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EDUCATION IN INDIA

Andrews University

Ed.D. 1980

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School of Graduate Studies

FINANCING UNIVERSAL COMPULSORY FREE ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION IN INDIA

A Dissertation
Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Simon G. David
August 1980

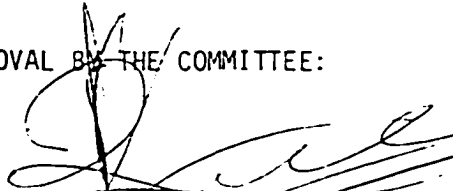
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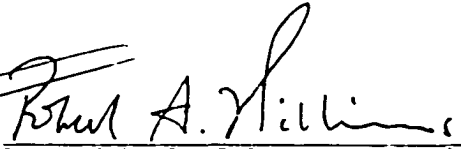
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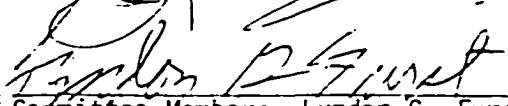
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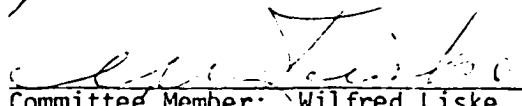
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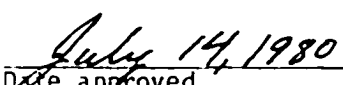
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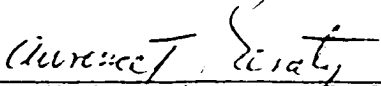

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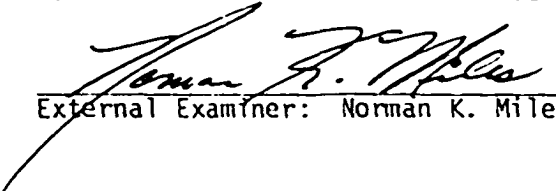

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ABSTRACT

FINANCING UNIVERSAL COMPULSORY FREE ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION IN INDIA

by

Simon G. David

Chairman: Bernard M. Lall

ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Dissertation

Andrews University

Department of Education

Title: FINANCING UNIVERSAL COMPULSORY FREE ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION IN INDIA

Name of researcher: Simon G. David

Name and degree of faculty adviser: Bernard M. Lall, Ph.D.

Date completed: August 1980

Problem

There is a definite desire and demand from the people of India for elementary educational opportunities for all children. Since not all children between six and fourteen years of age are able to attend school, it is essential to know why. This study examined some of the factors which tend to influence the financial ability of the government to provide a sufficient number of schools so that all children may attend.

Data Collection, Methods, and Procedures

Data has been collected from a review of selected resource material which answer the following questions: What is India

presently spending on elementary education? What could India afford to spend annually for implementing universal elementary education? How much money is required to place all children into a school system? What other factors interfere with the potential financial resources which cannot be assigned to promote elementary education?

Important Findings

Under existing conditions, India is doing reasonably well regarding economic progress; but it could be improved considerably if all the available resources, manpower, and material were utilized to the maximum, thus greatly increasing the Gross National Product (GNP). Unfortunately, concerted effort from all concerned is greatly lacking. The caste and class-biased society is not single-minded, hence it fizzles out into different directions with very little improvement.

The well-developed nations like the United Kingdom invest 6.2 percent of its GNP in education, USSR 7.00 percent, Japan 5.2 percent, and other developed countries an average of 4.5 percent, whereas India invested an average of 3 percent of its GNP in education.

If India would invest 6 percent or more of its GNP to education, it could place all the children in school by 2000 A.D. If it does not, however, it may not be able to bring all the children into the school system. This is due to an increase in the population of more than ten million children per year, and the lack of available financial resources to educate them.

At present, in addition to the children who are already

in elementary school, the educational system absorbs an additional four million children from grades (standard) 1 to 8 each year, but six million children are left out of the school system every year. These are being added to the list of illiterates. Furthermore, unless the birth rate is considerably reduced soon, the increased GNP evident in the 1980s will be consumed by the increasing number of children and by other cultural factors--i.e., the destruction of one-third of the annual harvest of food. If this large quantity of food grain were conserved, it would undoubtedly support the entire elementary educational program in the country.

Conclusions

Thus far the elementary-school system has boosted the enrollment in schools, but the educational authorities have not paid attention to retain those who have enrolled nor to control the dropout rate. It is time to enforce attendance laws in the public school system.

Since education is the responsibility of the state, the Federal Government should provide financial assistance to help provide food for poor families who lose part of their family income when their children attend school.

As long as elementary educational opportunity is denied by not allocating sufficient funds for education, future losses in various areas will be greater and social unrest will increase. This principle of loss has been frequently stated by well-known international economists. Well-developed industrial nations have learned of the need for education by experience and research evidences prove the value of universal education.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	vi
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vii
 Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
National Awakening in India	5
Compulsory Elementary Education	6
Basic Education	6
Social Integration	8
Training for Employment	8
Curriculum Improvement	9
Statement of the Problem	11
Purpose of the Study	11
Thesis	11
Definition of Terms	13
Delimitations of the Study	14
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	15
First Five-Year Plan	15
Second Five-Year Plan	16
Third Five-Year Plan	16
Fourth Five-Year Plan	16
Fifth Five-Year Plan	17
Education in the Economic Planning	18
Barriers in Providing Universal Education	20
Ignorance and Poverty	20
Population Explosion	21
Cultural Barriers	23
Monkeys	23
Rodents	23
Cattle	24
Production Labor	25
Economy and Employment	26
Dignity of Labor and Love for Humanity	26
Living Wage	28
Social Order	29
Summary	31

