CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS
8.1 SUMMARY

A summarisation of the different points of the various chapters of the entire thesis has been incorporated in this chapter. The process of condensation constrains considerable elimination of details. A summary, being the essence of the total work, contains the gist but lacks the details of logic and presentation. It is desirable to refer to the main body of the thesis whenever the summarised statements do not seem to convey the total meaning. The chapter serials precede the point serials. So the second point of the fourth chapter is denoted as 4.2 and so on.

CHAPTER I : INTRODUCTION

1.1 Reconstruction and expansion of education was one of the major tasks of India soon after her achievement of freedom in 1947. On the eve of independence, there was only 14 per cent literacy in India. The great leaders of the country realised that democracy can not survive in India with such a meagre literacy and further asserted that in order to survive, sustain and develop, each and every Indian child should be given education.
This thinking was reflected in the Indian Constitution and Article 45 made provision to enrol each and every child of the age group 6-14 in primary schools by 1960. Strenuous measures have been taken by the State Governments to fulfil this Constitutional Directive by the stipulated time. But the Directive could not be fulfilled due to various reasons like lack of adequate resources, tremendous increase in population, resistance to the education of girls, large number of children of the backward classes, general poverty of the people and the illiteracy and apathy of the parents.

Though the Constitutional Directive has not been fulfilled, yet none dare deny that there has been tremendous expansion of primary education in the country in respect of schools, teachers and enrolment. But the growth of primary education has not been uniformly spread. The All-India Educational Survey (1957-59) revealed high gaps in the distribution of educational facilities in urban and rural areas. The Second All-India Educational Survey (1966) revealed that in the rural areas the average enrolment in a primary section was 90 and the corresponding figure for the urban areas was 226.
There has been a considerable variation in the literacy rates in urban and rural areas. All these prove that there is a wide gap in the development of education in urban and rural areas.

1.2 Primary education is the backbone of the educational pattern of a country. It prepares the child for higher education and lays down the deep foundations of the educational pattern of a country. But in India, primary education has been neglected. When the Government of India set up University Education Commission (1948-49) and Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) for University and Secondary Education respectively, no such Commission was set up for Primary Education. So, research on primary education is the need of the hour.

Secondly, primary education is the partnership of the local bodies and the State Governments. In Urban areas, the Municipal Committees or Corporations and in rural areas the Panchayat Raj, the Zila Parishad, the District Board or the Town Committee have been associated with primary education. As the administration of primary education in urban and rural areas differs, so also differ the nature of the school, physical facilities, staff, ancillary services etc.
Thirdly, as no researcher has so far attempted to conduct study on the development of primary education in urban and rural areas of Orissa, the researcher was fascinated to conduct this study.

1.3 The problem to be studied was stated as:

"A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS IN THE STATE OF ORISSA"

1.4 The terms 'urban' and 'rural' have been operationally defined in this section.

1.5 The objectives of the study were: (i) to study the development of primary education in Orissa in respect of (a) enrolment (b) schooling facilities, and (c) teaching force; (ii) to compare the development of primary education in urban and rural areas of Orissa in respect of (a) enrolment (b) schooling facilities, and (c) teaching force; (iii) to study and compare the physical facilities available in urban and rural primary schools in Orissa; (iv) to study the allocation of resources for primary education vis-a-vis secondary and higher education in Orissa; (v) to study the administration of
primary education in Orissa; and (vi) to suggest measures, if any, to bridge the gap between urban and rural areas in Orissa in respect of development of primary education.

1.6 The scope of the study covered the development of primary education in urban and rural areas of Orissa from 1947-48 to 1973-74.

1.7 The delimitations of the study were: (i) the study was limited to primary education; (ii) the study was limited to the post-independence period (1947-48 to 1973-74); and (iii) the study was limited to the undivided 13 districts of Orissa.

1.8 The rationale of the period (1947-48 to 1973-74) covered in the study has been justified in this section. India achieved independence in 1947. With the departure of the Britishers from India, their educational policy came to an end. Altogether a new educational policy emerged in independent India which reflected the hopes and aspirations of the Indian people. As education took a new turn from 1947-48, this year has been accepted as the starting point of the study. The year 1973-74 has been
accepted as the cutting point in the study for three reasons (i) a study of 26 years (1947-48 to 1973-74) is quite a sizeable period; (ii) the year 1973-74 marked the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan; and (iii) the year 1973-74 marked the end of the Third Educational Survey in India.

