Teacher Education in India

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THE KOTHARI COMMISSION

AND

TEACHER EDUCATION IN INDIA

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by*

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A THESIS

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ABSTRACT

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The purpose of this study is to delineate the efforts to improve teacher education in India in relation to recommendations made by the Education Commission (the Kothari Commission) in 1964-66 to the Indian government. These recommendations covered the training of primary and of secondary school teachers and other related fields such as in-service teacher training, the higher education of teachers, the education of language teachers and the proposed increase in the number of women teachers.

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The study will show that the suggested improvements were, on the whole, not carried out. Reasons for this include a lack of funds, the constraints of educational decentralization, the excessive power of the universities and public indifference.

RESUME

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Cette étude examine les efforts de la Commission de l'Education (Commission Kothari) pour tenter d'améliorer la formation des éducateurs aux Indes: recommandations proposées au gouvernement de l'Inde en 1964-66. Ces recommandations se rapportent à la formation initiale des maîtres de niveau primaire et secondaire, aux services de perfectionnement et d'études supérieures, à la formation des professeurs de langues et enfin à une[®]augmentation accrue d'éducateurs féminins.

Cette étude démontre que l'application de ces amendements n'a pas été effectuée. La décentralisation du système éducatif, l'ingérence des universités, l'état financier et l'indifférence populaire ont été indentifiées comme les causes primordiales de cet échec.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 1964, under the chairmanship of Professor D. S. Kothari, the Indian Education Commission (the Kothari Commission) was appointed to study India's educational problems and to recommend a long-term national policy on education "with sufficient flexibility to enable it to adjust itself to rapidly changing circumstances and needs".¹ Its recommendations for an improvement of the Indian educational system over a period of twenty years were presented to the Indian government in 1966, and the government consulted them in the formulation of its National Policy on Education in 1968. The resolutions of this Policy were made use of in the Fourth Five Year Plan for the years 1969-74.

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The Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study will be to delineate the efforts to reform teacher education in India subsequent to the recommendations made by the Kothari Commission. More specifically, the study proposes to

UNESCO, International Yearbook of Education, 1967, Vol. XXIX (Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1967), p. 190.

show that up to and including the year 1974, attempts to act upon these recommendations have been either desultory or nonexistent. This conclusion has been arrived at through a study of documentary sources referring to the Indian educational system.

Justification of the Study

A recent review of educational research in India has stated that there is "no study which covers the whole country in any single aspect of teacher education".² The author believes that a systematic study of the execution of those recommendations made by the Kothari Commission of 1964-66 on teacher education in India has not been done. In addition, the author's personal interest in India has made the task of researching the study a more interesting one.

Organization of the Thesis

The thesis has been divided into six chapters, which include the Introduction and the Conclusion. The first of the four remaining chapters is devoted to an analytical study of the Kothart Commission, the Fourth Five Year Plan, and the structure of India's educational

²M. B. Buch, ed., <u>A Survey of Research in Education</u> (Baroda: Centre of Advanced Study in Education, M.S. University of Baroda, 1974), p. 17.

system. The subsequent chapters deal with primary school teacher education, secondary school teacher education and special problems in teacher education. These special problems include in-service teacher education, post-graduate teacher education, the problems of women teacher trainees, and language teacher education.

Survey of Literature

Written source materials used for this thesis include government publications, books on teaching and teacher training, dissertations, and current newspapers and periodicals.

Several books were useful as background sources on the history of Indian education after independence. Among these, <u>Society</u>, <u>Schools and Progress in India</u>³ gives an excellent historical review of Indian education, and <u>Educational Documents in India</u>⁴ provides descriptions of educational documents produced between 1813 and 1968. <u>Secondary School Teacher Education in Transition</u>⁵ presents additional information in its introduction.

Sir John Sargent, <u>Society</u>, <u>Schools and Progress in India</u> (Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd., 1968).

B. D. Bhatt and J. C. Aggarwal, ed., Educational Documents in India (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, 1969).

⁵John P. Lipkin, <u>Secondary School Teacher Education in</u> <u>Transition</u> (Bombay: Asia Publishing House, 1970).

The main sourcebook for this study is the Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66⁶ (the Kothari Commission Report). Not only does this report make proposals for the improvement of teacher education in India, but it gives a brief review of the teacher education system in 1964 and its failings. The Kothari Commission Report, subtitled "Education and National Development", covers the entire educational system of India in its one volume which is 692 pages long. This volume is divided into four major sections and deals with every facet of Indian education, including administration and structure, types of schools, curriculum and financing education. The chapter on teacher education covers twenty pages of the report. Its findings are supported by other studies done in individual states and institutions, such as the Report of the Study Group on the Education of Secondary Teachers in India ' and the Survey of Teacher Education in India.⁸ In 1970, a supplementary Volume II of the Kothari Commission Report was published, which provided educational statistics for the period.

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Central Institute of Education, Survey of Teacher Education in India (New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1963).

Ministry of Education, Government of India, Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66 (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1966).

⁷All India Association of Training Colleges in India, Report of the Study Group on the Education of Secondary Teachers in India (Baroda: All India Association of Training Colleges in India, 1964).

Following the publication of the Kothari Commission Report, a series of independent studies by government and state departments have been produced. Among the most important are the publications of the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) on elementary and secondary school teacher education, particularly its The Third Indian Year Book of Education,⁹ which contains recent information on teacher training. A useful sourcebook of educational statistics is India: A Reference Annual¹⁰ published by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. The Ministry of Education and Youth Services has also published recent studies on teacher education, the education of women and rural education. Furthermore, some of the state institutes of education have also presented reports, one of which is the Report of the Chandigarh Education Conference¹¹ of 1970. Information on the results in educational planning of those recommendations made by the Kothari Commission were provided by the Fourth Five Year Plan, its mid-term appraisal, and the subsequent Annual Plans.

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⁹S. B. Adaval, ed., <u>The Third Indian Year Book of Education</u> (New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1968).

¹⁰Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, India: A <u>Reference Annual, 1972</u>, (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1972).

¹¹State Institute of Education, Chandigarh, Report of the <u>Chandigarh Education Conference</u> (Chandigarh: State Institute of Education, 1970).

Books reviewed for this thesis include publications on teacher training in general, broad studies of Asian and of Indian educational problems, descriptions of the teaching profession in India, specific studies of teacher education in India, and reviews and criticisms of the Education Commission.

International sources used include the <u>International</u> <u>Yearbooks of Education</u>, published by UNESCO, and other UNESCO sponsored studies, such as the <u>Systems Approach to</u> <u>Teacher Training and Curriculum Development</u>.¹² The <u>World Year Books of Education</u> **also** provided a good source of information for the study of teacher training in other countries. Commissions on teacher training in other nations, such as the James Report in Britain,¹³ served as an additional basis for comparison.

Studies of educational problems in the developing nations of Asia include J. Lowe's <u>Education and Nation</u> <u>Building in the Third World</u>,¹⁴ Don Adams' <u>Education and</u>

¹²Taher A. Razik, Systems Approach to Teacher Training and Curriculum Development (Paris: UNESCO, 1972).

¹³Department of Education and Science, <u>Teacher Education</u> and <u>Training</u> (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1972).

¹⁴J. Lowe, N. Grant, et. al., ed., Education and Nation Building in the Third World (Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press, 1971).

Modernization in Asia¹⁵ and reports presented by the ICET-FEUM (International Council on Education for Teaching and the Faculty of Education, University of Malaya) in 1970.¹⁶ In addition, the Asian Institute for Teacher Educators' study of teacher education in Asia¹⁷ proved to be a useful and up-to-date source of knowledge. An Indian educator's view of education is presented by J. C. Aggarwal's book, Recent Educational Developments in the World.¹⁸

Two reference books, co-edited by Arabinda Biswas, are invaluable aids for the study of the Indian educational system.¹⁹ Furthermore, some of India's universities, such as the University of Baroda, have published surveys of research on Indian education.²⁰ Two other studies, one a

¹⁷Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia</u> (Bankok: Regional Office for Education in Asia, <u>1972</u>).

- ¹⁸J. C. Aggarwal, <u>Recent Educational Developments in the</u> World (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, 1971).
- ¹⁹Arabinda Biswas and J. C. Aggarwal, <u>Education in India</u> (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, 1972).

Arabinda Biswas and Suren Agrawal, ed., <u>Indian Educational</u> <u>Documents Since Independence</u> (New Delhi: The Academic Publishers, 1971).

²⁰M. B. Buch, ed., <u>A Survey of Research in Education</u>.

¹⁵Don Adams, <u>Education and Modernization in Asia</u> (Boston: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1970).

¹⁶ICET-FEUM, Curriculum Evaluation in Teacher Education in <u>S.E. Asia</u> (University of Malaya: ICET-FEUM, 1970).

dissertation on rural education in India²¹ and the other, a description of the regional colleges of education,²² are also informative. Other sources referred to were inquiries into the causes for the large numbers, of unemployed graduates (the origin of many untrained teachers), the attitudes of students and of their parents towards teachers, the universities' position vis-à-vis the government, the language problem, and the Indian woman teacher. With this information and with the <u>Times of India</u> Yearbooks as a guide to contemporary events, it was possible to gain an understanding of India's educational problems.

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An acquaintance with the working conditions of teachers in India was gathered through publications on the sociology of the teaching profession in India and on inservice studies of teachers. One such critique is R. P. Singh's The Indian Teacher.²³

Some of the teacher training institutions have published their own accounts of the training carried out and of the progress of their students. The regional

²¹M. V. A. Khan, "Rural Education in India and Mexico" (Houston: University of Houston, D.Ed. Thesis, 1963).

²²John Thomas, <u>India's Regional Colleges of Education</u> (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1971).

²³R. P. Singh, The Indian Teacher (New Delhi: National Publishing House, 1969).

colleges of education published their <u>Plan and Programme</u>²⁴ in 1963, and the Central Institute of Education, under the directorship of the National Council of Educational Research and Training, has made several studies. One useful source on the education of secondary school teachers is <u>Whither</u> <u>Secondary Education</u>,²⁵ which contains a great deal of information on teacher training colleges.

Most reviews and criticisms of the Education Commission are included in those most recent texts read on Indian education. One condensed version of the Education Commission is <u>Kothari Commission on School Education</u>, <u>A</u> Recapitulation and Review.²⁶

Of the educational periodicals reviewed, the <u>Times Educational Supplement</u>, the <u>International Review of</u> <u>Education and Comparative Education</u> were useful as was the <u>Indian Education Review</u>. Finally, the <u>Hindustan Times</u>, one of India's leading newspapers, proved to be a good source for recent developments in teacher education.

²⁶ M. V. Rajagopål, Kothari Commission on School Education, <u>A Recapitulation and Review (Machilipatham: Telugu</u> Vidyardhi Prachuranalu, 1967).

²⁴ Regional Colleges Unit, Plan and Programme: Regional Colleges of Education (New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1963):

²⁵ G. S. Mansukhani and G. S. Dhillon, ed., Whither Secondary Education (New Delhi: Oxford & Ibh Publishing Co., 1973).

CHAPTER II

THE KOTHARI COMMISSION

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THE FOURTH FIVE YEAR PLAN

Since India's attainment of independence in 1947, the Indian government has taken a special interest in education as a part of the national development of the country and has appointed education commissions to study Indian education and to make recommendations for its improvement. After an education commission submits its report to the central government, the National Planning Commission then adopts some of the recommendations in the formulation of its Five Year Plans. The central government then has the task of advising on the implementation of its educational projects and financing the state educational budgets.

The last commission before Indian independence was the Sargent Report of 1944. This document emphasized the importance of developing a national system of education for India. Unfortunately, the Sargent Report was largely ignored because of the imputation that it was a "British" report and because it stressed long-term planning. However, some of its suggestions have found their way into later reports.

Following independence, India has become increasingly concerned with the effects of educational planning on national development. Accordingly, the Constitution of 1950 emphasized the importance of mass education and the eradication of illiteracy, and the National Planning Commission, founded in 1951, included education as one of its objectives for the Five Year One of the most important education documents of Plans. the post-independence period was the Mudaliar Commission on Secondary Education of 1953, which stated that "the most important factor in the contemplated educational reconstruction is the teacher".¹ In the case of the Mudaliar Commission, as well as that of previous commissions, the funds made available for teacher. training were not enough for a substantial improvement except in a few states and urban centres.²

Ten years after the Mudaliar Commission, the Central Advisory Board of Education, which is responsible for the appointment of education commissions, recommended the setting-up of a new commission, which would look at education in India as a whole and advise the government on

- ¹B. D. Bhatt and J. C. Aggarwal, ed., <u>Educational Documents</u> <u>in India</u> (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, 1969), p. 147.
- ²Ministry of Education and Youth Services, Government of India, <u>Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, <u>Supplementary Volume II</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1970), p. 294.