Chapter	
III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	34
Procedure	34
Sources of Data	35
Analysis of Data	36
Organization of the Study	37
IV. THE PRESENT CONDITION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN INDIA	39
Organizational Patterns	39
Number of Schools	40
Student Enrollment	40
Constitutional Directive	41
National Scheme	42
Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes	43
Enrollment between 1950-51 and 1978-79	44
Private Education	45
Girls' Education	46
Boys' Education	47
Retention and Dropouts	47
Poor Attendance	50
Transportation, Textbooks, and Stationery	50
Practical Education	51
Over-aged Children	51
Recruitment of Staff Members	52
Teacher Preparation	54
Buildings and Equipment	55
Classroom Furniture	56
Classroom Conditions	57
Classroom Equipment	58
One-Teacher School	60
Elementary-School-Teachers' Salary Scale	62
Explanation of Salary Scale	63
Summary	71
V. THE HISTORY AND FINANCIAL BACKGROUND OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN INDIA	75
Education Prior to Muslim Invasion	76
Buddhist Education	77
Education in the Mohammedan Period	78
Schools Prior to British Rule	80
Financing of Schools	80
Education during British Reign	81
Missionary Educational Enterprise	82
Stanley Dispatch	87
Transfer of Educational Control (1871)	87
Summary of School Finance during the Nineteenth Century (British Period)	88
Elementary Education from 1901 to 1947	89

Chapter

V. (Continued)	
Financial Plan	91
Financial Arrangements	94
Sargent's Educational System	95
Elementary Education in the Republic of India 1947	97
Sources of Revenue	99
Educational Responsibility of States and Federal Governments	100
Statutory Provision	101
Children in School	102
Teacher-Student Ratio	103
Financing of Elementary Education	103
Elementary Educational Expenditure in 1979-80 and Beyond	114
Summary	115
VI. TRENDS IN FUTURE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION	118
Gross National Product	119
Gross National Product and Per Capita Income	120
Population Growth	122
VII. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	130
Summary	130
Purpose of the Study	130
Social Barriers	132
Cultural Barriers	133
Nationalized Industries	133
Population	133
Untouchability	134
Educational Finance Prior to Muslim Invasion	135
Educational Finance in Buddhist Period	136
Educational Finance in British Period	136
Educational Finance in the Republic of India	138
Conclusion	138
Recommendations	140
BIBLIOGRAPHY	143
VITA	153

LIST OF TABLES

1. Number of Elementary Schools	41
2. Comparative Salary Scale 1963 vs. 1973	64
3. Expenditure for 1881-1882	89
4. Progress of Elementary Education	97
5. Elementary Schools	104
6. School Enrollment in Million Grades One to Eight by Selected Years	105
7. Number of Teachers in Elementary Schools 1969-70 vs. 1974-75	106
8. Elementary Educational Expenditure	109
9. Direct Elementary Educational Expenditure 1969-70 School Year	109
10. Indirect School Expenditure Elementary-School Buildings 1969-1970	110
11. Expenditure on Dormitory Buildings for 1969-70	110
12. Summary of Indirect Expenditure School and Dormitory Building 1969-70	111
13. Elementary School Expenditure for 1974-75	112
14. Cost of Elementary Education Per Pupil	113
15. Elementary Educational Budget Allocation	113
16. Gross National Product and Per Capita Income Per Year	121
17. Population Trends from 1951 to 1981	123
18. School Going Age Group in 1976	124
19. School Age Population by Sex in India Age Group Five to Ten Years Grades (Standards) One to Five	125
20. School Age Population by Sex in India Age Group Eleven to Fourteen Years Grades (Standards) Six to Eight	125
21. Potential School-Going Age Group Age Group Five to Ten Years Grades (Standards) One to Five	126
22. Potential School Going Age Group Age Group Eleven to Fifteen Years Grades (Standards) Six to Eight	126
23. Total Enrollment and Percentage to Total Population 1950 - 1983 Grades (Standards) One to Five (Age Five to Ten)	128
24. Total Enrollment and Percentage to Total Population 1950 - 1983 Grades (Standards) Six to Eight (Age Eleven to Fourteen)	128
25. Potential Illiterates in Millions 1977-1983	135

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

India has the second largest population in the world, estimated in 1978 to be 650 million; but it is the seventh largest country in terms of size. It has an area of 3,287,782 square kilometers (Dutt, 1972, p. 1). India lies entirely in the northern hemisphere and the mainland stretches between latitudes 8°4' and 37°6' north and longitudes 68°7' and 97°25' east and measures roughly 3,214 kms from north to south between extreme latitudes, and approximately 2,933 kms from east to west between extreme longitudes. It has a land frontier of 15,200 kms and a coastline of 6,100 kms (India, 1978, p. 1).

It includes as large a human geographical difference as Europe. There are fourteen official regional languages and hundreds of local languages and dialects. Dress, customs, and way of life differ vastly. The Indian national language is Hindi and the associate language is English (Dutt, 1972, p. 2).

The climate is actually one of great extremes. The northern Himalayan areas, bordering the Tibetan passes, are covered with snow and are blocked for six months during the year. In the south along the coastline of Kerala, the temperature never drops below 70°F. In some parts of Rajasthan, it seldom rains for years in succession. In the eastern region, especially in Assam, it seldom ceases

raining. In one location the average annual rainfall is nearly 500 inches. In the large part of the country it is hot or cold, dry or wet depending on the season. For example, in the New Delhi area, it might not rain ten months of the year, but when the monsoon commences rain pours incessantly for two months. To a great extent the annual monsoon, more than any other single factor, determines how more than half a billion people will live a year or two in the future (ibid.).

India had been the cradle of the great civilization known as the Indus Valley civilization which goes back to 3000 B.C. From that time many races such as the Aryans, Scythians, Mongolians, Arabs, and Turks came to this land at different time periods. Each left on its growing civilization the impact of their respective cultures, languages, and religious values. Each influenced to some extent the people's social, economic, and political institutions, and also the course of their history (Huq, 1965, p. 23).

The earliest inhabitants, presumed to be the Dravidians, developed a rich and unique civilization similar in many respects to that of the Summerian civilization which appeared to be contemporaneous with the Indus Valley civilization. Excavations have revealed ample evidence of the Mohenjo Daro (Sind) and Harappa (Punjab) civilization which flourished about 3000 B.C. They had evidently lived a good and comfortable life with a sound system of sanitation, public health, and a fine sense of esthetic values. They also reached a very high level of town planning, engineering, and construction (Powell-Price, 1955, p. 7).