1.9 The present study, being historical in nature, depended on primary and secondary sources. The primary sources included publications of Ministry of Education, Government of India and Orissa; publications of Finance Department and Planning and Co-ordination Department of Government of Orissa; Plan reports, survey reports, articles, theses, census reports etc. The Secondary sources of the study included various books on education in general and primary education in particular.

CHAPTER II : REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Review of related literature is an essential aspect of research. It serves as a guide - post not only with regard to the quantum of work done in the field but also enables one to perceive the gaps in the concerned field of research. Review of related literature ensures avoidance of an unnecessary duplication and replication.

2.3 In Orissa, only two scholars have conducted their studies on primary education. They were Das (1968) and Pati (1984).

2.4 The study conducted by Das (1968) was the evolution of elementary education in Orissa from 1904 to 1947 and the study conducted by Pati (1984) was related to the British period. But the present study was a comparison of the development of primary education in urban and rural areas of Orissa from 1947-48 to 1973-74. Hence, the present study is claimed to be the first of its kind in the State of Orissa.
CHAPTER III : GLIMPSES OF ORISSA

Chapter III provides an introduction to the general background of the State of Orissa.

3.1 Orissa is in the Eastern Sea-board between 17°49' and 22°34' northern latitude and 81°28' and 87°29' eastern longitude. It is divided into five natural regions. The coastal plains constitute 25 per cent of the total area and the rest 75 per cent area is mountain.

The three major rivers of Orissa are Mahanadi, Brahmani and Baitarani. Besides, Subarnarekha, Budhabalanga, Rushikulya, Bansadhara and Nagabali are other rivers of Orissa.

Orissa enjoys a tropical climate where the mean January temperature is 26.60°C to 29.40°C and the mean annual rainfall is from 137.2cm. to 157.5cm.

Forest area is about 43.9 per cent of the State area in Orissa classified as eserve forests, demarcated protected forests and undemarcated protected forests.
Orissa abounds in large mineral deposits and has great future potential for industrial development. The important minerals are coal, iron, manganese, chromite and lime stones. Orissa is the only State in India which has workable deposits of nickel.

A number of electric projects have come up at Hirakud, Balimela, Rengali, Talcher, Angul etc. The hubs of industry are centred round Rourkela, Sunabeda, Talcher, Rayagada, Joda, Jajpur Road, Theruvali, Bargarh, Rajgangpur, Brajarajnagar etc.

3.2 The per capita income of Orissa was 1101.49 in 1980-81 which was much below the All-India average. About 48.56 per cent people lived below the poverty line in 1993-94. These prove that Orissa was one of the most economically backward States in India. Orissa's economy is predominantly agricultural with nearly 75 per cent of the population engaged in it.

3.3 Orissa was carved out as a separate State on the 1st April, 1936 with the amalgamation of 24 feudatory States. It formed a separate province with 13 districts from 1st January, 1949.
3.4 Oriya is the language of the people of Orissa. Oriya became the vehicle of literature as well as State records by the 15\textsuperscript{th} century A.D. Since then it has continued to evolve assimilating elements from several neighbouring languages as well as the alien languages like the Persian, Arabic, Portuguese and English. Worship of Lord Jagannath is the most remarkable development in the religious life of the people of Orissa.

3.5 The present State of Orissa consists of 30 districts. These districts are further sub-divided into 58 sub-divisions, 48 Tahsils, 442 Police Stations, 314 Blocks, 123 Towns, 5263 Gram Panchayats and 51,639 Villages.

3.6 According to 1991 census, the total population of Orissa was 3,16,60,000 (1,60,64,000 males and 1,55,96,000 females) which accounted for 3.73 per cent of India's population. Orissa occupied the 11\textsuperscript{th} position in respect of population in India. The coastal districts are densely populated. The average density was 202 persons per Sq.Km. in 1991 census. Cuttack district had the highest density (494) and Phulbani district had the lowest density of population (77).
The percentage of urban population was 13.37 according to 1991 census. Among the districts, Puri was the most urbanised. Orissa has the second largest concentration of tribal population in India. The total S.C. and S.T. population of Orissa stands around 51,29,000 and 70,32,000 respectively as per 1991 census.

3.7 According to 1991 census, the highest literate persons are in Cuttack district and the lowest literate persons are in Phulbani district. The highest literate males are in Cuttack district followed by Puri. The lowest literate males are in Phulbani district.

