collected employing different methodologies (personal interviews, observations, and questionnaires/schedules) from various categories of respondents (principals, teachers, students, parents, and in some cases alumni) by a team of researchers. Results indicated that successful schools adopted participative management system in their running.

Singh (2010)⁹⁶ highlights a mirror experiment of the Principal of JNV Kagaznagar who had installed a large mirror at the entrance of JNV since 2005 titled ‘Am I Smart?’ This has been done with a view that students could view themselves in totality. It would further help them developing a habit to think about their external appearance. The principal opined that rural students did not bother about their looks;

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however, mirror experiment in JNV would definitely groom their personality. In addition, students would learn the proper usage of hair oil, tooth brush and shoe polish provided by JNVs through this mirror experiment.

**Neelima (2011)**\(^7\): reports that Tamil Nadu has been only state which has not accepted the JNV scheme till date due to Hindi language taught in JNVs under the ‘Three Language Formula’. The Samiti officials have been trying to convince Tamil Nadu government to accept the scheme based on various characteristics of JNVs such as reservation of seats for rural, urban, girls, SC, ST and physically challenged; national integration through students’ exchange; quality education and so on. Navodaya Vidyalaya Samiti has been consistent in its efforts to set up JNVs in Tamil Nadu for the past 25 years and hopes that Tamil Nadu will also accept the JNVs scheme in future.

**The Hindu (2012)**\(^8\) highlighted 25 years of celebration in JNV, Ongle, which was a glorious event for its students. Some alumnus of first batch who had been working as assistant professor and biotechnologist were also present in the celebrations. The principal felt pride and remarked that these alumni were the role model for students.

**Bishnoi (2013)**\(^9\): highlights the case of a girl student who was rendered pregnant by her Principal in JNV Tripura. The case was taken up by Women Commission of Tripura and High Court of Guwahati. The Court ordered to pay the victim compensation of Rs 10 Lakh as NVS had failed to protect security to its students. Further, the court had also ordered the MHRD and NVS to set up an expert panel and give recommendations to prevent such reoccurrences in the Vidyalayas. NVS admitted that sexual abuse of students had been on an increase in the schools and was embarrassed about the same. Resultantly, NVS had issued a strict guideline to the Principals of JNVs to provide a congenial atmosphere to the students in schools.

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Martin (2013)\textsuperscript{100}: criticizes the launch of an indefinite strike of 550 teachers of JNVs across the nation. Class X and XII exams were approaching and parents were worried about their wards’ future. The strike was due to various pending demands of staff such as pension, a transparent transfer policy, 10% allowance to non-teaching staff etc.

Eleventh Five Year Mid Term Appraisal (2007-12)\textsuperscript{101}: stated that there were 576 JNVs in India with 2.07 Lakhs students of which SCs and STs constitute 24% and 17%, respectively. The document appraised the performance of JNVs in terms of their academic results in X and XII. It was also recommended that additional JNVs were required in highly populated districts of West Bengal, Bihar, U.P., Chhattisgarh and Rajasthan, Maharashtra and Gujrat. The literature reviewed has been summarized in Table 1.3.
Table 1.3

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Matrix of Literature Reviewed</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Theme</strong></td>
<td><strong>Authors</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>History of Education in India</td>
<td>Safaya (1970); Aggarwal (1975); Aggarwal (2003); Kumar (2005); Pathak (2007)</td>
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<td>Education in Constitution and Government Policies and schemes Committees and Commissions on Education</td>
<td>Naik (1975); Aggarwal (1972); Kapoor (1984); Mohanty (1994); Ram and Sharma (1995); Aggarwal (2003); Ratan (2003); Anandkrishnan (2007); Singh 2007</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comparative Education</td>
<td>International Education Commission (1996), Mason (1999); Chaube and Chaube (2003); Singh (2003); Arcardo (2006); Davila and Naya (2008)</td>
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<td>Educational Administration</td>
<td>Aggarwal (1972); Khan &amp; Khan (1980); Bhatt and Ravishankar (1985)</td>
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<td>Challenges in Education</td>
<td>Naik (1975); Laxmi (1987); Sharma (1992); Mohanty (1994); Panchmukhi (1996); Naqvi (2001); Madhusudan (2003); Rajanum and Sunil (2003); Chandra, Joshi and Dabi (2004);</td>
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<td><strong>Human Resource Management and its Aspects</strong></td>
<td>Stahl (1956); Compliance Advisor Ombudsman (2008); Aswathappa (2010); Bates and Davis (2010); Mamoria and Rao (2012); Garner (2013)</td>
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<td><strong>Delivery of Services</strong></td>
<td>Administrative Reforms Commission’s Recommendations (2005); Right to Information (2005); Lokpal Act 2013; Mathur (2012); Whistle Blowers Protection Act (2014); Jena (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Literature on Navodayas</strong></td>
<td>Gautam (1992); Avanija (1994); Gaddam (2003); Kharpande (2004), Neelima Singh (2010); (2011); The Hindu (2012); Bishnoi (2013); Martin (2013)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.9 Inferences Drawn from the Review of Literature

From the study of an exhaustive amount of literature on education it was found that various authors have discussed the policies, schemes and challenges of Indian education. Two major policies of 1968 and 1986 on education with modified Program of Action, 1992 have been discussed. However, the major scheme of Navodaya under 1986 education policy has not been studied in a detailed manner so far. The focus of studies on JNVs has largely been on student and teacher development. However, the aspects of performance and administration of the JNVs was by and large neglected. In fact, no such study could be traced in the past decade. The Navodaya Vidyalaya Scheme promises a lot for the rural, SC, ST and Girls students. Whether, these promises are kept or not were the questions posed in the study. Therefore, an in-depth study of planning, procedures and performance of the Navodayas in Punjab was proposed.