That highly civilized culture could not have existed without a good educational system. However, this educational system evidently did not survive the onslaughts of the invaders. Eventually it succumbed to the ravages of war that came in the wake of the Aryans, Scythians, Mongolians, Arabs, and Turks who destroyed the civilization developed by the Dravidians.

At the time of India's independence, the British Government of India had a well-organized elementary-educational system as well as secondary- and collegiate-educational programs. There were 185,506 elementary schools with an enrollment of 13,828,007 students from grade one to eight (Mukerji, 1976, pp. 60-62).

Though India gained independence in 1947, it remained a member of the British Commonwealth of Nations. In 1950 India chose to become an Independent Sovereign Republic and adopted a new Constitution. In the book Education and National Development (1970, vol. 1, p. xvi) the section titled "Free and Compulsory Education" it is stated that Article 45 of the Constitution of India proposes "to provide free and compulsory education for all children up to the age of 14." This statement indicates one of the most basic aspirations of the people of India--a tremendous desire and urge for education among the masses--but to make education available to such a large group of children is an enormous task (Wood, 1955, p. 522).

However, an attempt to finance education is being made through an educational cess or tax which is a part of property taxes, professional taxes, mining taxes, etc. Although the rate of levy

differs from state to state, a portion of these taxes is used for elementary education. Income tax, sales tax, excise duties, and other taxes are pooled and a percentage of all these taxes is also assigned to education (Saiyidain, Naik, Hussain, & Ojha, 1967, pp. 177-79).

In 1951 the population of India was three hundred and sixty million. The census indicated that seventy-two million were in the age group of six to fourteen years. Of those in school, nearly thirteen million were boys and five million were girls. This reveals that 25 percent of the seventy-two million children were receiving school education, whereas 75 percent were not. However, the ambition of the people and the government of India has been to provide free education for all children (Cramer, 1956, p. 513).

The Indian people believe that education plays a prominent role in every day life and therefore they want an education for all of their children. Most of the people long for enlightenment, knowledge, and useful skills so that they can have some of the better things of life. Wood further comments in the Elementary School Journal (1955, pp. 522-24) that there is an insatiable desire and craving for an education in India. He mentions the Constitution of India, Article 45, which promises to provide free and compulsory elementary education to all children until they become fourteen years of age. Referring to the quote he says, "This statement expresses one of the major faiths of the Indian people." It is true that the Indian people need education, knowledge, and enlightenment; they require skills to help them cope with the massive demand to provide a better way of life.

The implementation of compulsory, free elementary education should have been completed by the year 1961, according to the government's target plan, for the Directive Principle of the Constitution of India, Article 45 reads, "The state shall endeavor to provide [free education] within a period of ten years. . . ." (Wood, 1955, p. 522). However, this target period was revised and extended to the end of 1986 by the Education Commission of 1964-66.

The year 1986 is fast approaching. To keep its commitment, India must place approximately 50 percent of the six-to-fourteen-year-old children in school who are not currently attending school, within the next six years. Is this possible in view of India's limited resources? There is only one consolation. India is closer to its elementary-educational goals today than in 1950 and is determined to see the goal realized as soon as possible.

Rou expresses the people's desire for education:

Hunger for education is all-consuming and extends beyond the desire to be literate, and wherever there are schools, they are full. The smallest percent increase in education means millions of new literates and this is a revolution in itself. (Chalapathi Rou, 1965, p. 60)

Addressing the Calcutta University Convocation, Chester Bowles (1964) said: "Education is the most powerful of all our tools for controlling and shaping the forces of nature and creating an orderly, dynamic and just society" (p. 51). To this end India constantly strives.

National Awakening in India

The masses who have been suppressed for ages now have a realization of their rights and "are demanding education, equality,

higher standards of living, and better civic amenities" (Education & National Development, 1970, Vol. 1, p. 6). It is urgent that these expectations be met as soon as possible.

Compulsory Elementary Education

Compulsory, free elementary education is not new to the Indian people. William Adams, a missionary with considerable experience, suggested in 1838 that a law be enacted asking every village to have a school and to maintain it. In 1858 R. C. Hope, the inspector of schools in Gujarat; in 1862 captain Wingate, the revenue survey commissioner of Bombay Province; and in 1884 Shri Shastri, the deputy education inspector of Broach suggested compulsory, free elementary education (Mukerji, 1976, p. 35).

Prince Saijirao Gaikwad, the Maharaja of Baroda, an Indian national, implemented compulsory elementary education in 1906 throughout the State of Baroda. Shri Gopaul Krishna Gokhale, a veteran national leader, demanded that the British rulers introduce compulsory education in 1910 throughout India. However the choice was left with the parents whether to send or not to send their children to school. This tended to defeat the purpose of compulsory education.

Basic Education

As Mahatma Gandhi studied the existing educational program, he discovered that it was not relevant to the life of the people in India. He suggested an indigenous educational system which related to the life conditions of the people. This was an especially meaningful program to an agricultural society, as well as to other sections of the society. He invited leading educators of India to

Wardha where he held an educational convention in 1937. Mahatma Gandhi's educational plan, taught in the mother tongue of the learner, lasted seven years. It omitted English and was a craft-oriented, life-related, and compulsory system for all children seven to fourteen (Sexana, 1979, p. 12). The ruling government at that time approved the proposed program of education implementing it throughout the provinces of British India. Discussing this basic education, Bettelheim and Takanishi (1976, p. 133) stated that this was expected to meet the total needs of the whole child, including the physical, mental, moral, cultural, social and spiritual aspects of human development which would ultimately result in social, political, and economic reforms.

The proposed program of education, however, was discontinued when World War II broke out in 1939 and the attention of the government of India was diverted to military operations investing men, money, and material to fight the enemy. Furthermore, the war led to a number of political developments which finally resulted in India's independence in 1947. At the time of the departure of the British from India, literacy was about 15 percent, in 1951 it was 16.6 percent, in 1961 24 percent, and in 1971 29.45 percent. By the end of 1979, literacy was estimated to be about 35 percent.