"the national pattern of education".³ This new education commission was the Kothari Commission.

Before turning to the recommendations of the Kothari Commission, a brief description of the system of educational administration in India bears mentioning. As with Canada and the United States, the Indian educational system is essentially a provincial or state one, although responsibility is shared among four main educational authorities, including the central government, the state governments, local school boards, and private agencies.

The Constitution of 1950 ceded control of primary and secondary education from the central government to the state governments, although the central government has retained the right to act in an "advisory capacity".⁴ The central government's principal role is in providing financial aid to the states for education.⁵ Although the central government does maintain responsibility for some of the institutions of higher learning, such as Delhi University, Aligarh Muslim University, and schools of

³Arabinda Biswas and Suren Agrawal, ed., <u>Indian Educational</u> <u>Documents Since Independence</u> (New Delhi: The Academic Publishers, 1971), p. 3.

John P. Lipkin, Secondary School Teacher Education in Transition (Bombay: Asia Publishing House, 1970), p. 20.

⁵J. P. Naik, <u>Educational Planning in India</u> (Bombay: Allied Publishers, 1965), p. 131.

medicine, its control over them is exercised mainly "through persuasion".⁶ The University Grants Commission (UGC) receives a lump sum of money from the central government which it has the responsibility of dividing among those universities under the control of the central government. However, the "basic concept underlying the UGC is that development plans and formulation of policy is left to a 'judgement by peers'".⁷ Therefore, the universities' wishes are strongly represented in the UGC. Other responsibilities of the central government include responsibility for education in the Union Territories, cultural programs, institutions for technical and vocational training, and the direction of educational research and training through the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT). These duties are carried out by the Ministry of Education and Youth Services, under the direction of the Union Education Minister. A Minister of State in Education and two Deputy Ministers of Education assist the Union Minister.

^oAsian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia (Bangkok: Regional Office for Education in Asia,</u> 1972), p. 104.

D. S. Kothari, Education, Science and National Development (New York: Asia Publishing House, 1970), p. 71.

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In each state, a Ministry of Education has "overall responsibility for policy making".⁸ Usually, two departments of education exist, one for primary and secondary education and one for higher education. Depending on the states' preferences, either department can administer primary teacher training institutions. The secondary teacher training institutions are the responsibility of the universities, as far as the setting of curriculum and examination standards is concerned. A large amount of the financing of both kinds of institution is provided by the central government, either directly through grants-in-aid or indirectly through the state departments. This system of educational administration closely parallels that of Canada, where the British North America Act made education a provincial responsibility. The same problem of the size and the diversity of the states and of the provinces bedevils the efforts of the two federal governments to make the system more uniform. The dissimilarities among the Indian states produce variations in the states' ability to provide good teacher training. In 1964, some states, like Madras, Kerala and Punjab, offered good facilities for teacher training, while others, like West Bengal or Assam,

Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> in Asia, p. 104.

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offered poor facilities.⁹ Since then, although much has been achieved by the UGC (the University Grants Commission) in the standardization of instruction and the improvement of facilities, the UGC report for 1972-73 stated that these disparities still exist in higher education.¹⁰

Since the central government lacks administrative powers over the states; it cannot easily check on the actual use of funds allocated by the National Planning Commission to the states and on the implementation of its educational priorities. Therefore, planning is largely confined to "financial and quantitative projections".¹¹ Between 1951 and 1974, there were four Plans, each of which had a fiveyear duration. Within each Plan, the role of the Planning Commission is to make a decision on the national priorities and on the division of funds among the states. However, no long-term project in education can be completed under one Plan and some of the more ambitious projects, such as basic education, have suffered from a lack of continuous supervisory control by either the individual states or the

⁹Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> <u>Education Commission: 1964-66</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1966), p. 83.

¹⁰Narender K. Sehgal, Jullundur, "Educating India", <u>Nature</u>, Vol. 254 (March 6, 1975), p. 9.

¹¹Prem Kirpal, "Modernization of Education in South Asia", <u>International Review of Education</u>, Vol. 17, No. 2 (1971), p. 141.

central government, and from a lack of finances. Therefore, only the education commissions, such as the Kothari Commission and others, are able to propose improvements in Indian education.over a period of more than one Plan.

The Education Commission, under the chairmanship of Professor D. S. Kotharı, was appointed by M. C. Chagla, Education Minister of India in 1964, "to advise the Government on the national pattern of education and on the general principles and policies for the development of education at all stages and in all aspects".¹² Members of the Commission were drawn from both India and from five UNESCO nations (§.S.A., United Kingdom, Japan, France, U.S.S.R.) and consultants from other countries were also brought in. Its report reviewed the entire Indian educational system and its recommendations were projected over a period of twenty years. They were the basis for the National Policy on Education (1967-68), which adopted the report of the Commission "in part after it was modified",¹³ and advised a larger expenditure on Indian education.

¹²Ministry of Education, Government of India, Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66, p. i.

¹³Rinn-Sup Shinn et al., ed., <u>Area Handbook for India</u> (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970), p. 218.

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The introduction of "work experience" and "social service" into the educational system was among the main themes of the Kothari Commission. In addition, the Commission emphasized the expansion of elementary education and the improvement of teacher status and teacher education. Teacher education was considered important because of its influence on national development ("Investment in teacher education can yield very rich dividends because the financial resources required are small when measured against the resulting improvements in the education of millions.").¹⁴

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Teacher education in India is divided into two main areas of primary school teacher education and secondary school teacher education. Institutions for primary school teacher education are administered by their respective state governments. The minimum qualification for admission is ten or eleven years of schooling,¹⁵ and secondary school matriculation is considered important but not always necessary. Several types of primary school teacher training institutions exist, of which the traditional training institution, often privately administered, and the state institutes are the most common.

¹⁴Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 67.

¹⁵Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> in Asia, p. 406.

Their programs are of one- or two-years duration, and offer degrees such as teacher certification (for the usual oneor two-year program) and the Senior Teachers' Certificate (for university graduates taking a one-year program).

The typical institution for secondary school teacher education offers a one-year program designed for university graduates. A few four-year programs for secondary school graduates also exist. The majority of these institutions belong to the large group of "affiliating" colleges in India. These are colleges which are financed mainly by the state and by private interests, administered mainly by the local school board, and which receive advice and some direction from the university to which they are affiliated. Secondary school teacher training is also carried out in " government institutions and in arts and science colleges. Upon completion of either the one- or the four-year program, the graduate receives a B.Ed. degree.

The most important recommendations made by the Kothari Commission in the field of teacher education were closer cooperation between teacher training institutions, the improvement of training programs and of training institutions, the provision for in-service training, and the creation of "appropriate agencies . . . for the

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maintenance of standards in teacher education".¹⁶

Closer Cooperation between the Institutions

The separation of the teacher training institutions from each other is an especial problem for the primary school teacher training institutions. They are usually small in size and are without contact with the universities, local schools or with each other. On the other hand, many of the secondary school teacher training colleges are, in general, colleges affiliated with the universities, and a few have an experimental school in which student teachers may practice. The Kothari Commission suggested bringing the primary and secondary teacher training institutions closer to the universities, by introducing "education" courses into the university undergraduate program and by encouraging research in education. By establishing an extension service department in every teacher training institution and by encouraging more practice teaching, the institutions could have a closer relationship with the surrounding schools. In addition, by bringing each institution up to university standards and by establishing state-controlled colleges of education and a State Board of Education, the institutions would enjoy a better relationship. In order to bring about these improvements,

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¹⁶Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 68.

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the training programs, facilities and staff would need some remodelling.

Improvement of Training Programs and Training Institutions

According to the Kothari Commission, the qualifications of the staff of the training institutions needed upgrading. The training programs also needed revision, and in order to better the quality of teacher graduates, the Commission advised that no secondary school teacher be allowed to specialize in a subject unless he had acceptable qualifications in that subject prior to his training.¹⁷ Furthermore, the rapidly increasing school enrolment made necessary the expansion of teacher training facilities.

In-service Training

The provision of in-service education for the training of administrators and teacher-educators and for the re-training of primary and secondary teachers was also proposed by the Commission, which considered the continuing education of teachers an important factor in their training.¹⁸ In order to keep teachers on top of their subject, they

¹⁷Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> <u>Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, p. 78.

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 84-87.

would be expected to attend summer institutes, seminars and workshops once every five years.

Agencies

The creation of new agencies, such as State Boards of Teacher Education, "for planning and development of teacher education", ¹⁹ would, the Kothari Commission thought, help safeguard the maintenance of high standards in teacher education. As well, a Joint Standing Committee on Teacher Education could be set up by the University Grants Commission (UGC) in collaboration with the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT). The Committee would have the power to supervise teacher education, to advise on all organizational aspects, and to inspect and grant funds to teaching institutions.²⁰ Substantial financial support from the central government and a corps of well-informed experts would be needed in order to establish this Committee. Both it and the State Boards of Teacher Education would help to bring the teacher training institutions into "the main stream of university academic life".²¹

²¹Ibid.

¹⁹J. P. Naik, <u>The Main Recommendations of the Report of the</u> <u>'Education Commission</u> (New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1969), p. 17.

²⁰Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> <u>Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, p. 87.

Following the submission of the Kothari Commission Report, a National Policy on Education was published in 1968 by the Indian government.²² This National Policy formed the basis for educational planning in the Fourth Five Year Plan. Of the seventeen principles stated on the improvement of education in the National Policy on Education, only one dealt with teacher status, salaries and education, and it emphasized that:

Teacher education, particularly in-service education should receive high priority. Teachers must be accorded an honoured place in society, their emoluments and other service conditions should be adequate, and their academic freedom should be guaranteed.²³

Despite the emphasis placed by the Education Commission on the problems of curriculum in teacher training institutions-the necessity of provision for more facilities and the importance of educational research--these priorities escaped the attention of the National Policy on Education. In order to carry out the recommendations of the Education Commission which it had included in its principles, the National Policy stated that a doubling of the national expenditure on education from 3 to 6 per cent of the national budget would be necessary. It admitted that this was an

Prem Kirpal, "Modernization of Education in South Asia", <u>International Review of Education</u>, Vol. 17, No. 2 (1971), p. 141.

²³Ibid.

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"ambitious target".²⁴ Following the issue of the National Policy, the National Planning Commission did the budgeting for government expenditure on education during the Fourth Five Year Plan.

The Fourth Five Year Plan was intended to cover the years 1966-71, but was delayed until 1969, owing to a severe drought and the interruption of the 1965 Indo-Pakistani conflict. However, the delay did enable the National Planning Commission to review the National Policy and to include in the Plan more recommendations of the Education Commission which it considered to be of value. It made several projections for teacher education over the next five years. Training institutions, except for those for the teaching of Hindi, would not be increased in number, although an emphasis was placed on improving the quality of teacher education. Funds for the improvement of physical facilities of the departments of education in university and in secondary school teacher training colleges and for the upgrading of competence of their teacher educators would be provided. In-service training, particularly for science and mathematics teachers, would be emphasized; and the training of more women teachers and

²⁴Prem Kirpal, "Modernization of Education in South Asia", <u>International Review of Education</u>, Vol. 17, No. 2 (1971), p. 144.

teachers from the tribal and scheduled caste minorities was planned.²⁵

Despite the requirements for a doubling of the national expenditure on teacher education in order to carry out the recommendations of the Education Commission, the amount budgeted during the Fourth Plan has actually been less than that spent during the Third Plan (23 crores of rupees under the Third Plan; 21.17 crores of rupees under the Fourth Plan).²⁶ Reasons for this decrease include the fact that during the period of 1966-69 there was a surplus of teachers in several states. This surplus had been created by the withdrawal of educational funds for the Indo-Pakistani conflict, thus leaving some of the states unable to employ new teacher graduates. After the crisis had passed, it was concluded that because of the number of unemployed teacher graduates, new teacher training institutions would not be needed in most states and, in fact, some of the existing institutions could even be closed down.27 The following table compares the expenditure under the

- ²⁵Government of India Planning Commission, <u>Fourth Five Year</u> <u>Plan: 1969-74</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1970), p. 358.
 - ²⁶Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, India: A Reference Annual, 1972 (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1972), Table 25, p. 63.
 - ²⁷Government of India Planning Commission, Annual Plan: 1970-71 (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1971), p. 161.