CHAPTER IV : DEVELOPMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ORISSA (1947-1974)

4.1 Orissa was one of the most backward States in India in the field of education till independence in 1947. The British rulers lacked interest in the spread of education among the Indian masses. Hence, education was sadly neglected in Orissa till 1947. In 1947-48, there were 6,814 primary schools with an enrolment of 3,69,387 children and 15,529 teachers. The Middle Schools, High Schools, Arts and Science Colleges in
Orissa in the same year were 286,106 and 12 respectively with an affiliating university.

4.2 With the achievement of freedom in 1947, a new educational policy emerged in independent India which reflected the hopes and aspirations of the Indian people. Education was given top priority in the Five-Year Plans and more and more funds were allocated to it in the Five-Year Plans.

4.2.1 Education was given a respectable position in the Constitution. A fundamental decision was taken to treat education as a State subject. Entry 11 of List- II of the Seventh Schedule lays down that “education including universities, subject to the provisions of Entries 63, 64, 65 and 66 of List-I and Entry 25 of List-III should be the State subject.”

4.2.2 In accordance with the Constitutional provisions, the Central Government has a significant role in the field of education. It has some exclusive functions and some concurrent functions with the State Governments.
4.2.3 The Constitution of India makes the State Governments the principal agencies to prepare and implement educational plans and programmes. Hence, school education is the sole responsibility of the State Governments. The specific functions of the State Governments in regard to education are: finance, legislation, supervision and inspection, recruitment of teachers and prescription of curriculum.

4.2.4 Post-independence period saw active involvement of local bodies in the campaign for universal and compulsory education for all children of 6-11 age-groups. In urban areas, municipalities shoulder the responsibility of primary education in many States of India. Some municipalities also run secondary schools and colleges. But in rural areas, district boards are vested with the responsibility of primary education. In Orissa, a three-tier system (district boards, local boards and gram panchayats) exists for the administration of primary education.

4.2.5 During post-independence period, private agencies have a bigger role to play in the field of education. Private bodies run quite a good number of high/higher secondary multipurpose schools, Intermediate, Degree, Engineering ands Training colleges on receipt of grant-in-aid from the State and the UGC.
Soon after independence, India launched her Five-Year Plans in order to make India a developed and prosperous country. Education was accorded top priority in almost all the plans.

4.2.6.1 Main emphasis on education during the First Five-Year Plan (1951-52 to 1955-56) has been highlighted in this sub-section.

4.2.6.2 Main emphasis on education during the Second Five-Year Plan (1956-57 to 1960-61) has been highlighted in this sub-section.

4.2.6.3 Main emphasis on education during the Third Five-Year Plan (1961-62 to 1965-66) has been highlighted in this sub-section.

4.2.6.4 Main emphasis on education during the Fourth Five-Year Plan (1969-74) has been highlighted in this sub-section.

4.2.6.5 Main emphasis on education during the Fifth Five-Year Plan (1974-78) has been highlighted in this sub-section.

4.2.6.6 Main emphasis on education during the Sixth Five-Year Plan (1980-85) has been highlighted in this sub-section.
4.2.6.7 Main emphasis on education during the Seventh Five-Year Plan (1985-90) has been highlighted in this sub-section.

4.2.6.8 Main emphasis on education during the Eighth Five-Year Plan (1992-97) has been highlighted in this sub-section.

4.3 Development of primary education in Orissa has been dealt in this section. The total number of primary schools in 1946-47 was 6,615 (6,409 for boys and 206 for girls) and the enrolment in these schools was 2,74,476 (2,06,465 boys and 68,011 girls). The total number of teachers in these primary schools was 10,571 (10,377 men and 194 women). The percentage of trained teachers in the primary schools was 57.

4.3.1 This sub-section dealt with the development of primary education in Orissa from 1947-51. The most striking feature during 1947-51 has been the phenomenal increase in the enrolment at primary level. The number of primary schools increased substantially from 6,814 in 1947-48 to 9,801 in 1950-51 and the enrolment rose from 2.55 lakh in 1947-48 to 3.15 lakh in 1950-51.
4.3.2 The number of primary schools increased from 9,521 in 1951-52 to 14,003 in 1955-56; enrolment increased from 3.15 lakh in 1951-52 to 4.32 lakh in 1955-56; and the number of teachers increased from 16,525 in 1950-51 to 23,584 in 1955-56.