The spirit of improvement, enthusiasm, industrialization, educational advancement, social and political revolution are the characteristics of India in 1980. The masses are demanding change toward a more humane quality of life. Traditional caste-based life is slowly giving way to social mobility as well as intermingling all castes as one social unit. People tied down to the caste

system for centuries were in the decades of the 1930s, 40s, and 50s through forces in operation at home and abroad compelled to the threshold of modern democracy. These forces have enlightened the people to follow a program of compulsory, free elementary education in India.

Social Integration

National integration, social harmony, a sense of belonging, improved standards of living for the general public, reduction in unemployment, and bridging the gulf of disparities in development between different sections of the country became necessary to promote a sense of equal opportunity in the social life in India. These national ideals can be attained only by educating and enlightening the people through a system of education nationally accepted and simultaneously implemented in all states throughout the union of India (Education and National Development, 1970, Vol. I, p. 17).

Training for Employment

Education is essential to train people to occupy positions of trust, responsibility, and local administration. In addition, India has to maintain and preserve dignity, self-respect, and self-image as an independent nation both at home and abroad so that all people may work hard, cooperatively, and creatively to assist fellow citizens throughout the country (ibid., pp. 5-7).

In the book Education and National Development (1970), it is stated that new ideas and new practices cannot be effectively transmitted to minds which are not trained to receive them and to

make use of them. Whether it is family planning, improved sanitary conditions, programs of social uplift, or any move which requires changes of attitudes and habits of life, it must make sense to the people. Furthermore, it must be realized that uneducated people cannot make a real democracy, the essence of which lies in the participation and sharing of ideas by the people in organized civil life for important decision making. Hence, a minimum of seven years of schooling is necessary for the development of individuals and for the advancement of the country (p. 781).

Curriculum Improvement

The present curriculum of elementary schools is narrow, one-sided, and unattractive (Mukerji, 1976, p. 100). It is mainly academic and does not bridge the gap between the home and the school. It does not meet the needs of an agricultural society, for more than 80 percent of the population live in rural communities (King, 1973, p. 368). It is not relevant to the practical-life situations. Hence, it has been highly criticized by Indian educators, industrialists, and enlightened citizens. These forward-looking citizens have called for an educational system that would meet the cultural, social, economic, and industrial needs of the people.

Though earnest efforts have been put forth to combat illiteracy, about four million illiterates are added each year. In 1951 there were 298 million and in 1971 the number increased to 386 million. It is a challenge to the Indian people to fight against illiteracy by providing financial support for the implementation of compulsory, free elementary education (ibid.).

Today, India's destiny is being shaped in the classrooms. This is no longer rhetoric because the people of India believe in education. In a world based on science and technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare, and security of the people. Therefore, education has to be used as a powerful tool of social, economic, and political change and has to be related to long-term national aspirations--a program of national development in which the country is engaged. This is the reason for the difficult problems India has to face in a short time (Education and National Development, 1970, pp. 3, 4).

During the 1965-66 school year, 54 percent of the eligible children were enrolled in the elementary schools. In 1970-71 enrollment rose to 57 percent in the first eight grades; and in the 1978-79 school year, enrollment was 95.7 percent in the first five grades and 46.1 percent in grades six to eight. Still, approximately 30 percent of the children are out of the school system. Their entry into school depends on many unpredictable problems. One of these problems is the financial inability of state and federal governments to operate more elementary schools to accommodate all the children. In 1976, the general public felt that the government was not giving education adequate financial support (Mukerji, 1976, p. 95). If this is true, what are some of the factors which may limit the government's funds to implement compulsory, free elementary education for all India's children between the ages of six to fourteen years?

Statement of the Problem

There is a definite desire and demand from the people of India for elementary educational opportunities for all children. Since not all children between six and fourteen years of age are able to attend school, it is essential to know why. This study examined some of the factors which tend to influence the financial ability of the government to provide a sufficient number of schools so that all children may attend.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate relevant data with regard to economic factors that relate to a universal, compulsory, free elementary educational program for all children in India. Information obtained from a review of selected government source material was used to answer the following questions: (1) What is India presently spending annually for elementary education? (2) What can India afford to spend annually for universal, compulsory, free elementary education? (3) How much money is needed to implement universal, compulsory, free elementary education in India? (4) What other factors tend to interfere with potential resources which may be allocated to elementary education?

Thesis

The fundamental thesis is that the financing of universal, compulsory, free elementary education is not simply securing larger grants or subsidies from the government of India or from other international organizations or agencies but the involvement of the whole nation's finance. That is, financing of universal, compulsory,

free elementary education must be included in the financing of all institutions, functions, and operations of the governments and cannot be maintained separately from the entire cost of the Federal Government of India. This study attempts to find how much the state governments have been spending for elementary education and how much money has been required to implement the goal of providing elementary education to all children between six to fourteen years.

Devegowda and Seetharamu (1978), discussing educational planning and expansion, stated that all planning should take into account all resources, financial, material, and human, as well as other available resources. The implementation of universal, compulsory, free education for all children demands careful consideration of all relevant aspects of finance in the country. As expenditures increase in the department of elementary education, they tend to encroach upon the total revenue of each state government as well as the Federal Government of India. All educational planning should start from a thorough knowledge of existing financial conditions, for these conditions will probably be the controlling issues in the days to come.

The state governments have the responsibility of financing education at all levels. This means that each state has the responsibility of educating all the children who are residing within its territorial jurisdiction. The Federal Government of India is the coordinator of all the educational planning in the country. Therefore, the Federal Government plans and tries to maintain uniformity in its developmental programs as well as to provide educational

subsidies for the expansion of elementary education in all the states in the Indian Union.

Since elementary education must be financed by funds allocated from the total revenue of the Government of India, any demand of universal, compulsory, free elementary education is also a demand on the financial resources of the country. Educational income and expenditure are a part of the national income and expenditure, respectively. Whatever the federal and state governments set aside from the total revenue of their respective governments for elementary education would ultimately determine the period of time necessary to implement compulsory, free elementary education and will determine and the quality of education that can be made available.