Third and Fourth Five Year Plans. It can be seen that the budget for teacher education was the only one to decrease.

Expenditure under the Third and Fourth Plans					
* (in crores	of rupees)				
	Third Plan	Fourth Plan			
Elementary education	178	234.74			
Secondary education	103	118.32			
University education	87	183.52			
Teacher training	23	21.17			
Social education	2	8.30			
Other education programs	64	118.75			
Cultural programs	7	12.49			
Technical education	125	125.37			

<u>Table I²⁸</u>

A mid-term report made by the government in 1971, reported an even slower rate of improvement in education than that envisaged by the Fourth Five Year Plan.²⁹ It stated that the budget for 1971-72 planned on the employment of 30,000 additional primary teachers plus the retraining of the "educated unemployed" for assignment to posts such as those of school inspectors and administrators.³⁰ However, it did not suggest that provision be made for the expansion of existing educational facilities for the training

²⁸Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, <u>India: A</u> Reference Annual, 1972, Table 25, p. 63.

²⁹Government of India Planning Commission, <u>The Fourth Plan</u> <u>Mid-Term Appraisal</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1971), Vol. I, p. 52.

30 Ibid.

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of these new employees. In view of those projections already being formulated for the training of 100,000 new teachers by 1974 and for the specialized in-service training of those already teaching in the schools,³¹ this seems an important omission.

In 1974, plans were underway for the Fifth Five Year Plan. A preliminary report stated that: "More money . will be spent on education than was spent in <u>all</u> the earlier plans taken together".³² However, financial difficulties have already delayed the Fifth Five Year Plan.

The structure of the Indian educational system has contributed to the difficulty of implementing the Education Commission's recommendations. The decentralization of the educational system (The states and the universities have the most control over education.) contributes to the inability of the central government to introduce changes. It cannot even control too closely the financial spending within the states on teacher education, except in the case of centrally run institutions, such as a few of the universities. Therefore, recommendations for improvement coming

³¹A. S. Abraham, "Fifth Plan stresses role of primaries", <u>Times Educational Supplement</u>, No. 3040 (Aug. 31, 1973), p. 10.

32_{Ibid}.

from the central government have to pass through the state departments of education before they reach the institutions themselves. Since each state has its own educational priorities, funds for teacher education are allocated according to each state's need for trained teachers. Furthermore, given the large size of many of the states, local control over the teacher education institutions sometimes carries more weight than state control. Funding comes through the state governments, but the local administrative bodies influence the spending of educational monies in their districts.

In India, as elsewhere, the professional training of teachers is a recent development, and the association of institutions of teacher education with the universities is even more so. The key to the education of well trained teachers is the improvement of the curriculum, most probably by the universities, and the improvement of the physical facilities by the states. In addition, the most important factor in the attraction of better educated students to teacher training institutions is a substantial increase in teachers' salaries, thereby raising teacher status. If these priorities are carried out, it is reasonable to assume that a higher qualified staff and a better class of students will be attracted. Therefore, the institutions will be more highly regarded by the universities.

CHAPTER III

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PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER EDUCATION

The origins of formal primary school teacher training in India can be traced to the middle of the nineteenth century, when students were selected by their secondary school teacher or headmaster to be trained in normal schools attached to the secondary schools. Around 1882, the first separate institutions designed specifically to train primary school teachers were established. They prepared teachers for the most part for the government schools, and gained in popularity as the number of these schools increased. Although these teacher training institutions were initially established by the central government, the states took over the control of their administration and of most of their financing at an early stage in their development.¹

Recent figures indicate that primary school teacher training institutions in India numbered over 1,600 in 1972.²

¹Ministry of Education and Youth Services, ⁶Government of India, <u>Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, <u>Supplementary Volume II</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1970), p. 294.

²Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia</u> (Bangkok: Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1972), p. 106.

Their distribution among the states varies considerably, there being forty-four in Maharashtra and eleven in Haryana.³ The majority of the institutions are located in urban areas. They are usually sall (having an average student enrollment of 200 or less),⁴ poorly staffed and housed, and vary widely both in the academic backgrounds of their trainees and in the quality of their teacher training programs.⁵ Reasons for this diversity include the wide difference in the composition of the student bodies (owing to the low numbers of secondary school graduates in some states) and the future need for more primary school teachers envisaged by the central government in 1964. As a result, although the minimum requirement for admission to the primary school teacher training institutions is supposed to be matriculation (ten or eleven years of schooling), many of the candidates have not reached this level. 6 Therefore, with the exception of the more educationally advanced states, like Kerala, Madras and Mysore, most of

Arabinda Biswas and J. C. Aggarwal, <u>Education in India</u> (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, 1972), p. 12.

⁶Ibid.

Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> in Asia, p. 106.

⁵M. B. Buch, ed., <u>A Survey of Research in Education</u> (Baroda: Centre of Advanced Study in Education, M.S. University of Baroda, 1974), p. 565 (Abstract by C. Mehra, "National Survey of Elementary Teacher Education in India", NCERT, New Delhi, 1970.).

the states do not at the much importance to the academic qualifications of primary school teacher training candidates.⁷ On the other hand, many states prefer trainees who have had some experience in teaching, and some, like Orissa and Gujarat, require those students who lack teaching experience to pass a competitive examination.⁸

Tuition is free in government teacher training institutions and students are often provided with a small stipend (which varies from state to state) for board and lodging, in exchange for an agreement to teach in government primary schools for a certain time after graduation. The average primary school teacher training institution offers a two-year program, taught in either the regional language or in the student's mother tongue, and confers teacher certification upon completion.

Most state education departments prescribe a two-year program which is divided into two parts, covering theoretical and practical work. The former includes principles of education and educational psychology, while the latter includes student teaching and community

⁷M. B. Buch, ed., <u>A Survey of Research in Education</u>, p. 565 (Abstract by C. Mehra, "National Survey of Elementary Teacher Education in India", NCERT, New Delhi, 1970.).

⁸Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> in Asia, p. 107.

activities. A typical syllabus of studies is as follows:

Syllabus of Studies

	for	
Diploma	of Basic	Training ⁹
	o-year cou	

Theory	(800	marks):	I.	Principles of Education	
				(Part I)	
			II.	Principles of Education	
				(Part II)	
			III.	Principles of Teaching	
				and School Curriculum	
			IV.	Teaching of Art and Crafts	
				and School Curriculum	
			v.	Teaching of Mother Tongue	
*				and School Curriculum	
			VI.	Teaching of Mathematics	
				and School Curriculum	
			VII.	Teaching of General	
				Science/Home Sciences	
				and School Curriculum	
			VIII.	Teaching of Social Studies	
			٣	and School Curriculum	

Practice Teaching and Practical Work (800 marks)

Although trainees of varying ages (from fifteen to thirty years)¹⁰ and educational backgrounds, and with little or no professional experience are admitted to the teacher training institutions, they all follow the same program.

⁹ Teachers' College (Faculty of Education), Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi, Syllabus of Studies for Diploma of Basic Training (New Delhi: Jamia Millia Islamia, 1967).

¹⁰M. B. Buch, ed., <u>A Survey of Research in Education</u>, p. 565 (Abstract by C. Mehra, "National Survey of Elementary Teacher Education in India", NCERT, New Delhi, 1970.).

In its chapter on teacher education, the Kothari Commission stated that the separation of the primary school teacher training institutions from the university system, from the schools and from each other, merited serious attention. In addition, the Kothari Commission investigated the quality of the training programs in these institutions.

The Kothari Commission recognized that primary school teacher preparation must first be raised to a higher standard before the universities would be willing to take over. The reluctance of the universities to become involved in primary school teacher training stems in part from the history of the normal schools. Before the normal schools were phased out, the education of a primary school teacher was restricted to a very basic training in teaching skills plus a sprinkling of subject matter knowledge. As a result, graduates of normal schools could never hope to aspire to college entrance. The present standard of education in the primary teacher training institutions, has, on a whole, still not reached this level. This is not a problem unique to India. In France, for example, aspiring primary school teachers attend an école normale, an institution which is separate and below that of the universities. Since colleges of education are sometimes accorded second class status, such a development is no panacea. Despite this, it is believed that university affiliation would aid

in raising the social status of the primary school teacher and would contribute to the integration of primary and secondary school teacher education.

The Kothari Commission outlined in detail a scheme for the integration into the universities of the primary school teacher education institutions. It proposed as a first step the establishment of "comprehensive colleges" for the joint training of primary and secondary teachers.¹¹ A few comprehensive colleges had already been established at the time of the Kothari Commission, and the newly formed state institutes of education intend to take on the training of secondary school teachers, "when adequate resources in men and material are available".¹² Very few countries have achieved a comfortable integration of the two levels of teacher training. The university faculties of education in the United States are one example of a successful partnership, and Canada is close to achieving the same goal. Another nation, the U.S.S.R., is presently attempting a gradual phasing out of its pedagogical schools for primary teacher training, by introducing primary teacher training into the higher educational institutions called pedagogical institutes.

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¹¹ Ministry of Education, Government of India, Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66 (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1966), p. 71.

¹²L. D. Gupta, <u>A New Venture in Education</u> (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, 1970), p. 61.

The historical separation between institutions for primary and for secondary teacher education, the difference in the entrance qualifications of their trainees and the inequality of the social and financial status of their students are all formidable obstacles to their amalgamation. The Kothari Commission envisaged another twenty to twentyfive years before the norm of general education for primary teachers would reach ten years.¹³ Students with only eight years of education are still being accepted into the primary school teacher training institutions, mainly because of the low numbers of secondary school leavers in some states and the lack of uniformity between the different educational systems in each state. On the other hand, the usual admission requirement for entrance into the secondary school teacher training colleges is a bachelor's degree. This wide disparity in the general education of primary and of secondary school teachers can also be seen in other nations, for example, in France, where the student aspiring to teach in the lycée (academic secondary school) is university educated while the student aiming to teach in an école primaire (elementary school) attends an école normale (teachers college).

¹³Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 79.

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Following graduation, the primary school teacher and the secondary school teacher receive different salaries and occupy different social positions within the community. The public tends to categorize these teachers according to education, social background and salary; these distinctions are also common to most developed nations. The majority of Indian teachers come from a lower middle class background.¹⁴ According to the Kothari Commission, the average annual salary in 1965-66 of a lower primary school teacher was 1,046 rupees, while that of a secondary school teacher was 1,959 rupees.¹⁵ In the case of primary school teachers, the salaries received were hardly adequate to enable them to maintain an acceptable standard of living, and, with the rising cost of living, a large number of teachers, especially secondary school teachers, depend upon supplementary incomes, mostly from private tuition. Subsequent to the Kothari Commission, an increase has been gradually effected in teachers' salaries (In 1967-68, primary school teachers received an average annual salary of 1,432 rupees; secondary school teachers received 2,708 rupees.),¹⁶ and

¹⁴M. Venkatarangaiya, "The Plight of the Indian Teacher", Donald K. Adams, Introduction to Education: A Comparative Analysis (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1966), p. 338.

¹⁵Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, Table 3.1, p. 47.

¹⁶G. S. Mansukhani and G. S. Dhillon, ed., <u>Whither Secondary</u> <u>Education</u> (New Delhi: Oxford & Ibh Publishing Co., 1973), Table IV, p. 248 (Figures adjusted for purposes of this paper.).

the UGC has managed to bring contemporary teachers' salaries up to a more reasonable level in comparison with those of other professions.¹⁷

The Kothari Commission considered the second step in preparing the primary school teacher training institutions for integration into the university system to be the upgrading of the training institutions to collegiate standards.¹⁸ This procedure would entail improving facilities, admission requirements, curriculum, and staff qualifications and salaries. The Commission stated that "given due priority and an adequate allocation of funds, it should be possible to do this within a period of 15 to 20 years".¹⁹ It would appear that a lack of financial support is the major deterrent to progress in these areas.

The third step in gaining the acceptance of the universities would be establishment of State Boards of Teacher Education, as bridges, during the transitional period, between the training institutions for primary school teachers and the universities.²⁰ The State Boards would include representatives from the universities, the state

- 17Professor Ghosh, McGill University, interview held in May, 1978.
- ¹⁸Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 71.

19<u>Ibid</u>.