4.3.3 The number of primary schools increased from 14,003 in 1955-56 to 21,858 in 1960-61; enrolment increased from 4.32 lakh in 1955-56 to 14.29 lakh in 1960-61; and number of teachers increased from 23,584 in 1955-56 to 37,328 in 1960-61.

4.3.4 The number of primary schools increased from 21,858 in 1960-61 to 25,077 in 1965-66; enrolment increased from 14.29 lakh in 1960-61 to 17.49 lakh in 1965-66; and number of teachers increased from 37,328 in 1960-61 to 49,444 in 1965-66.

4.3.5 The number of primary schools increased from 25,077 in 1965-66 to 26,381 in 1968-69; enrolment increased from 17.49 lakh in 1965-66 to 18.40 lakh in 1968-69; and number of teachers increased from 49,444 in 1965-66 to 54,124 in 1968-69.
4.3.6 The number of primary schools increased from 26,381 in 1968-69 to 31,820 in 1973-74; enrolment increased from 18.40 lakh in 1968-69 to 22.69 lakh in 1973-74; and number of teachers increased from 54,124 in 1968-69 to 68,600 in 1973-74.

4.3.7 A comparative study of the development of primary education in Orissa through the plans has been made here.

4.3.7.1 There was 376.8 per cent increase in the primary schools for boys during the period 1947-48 to 1973-74. In case of girls' primary schools, there were constant fluctuations in the number of schools for which a definite trend of development could not be ascertained. However, the total increase of primary schools for the period was 366.9 per cent.

4.3.7.2 The enrolment of boys into primary schools marked an increase of 483.7 per cent over the period 1947-48 and 1973-74. Similarly, the enrolment of girls marked an increase of 9155.5 per cent over the same period. The total enrolment of boys and girls in primary schools indicated an increase of 789.8 per cent over the period 1947-48 and 1973-74.
4.3.7.3 The number of men teachers in primary schools marked an increase of 297.2 per cent over the period 1947-48 and 1973-74; the number of women teachers marked an increase of 1438.07 per cent over the same period and the total number of teachers marked an increase of 315.2 per cent over the period under study.

CHAPTER V : FINANCING OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ORISSA (1947-74)

5.1 At present, educationists treat education as an investment - the more of the investment, the better is the standard of it and greater is the return from it. Education has been regarded as one of the potent factors for socio-economic and cultural development of a country. Researches have proved that education contributes much to the economic growth of a country. Harbison and Myers in their cross-sectional study of 75 countries and Robert Solow, dealing with a linear production function, proved that education contributes much to the economic growth of a country. Japan, Denmark and USSR are important historical examples in this regard.

A review of cost-benefit analysis of education in 32 countries showed that not only is education profitable also but the rate of
return to education exceeds the rate of return to physical capital; the private rate of return is consistently higher than the social rate of return; and the rate of return to primary education is generally higher than the rate of return to secondary or higher education.

Thus, education is a profitable social as well as private investment. In India, the education system has to keep pace with industrialisation and modernisation and hence, there is an urgent need for investment in education. Ploughing more money and more resources into education raises its quality and that higher educational quality produces higher educational achievement and higher economic productivity. For this, the importance of education has been felt in all the Five-Year Plans in India. But it is regretted that the expenditure on education is less than 3 per cent of national income in India as compared with 7 per cent in USSR, 6.5 per cent in USA and 5.7 per cent in Japan.

5.2 There has been a steady rise in expenditure on education from Rs.0.78 Crore in 1947-48 to Rs.33.53 Crore in 1973-74. It was Rs.8.88 Crore during First Five-Year Plan; Rs.17.61 Crore during Second Five-Year Plan; Rs.42.66 Crore during Third Five-Year Plan; and
Rs. 135.39 Crore during Fourth Five-Year Plan. The percentage of expenditure on education increased from 13.3 in 1947-48 to 16.3 in 1973-74.

5.3 The Plan outlays on elementary education saw ups and downs in the Five-Year Plans. It was Rs.96.27 lakh in the First Plan; Rs.259.19 lakh in the Second Five-Year Plan; Rs.1,079.17 lakh in the Third Five-Year Plan; and Rs.759.84 lakh in the Fourth Plan. All the plans (except Second Plan) saw more than 50 per cent outlays on elementary education in Orissa.