Definition of Terms

Brahmin is a member of the Hindu priestly caste or a person belonging to the topmost caste in the social structure in India.

Cess is a term used in India as an educational tax, but commonly used as educational cess. (Cess is a tax; levy. Middle English cessen, short for assessen, assess.)

Caste is a social system which was originally based on occupation; that is, there was an exclusive and restrictive social and occupational group; or socially rigid class distinction based on birth, wealth, and social hierarchial system in India. It is no longer officially recognized.

Crore is the sum of ten million used in India to state a specific amount of money in rupees; or one hundred lakhs.

Denomination is a particular religious group or sect or organization with a specific name assigned to it in order to distinguish it from other groups.

Kshatriya is a member of the Hindu ruling or military caste below the Brahmin in India's social structure.

Lakh is the sum of one hundred thousand, especially of rupees.

Practical education emphasizes the life related practical aspect of elementary education relevant to the life situation tending toward a work oriented curricular program.

Sudra is a member of the fourth or the lowest caste in India's social structure, that of a menial laborer.

Vaisya is a member of the traditional trading and agricultural caste below Kshatriya in India's social structure.

Delimitations of the Study

This study has been limited to the financial problem of elementary education in India. Its source has been primarily limited to government publications, reports, books, and periodicals, though other available sources have been used as well.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Since independence, India has planned for an all-round, gradual development of the country in industry, agriculture, health, education, and other important aspects of its national growth. A brief review of these plans has been made to show the relationship of financing elementary education and national development.

First Five-Year Plan

The First Five-Year Plan covered a period from 1951 to 1956. Sargent (1968, p. 32) commented that the First Five-Year Plan had given top priority to agriculture, which occupies a dominant place in India's economy, and allocated to it 45 percent of the total estimated funds.

Education was given 8 percent of the total estimated funds to educate 29 million children who formed approximately 60 percent of the total school-age population in the six-to-eleven-year age group (ibid.).

Referring to this age group, Huq (1965, p. 184) indicated that it was a large number of children to educate and the country fell short of the goal by four million. This means that out of 29 million children only 25 million were in school and four million did not find accommodation.

Second Five-Year Plan

The Second Five-Year Plan covered 1956 to 1961. The main emphasis shifted from agriculture to heavy industry. According to Huq (1965, p. 184), the educational goals set for this second five-year period was to increase the elementary enrollment in the six-to-eleven-year age group from 29 million to 32.5 million or 62.37 percent. Though the target was increased somewhat, it was a relatively modest goal as compared to the first five-year plan; but funds were reduced to 5.5 percent due to lack of developmental funds. Since funds were lacking, only 61 percent of all the school-aged children were enrolled by the end of that period.

Third Five-Year Plan

During the Third Five-Year Plan period (1961-1966), the emphasis was placed to a great extent on the development of agriculture and industry (Sargent, 1968, p. 34). The educational goal was to increase the enrollment to 49.64 million or 76.4 percent of all children in the six-to-fourteen-year age group. During this period 127 crores of rupees were allocated to elementary education (a crore = 10 million). The first period received forty-two crores of rupees, the second sixty-four crores, and the third 127 crores. The first two five-year plans placed the main emphasis on elementary education for the six-to-eleven-year age group. The third five-year plan included the eleven-to-fourteen age group.

Fourth Five-Year Plan

During the Fourth Five-Year Plan period (1969-1974), 64.58 percent of the children in the six-to-fourteen-year age group were

enrolled in grades one to eight. A sum of 239 crores of rupees was assigned to elementary education from the estimated funds. But the schools spent only 225 crores, according to the Draft Fifth-Five Year Plan, Vol. I, 1974-79, p. 88.

Fifth Five-Year Plan

During the Fifth Five-Year Plan period (1974-1979), the enrollment increased to 72 percent of all children in the six-to-fourteen-year age group with an anticipated expenditure of 317 crores of rupees (ibid.). The book made the following comment on enrollment: "The emphasis so far has been on mere enrollment in classes I-V and VI-VIII. This has concealed the inflated enrollments and large drop-out rates of about 60 percent between classes I-V and 75 percent between classes I-VIII" (p. 220). Evidently, about 40 percent of all children enrolled in school completed the fifth grade and only 25 percent of all children enrolled in grades one through eight completed an eighth-grade education. Scarce economic resources seemed to be wasted to a great extent since there was not proper implementation of average attendance in addition to enrollment.

According to Rai (1979, p. 26), the government of India under British rule met 30 percent of the total expenditure incurred on elementary education. After gaining independence, this amount was increased to 34 percent by the new government. Rai commented that this meager assistance given by the federal government of India was not adequate to implement the elementary educational scheme of the country.

Education in the Economic Planning

In order to achieve its elementary educational goals, India "will require an estimated sixfold increase in total expenditures at constant prices from 1965 to 1985" (Coomb's, 1968, p. 62). It was assumed that India's economy would grow at 6 percent annually during this period. Educational expenses would have to be increased from 2.9 percent Gross National Product (GNP) in 1965 to 6 percent by 1985. India "must be aware of these facts as it looks to the future and sets a course for educational advancement" (Coomb's, 1968, pp. 62, 63).

According to Moore and Eldredge (1970, p. 286), "economic development requires saving and investment of the saved surplus in new economic activity." In 1966 India invested 25 billion dollars from public and private individuals and businesses. These investments brought added revenues to the government and to the people, and, ultimately, to the national exchequer in the form of various taxes. A part of these taxes should finally find its place in educational investment.

The increased school enrollments are simply an accompaniment of the economic growth. As a nation's per capita product increases, it has more funds to devote to education. Therefore, India must increase the per capita product or income so that it might receive more money to invest in education. More investment should be made at the elementary-education level rather than in secondary and higher education. For example, India, Pakistan, and Egypt (Gezi, 1971, p. 525) in 1958 invested more money in expanding enrollments in secondary- and higher-educational level at the expense of

elementary schooling. The economic growth of these countries was very slow. In the same year, Brazil, Mexico, Spain, and Taiwan (China) invested more money in their elementary enrollments. Their economic growth was rapid and brought quick economic returns. Higher education was stressed in these countries to a large extent after building up the enrollments in elementary schools. India should lay a strong foundation at the elementary level now and plan for the gradual expansion of other levels of higher education later. The cost of higher education is much greater than the cost of lower education (ibid.).