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departments of education, the teacher training institutions, and teachers' organizations. They would assume the duties of the state departments of education concerning primary school teacher training, and would oversee the improvements needed. The Kothari Commission noted that the State Boards had been recommended previously by the Secondary Education Commission and by other groups. The idea of supervision of teacher education being independent of the control of the central and state governments while still working in close association with them is one which is also new to the European countries. As recently as 1970, a National Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers was proposed for England and Wales.²¹

The Kothari Commission also called for closer relations between the training institutions and the schools, which it said could be fostered through the establishment of extension departments for student teaching. The extension departments would oversee practice teaching and would introduce the schools to the teaching methodologies taught in the teacher training institutions. Some of the state institutes of education have attached practising schools. Most of the other institutions have none. If certain schools are willing to accept teacher trainees,

²¹Edmund J. King, <u>The Education of Teachers</u> (London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), p. 97.

the long commuting time between the institution and the school and the indifference of resident teachers make student teaching an unpleasant task. The Kothari Commission advised that more financial support be provided to the institutions for the purpose of setting up extension departments and for the encouragement of better cooperation between the institution and the school teaching staffs.

In an effort to introduce more uniformity in the quality of instruction offered by the primary school teacher training institutions, the Kothari Commission advised raising their educational standards to the same level. The goal of this proposal had been achieved in part by the founding of the state institutes of education in 1963-64 by the central government in the majority of the Indian states. Prior to the Fourth Plan, the central government provided full financial assistance to the state institutes, but the states have now taken over their funding.²² Specifically, the state institutes were charged with improving the qualifications of those who teach in the primary school teacher training institutions and of the supervisors in charge of primary schools in the state through a program of in-service/education. In addition, they were made responsible for the training of better

²²Sham Lal, ed., <u>The Times of India Directory and Yearbook</u>, <u>1971</u> (Bombay: <u>The Times of India Press</u>, 1971), p. 82.

qualified primary school teachers. The state institutes were also charged with the responsibility of undertaking research on primary school teacher training.

Two-thirds of the trainees at a typical state institute come from rural areas, ". . . thus, it can be said that generally the training institutions cater the needs $[\underline{sic}]$ of the district in which it is located which is a happy sign".²³ About 95 per cent of the trainees, of various ages and teaching experience, have received a high school pass.²⁴ The majority of them are accepted into the Junior Basic Training course, which is of two years' duration.

The Junior Basic Training course offers general education (an introduction to elementary education and subject courses) during the first year, and professional education (educational psychology, principles of education, school organization, methods of teaching and practice teaching) during the second year. There is little specialization since elementary teachers are expected to be able to teach all subjects.²⁵ A typical syllabus of

23 State Institute of Education, Rajasthan, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>at Primary Level in Rajasthan</u> (Udaipur: <u>Government Press</u>, 1968), p. 12.

²⁴Ibid.

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²⁵Ibid., p. 24.

studies is as follows:

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Syllabus of Studies²⁶

(Two-year course)

Part I (350 marks)

Paper I.	Principles and methods of Basic Education			
Paper II.	Health Education and Recreational Activities			
Paper III.	History of National Movement			
Paper IV.	Second Regional Language (Hindi, Panjabi) and English			
Paper V.	Mathematics (Content)			
Paper VI.	General Science (Content)			
Paper VII.				
Part II (300 marks)				
Paper J. Elementary Child Psychology				

raper	م له م	Elementary child Psychology
Paper	II.	School Organization and Community
		Development
Paper	III.	Methods of teaching Mother Tongue,
		Second Regional/Language and English
Paper	IV.	Methods of Teaching Mathematics
Paper	V.	Methods of Teaching General Science
Paper	VI.	Methods of Teaching Social Studies

The few B.A. graduate trainees are admitted to a one-year Senior Teachers Certificate course, which trains them for teaching the first five primary grades.²⁷ The qualifications required of the instructors are higher than those in

²⁶State Institute of Education, Chandigarh, <u>Teacher Training</u> <u>Institutions for Elementary Teachers</u> (Chandigarh: State Institute of Education), p. 3.

²⁷State Institute of Education, Rajasthan, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>at Primary Level in Rajasthan</u>, p. 4. the usual teacher training institution. The minimum qualification for those teaching the professional courses is a bachelor's degree in teaching; for the subject instructors, a university degree in their subject is considered adequate.²⁸ The majority have experience in teaching in primary and in secondary schools.

Although the state institutes of education are a welcome development, they still suffer some of the same problems of the other teacher training institutions. First, there is the great age differential among the students, which, when coupled with their different educational backgrounds and experiences, causes instructional difficulties in the teacher training institutions.²⁹ Further, as with the other primary school teacher training institutions, the state institutes are poorly equipped, lacking modern teaching aids, such as language labs.

According to the Kothari Commission, priority should be given to raising the quality of primary school teacher preparation. It found that a crucial problem in the primary school teacher training institutions was that of the poor quality of the staff. The reasons for this were not hard

28 State Institute of Education, Rajasthan, Teacher Education at Primary Level in Rajasthan, p. 15.

²⁹Ibid., p. 14.

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to find. First, the small size of most primary school teacher training institutions was seen by the Commission as a major deterrent to their ability to attract qualified staff. Most have an average enrollment of 200 students. The Commission recommended that the minimum enrollment of any institution be not less than 240 and that any new institution have a minimum size of 400'.³⁰ In addition, the few remaining normal schools (attached to secondary schools) should be abolished. Second, the majority of the staff were either former secondary school teachers or primary school inspectors, whose salary at the training institutions was no better than that which they had received in their previous employment. Even good secondary school teachers refused positions in the teacher training institutions because of the heavy workload and the loss of private tuitions.³¹

The Commission recommended that instructors should receive a higher salary, should have received training relevant to primary education, and should hold a bachelor of education degree plus a master's degree either in Education or in an academic subject. Unfortunately, there has been little improvement in this area and the instructors

³⁰Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, p. 84.
³¹Ibid., p. 79.

in the primary school teacher training institutions continue to show poor credentials. They have had little or no experience with elementary education, although the majority have taught in the secondary schools.³² Most of them have a bachelor of education degree, although only about 40 per cent of them have received some further education.³³ Few in-service programs for them exist in the primary school teacher training institutions. A nine-month training course sponsored by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in 1966 is however available.³⁴

In addition to calling for improvements in staff qualifications, the Kothari Commission said that the quality of the curriculum of the teacher training institution required attention. In short, the student teachers were said to need a stronger academic program, better professional preparation and practical experience. The first recommendation recognized the poor preparation of most student teachers in those subjects which they would

³²National Council of Educational Research and Training <u>Elementary Teacher Education</u> (New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1970), p. 155.

³³M. B. Buch, ed., <u>A Survey of Research in Education</u>, p. 445 (Abstract by K. Arora and R. Chopra, "A Study of Status of Teacher-Educators Working in Elementary Teacher Training Institutions", Dept. of Teacher Education, NCERT, New Delhi, 1969.).

³⁴Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> in Asia, p. 40.

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be teaching. One solution to this problem would be to raise the admission requirements. Another was seen as the extension of the amount of time spent in training to a minimum of two years. This practice is now followed in most states, some having even raised it to three years, and the balance between the amount of time spent in academic and professional studies appears to be evening out.³⁵ In countries, such as Canada, where there is an over-supply of teachers, extending the duration of the teacher training program is not a difficult problem. However, for India, this extension is an additional expense as well as an extra strain on present facilities and staff.

The professional training of primary school teachers also came in for criticism from the Kothari Commission. The Commission pointed out that very little of the literature on educational philosophy, educational psychology, etc. drew on Indian research for its examples. Rather, most studies based their theories on research done in foreign countries. The Commission also found that most books written on Indian education were not of high quality. Furthermore, the decrease in English instruction and the

³⁵Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia</u>, Table 10, p. 32. (Balance between academic and professional education in the primary teacher education curriculum: academic, 51.4 per cent; professional, 48.6 per cent.)

increasing use of the regional languages in the institutions and in the primary and secondary schools limited the students' access to good sources of information written in English. To that end, the Kothari Commission recommended an increase in home-grown educational research and the production of well written publications in both English and the regional languages.

The third area of teacher training requiring reform was classroom methodology and student teaching. The Kothari Commission suggested the introduction of more modern teaching methods and equipment, changing the examination system, and extending the length of time spent in student teaching. In a country faced with terrible financial problems, the allocation of funds for the purchase of modern instructional materials has very low priority. However, as some experts have pointed out, unless similar teaching aids (records, films, tapes, etc.) are to be found in the schools either now or in the near future, there is little purpose in familiarizing the teacher trainees with their use.³⁶

The lecture method is still the preferred method of instruction in the teacher training institutions. The

³⁶Alfred Yates, ed., <u>Current Problems of Teacher Education</u> (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1970), p. 58.

main reason for this is the lack of good textbooks in both the school libraries and bookstores. Also, many students cannot afford to purchase their own texts, which means they rely heavily upon detailed notes recorded verbatim from the instructors' lectures. Although the lecture method has its advantages in "transmitting a body of knowledge"³⁷ in a quick and easy way, it needs to be replaced in part by more independent discussion and study groups. Some combination of the two approaches, it is believed, would produce more mature and inquisitive students. In addition, the encouragement of student research would make the trainees more aware of the importance and the possibilities of the teaching profession. Student research, if properly coordinated, might even lead to an improvement in the teacher training institutions.

Because the examinations and the curriculum are set by the universities, both students and instructors in the teacher training institutions object to any change in the examination system, preferring the traditional end-ofterm exam to "internal assessment" and "cumulative records"³⁸ which the Kothari Commission suggested. The Commission

37Alfred Yates, ed., Current Problems of Teacher Education, p. 57.

³⁸Ministry of Education, Government of India, Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 73.

argued that closer attention to the progress of the student teachers would also bring about changes in the system of evaluation in the schools. For if student teachers were evaluated in less traditional ways, they in turn would be interested in introducing new examination methods into the classroom. In an effort to implement this idea, the state institutes of education are now assisting the National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in reforming the examination system.³⁹

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A common opinion among students is that "teaching practice is one of the most valuable and one of the worst conducted parts of their training".⁴⁰ Student teaching is usually spread through the first and second years and "block-teaching" (a continuous period of teaching) has not yet caught on. The staff of the practice schools are often unfamiliar with the aims of and the methods taught by the teacher training institutions, with the result that the student teacher receives little assistance from the school staff of the participating school. The Commission preferred that a period of time be spent on familiarization with the

³⁹H. S. Srivastava, "The Programme of Examination Reform", G. S. Mansukhani and G. S. Dhillon, ed., Whither Secondary <u>Education</u> (New Delhi: Oxford & Ibh Publishing Co., 1973), p. 241.

⁴⁰Department of Education and Science, <u>Teacher Education</u> and Training (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1972), p. 20.

school, followed by a continuous (eight weeks minimum) period of teaching. The present required number of practice lessons spread out over the first year is twenty-four to thirty, and in the second, twenty-four to fifty.⁴¹ The Commission also suggested that, prior to student teaching,. the student should have some knowledge of his subject and of teaching methodology and school administration, and should have observed some demonstration lessons. The Junior Basic Training professional course, offered by the state institutes of education, has implemented the Commission's recommendations for student teaching and requires sixty hours of student teaching in schools.⁴²

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In addition to these areas of improvement in the teacher training institutions, the Kothari Commission also recommended changes in the education of teachers in other languages, and also the provision of in-service courses for primary school teachers plus special courses for school administrators, inspectors, teacher educators and for untrained graduate teachers.

⁴¹Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia</u>, p. 110.

⁴² S. B. Kakkar, "Influence of Teacher Training on Trainees' Attitudes", Indian Educational Review, Vol. 5, No. 1 (Jan. 1970), p. 107.

CHAPTER IV

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHER EDUCATION

Until the early 1920's, most of the secondary school teachers in India had received no professional training and were employed mainly on the basis of their academic qualifications. Following the Hartog Committee Report of 1929 on the education and service conditions of secondary school teachers, an increased emphasis was placed on the establishment of institutions for teacher training. In the 1970's, most secondary school teachers are being prepared in training colleges separate from the universities but under their sponsorship.

Secondary school teacher training institutions in India totalled 273 in 1965,¹ of which the state of Uttar Pradesh had the highest number and Kashmir the lowest.² The majority of these institutions are located in urban centres. Approximately 68 per cent of them are affiliated colleges, 20.5 per cent are sections of arts and science

¹M. B. Buch, ed., <u>A Survey of Research in Education</u> (Baroda: Centre of Advanced Study in Education, M.S. University of Baroda, 1974), p. 569 (Abstract by B. N. Pandey, "Second National Survey of Secondary Teacher Education in India", NCERT, New Delhi, 1969.).