As regards Non-Plan outlays on elementary education, all the years from 1950-51 to 1973-74 saw more than 50 per cent outlays.

5.4 Educational expenditure was broadly classified into two categories - Direct and Indirect. Direct charges constituted salaries, allowances, contingencies etc. whereas Indirect charges constituted the expenditure on direction, inspection, hostels, scholarships and buildings. In 1951-52, the Direct expenditure on education was 60.8 per cent which steadily rose to 92.1 per cent by 1973-74. The Indirect charges registered a sharp decline from 39.2 per cent in 1951-52 to 7.9 per cent in 1973-74. The constant
overhead cost was steadily mounting and consequently Indirect charges which contributed to developmental programmes were decreasing proportionately.

5.4.1 Sector-wise Direct expenditure on education in Orissa revealed that Higher Education, Secondary Education, Primary Education and Special Education were the four sectors under Direct Expenditure from 1951-52 to 1973-74. Technical Education appeared as another sector of expenditure under Direct Expenditure in 1964-65. There has been a marked increase in the Direct Expenditure on education in all the sectors. However, Primary Education received greater attention during the years 1951-52 to 1973-74 and more funds were allocated to it (36.4% to 56.5%).

5.4.2 The different items under Direct expenditure on Primary Education in Orissa from 1951-52 to 1973-74 were : (i) Government Primary Schools, (ii) Non-Government Primary Schools, and Local Bodies. Of them, the Local Bodies received maximum grants (29% to 48.2% during 1951-52 and 1960-61 and 69.1% to 95.2% during 1961-62 and 1973-74).

5.5 'Indirect Charges' on education in Orissa from 1951-52 to 1973-74 contained some temporary items like (i) Charges in
England (ii) Post-War Development (iii) Promotion of Art and Culture (iv) Grant-in-aid/ contributions, and (v) Development of Hindi and State Languages and some permanent items like (i) Direction (ii) Inspection (iii) Scholarship (iv) Miscellaneous, and (v) Works. Of these all, the item ‘Miscellaneous’ received more funds.

5.6 A review of expenditure on education in relation to other Social Services like Medical, Public Health, Labour and Employment and Miscellaneous indicated that priority was accorded to education vis-a-vis other Social Services from 1951-52 to 1973-74 which always received a lion’s share (48.0% to 70.0%).

5.7 The major sources of educational expenditure were (i) Government (ii) Local Bodies (iii) Fees, and (iv) Endowments and other sources. The lion’s share of educational finance was always met from the Government exchequer. The contribution of the Local Bodies was marginal. The ‘Fees’ always continued to be just below 17 per cent. The flow of funds from ‘Endowments’ registered a substantial increase.

5.8 The per capita expenditure on education was the lowest in Orissa among all the States of India on the eve of the First Plan. The per capita expenditure on education was less than a rupee in Orissa in
1950-51 which increased to Rs.4.3 in 1960-61; Rs.4.5 in 1961-62; Rs.6.7 in 1962-63; Rs.7.1 in 1963-64; Rs.7.2 in 1964-65 and Rs.8.5 in 1965-66. This per capita expenditure again increased to Rs.88.33 in 1986-87 (14th position among the States of India). Only two States of India namely Bihar and Madhya Pradesh had less per capita expenditure on education than Orissa. Hence per capita expenditure on education in Orissa was always less as compared to other States of India.

CHAPTER VI: ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ORISSA

6.1 Local bodies have been entrusted with the administration of primary education in almost all the countries of the world. But the role of the local bodies in the administration of primary education varies from country to country due to sociological, historical and political causes.

6.2 In England, the association of local bodies with the administration of primary education arose partly out of cultural and partly out of historical considerations. It was thought that direct State control on
education would be extremely harmful and thus local bodies were involved in the administration of primary education.

6.3 In America, education has been excluded from the purview of the Federal authority. Each State is free to have its own system of education. Although many States have included education in their Constitution, yet education is mainly the responsibility of local authorities.

6.4 In Australia, a centralised pattern of education was evolved right from the beginning. The centralised administration of Australia provided good schools even in sparsely populated areas and maintained high standards in thickly populated towns as well as in places where the density of population is very meagre. But, owing to the disadvantages of centralised pattern of education, a decentralised system of education has been thought of.