1.10 Objectives of the Study

1. To study the Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas scheme’s objectives within the larger framework of the National Education Policy (1992).
2. To take an overview of the national network of JNVs (National, Regional and District levels).
3. To study the criteria laid down to set up JNVs.
4. To study the inter-agency linkages of JNVs.
5. To study Human Resource Management in JNVs.
6. To study the provision of infrastructural and other facilities for students in JNVs.
7. To study the performance of selected JNVs in Punjab in terms of academic and non academic indicators.
8. To study the grievance redressal and feedback system in JNVs.

1.11 Hypothesis

1. The network of JNVs has grown as per the scheme.
2. The three-tier system of JNVs is functioning properly.
3. The criteria laid down to set up JNVs have many lacunae.
4. Inter-agency linkages of JNVs are supportive.

5. Human Resource Management is sound.
   a) Recruitment and selection procedures are transparent.
   b) Personnel are imparted training from time to time.
   c) The employees are satisfied with the service conditions.
   d) There is a shortage of staff.

6. The aims and objectives of Navodaya Vidyalayas are fulfilled.
   a) Vidyalayas are providing education to children predominantly from rural areas.
   b) Vidyalayas are identifying talented children for recruitment.
   c) Quality education is being provided in Vidyalayas.
   d) National integration through exchange of students between Hindi and Non-Hindi speaking states is being promoted.

7. (i) The physical infrastructure facilities of JNVs satisfy the norms.
   a) The distribution of books, uniforms and day to day amenities are on time.
   b) The food and drinking water provided is wholesome and hygienic.
   c) Residential facilities for students are adequate.
   d) JNVs located close to the Regional Office have better access to facilities.

   (ii) The monitoring and performance evaluation of JNVs in Punjab is as per the norms of national evaluating agencies (Navodaya Vidyalaya Samiti, Central Board of Secondary Education).

8. There is a satisfactory provision for feedback in JNVs.

1.11 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Punjab State has been selected as the locale of the study. Punjab is under Chandigarh Regional Office of the NVS. The other states were Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh and Chandigarh (UT). Punjab holds the bottom position in academic performance in the region. Therefore, Punjab was selected for study. Out of 21 JNVs in Punjab 4 were selected i.e. Muktsar, Nawanshahar, Ropar and Patiala. Two districts closer to RO and two were far from RO were taken, which could evince the difference in provision of facilities and monitoring by higher
officials in JNVs. The JNV program began in 1986. Hence, the time period of study was 1986 to 2013. This allowed for a long term appreciation of the implementation of the program.

1.12 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study was based on both primary and secondary data. Various tools and techniques of data collection were used such as checklists, questionnaires, observation, and formal & informal interviews.

To ascertain the status of infrastructure checklists were used. Formal interviews were conducted with the officials of NVS, Regional Office, Principals, teachers and other staff of JNVs. Informal interviews were also conducted with them. Sample of 100 faculty members and 1000 students was taken; questionnaires were administered to the students. Data was also used from the publications of Government of India on Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas, annual reports of Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas, newspaper articles, journals, websites, records of schools and other agencies and blogs.

Secondary Data was taken from books, reports of various commissions and committees on Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalayas.

Sampling Plan

There were 21 JNVs in Punjab in 2011-12 (Annexure 1). The number of teachers in schools was 358 and students 8348. To achieve a long term appreciation of the implementation of the programme it was proposed that 4 schools which were established near the inception of the scheme, would be taken i.e. Muktsar (Bringe Khera), Patiala (Farraur Rajputana), Nawanshahar (Pojewal) and Ropar (Sandhua). Two schools were located close to the Regional Office, Chandigarh and two located farther. JNV Chandigarh was taken with a view to study the impact of proximity to the center in the working of a field office. The sampling plan included 5 Principals, 5 Vice principals and 70 teachers were interviewed. 5 staff nurses, 2 office superintendents, 4 wardens and 4 Catering Assistants (Table 1.4)
Officials from Regional Office Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioners and Section Officers were also interviewed. Informal interviews were also conducted with the staff of NVS, RO and JNVs. In addition to that the Commissioner from Right to Service Commission of Punjab was interviewed. Telephonic interviews were also conducted with the District Magistrates/Commissioners of Chandigarh, Nawanshahar, Muktsar, Ropar, and Patiala.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Schools/No. of Schools Surveyed</th>
<th>Name of the Schools</th>
<th>No. of Students surveyed</th>
<th>Principal Principals Interviewed</th>
<th>Vice Principals Interviewed</th>
<th>Teaching Staff Interviewed</th>
<th>Non Teaching Staff Interviewed</th>
<th>Parents Interviewed</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
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