²Ibid.

colleges and 11.5 per cent are university departments.³ Most of the financing of the university departments of education are provided by the central government. Some of the affiliated colleges are also government aided and receive a grant, which may differ from state to state. Tuition can be quite exorbitant in the private institutions, but is free in government ones. Furthermore, some stipends are provided for board and lodging in the government institutions, since about three-quarters of the teacher training colleges are residential.⁴

The minimum qualification for those admitted to the one-year course of studies in secondary school teacher training colleges is a bachelor's degree with at least 40per cent marks.⁵ Few of the applicants possess a first class degree.⁶ A very few institutions, such as the

⁴M. B. Buch, ed., <u>A Survey of Research in Education</u>, p. 569 (Abstract by B. N. Pandey, "Second National Survey of Secondary Teacher Education in India", NCERT, New Delhi, 1969.).

⁵Ibid., p. 453 (Abstract by S. P. Gupta, "A Study of Admission Procedures in Elementary and Secondary Teacher Training Institutions", NCERT, New Delhi, 1971.).

⁶All India Association of Training Colleges in India, Report of the Study Group on the Education of Secondary Teachers in India (Baroda: All India Association of Training Colleges in India, 1964), p. 5.

³National Council of Educational Research and Training, <u>Second National Survey of Secondary Teacher Education in</u> <u>India</u> (New Delhi: National Council of Educational <u>Research and Training, 1969), p. 113.</u>

regional colleges of education, offer a four-year program following high school graduation. Upon graduation from either the one-year or the four-year program, the student receives a B.Ed. degree. Some colleges also offer a master's degree in education, however, this is usually granted by the university departments.

The curriculum in the training colleges is shaped by university requirements, although it is reported that many of the private colleges disregard university "statutes and orders".⁷ The curriculum of a typical training college is divided into two sections: professional courses, which include foundations of education (philosophical, sociological and psychological), education in India, teaching methods, and student teaching; and general education, which includes content courses, practical work, community activities, and arts and crafts.⁸ Some specialized subjects, such as educational administration, may also be offered by some institutions.

A typical course of studies required for examination purposes is as follows:

⁷"Bill to ensure teachers' security of service", <u>Hindustan</u> <u>Times</u>, Sept. 7, 1974, p. 2.

⁸Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia</u> (Bangkok: Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1972), p. 109.

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B.Ed. Examination⁹

(One-year course)

Part A (Theory) (500 marks)

and the second	-				
Paper I:	Principles of Education				
Paper II	Educational Psychology				
Paper II	: Modern Indian Education				
	a) Its development and recent				
	history				
	-	1			
Paper IV					
Fapel IV	(any two of following)	ods of Teaching Selected School Subjects			
	a) Mother Tongue h) Geog	ranhv			
	b) English i) Civi				
	c) Mathematics j) Econ				
	d) Dhuging Caionge (k) Dhug				
	d) Physical Science k) Phys				
		giene			
		Science			
	g) History m) Comm	erce			
	n) Social Studies				
	o) Sanscrit				
Paper V:	(any one of following)				
	a) Social Education				
	b) Physical Education				
	c) Early Childhood Education				
	d) History of Education in India				
	e) Audio-Visual Education				
	f) School Library Organization				
	g) Basic Education				
	h) Organization of Co-curricular				
	Activities				
		-			
	i) Education of Backward Childre	11			

Part B (Practice) (500 marks)

Part I:Practical Skill in TeachingPart II:Sessional Practical Work

An interesting experiment in training secondary school graduates are the four regional colleges of education (at Ajmer, Bhopal, Bhubaneswar and Mysore), which offer a

⁹Central Institute of Education, <u>B.Ed. Examination</u> (New Delhi: National Council for Educational Research and Training, 1971).

four-year general and professional program leading to a B.Ed., as well as a few one-year programs in subjects like agriculture or commerce. The central Ministry of Education established the regional colleges in order to improve the quality of secondary education by providing teachers in the technical subjects and by experimenting in new methods of teaching. Formerly intended to train teachers for the multi-purpose (i.e. comprehensive) schools which were phased out after the 1960's, they are now designed for preparing secondary school teachers as well as for providing in-service programs for teachers of the area. Their staff is well qualified and library and laboratory facilities are provided.¹⁰ Despite all this, a Review Committee, appointed by the Ministry of Education in 1968, proposed the abolishment of this experiment in view of the expense of the regional colleges and because of the belief that the four-year course would not improve Indian teacher training.¹¹

Since the Kothari Commission considered the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission of 1953 to be still relevant and valid, it paid more attention

¹⁰Marie Wragg, "Recent Developments in Higher Education in India", <u>Comparative Education</u>, Vol. 5, No. 2 (June 1969), p. 172.

¹¹John Thomas, <u>India's Regional Colleges of Education</u> (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1971), p. 38.

to the training of primary school teachers and decided that the number of training colleges for secondary school teachers was sufficient. However, the Commission was less than satisfied with the quality of such institutions.

The Kothari Commission considered the first problem in secondary school teacher education to be that of the isolation of the departments of education from the mainstream of university life, which left them with the reputation of being academically suspect. To correct this situation, the Kothari Commission advised the inclusion of education subjects in the general undergraduate and postgraduate university curricula. These orientation courses on the sociological, philosophical and psychological foundations of education would stress "the interrelationship of education with national development in all its aspects . . .".¹² They could be taken in combination with any other subject which the student might choose. In addition, an M.A. degree in education, which could follow a bachelor's degree in any subject, might, the Kothari Commission thought, encourage more research in education. Also, some obligatory teaching practice for students in both of these bachelor's and M.A. programs would provide

¹²Ministry of Education, Government of India, Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66 (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1966), p. 68.

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partially trained teaching reserves. The Kothari Commission therefore suggested that the University Grants Commission (UGC) establish a department or institute or a school of education within a few of the universities which would "develop research and training programmes in collaboration with other disciplines".¹³ This new faculty would offer education courses, provide extension services to some of the training institutions, organize in-service training, and direct both practical research within the schools and inter-disciplinary research in the university. Academics in other disciplines would be invited to participate. The Kothari Commission believed that this closer collaboration between the university and the department of education would lead to an increased status of teacher education in the university. One of the few universities to consider seriously this idea was the University of Kurukshetra, which attempted to introduce a four-year course, offering a degree of B.A. (Educ.) or B.Sc. (Educ.). Its graduates were considered superior in training to those who had taken the traditional education course.¹⁴ Unfortunately, the

¹³Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> <u>Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, p. 69.

¹⁴Prof. Uday Shankar, "Teacher Education", State Institute of Education, Chandigarh, <u>Report of the Chandigarh</u> <u>Education Conference</u> (Chandigarh: State Institute of <u>Education, 1970), p. 77.</u>

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Kurukshetra program was cancelled in 1971, because of its expense, `and the fate of similar programs is uncertain.¹⁵

A second problem in secondary school teacher training which the Kothari Commission discussed was the separation of the teacher training colleges from the universities, from the schools and from each other. In order to bring the teacher training colleges closer to the universities, the Kothari Commission recommended setting up State Boards of Teacher Education as advisors to the universities on secondary school teacher education. These State Boards would act as coordinators between the universities, the state departments of education, the training institutions and teacher organizations. They would concentrate on the quality of the teacher training curriculum and would work on the implementation of plans for its improvement. The Ministry of Education again recommended setting up these State Boards in its 1967 conference, 16 however, nothing has as yet been done, for reasons which include the lack of financing and the unavailability of well qualified members.

¹⁶Arabinda Biswas and Suren Agrawal, ed., <u>Indian Educational</u> <u>Documents Since Independence</u> (New Delhi: The Academic <u>Publishers</u>, 1971), p. 151.

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¹⁵V. S. Mathur, <u>Revitalizing Indian Education</u> (Ambala Cantt.: The Indian Publications, 1971), p. 53.

The problem of bringing about a satisfactory relationship between the universities and the secondary school teacher training institutions is not unique to India. In the U.S.A., and to a lesser extent, in Canada, colleges of education have themselves become universities or have been incorporated into the state colleges and universities. England is the only European country which appears to be following the North American example, as the institutes of education were established after the Second World War to coordinate teacher education between the colleges of education and the universities.¹⁷ However, as the James Report says, the colleges have now grown larger and stronger and prefer to retain their independence from the universities.¹⁸

The Kothari Commission emphasized the need for cooperation between the schools and the teacher training institutions in order to give the students better teaching practice, and stated that:

¹⁷Jiri Kotasek, "Current Trends and Problems in Teacher Education", Alfred Yates, ed., <u>Current Problems of</u> <u>Teacher Education</u> (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1970), p. 109.

¹⁸Department of Education and Science, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>and Training</u> (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1972), p. 49.

Departments of Education should develop such collaboration by giving special recognition and status to schools selected for the programme as. 'Cooperating schools' and by providing them with adequate grants for equipment and maintenance.¹⁹

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About 50 per cent of secondary school training institutions have attached practicing schools,²⁰ and demonstration schools are attached to all the regional colleges of education. However, most schools are either indifferent to the plight of the training institutions or reluctant to involve themselves in such a program unless financial aid is offered. The Kothari Commission advised the establishment of an extension department in every training institution, which would give assistance to the nearby schools in improving their work. This service was provided in almost half the institutions for secondary school teachers at the time of the Commission.²¹ Extended periods of student teaching and an exchange of staff, the teachers college to teach in the demonstration school and the school staff to help out in the college, were also suggested as steps to better relations between the schools and the teacher training colleges.

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¹⁹Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 70.

²⁰Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia</u>, p. 3.

²¹Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 69.

Those nations with more technical and financial resources than India are tackling the problem of providing good student practice in part by the use of modern audiovisual aids. Educational television and radio programs, for example those of the Open University in England, are of great assistance in presenting lectures on teaching methods and practice and demonstration lessons to a wide audience. The use of technological aids is, of course, only a partial solution to the problem of the separation between schools and training institutions.

The Kothari Commission's goal of bringing primary and secondary school teacher training institutions together under the control of the universities will have to await a later date, at least until the attitude of the universities towards primary teacher training changes. This attitude was discussed in a previous chapter where it was seen that the biggest barrier to the collaboration between the two kinds of training institution is the poor standard of education offered in most primary school teacher training institutions. The difference in the manner of training teachers in the two kinds of institution is also quite marked. This dual system provides what the educationists call "concurrent" education for the primary school teachers (academic and professional education being offered at the same time) and "consecutive" education for the secondary school teachers (an emphasis on professional training, since

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they are assumed to have already received a strong academic basis within the universities). A decision will have to be reached as to which is the better system.

Turning its attention to the teacher training institutions themselves, the Kothari Commission expressed dissatisfaction with their physical facilities, a theme which has been echoed in more recent studies.

Quite often, the physical facilities in our training colleges are in a state of paucity, neglect and disrepair. Sometimes even the ordinary facilities like a good library, ctassrooms, craft-room and audio-visual aids are not available.²²

Hostel accommodations at the time of the Kothari Commission were available for only 25 per cent of the students.²³ Resident accommodation for the principal and one member of the staff was usually available. The Commission pointed out the difficulties this raised for students and staff, especially in rural areas. Also, the laboratory, library and other specialized facilities were, and still are, not adequate because of the lack of funds. The Fourth Five Year Plan stated that

²²V. S. Mathur, "Training & In-Service Education", G. S. Mansukhani and G. S. Dhillon, ed., Whither Secondary Education (New Delhi: Oxford & Ibh Publishing Co., 1973), p. 197.

²³Ministry of Education, Government of India, Report of the <u>Bducation Commission: 1954-66</u>, p. 78.

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Funds will be placed at the disposal of the University Grants Commission to improve the physical facilities of the departments of education in university and secondary training colleges $\dots 2^{24}$

These improvements were intended to help to attract better teacher educators, because "besides attractive scales of pay some more facilities have to be provided".²⁵

In 1964, 40 per cent of the staff of the secondary school teacher training colleges had a B.A., B.Ed.; 58 per cent had a M.Ed. or M.A.; and 2 per cent had a doctoral degree.²⁶ The Kothari Commission suggested that approximately 10 per cent should have a doctorate and the rest should possess at least a second degree (M.A. or M.Ed.). Ideally, their salary should have parity with that of lecturers, readers and professors in arts and science colleges; and they should also receive "two advance increments . . . in recognition of the professional training received".²⁷ A system of scholarships might attract more highly educated instructors; better qualified subject

- ²⁴Government of India Planning Commission, Fourth Five Year Plan: 1969-74 (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1970), p. 358.
- ²⁵University of Delhi, <u>Important Policy Decisions taken by</u> <u>Delhi University since January 1970</u> (Delhi: University of Delhi, 1970), p. 147.