6.5 In France, there is only one local body i.e. the Communes which have supreme authority in their own sphere. The Communes contribute a smaller amount to the expenditure on primary education.
6.6 In New Zealand, two local bodies exercise powers over primary education. Both the School Committee and Local Education Board function smoothly in New Zealand.

6.7 In USSR, local education is administered by the Executive Committees of the Soviets. There are elected bodies in districts and localities which appoint teachers, prepare school budgets and supervise education.

6.8 In India, education as a department did not exist till 1945. At that time it was attached with Health and Agriculture. In 1945, each of these departments were separated. After independence in 1947, the Department of Education was given the charge of Scientific Research. Again, in 1958, the Ministry of Education and Scientific Research were split into two independent Ministries - the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Scientific Research and Cultural Affairs.

Later on, the Ministry of Education was renamed as Ministry of Human Resource Development on 26th September, 1985. This Ministry consists of five departments - Department of Education, Department of Culture, Department of Arts, Department of Youth Affairs and Sports and Department of Women's Welfare.
6.8.1 Kher Committee was appointed in 1951 to look into the relationships between the State Governments and Local Bodies. The Committee recommended that the Local Bodies should be associated with the administration of primary education in some form or other.

6.8.2 Kothari Commission was appointed in 1964. The Commission recommended, “it is essential that schools and their local communities should be intimately associated in the educational process”.

6.9 In Orissa, the Department of Education has two wings - the Secretariat and the Directorate. The Secretariat is directly associated with the activities of the Minister of Education. The Education Secretary is the Chief Administrative Officer of the Secretariat. He is assisted by a number of officers and ministerial staff.

Directorate is essentially an executive body. It executes the policies of the Government in the field of education. The Directorate of Elementary education in Orissa looks after the primary education.
CHAPTER VII: DEVELOPMENT OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS OF ORISSA

This chapter deals with the comparison of the development of primary education in urban and rural areas of Orissa.

CHAPTER VIII: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A summary of all the chapters of the thesis with findings, recommendations and conclusion have been presented in this chapter.

8.2 FINDINGS

1. Primary Schools managed by Local Bodies were of the highest frequency and constituted 92.12 per cent of the total number.

2. The rate of growth of Primary Schools of Orissa was higher than the country for the period 1965 to 1973 (it was 30.23% for Orissa and 18.95% for India).

3. The increase of Primary Schools/Sections was 32 per cent in rural areas and 35.12 per cent in urban areas.
4. 99.2 per cent schools were co-educational. Both in urban and rural areas, maximum Local Body managed primary schools were co-educational (92.12% in rural and 91.84% in urban).

5. Urban Primary Schools had more pucca buildings than rural primary schools and rural primary schools had more kuchha accommodation than urban primary schools.

6. Inadequacy of accommodation in primary schools was found both in Government and Local Body managed schools with highest incidence in the rural sector.

7. Buildings of 95.99 per cent rural schools and 87.53 per cent urban schools were originally constructed for school purposes. Buildings of 4.13 per cent primary schools in urban areas were originally constructed for other purposes and were subsequently converted into primary schools whereas this percentage was only .68 in rural areas.

8. Both urban and rural primary schools were used for other activities like accommodating other schools, panchayat meetings, religious gatherings, part-time classes and library. Rural primary schools were way ahead of urban schools in matters of panchayat meetings and part-time classes
whereas urban primary schools were way ahead of rural primary schools in matters of accommodating other schools, religious gatherings and library.

9. The mean area of the entire school campus for rural primary schools was fairly larger than urban schools (1686.35 Sq.metre for rural and 1256.58 Sq.metre for urban). The mean area used for instructional purpose in urban schools was almost double than the rural schools.

10. The rural primary schools had more agricultural orientation than urban primary schools.

11. The shortage of classrooms is more in the rural sector than in the urban sector.

12. The percentage of schools having space for expansion were 64.14 and 79.22 for urban and rural areas respectively.

13. More Government schools had play-ground facility in urban areas (61.64%) than schools under Local Body management (29.19%). In rural areas, there was no such difference.
14. Very meagre primary schools (.38%) offered hostel facilities for their students. Rural primary schools were way ahead of urban primary schools in providing hostel facilities.

15. Only 9.49 per cent rural primary schools had library facility as against 15.24 per cent urban schools.

16. In matters of physical facilities like electricity, drainage system, lavatories etc. urban primary schools were better off than rural primary schools.

17. Single-teacher schools were found more in number both in urban and rural areas in comparison to other categories of schools.