Singh (1970, p. 163) observed, "Economic inequality tends to influence adversely educational equality." Therefore, it is very essential for a nation to build economic equality of its people who, in turn, will develop their assets so that the surplus funds may be invested in worthwhile projects to generate additional funds which can be devoted to educational purposes.

According to Nanda (1977, p. 64), the old adage "money makes the mare go" is an apt quotation at this point. Elementary education may be instituted throughout the country when India generates adequate funds to invest in it. Since India has such a huge population to educate, it may not be able to implement a large educational program for several years. One may look to private individuals and agencies for help in implementing an elementary-educational program, but such sources at the present time will not provide an education for the masses because it is not financially profitable.

Nanda, referring to the financing of education at the

elementary level, concluded: "Since the government does not spend allocated funds on education, most of the finances are misspent by the government in curbing useless or imaginary agitations and so on. Very few funds are rightly channelized in education" (1977, p. 64).

Barriers in Providing Universal Education

The financing of elementary education is affected by several barriers which are discussed here to show further problems India faces in meeting its national goals of educating all children. These barriers are real and thwart the economic growth and development of the country to a great extent. Ultimately, they prevent the spread of universal, free, compulsory education in India.

Ignorance and Poverty

India as a nation is confronted with many growing pains and developmental problems. The planners are constantly at work planning for the diffusion of light and of knowledge to the masses through education. India's "greatest cause of human suffering is ignorance (White, 1976, p. 241). "Ignorance . . . will not elevate one member of the human family. Ignorance will not lighten the loss of the hard toiler" (White, 1923, p. 314). "Ignorance . . . a deadly moral malaria is destroying thousands and tens of thousands" (ibid., p. 320). This is true while 65 percent of the population of India cannot read or write.

One is "kept in a state of poverty" because of ignorance which breeds "disease and premature death" (White, 1948, p. 94). By

increasing one's family too rapidly, one will be living in a state of poverty. Fifty percent of India's population lives below the subsistence level (Nyrop, 1975). These twin evils--ignorance and poverty--are being fought by India in order to eliminate both of them from its land and its people. The lamp of education is being lit in all corners of the country to banish the darkness of ignorance and the blight of poverty.

Population Explosion

In addition to these twin barriers--ignorance and poverty--another deterring barrier is the population explosion which has been, is, and probably will be a big problem to the people of India.

The Abbé Dubois, an Indian demographer around 1800 A.D., gave a warning message to the people and rulers of India by writing that he had "every reason to feel convinced that a considerable increase in the population should be looked upon as a calamity rather than as a blessing" (Davis, 1968, p. 203).

Many demographers have stated that Indian overpopulation is one of the causes of poverty. Baden-Powell in 1882 predicted that "by a fast increase in population the potential rise in prosperity is soon neutralized" (ibid.).

Anstey wrote in 1924 regarding an increase in population and problems rising from it and it was restated below by Davis:

It must be definitely recognized that general prosperity in India can never be rapidly or substantially increased so long as any increase in the income of individuals is absorbed not by a rise in the standard of life, but by an increase in the population. The population problem lies at the root of the whole question of India's economic future, and it is useless to try to bilk the fact. (1968, p. 203)

There are many recent authors who have suggested that the growth of population in India must be reduced by family planning or there will be no place to live, no food to eat, and no clothes to wear.

According to India's Reference Annuals (reference on table 16) its population increase per decade has been as follows:

1951 -	361,000,000
1961 -	439,000,000
1971 -	548,000,000
1981 -	668,000,000 (estimated)

It is of interest to note that the population of India has increased by 12 million per year.

In India one may find trends of modernization, industrialization, scientific, and technological growth. These are the signs of spasmodic growth here and there, but the growth is neither consistent nor universal. However, there is a change in the structural shift of the country's economy from agriculture to industry (Adams, 1970). Industrial growth doubled between the 1950s and the early 1960s. High human fertility has caused a steep increase in population growth which has neutralized per capita benefits derived from increased industrial productivity. As a result, there is nothing left either to contribute to improving the standard of living or to provide an economic reserve for education or capital investment for industrial production. Hence, there is an urgent need to start reducing human fertility. If not, the population will continue to grow and the economic progress gained in agriculture

and industrial production will be consumed by the increased population.

Cultural Barriers

In addition to barriers of ignorance, poverty, and population explosion, cultural barriers exist which hinder financing of elementary education. A brief consideration is given to a few of these barriers.

Monkeys

A popular belief among the Hindus is that monkeys are sacred and must be worshipped. They must not be killed. Therefore, the monkey population of India is very large and is growing each year. King (1973) stated that the monkey population annually eats and wastes a large quantity of food badly needed to feed humans. It is "officially estimated that one-third of the total harvest is lost each year in India mainly because of animal consumption or damage" (p. 377).

If adequate precaution is taken to prevent this destruction of large quantities of food by the animals, a few million tons of food grains could be conserved to feed the starving millions and a few million rupees could be saved by not importing food grains from other countries, thus improving the balance of trade.

Rodents

In 1965 it was estimated that the rodent population (rats and the like) was 2400 million which consumed and destroyed twelve million tons of food grains annually. Again this is a hard problem to solve, for since the people also consider rats as sacred and

worship them, they will not aid in destroying them (King, 1973, p. 377).

Cattle

Zinkin (1966) wrote that the cow is sacred to the Hindu and it

cannot be killed. As a result there are more cows in India than anywhere in the world . . . with two heads of cattle for three people. Cattle and people compete with each other for subsistence, so naturally the cattle are mostly of the scrub variety. (p. 172)

According to the Statistical Yearbook of 1977, the cattle population of India was estimated to be a total of 180 million (UNESCO, 1978, p. 119). Many cows do not give any milk at all, and milk yield is the lowest in the world. The best milk cow in India produces one-third of the amount of the best milk cow in the West. Milk is a rare and precious commodity; not everyone has a chance to drink it.