²⁶ Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> <u>Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, p. 77.

27 Ibid.

instructors could be accepted even without professional training; and the system of appointing inspecting officers as instructors in government institutions could be dropped. Summer programs to give in-service training to the staff could also be established. Of course, the attendance at these in-service programs would be strongly influenced by the salaries of the teacher educators (their ability to spend time on the course when they could be working parttime), the commuting distance (owing to the usual lack of accomodation either at or close to the institutions), and the opportunities for advancement upon graduating from such a course.

The problem of whether a teacher educator should be a practitioner or an academician is a universal one. At a recent Commonwealth conference on education, it was said that

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It is apparent from the manner in which teacher educators tend to be recruited and trained that the kind of person preferred is the one who has proved effective as a teacher rather than the one who has merely amassed academic qualifications.²⁸

A related problem is that the isolation of the teacher training colleges from the universities, where interesting

2.8 Commonwealth Secretariat, Report of the Seventh Commonwealth Education Conference, Accra, Ghana: 9-18 March, 1977 (London: The Commonwealth Secretariat, 1977), p. 31.

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and important academic studies and research are being done, makes them seem very unattractive to the academic; while the low salaries offered make them unattractive to the professional.

Although the physical improvement of the teacher training institutions and the recruitment of more highly qualified staff are crucial to the improvement of secondary school teacher training, an equally important factor is the reform of teacher training. The Kothari Commission emphasized that attention be paid to strengthening the academic knowledge, the professional preparation and the practical experience of teacher trainees. It suggested that about 20 per cent of the curriculum of the one-year program be spent on increasing the subject matter specialization of the student. To that end, the Commission also advised that the one-year program be increased to two years. However, as this could not be achieved with the financial resources at hand, the Commission recommended increasing the number of school days in the academic year from about 180-190 to 230. Except for two states, Punjab and Haryana, which have increased the number of school days to about 237, most states have not followed this example.²⁹

 ²⁹V. S. Mathur, "Training and In-Service Education",
 G. S. Mansukhani and G. S. Dhillon, ed., <u>Whither Secondary</u> Education, p. 196.

The Commission also called for an increased collaboration between the institutions for secondary school teacher training and the universities, including the use of university staff and faculties. The idea of concurrent courses of study, modelled after teacher education in the U.S.A. and providing both a general and a professional education, was viewed by the Commission as an interesting experiment. However, it concluded that the "utility and feasibility of these integrated courses have been widely questioned".³⁰ Therefore, if such courses were to be implemented, said the Commission, they should be given within the universities and not in such institutions as the regional colleges of education, which are difficult to staff and expensive to equip. Despite the Kothari Commission's attempt to increase the subject matter knowledge of the students, the Committee on Teacher Education in Maharashtra in the 1970's still found that in that state "the foundations of subject-knowledge are weak" and that trainees are still allowed to select different teaching subjects than those in which they received their university degrees.³¹

30 Ministry of Education, Government of India, Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 73.

31 Pratima Kale, The Career of the Secondary School Teacher in Poona (Bombay: Nachiketa Publications Limited, 1972), p. 98.

The lack of relevance between professional studies and present educational problems in India was seen as yet another stumbling block to quality in teacher education. Nore specifically, it was charged that Western methodologies of education are of little use in India, where the average teacher has an overcrowded classroom, very few teaching aids, a rigid curriculum, and is usually overworked. Under such conditions, the Indian teacher is unable to put his professional knowledge to work in any meaningful way. In addition, the shortage of Indian published textbooks in the fall of 1974 has been viewed as an alarming problem.³²

The Commission proposed a change in teaching methods and a revision of the examination system in the teachers colleges in order to help "to develop the studentteachers! maturity through contacts, experience, study and discussion".³³ This would entail a revision of the existing lecture system, which has considerable appeal to instructors and students because a large number of students can be instructed in a restricted period of time, and, by making extensive and detailed notes, the students can learn everything they need to know in order to pass the

 ³² "Shortage of Textbooks", <u>Hindustan Times</u>, Aug. 8, 1974, p. 3.
 ³³ Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 73.

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examinations. The barriers to a change in this system include the poor library facilities in most of the teachers colleges, the high costs of professional texts, and the scarcity of up-to-date information based on relevant research.

The Commission also recommended an increase in the amount of time spent on teaching practice. The oneyear program was said to provide far too little time for the student teacher to acquire sufficient experience. The attempt to cram teaching practice, academic subjects and pedagogical training into a one-year program presents the problem that in "all to short a time one is trying to train a bewildered young teacher, and also to enlighten and inspire a lifelong student of the educational process , in its sociological and developmental perspectives".34 One solution, that of changing the one-year into a twoyear program, was examined by the Commission, but found impractical because of the cost. Another, suggestion advanced was the use of teaching aids, such as radio and television, but here again costs were a problem. Still another solution would be the provision of more continuous practice teaching periods (of eight weeks rather than two weeks duration). This method would ensure an improvement

³⁴Edmund J. King, <u>The Education of Teachers</u> (London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1970), p. 101.

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in the familiarity of the student teacher with the practice school and in his confidence in dealing with his students.

The examination system, said the Kothari Commission, was an obstacle to improving teacher education. The examination system still remains an integral part of the educational process, dependent upon the results of external examinations for the end-of-term assessment of students. The Commission pointed out that the use of better examination techniques in the teacher training institutions would familiarize the student teachers with their use. The new teachers, in turn, might improve the existing school examination system, which fosters so much cheating and favoritism. However, the main obstacle to such a change is the universities, which set the examinations.

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In 1971, the University of Agra organized a Seminar on Examinations, which promoted the idea of internal assessment in university examinations.³⁵ However, internal assessment has received a bad name because of the wide deviation in marks between internal and external examinations. In England, the restricted course of studies leading

 ³⁵Dr. R. P. Singhal, "Some Problems in Examination",
 G. S. Mansukhani and G. S. Dhillon, ed., <u>Whither Secondary</u> Education, p. 224.

to "almost predictable examination questions"³⁶ is defended by some teacher educators, who claim that in this way all the students acquire the necessary knowledge. This policy seems in direct variance with that of the U.S.A. sponsored Performance-Based Teacher Education, which measures the "effectiveness" of a teacher in the classroom.³⁷

According to the Kothari Commission, the requirements of India for specialized teachers would also have to be met. One recommendation of the Commission which was acted upon by the Fourth Five Year Plan was the training of more mathematics and science teachers. These teachers were needed to produce the new technologists of India's future. Therefore, the Fourth Plan gave priority to this goal and the universities promoted it. Unfortunately, the plan was too successful as there is currently a surplus of mathematics and science teachers in the secondary schools, and the majority of students in the technical colleges of education and the regional colleges of education are science or mathematics majors.³⁸ In contrast, better trained

³⁷A. Jon Magoon, "Teaching and Performance-Based Teacher Education", Donald E. Lomax, ed., European Perspectives in Teacher Education (London: John Wiley & Sons Ltd., 1976), p. 235.

³⁸John Thomas, India's Regional Colleges of Education, p. 221.

³⁶ D. Logan, "A Student's View of Students' Views", Stanley Hewett, ed., The Training of Teachers (London: University of London Press Ltd., 1971), p. 99.

English teachers are now needed, and the promotion of Hindi as the official language of India means that facilities have to be provided for the training of Hindi teachers. In addition, the Rural Centre of Educational Research and Training (CRTSE), at Baroda, is undertaking the specialized training of teachers for the rural areas, preparing them for problems that they would not normally have to face in the urban schools. Problems of rural education at the time of the Kothari Commission included "a dearth of school buildings, instructional materials, equipment, teachers and textbooks". 39 One such institution for rural teacher training at Gargoti offers a Diploma in Rural Services (Education) after three years of general and professional training for high school graduates. The program is intended to train teachers for rural higher secondary schools. However, the recruitment of instructors is difficult and the teaching of science subjects poor. Also, graduates of these institutions who wish to further their education by obtaining a M.A. or a M.Ed. are not accepted into the universities.40 In conclusion, the Commission suggested that teachers be only allowed to teach those subjects in

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- ³⁹M. V. A. Khan, "Rural Education in India and Mexico" (Houston: University of Houston, D.Ed. thesis, 1963), p. 122.
- ⁴⁰Ministry of Education and Youth Services, Government of India, <u>Report of the Committee on Rural Higher Education</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1970), p. 44.

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which they had received a degree or had taken a special correspondence or summer course, that conditional scholarships be offered to graduate students in those subjects needed in the schools, and that scholarships be used to attract more first and second class degree holders.

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CHAPTER V

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

The Kothari Commission made proposals for changes in in-service teacher education, post-graduate teacher education, the training of women teachers and language teacher education, since they all pose special problems within the structure of the Indian teacher education system and have a strong influence on the quality of Indian education as a whole.

A. In-Service Teacher Education

Since 1955, extension departments have been set up in about 100 of the institutions for secondary school teacher education and forty-five of those for primary school teacher education.¹ The state education departments have also set up specialized agencies to deal with inservice education. The extension departments for primary school teachers are usually attached to the Junior Basic Training institutes and are administered by the states,

⁺M. B. Buch and M. N. Palsane, ed., <u>Readings in In-Service</u> <u>Education</u> (Vallabh Vidyanagar: Sardar Patel University, 1968), p. 132.

which took over from the central government in 1971.² Those for secondary school teachers are managed by the All India Council of Secondary Education (now known as the Department of Field Service of the NCERT).³ Typical programs of in-service education cover such areas as the teaching of science, social studies or English,⁴ training courses for the instructors in the teacher education institutions, conferences and publications on in-service education.⁵

The Kothari Commission singled out two groups of teachers who were in need of in-service education: those whose education needed updating and those who had never received professional training. According to the Commission, in 1960-61, approximately 62 per cent of primary and secondary school teachers in India were trained.⁶ This

⁴John P. Lipkin, <u>Secondary School Teacher Education in</u> <u>Transition</u> (Bombay: Asia Publishing House, 1970), p. 62.

A. C. Deve Gowda, Teacher Education in India, p. 93.

⁶Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> <u>Education Commission: 1964-66</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1966), p. 82.

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²A. C. Deve Gowda, <u>Teacher Education in India</u> (Bangalore: Bangalore Book Bureau, 1973), p. 13.

³Mrs. Lakshmi Shanker, "In-Service Education in Haryana", Prof. Uday Shanker and Dr. C. L. Kundu, <u>Education in</u> <u>Haryana</u> (Kurukshetra: Department of Education, Kurukshetra University, 1971), p. 151.

percentage has gone up since then, and 1968-69, 71 per cent of primary school teachers and 73 per cent of secondary school teachers were trained.⁷ Of course, these percentages vary among the states, with those like Kerala and Tamil Nadu having almost all their teachers professionally trained, and others like Maharashtra and Mysore having only⁶ about two thirds of their teaching staff trained.⁸

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Although the Commission suggested steps to be followed in dealing with the updating of the education of those teachers already certified, it realized the importance of concentrating on reducing the numbers of untrained teachers. For many developing nations, this is the central problem in improving the quality of education, and statements, such as the following, have been made on the urgency of bringing down the number of untrained teachers.

The backlog of untrained teachers is so large in many Asian states that in-service education is concerned more with the provision of shortterm training facilities for such teachers than with the improvement of the professional competence of all the teachers by keeping them abreast of the latest methods and techniques .

- ⁷Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia</u> (Bangkok: Regional/Office for Education in Asia, 1972), p. 108.
- ⁸G. S. Mansukhani and G. S. Dhillon, ed., <u>Whither Secondary</u> <u>Education</u> (New Delhi: Oxford & Ibh Publishing Co., 1973), Table II, p. 246.
- ⁹J. C. Aggarwal, <u>Recent Educational Developments in the</u> World (New Delhi: Arya Book Depot, 1971), p. 83.

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Therefore, the Kothari Commission first turned its attention to the training of the uncertified teacher. The Commission reasoned that teachers over forty years of age would probably not benefit from any formal program, and those teachers under forty with more than five years of service would be required to take only a short training However, teachers with less than five years of course. service would have to take a complete one- to two-year training course, either full-time, part-time or by correspondence. The Commission stated that "a flexible programme of this type would make it possible to clear the backlog of untrained teachers more quickly".¹⁰ One obstacle that the Kothari Commission did not forsee is the continuing employment of untrained teachers because of the shortage of trained teachers in some states and the lower salaries that can be paid to untrained teachers. Thus, the number of untrained teachers remains fairly constant despite the increase in in-service programs.