18. Balasore district saw the maximum enrolment of children into primary schools (96.03%) and Mayurbhanj district saw the minimum enrolment (55.08%).

19. There was urban-rural imbalances in the staffing of schools. Rural schools with higher enrolment were managed by relatively less number of teachers.
20. Girls accounted for 36 per cent of the total enrolment in primary schools. The SCs and STs accounted for 14.26 per cent and 18.13 per cent respectively of the total enrolment.

21. In general, the unrecognised schools attracted more girl students than the recognised institutions. The recognised and unrecognised urban primary schools attracted more girls than the recognised and unrecognised rural primary schools.

22. Most rural schools operated on a higher teacher-pupil ratio (1:31-60).

23. 92.6 per cent of population were served with primary school facilities either in their own habitations or within the walking distance of 1.5 Kms.

8.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The physical access to school plays an important role in child schooling. The child schooling indicators decline as the distance to schooling increases. Hence, early steps should be taken to open schools in own habitations or within the walking distance of 1 Km. from the home of the
child. Under no circumstances, the child should walk more than 1 Km. to attend a primary school.

2. 'Single teacher schools' should be abolished forthwith. ‘One teacher-one class’ system should be introduced.

3. Early steps should be taken for providing adequate accommodation in urban and rural primary schools (one class-room one teacher system should be adopted).

4. Physical facilities like library, play-ground, garden, electricity, drinking water, lavatory etc. should be made available to each primary school both in urban and rural areas.

5. Rigorous steps should be taken to enrol each and every child of the age-group 6-11 in urban and rural primary schools. This can be done in the following ways.

   (i) Village/Community Youths should be mobilised to take initiative in surveying and admitting children of the age-group 6-11 in primary schools for which they should be given some incentive.
(ii) Primary school teachers of the concerned village/pada/sahi/area should be assigned the duty of inspiring the parents to send their wards to primary schools. Teachers performing this duty satisfactorily should be duly honoured.

(iii) Mobile party should be appointed on regular basis who will go from village to village (in case of rural area) and area to area (in case of urban area) to mobilise the illiterate parents to send their children to schools.

6. It is now generally accepted that education, as a source of social mobility, equality, an empowerment, both at the individual and at the collective level, is imperative for women who constitute half of the human kind. A particularly notable observation is the persistence of gender differences in educational outcomes. Rigorous steps should be taken to admit each and every girl child of the age-group 6-11 into primary schools of urban and rural areas. This can be done in the following ways:

(i) If needed, separate girls' primary schools should be opened.

(ii) The system of Scholarship for girls should be introduced.
(iii) Ancillary services like free books, slates, pencils, papers (even uniform) should be given to girl children.

7. The progress of education has not been uniform across the State of Orissa and between different sub-groups of the population. Special care should be taken for admitting the Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe children into primary schools both in urban and rural areas. This gigantic task can be taken up in the following ways:

(i) If needed, special primary schools (Ashram schools) should be opened for SC and ST children.

(ii) If need be, these Ashram schools should be residential in nature.

(iii) The system of 'stipend' should be introduced for the SC and ST children.

(iv) The SC and ST children should be provided with ancillary services like books, slates, pencils, paper, bags, uniform etc. free of cost.

8. Like SC and ST children, the children of backward communities should be attended to with great care. In order to enrol these children in
primary schools, scholarship and ancillary services including mid-day meal should be provided.

9. Special attention should be given to the districts where enrolment of children of the age-group 6-11 is less than satisfactory. Devices like compulsion and persuasion should be applied in these districts.

10. Adequate number of teachers (one teacher-one class formula) should be appointed in primary schools. Teachers should be given incentive to work in rural areas, hilly areas and inaccessible areas.

11. It is proved beyond doubt that women teachers are better than men teachers in primary schools. Hence, as far as practicable, women teachers should be appointed in primary schools.

12. Investment in children’s schooling confers several benefits to the children, their family, as well as to the society. Educational investments enhance children’s future employment opportunities, earning capacity and bring about improvement in their health and nutritional status. Increased levels of schooling also lead to reduction in family size, better quality of life etc. For the society as a whole, investment in schooling
improves the skills and productivity of the labour force, increases the standard of living of the people, advances the potential of the economy, and leads to a more equitable distribution of income. Hence, the Government of Orissa should allocate more funds to primary education.