If a good breed of cows and bulls could be reared, the milk yield per cow would be increased considerably. This would supply the needs of domestic consumption and the surplus could be marketed. However, the attitude of the people toward cattle is such that cattle are not cared for properly; even the bulls may be too weak to work.

Gandhi narrated what a Muslim friend wrote in a book about the treatment of the cow and her offspring. He lamented:

How we bleed her to take the last drop of milk from her, how we starve to emaciation, how we ill-treat the calves, how we deprive them of their portion of milk, how cruelly we treat the oxen, how we castrate them, how we beat them, how we overload them. . . . Criminal negligence is the only cause of the miserable condition of our cattle. (Ghandi, quoted in Duncan, 1972, pp. 180-81)

The Indian people's attitude toward the cow is expressed by someone in one sentence: "We worship the cow, but look after the buffalo." Buffalos are well cared for and protected. They are not used for plowing or dragging carts with a heavy load; they are raised for milk and milk alone. Occasionally, however, one may see a team of male buffalos working in the rice fields in the puddling processes before the young rice plants are transplanted. Duncan (1972) has summarized what Mahatma Gandhi said about the traditional Hindu dairy farms as follows:

Our Panjrapoles (cattle shelters), though they are an answer to our instinct of mercy, are a clumsy demonstration of its execution. Instead of being model dairy farms and great profitable national institutions, they are merely depots for receiving decrepit cattle. (p. 181)

Production Labor

The average Indian laborer exists on a starvation diet. He hardly has enough strength to execute his labor efficiently. In this category, a third of the total population of India exists. Edmund King (1973) has summarized the predicament as follows:

Though ruinous strain and muscular effort are so often demanded, human energy has frequently been sapped by malaria and malnutrition. Weakness and cheapness have made it to uncommon sight to see two men digging with one spade--one to press the blade in the ground, and another to pull on a cord for leverage. (p. 370)

It could be said that India needs effective information regarding health, nutrition, fertility control, better crops, rural employment, and efficient labor skills in addition to literacy and enlightenment. Unskilled laborers wander to look for employment in the streets of the cities, the suburbs, and the countryside.

Economy and Employment

One of the aims of Indian national education is to increase the productive capacities of its citizens. In this connection Adams (1970) makes this comment:

The goal of economic growth and full employment is overriding. Both the level of national income and the rate of growth are seen as most unsatisfactory, and improvements in these areas are considered fundamental to other social ends. (p. 79)

Dignity of Labor and Love for Humanity

Children and youth should be instructed to see and learn the true dignity of labor. One of America's religious educators has made the under-lying principles clear regarding manual labor and its benefits to humanity.

The youth need to be taught that life means earnest work, responsibility, care-taking. They need a training that will make them practical--men and women who can cope with emergencies. They should be taught that the discipline of systematic, well-regulated labor is essential, not only as a safeguard against the vicissitudes of life, but as an aid to all-round development. (White, 1952, p. 215)

Mahatma Gandhi learned to love humanity by the study of Leo Tolstoy's The Kingdom of God Is within You (Nanda, 1977, p. 76). He (Gandhi) practiced this philosophy of life, "love your neighbor as yourself," in South Africa. He and the children in school re-organized manual labor, including scavenging. He taught the dignity of labor by doing the work himself with his own hands and taught others to do so because of his love for humanity and his desire to alleviate human suffering. Many children and young people performed voluntary community services and thus followed Mahatma Gandhi's footsteps. The question for India today is: Can the

educational institutions teach the dignity of manual labor in addition to precept and moralizing?

Young men and women are anxious to be employed in positions which do not require manual labor, such as teachers, professors, doctors, nurses, psychologists, engineers, clerks, office managers, businessmen, etc. White (1952) writes that children, youth, and young adults need to recognize that no man or woman is degraded by honest toil, and one should remember "that which degrades is idleness, and selfish dependence" (pp. 215-16).

Mahatma Gandhi believed that the Indian educational system should be relevant to the life of the learner. One should learn while working on the farm, in the garden, or at a craft (Saxena, 1979, p. 12). Therefore, it is essential that every boy and girl "have a thorough acquaintance with every-day duties" (White, 1952, p. 216).

Mahatma Gandhi did not stop at teaching a craft or learning a job in the garden but emphasized organizing the work in such a way that quality items would be produced for marketing. He believed that the income from the sale of these items produced by the children would ultimately pay the teachers' wages and thus would greatly aid the school in its drive to be self-supporting. A child who earns money to pay for his education learns self-reliance. This type of education is child centered, catering to the needs and interests of the child; it "will also prepare the individual for life." It is productive, useful, and has economic value (Nanda, 1977, p. 82).

Living Wage

In 1904 Mahatma Gandhi started a newspaper called Indian Opinion. The printing press which was established in a town was later moved to a farm on the advice of Gandhi. A sane philosophy emerged from this. Everyone who worked on the farm received "the same living wage and attended to the press work in their spare time" (ibid., p. 76). Here are two underlying principles. One is the principle of a living wage and the other is the leisure-time occupation or a worthwhile leisure-time activity. Gandhi wanted to teach every boy and girl the lasting values of life. He taught the development in a child of individuality, self-reliance, productive labor, and economic benefit. These he considered basic.

A living wage is a dream in India. (For per capita income, see table 15.) The common people desire a few of the necessities of life. As the economic conditions improve, the state and central governments tend to pay higher wages to the qualified employees of all types. In fact, they have implemented a minimum-wage rate to plantation laborers and, in the course of time, the lot of the laborers will be improved. The living wage in India would be Rs. 10.00 per person per day. This would mean a family of four would need Rs. 1200.00 per month to live adequately.