In addition to dealing with untrained teachers, the Kothari Commission proposed steps to update the education of those teachers already certified. The Commission recommended that every five years of service be followed by a summer refresher course at a training institution.

¹⁰Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 84.

Primary school teachers should receive special attention, since the secondary school teachers have already been accommodated by the universities and by the National Council of Educational Research and Training in their summer programs. Furthermore, since they are dealing with a different student clientele, the staff of the re-training programs will have to adapt their teaching approach accordingly. The lecture method may not be appropriate for these more mature, experienced students; rather, more seminars and student discussions should be held.

The idea of recurrent teacher training is not unique to India but applies to other nations as well. In order to keep pace with the knowledge explosion, a constant updating of the teachers' education is necessary. Since this can be an expensive process, educational planning must be such that the aims of both national and local bodies are achieved. Some nations, such as England, offer in-service education through the media as well as in the colleges of education and in the universities. However, as the James Report emphasized, an important factor in the promotion of in-service education is that the "local authorities [who engage teachers] must ensure that it is possible to take part in in-service training",¹¹ that is,

¹¹Mario Reguzzoni, "European Innovations in Teachers' In-Service Training", Donald E. Lomax, ed., <u>European</u> <u>Perspectives in Teacher Education</u> (London: John Wiley & Sons Ltd., 1976), pp. 172-173.

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incentives such as promotions and higher salaries, adequate accommodation and good transportation should be provided.

With the scarce financial resources available for teacher training, the reduction of untrained teachers is of greater importance to India than the additional training of those teachers who already possess teacher certificates. The latter is a luxury available only to the more affluent Unfortunately, both the tendency of some of the nations. states to employ untrained teachers and the poor professional preparation given by many of the institutions present a formidable deterrent to these plans. Moreover, because most in-service education is voluntary, there must be sufficient incentives for a teacher to undergo further studies. Ambitious pilot projects have been set up by the National Council for Educational Research and Training. However, the fact remains that the cost of such programs cannot be met until such time as a larger teacher training budget is available.

B. Post-Graduate Teacher Education

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A post-graduate degree is not considered necessary for the majority of the teaching profession, but rather as a source of more adequately trained teacher educators and researchers. The Kothari Commission noted the lack of Indian-trained researchers, who would be familiar with the problems and the failings of the Indian educational system.

It also found that ". . . the existing courses for Master's degree in education lack effective and thoughtful direction and . . . are mostly ornamental except for service in a training college".¹² The Commission therefore concluded that the purpose of the M.Ed. program needs adjusting in order to meet research requirements and to place the M.Ed. degree on a parity with other post-graduate degrees.

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A typical one-year M.Ed. program is made up of compulsory courses on the philosophy of education, advanced educational psychology and on research methods. Two more courses are selected from among those on educational administration, educational thought and experimental education. These five courses are capped by a dissertation.¹³ Some M.Ed. candidates can also take their degree by means of a thesis alone. Most of the states follow some general form of this M.Ed. program and there is seldom any specialized training.¹⁴ Within the training colleges, the M.Ed. program is taught by the senior faculty members who also supervise the thesis preparation.

- ¹²Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 76.
- ¹³John P. Lipkin, <u>Secondary School Teacher Education in</u> <u>Transition</u>, p. 60.

¹⁴Shakuntala Saxena, Education as an Academic Study: A Survey of India, U.K. and U.S.A. (Bombay: Asia Publishing House, 1971), p. 58.

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The Kothari Commission recommended that the M.Ed. program be improved substantially as regards the calibre of students admitted, the duration of the course, and the quality of educational research done. In turn, the standards of the B.Ed. program would have to be raised to ensure a more qualified group of entrants. The duration of the M.Ed. program would also have to be lengthened in order to include a more acceptable preparation of the student and ". . to enable the student to undertake a deeper, scientific and academic study . . . in some specific field requiring special knowledge and initiative", ¹⁵ The large volume of study required for the M.Ed. degree would be more manageable if spread out over three rather than two academic terms. As well, the amount of time available for the student's own research would be increased.

The provision of advanced education for teacher educators and school administrators, and the professional training of university lecturers were also considered important by the Kothari Commission. Although in-service education courses have helped some teachers, especially teacher educators and administrators, to acquire the M.Ed. degree, research carried on within the teacher education

¹⁵Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 76. ا رم

institutions themselves is negligible.¹⁶ The lack of laboratory facilities and adequate financing, and the heavy-handed direction of the administration militate against teacher educators doing research. According to the Kothari Commission, the professional training of university lecturers has also not been provided for because the "tradition in India has been to regard training for college lecturers as unnecessary".¹⁷ Without any professional training, the new university teacher tends to rely heavily upon the lecture method and to copy the example set by his own teachers. "Thus, by and large, the dull pointless tradition of 'giving lectures' and dictating notes has passed on from generation to generation."¹⁸

Some of the criticisms of the Indian graduate education system are true of other nations as well. A study carried out in the U.S.A. around the same time as that of the Kothari Commission stated that the quality of students admitted to graduate programs was low, that there was an "excess of course offerings" and that there was a

¹⁶All India Association of Training Colleges in India, <u>Report of the Study Group on the Education of Secondary</u> <u>Teachers in India</u> (Baroda: All India Association of Training Colleges in India, 1964), p. 18.

¹⁷Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> <u>Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, p. 85.

18 Ibid.

"lack of any clearly defined purpose" in the typical M.Ed. program.¹⁹ The same study also emphasized the neglect of advanced academic work in the faculties of education.²⁰ A more hopeful statement is made in a recent international study on teacher education:

. . . there is now a discernable [sic] and growing trend among teacher educators to turn to research as an appropriate means of progressing towards a deeper understanding of the processes in which they are involved . . . We see it as the most helpful development that has as yet appeared in the history of teacher education . . .21

C. Women Teacher Trainees

Although teaching is opted for by many Indian women secondary school graduates, the numbers of women teachers, especially in rural areas, have remained low. Those women who do earn a higher degree are usually the daughters of high income urban families²² and consequently they prefer to remain in the urban centres where life is more comfortable.

¹⁹James D. Koerner, <u>The Miseducation of American Teachers</u> (Baltimore, Maryland: Penguin Books Inc., 1963), p. 169.
²⁰<u>Ibid.</u>, p. 193.
²¹Alfred Yates, ed., <u>Current Problems of Teacher Education</u> (Hamburg: UNESCO Institute for Education, 1970), p. 19.
²²Karuna Ahmad, "Women's Higher Education: Recruitment and Relevance", Amrik Singh and Philip G. Altbach, ed., <u>The Higher Learning in India</u> (New Delhi: Vikas Publishing House (Pvt.) Ltd., 1974), p. 186.

Also, the brighter women graduates prefer, as do the men, a high prestige career such as medicine or politics. As a result, the rural areas have a scarcity of women teachers. Owing to the still existing religious prejudices against the education of women and against men teaching young women, the numbers of rural women teaching candidates remain very low. The Kothari Commission recognized this problem and its National Committee on Women's Education suggested several solutions, such as providing better accommodation for women teachers in rural areas, giving these teachers special hardship allowances, offering teaching scholarships to rural girls, employing more part-time teachers, and helping those women unable to attend courses away from their homes by means of correspondence and condensed courses.

As in most western countries, women teachers in India form the bulk of pre-school teachers, but unlike western states they only represent a third of primary school teachers. On the other hand, women teachers are underrepresented in secondary and higher education. The distribution of women teachers within the Indian school system in 1965-66 is described in the following Table II.

<u>Table II²³</u>

Percentage of Women Teachers

<u>in</u>

the Indian Educational System

Type of School	Percentage
Lower primary schools	24
Higher primary schools	37
Secondary schools	28
Schools for vocational education	17
Institutions for higher education (arts and science) -	17
Colleges for professional education `	11

Although there are many more men than women in the teaching profession in India, women see teaching as a more attractive profession, probably because of its side benefits of shorter hours and longer vacation time, which make it possible to manage a family while teaching. Also, their interest in teaching may be more genuine. Therefore, if there were more women graduates, there would probably be more women teachers. UNESCO underlines the importance of providing opportunities for women to participate in the development of their nations.²⁴ This goal also applies to the developed nations, where although there are many women

²³Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, Table 3.3, p. 63. (Format adjusted for purposes of this paper.)

²⁴Jacqueline Chabaud, <u>The Education and Advancement of Women</u> (Paris: UNESCO, 1970).

teachers, the majority of them are confined to the primary schools. The Kothari Commission stated that inasmuch as women decide upon a career at an earlier stage than men do, it follows that more women would opt for an integrated course of general studies and education subjects if it were offered by the universities. Also, more scholarships and financial assistance and better hostel accommodations would attract more women to the training institutions, particularly women from the rural areas.

If India is to have more women teachers, social prejudices against women will have to be overcome. Some states, like Kerala, and the urban centres hold more enlightened views on the education of women than do the rural areas. However, the reluctance of many parents to send their daughters to school still stems from such causes as a mistrust of male teachers, the early marriages of many Indian women, the traditional role of women and financial reasons (If a family has limited funds, the education of the son's is promoted over that of the daughters.). Further, single women teachers in rural areas are still the target of social ostracism and often lack decent accommodations. The cost, of board and lodging alone reduces their salary drastically. More attractive salaries would appear to be a partial solution to the problem of attracting women teachers to remote areas, who in turn would serve as models to younger girls thinking of embarking on a teaching career.

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D. Language Teacher Education

At the time of the Kothari Commission, there were twelve major languages in India and untold numbers of minor languages and local dialects.²⁵ In 1967, the Indian government passed the Language Law, which was designed to promote Hindi as the national language. Anticipating the changeover from English to Hindi, the Kothari Commission recommended the training of Hindi and regional language teachers and urged that this task be accomplished "as quickly as possible".²⁶ Since Hindi is spoken by only about 40 per cent of the Indian population,²⁷ the government's new language policy has run into strong opposition, particularly in the southern states, who claim that since their students are compelled to learn Hindi (a language whose origins and script are completely different from their own), they are at a disadvantage unless those students in Hindi-speaking states are also required to learn a second Indian language. The current policy is to teach the lowest grades in the local language following which a second language is taught in the higher primary grades. The second language may be either the regional language or

²⁵D. D. Karve, Problems of Modern Indian Education (Chicago: The University of Chicago, 1960), p. 6.

²⁶Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 10.

27 D. D. Karve, Problems of Modern Indian Education, p. 6.

Hindi or another Indian language, depending upon whether the mother tongue differs from Hindi or from the regional language. In some states like Gujarat the study of English is begun in the eighth standard (ages thirteen to seventeen), while in other states like Maharashtra, Mysore and Andhra Pradesh, students begin English in the fifth standard (ages ten to thirteen).²⁸

One solution to the problem of attracting competent teachers to teach in a minority language has been to recruit and train local teachers and members of minority or tribal groups. Also, the Fourth Five Year Plan provided that teacher training institutions would be established at Mysore, Bhubaneswar, Poona and Patiala "to train graduate teachers for secondary schools in the teaching of modern Indian languages other than Hindi".²⁹ The Contral Language Institute at Mysore offers a one-year course in South Indian languages for secondary school teachers and the Central Advisory Board proposes to start four more such institutions.³⁰

²⁸H. C. Trivedi, "Teaching of English to Postgraduate Students in South Gujarat", English Language Teaching, Vol. XXVII, No. 1 (Oct. 1972), p. 101.

²⁹Government of India Planning Commission, <u>Annual Plan: 1970-71</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1971), p. 162.

³⁰Arabinda Biswas and Suren Agrawal, ed., Indian Educational Documents Since Independence (New Delhi: The Academic Publishers, 1971), p. 107.

The Fourth Five Year Plan set aside funds for the opening of Hindi teacher training institutions. These were among the few new secondary teacher training institutions to be opened during the Plan. Most of the training of Hindi teachers is done by private institutions, one of which is the Kendriya Hindi Shikshana Mandal, which operates the Central Hindi Institute at Agra for the training of Hindi teachers.³¹ Another is the Dakshin Bharat Hindi Prachar Sabha, whose teacher training colleges train about 200 Hindi teachers a year.³² The Ministry of Education provides these private organizations with financial backing and has set up some of its own Hindi teacher training colleges. It also financially assists state governments to employ Hindi teachers.³³

Hindi has not yet reached the stage where it can be used in all subjects in the teacher training institutions. In addition, the recent trend of training the student teacher in either his own language or in the

 ³¹Sham Lal, ed., The Times of India Directory and Yearbook, <u>1971</u> (Bombay: The Times of India Press, 1971), p. 86.
 ³²Baldev Raj Nayar, <u>National Communication and Language</u> <u>Policy in India</u> (New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1969), p. 90.