But Orissa is a poor State. She suffers from resource constraints. In order to overcome this, the following measures have been suggested:

(i) Education should not rest on the depleted State finance. On the contrary, a greater private financing should be encouraged.

(ii) An education cess should be fixed which will generate more resources. Even a small cess or an education levy on non-essential commodities or services like rail/air tickets will generate a substantial amount of resources for education.

(iii) Resources for education can also be generated by cess on items like imports (as in Pakistan).

(iv) In some Latin American countries like Chile, lotteries are run and bonds are floated to generate supplementary resources for
education. The educational vouchers being issued in countries like the USA and the UK can be viewed as additional resources.

(v) Individuals and organisations should be encouraged to make large endowments and donations to the education sector.

(vi) China has allowed Local Governments to raise additional for education through various means of taxation. Tax on each farmer, government employee, sale value of private business, construction etc. is utilised for financing education by local governments. Like China, Orissa can also apply the system of collecting extra revenue in the quest of spreading primary education among the masses.

13. In view of the crucial role of education in economic development, it should be assigned an independent and autonomous status of a broad ‘head of development’ - in the categorisation of Plan outlays. Education should be taken out of the heterogenous range of ‘Social Services’ and be assigned a status of its own.

14. Allocation of resources to the education sector must not be determined by the residual available after other so-called ‘priority’ needs of the
allocation of resources to education should be based on certain well defined meaningful physical norms and rational criteria. There should not be any discrimination of urban and rural areas in allocation of resource.

8.4 CONCLUSION

Primary education has been relatively neglected in the overall development of education in India. The constitutional guarantee of free and compulsory education for the age-group 6-14 years under Article 45 of the Constitution has not yet been fulfilled even after 50 years of independence. Several attempts have been made to restructure the primary education and to expand it to areas which have been found underdeveloped. But the enrolment rate at the primary stage in the nine educationally backward States (which includes Orissa) is found to be less than satisfactory. The Fourth All-India Educational Survey has indicated that out of 44,74,636 primary schools in the country, 34.75 per cent were managed by single teachers and only 8.85 per cent schools had more than five teachers. Most of these schools are located in the rural areas. Though a number of studies in the area of drop-out and stagnation at primary education have been undertaken, the focus of these studies is mainly concentrated in explaining academic factors responsible for
such a situation. It appears that the overall socio-economic, cultural and educational background of the students and their parents in the rural and urban settings have not been clearly brought out as factors responsible for the existing situation in primary education in the country. The status of the teacher, the institutional structure, the content of education, the school environment and the cost differences between the rural and the urban schools are to be studied to understand the dual nature of primary education. It is also found in recent years that there is an increasing trend of privatisation of primary education in the name of elite English medium convents. This type of attitude both on the part of the society and the State is detrimental to the development of free and compulsory primary education in the country. The developed regions, more particularly the urban centres have not adequately been provided the much needed leadership role suitable for the development of primary education in rural areas.

The literacy rate in the country has remained less than 55 per cent mainly due to lack of facilities in the rural areas. It is true that suitable content, structure and awareness among the people with regard to primary education are also lacking. But it is to be recognised that there is a contrast in the development of primary education. It is essential to differentiate
between the organisational, pedagogical and socio-economic structure of primary education in the rural and urban areas and then study the problems as distinct from each other. Once this is established, a uniform and unilateral solution for the development of primary education can be pursued. It is with this paradigm in mind that the present study has been undertaken.

The failure to achieve universalisation of elementary education in Orissa is found to be due to lack of enthusiasm among the majority of population who live in the rural areas. On the other hand, the rapid development of education and thus literacy rates in the urban areas is not entirely due to rapid rates of migration, but due to other factors. The contrasting development of primary education between urban and rural areas can be understood in the light of the structure of the whole society, its resources, environment and disposition. This brings out the fact that the existing schemes and programmes introduced by Government to promote primary education have failed to deliver the goods. However, a uniform strategy of retaining children beyond the second standard through economic and other incentives appear to be worth trying. There is also a need to revise the content of the courses at 4th and 5th standards incorporating the immediate work environment of the parents of the children. At least the teachers should
be oriented to undertake such innovative ideas at the primary level. The study shows that there is no single and universal solution to the problem of universalisation of primary education. As long as the structure, socio-economic and educational background of the rural and urban population continue to be dual, the strategy for the development of primary education should bound to be dual, multi-dimensional and uninterrupted.