33 UNESCO, <u>International Yearbook of Education, 1969</u>, Vol. XXXI (Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1969), p. 70.

regional language restricts the availability of professional texts.³⁴ The National Institute of Education in Delhi is attempting to meet this need for more and better instructional materials, drawing upon its own researches and those of several other educational research institutions, such as that of the University of Baroda. However, until the school texts are translated or new ones are written, those trainees with a poor knowledge of English will suffer. Teacher training institutions in Gujarat find that the quality of English of their students is so poor that the use of the regional language in the classroom is a necessity.³⁵ This results in a lowering of standards in the classroom, since:

According to the University Grants Commission in 1965, 'the regional languages have not yet developed to a point where they can replace English as a tool of knowledge and as a medium of communication'. The same is true of Hindi . . .

The training of English teachers is carried out partly by the Central Institute of English, Hyderabad, and by the State and Regional Institutes of English. The

³⁴H. C. Trivedi, "Teaching of English to Postgraduate Students in South Gujarat", <u>English Language Teaching</u>, Vol. XXVII, No. 1 (Oct. 1972), p. 101.

35 Ibid.

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³⁶J. Lowe, N. Grant, et al., ed., <u>Education and Nation</u> <u>Building in the Third World</u> (Editourgh: Scottish Academic Press, 1971), p. 196.

Centmal Institute also trains instructors in English language teaching for the teacher training institutions.³⁷ The retraining of teachers in new methods of teaching English as a foreign language is also emphasized.

The strong prejudices which exist around the Indian language problem have complicated the planning of Indian language teacher training. The Kothari Commission has stated that:

Of the many problems which the country has faced since independence, the language question has been one of the most complex and intractable and it still continues to be so.

Although English is recognized as being an international language which is necessary for India's foreign relations, Hindi is the official language of the central government. In addition, the regional languages claim recognition within the educational system. Until these political differences are resolved, language teacher training cannot be adequately carried out.

³⁷Baldev Raj Nayar, <u>National Communication and Language</u> <u>Policy in India</u>, p. 249. 88

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³⁸Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 13.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Although estimates made by the central government of the future enrollment in India's schools have been found to be rather over-optimistic, since their anticipation of universal education even in the primary schools has not yet been achieved,¹ the education of adequate numbers of qualified teachers for India's growing population remains a frustrating problem. Moreover, the Kothari Commission itself admitted the difficulty of changing the existing educational system:

Traditional societies which desire to modernize themselves have to transform their educational system before trying to expand it, because the greater the expansion of the traditional system of education, the more difficult and costly it becomes to change its character. This truth has been lost sight of and, during recent years, we have greatly expanded a system which continues to have essentially the same features it had at its creation about a century ago.²

Therefore, a radical improvement of teacher education in

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²Ministry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> <u>Education Commission: 1964-66</u> (New Delhi: Government of India Press, 1966), p. 6.

¹National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators, <u>Educational Innovations in India: Some</u> <u>Experiments</u> (New Delhi: National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators, 1974), p. 3.

India would require the cooperation of the present system, and this, as K. L. Pandit points out, "is not possible without harming those holding high places in the existing system".³

Most of the burden of funding teacher education has been the responsibility of the states, who provide an average of 75 per cent of the financial support for teacher training institutions.⁴ Standards for teacher education differ widely, especially since there is no central agency set up as a watchdog. In the case of primary school teacher training institutions, the states retain almost complete control; secondary school teacher colleges receive a small amount of outside direction from the central government through the universities. Since the universities are not very responsive to the dictates of either the central government or the state governments, the local school board tends to follow its own interests, and the states all have different priorities, the facilities and the standards of instruction within the secondary school teacher training colleges can vary widely. Taking advantage of this weakness in the educational system, large numbers

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K. L. Pandit, Kurukshetra University, Letter, <u>Hindustan</u> <u>Times Weekly</u>, Aug. 25, 1974, p. 5.

⁴Ministry of Education and Youth Services, Government of India, <u>Report of the Education Commission: 1964-66</u>, <u>Supplementary Volume II (New Delhi: Government of India</u> Press, 1970), p. 305.

of "black-market", privately run training colleges have appeared. There is therefore a need for a national agency to supervise teacher eddcation and to eradicate these educational "profiteers".

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As we have seen, the education of primary school teachers is still a major problem in India, despite the Kothari Commission's stress on its priority in educational reform. Although, for the purposes of universal education, elementary education receives top priority in most of the Indian government's programs, institutions for primary school teacher training are in most cases poorly financed, poorly housed, and badly staffed. Their standards, both for the admission of students and for the granting of a degree, are low. The universities tend to ignore them and the secondary teacher training colleges keep their affairs separate. Furthermore, the curriculum of the primary school teacher training institutions varies from state to state, as there is yet no central agency to supervise teacher education. The quality of instruction provided even in the state institutes of education still depends upon the direction and financing provided by each state. In addition, the staff of the primary school teacher training institutions have, in general, not received adequate preparation in the training of primary school teachers. Poor salaries and poor prestige in the educational world account in part for this problem. As a

result, their teaching does not adequately prepare their students or arouse their interest.

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The Commission had hoped that by the end of the Fourth Five Year Plan "the output of trained teachers in any given year would be equal to the demand for additional teachers in the following year".⁵ In 1968-69, although 71 per cent of primary school teachers were trained,⁶ many had been unqualified (having less than ten years of schooling) for acceptance into the training institutions in the first place.⁷ Therefore, the Commission recognized the need for better standards of teacher training and hiring. These standards are in practice in some of the more progressive states like Tamil Nadu and Gujarat, however, there is still the temptation to make use of unemployed high school and university graduates, without giving them any further training. The appointment of 30,000 of these educated unemployed was planned for in 1972,⁸ but such an enormous backlog of untrained teachers

^OMinistry of Education, Government of India, <u>Report of the</u> Education Commission: 1964-66, p. 83.

⁷UNESCO, <u>International Yearbook of Education, 1967</u>, Vol. XXIX (Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1967), p. 194.

⁸J. P. Saxena, <u>Educated Unemployment in India:</u> Problems & <u>Suggestions</u> (New Delhi: Commercial Publications Bureau, 1972), p. 154.

⁶Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, <u>Teacher Education</u> <u>in Asia</u> (Bangkok: Regional Office for Education in Asia, <u>1972)</u>, p. 108.

cannot be adequately dealt with by the present programs of in-service education. As well, low salaries and little academic recognition offer few incentives to primary school teachers to improve their education.

Secondary school teacher education receives more attention, due to the emphasis placed on its importance by the Secondary Education Commission of 1953. After the government's attention in this area prior to the report of the Kothari Commission, facilities for secondary school teacher education have been considered adequate and attention has shifted to the quality of education received in these institutions.

Folfowing the recommendations of the Kothari Commission, the Fourth Five Year Plan gave priority to the improvement of the quality of secondary school teacher training. However, such improvements imply a radical change in the colleges, in their curriculum, staff, student qualifications and facilities. The secondary school teacher training colleges are treated as "junior partners in the system of higher education".⁹ Therefore, they do not attract very well qualified staff. Moreover, the quality of the teacher trainees is not very high, since entrants to

⁹Department of Education and Science, <u>Teacher Education and</u> <u>Training</u> (London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1972), p. 1.

the colleges are generally among the poorest university graduates. Because of the expense of a more adequate professional education, such as that provided by the regional colleges of education, the one-year training period must suffice for most states. In addition, the curriculum of the secondary school teacher training institutions remains over-shadowed by the rigid examination system. Better subject content and more modern methodologies receive little attention from the examination conscious students. Also, as they point out, most of the Indian schools lack facilities, staff and space for the practice of more advanced teaching techniques.

The secondary school teacher may find himself in a better position, socially and financially, than does his colleague in the primary school; however, opportunities for his advancement are few because of the poor reputation which his training holds. A university graduate with a B.A. "pass" and a one-year teacher training certificate is simply not highly regarded.

The large numbers of untrained teachers in India still presents a problem to the Indian government. Despite efforts to reduce them, these numbers remain fairly constant as a result of a scarcity of training institutions and the states' willingness to employ untrained graduates. An adequate professional preparation of those untrained teachers now in service should take priority over the

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additional training of already certified teachers, since a certain standard of professional preparation should first be established for the hiring of teachers In addition, the professional education of teacher-educators, especially those in primary school teacher training institutions, is often not relevant to the instruction which they give to the teacher trainees. Moreover, the quality of research on Indian education is not always at a sufficiently high level to make it useful in the improvement of teacher training. Financing and salary scales play an important part in the attainment of high standards in research and in professional preparation. The encouragement of more women to join the teaching profession also requires better financial assistance to women teacher trainees, plus a more enlightened, view on women's education by the Indian society. The sole area of teacher education which does seem to be receiving a large amount of interest and financial support (mainly from private organizations) is the training of Hindi teachers. This interest is mostly due to the political importance of Hindi in India today.

A recent conference on teacher education has emphasized the fact that an increase in the educational budget of the majority of the developing nations is extremely doubtful, since most of them already devote a 95

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large proportion of their national budget to education.¹⁰ "Few Commonwealth countries spend less than one-seventh of their total public expenditure on education: some are spending as much as one-third".¹¹ In 1972, India spent 2.6 per cent of her Gross National Product on education.¹² In addition, teacher's salaries are not expected to increase, since they account for a large proportion of the educational budget. Therefore, the financing of the recommendations of the Kothari Commission on teacher education has, in some cases, been withheld and, in others, stringently and inadequately provided.

A review of the principal recommendations of the Kothari Commission shows that in 1974 the majority of them had yet to be acted on. One of the first recommendations was that calling for closer cooperation between the teacher training institutions and the universities, and between the primary and secondary school teacher training institutions. If this proposed cooperation has not been realized, one reason is the unwillingness of the universities to bring about such a collaboration until the quality of

¹⁰Commonwealth Secretariat, Report of the Seventh Commonwealth Education Conference, Accra, Ghana: 9-18 March, 1977 (London: The Commonwealth Secretariat, 1977), p. 62,

¹¹<u>Ibid</u>., p. iii.

¹²Ibid., p. 94.

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teacher training reaches.a higher level. Moreover, the continuing practice of the states to admit students with less than ten years of schooling into the primary school teacher training institutions makes a fruitful relationship between these instantions and the secondary school teacher training colleges an impossibility.

A second major recommendation, that calling for an improvement of training programs and training institutions, has not been successful owing to both a lack of financial support and (in the case of secondary school teacher training institutions) a lack of promotion by the universities. Since the universities control both the curriculum and the examinations in the secondary school teacher training colleges, their assistance is of paramount importance.

A third recommendation was that of forming agencies, such as State Boards of Teacher Education, to dictate national standards for teacher education. These have not been set up, owing to both a lack of financing and the unavailability of well qualified members, since India does not yet possess a very large corps of experts on education.

A fourth recommendation was that referring to the in-service education of teachers. Although the cost of complete in-service training programs is too high, many institutions offer courses to up-date the education of

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trained teachers. However, the poor training offered by many of the private teacher training institutions in their one- or two-year program acts as an additional impediment to an increase in the standards of teacher education in India.

Three additional areas of teacher training covered by the Kothari Commission's report were those of graduate teacher education, the education of women teachers and language teacher training. Graduate teacher education suffers from the problems of little financing and the discouragement of independent research due to the rigidity of the educational system. Women teacher trainees face the still prevalent barriers of religious and social opposition to women teachers. Financial assistance, seen as a partial solution since it would help more girl students to continue on into higher studies, has not been forthcoming. The last area reviewed, that of language teacher training, is the one in which the most progress can be seen. Because of their national importance, both Hindi and the regional languages have been promoted at the expense of English and several new language teacher training institutions have been established.

The conclusion reached by this study is that the recommendations made by the Kothari Commission to the Indian government in 1966 have received only sparse attention. One reason for this may be the lack of funds and of

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public interest. Teacher education does not have the sense of immediacy that universal education has. Secondary school teacher education and the education of language teachers have received the greatest priority; primary school teacher education the smallest. A prior education commission and national interest account for the partial success of the former; lack of status and of importance in the public eye account for the poor progress of the latter.

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