A great man who lived long ago said to the rich, "You have hoarded wealth. . . . Look! The wages you failed to pay the workman who mowed your fields are crying out against you" (James 5:3, 4). Did he have the people of India in mind when he wrote this passage? "The worker deserves his wages" (Luke 10:7, NIV, 1978). But in India, the rich get richer and the poor get poorer (Pearson, 1974,

p. 8). Education and fair wages will assist to build the morale of the people and, in turn, they will contribute to the economic growth and development (Vaizey, 1972, pp. 50-61).

Social Order

India has had many foreign invaders, empire builders, and rulers who have come and gone; but the social life of the people has remained undisturbed (Singh, 1970, p. 152). The social order of India, called the caste system, divided the people into four groups: Brahmin, Kshatriya, Vaisya, and Sudra. The rationale behind the division of the caste was based on the distribution of labor. The caste system was rigid and inflexible: and, while restricting mobility between classes, there was a downward mobility for breaking the rules of the caste. This caste structure is gradually breaking down (Mohanti, 1974, pp. 19, 23).

Some of the reasons for caste erosion are education; economic, political, and land reforms; urbanization (Zinkin, 1966, p. 154); industrial production and the system of work (Mohanti, 1974, p. 23); as well as election procedures. Taya Zinkin (1966, p. 154) stated that when Gandhi insisted on taking the people along with him into politics, the leaders and the people listened to him. This helped to reduce the tension among the castes. Elections have removed much of the power from the upperclasses; they are even unable to gain election in most of the states.

However, this does not mean that the influence of the caste has disappeared. In the rural areas of India it is as strong as ever. This system has been ingrained in the minds of the people

for such a long time that "the Hindu mind is still conditioned by this division of society" (Singh, 1970, p. 152).

Land reform was not in Gandhi's program, but it has been a major congressional objective since 1931. This land reform, however, would divide the caste system into three divisions: the upper castes--the Brahmins; the middle castes--the landowners, businessmen, and the educated elite; and the lower castes--the unskilled laborers and the untouchables (Harijans, one of the subgroups of the Sudra) "because they are too polluting" (Zinkin, 1966, p. 155).

According to King (1973, p. 379), the Harijans numbered about 60 million people. About one and one-half million of them own land; three-fourths of them farmed less than five acres of the land. These people can stand for election but they are unable to win in the popular elections and thus cannot gain entry into the Central Parliament or the State Legislature. Hence, they must gain seats through reservation by the enactment of the Parliament. Zinkin (1966) states:

The same kind of observation must be made of the provision made to facilitate Harijans' entry into higher education. Ostracism and exploitation therefore continue despite careful legislation and special awards. (p. 379)

Since the upper castes dominate all the areas of public offices, the lower castes hardly stand a chance in competition with them. Therefore, the reservation of seats or jobs is necessary for the lower castes.

The caste system is India's curse. Davis (1968, p. 170) defines it in one sentence: "It [caste] is the most thoroughgoing attempt known in human history to introduce absolute inequality as

the guiding principle in social relationships." The low-caste people are treated worse than animals by the high-caste people. "It remains an extreme illustration of the low value generally put on poor human beings who compose the great majority in India" (King, 1973, p. 370).

Castes are a hindrance to India's all-around progress and development, and its cherished ideals cannot be realized. Institutions operated by particular castes are conducted for the protection and betterment of their own castes or denominations (Singh, 1970, p. 163). According to Davis (1968, pp. 170-72), the caste system promotes social inequality, economic inequality, and educational inequality which leads to inequality of employment opportunities. Therefore, it is a definite hindrance to the cause of elementary education and to its economics.

Summary

India has planned to improve the economic conditions of elementary education through its Five-Year Plans. It has been trying hard to produce more economic prosperity for its people through elementary education, the expansion of industrial concerns, improving the methods of agriculture, and by trying to provide productive labor for both the classes and the masses.

Educational investment has not been consistently 2.9 percent of the GNP even though one may hasten the implementation of planned education programs if the percentage of the GNP is increased each year before 1986. There is no one who could deter the passionate conviction, courage, and confidence of the leaders, planners, and

people who are ever endeavoring to increase the national production while investing wisely in education to increase the economic growth.

Unforeseen problems have caused funds to be diverted from educational purposes, and this practice has stunted the expansion of elementary education as well as the economic growth. A judicious control of the allotted funds for education will aid in the spread of elementary education throughout the country.

Ignorance, poverty, and population growth can be controlled by educating the masses. At least a minimum degree of literacy may be achieved through elementary education which may enhance knowledge, efficiency in work and production, economic benefits, and cohesive social skills which contribute to individual growth, satisfaction and happiness, the community's welfare, and national development and progress. When citizens have gained more knowledge, work skills, and financial benefits through education, it is assumed that the people would be in a state of mind to join hands with the educators and other authorities for the financing of elementary education in the country.

If the cultural barriers which help to destroy an enormous quantity of food could be removed, it would assist in conserving money to finance elementary educational programs.

The dignity of labor would assist in developing a positive attitude toward work in the minds of children and youth who, in turn, would contribute their best efforts to the work which would result in increased production. This would yield financial benefits to the people and to the nation which could be invested in education.

A minimum living wage would boost the morale of the working classes because it would help the people to meet the basic necessities of life. In return, they would be more productive laborers enhancing the individual and the national economic prosperity. The end result would be money made available either for education or for other investments. The rigid social order is breaking down gradually and it is hoped that this will bear fruit in social harmony and co-operation.

There are other barriers to providing universal, compulsory, free elementary education such as language, geography, and variable climatic conditions. However, these do not affect education as much as those discussed above.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research is a descriptive study of finances for the achievement of the objectives of universal, compulsory, free elementary education in India for all children between six and fourteen years of age. A study of this type is not free from the value judgment of the investigator and others who may have offered suggestions. Though these difficulties exist, an attempt was made to keep this study objective.

India has its own educational goals and objectives which need to be met. In order to do this the model suggested by the Education Commission was accepted by this researcher. It has four important aspects: (1) elementary education will be universal, (2) elementary education will be national in perspective, (3) elementary education will be free to all children in the age group six to fourteen years, and (4) a minimum of eight years of education will be given to all children (Education and National Development, 1970, pp. 267-70). The implementation of this modest elementary-educational program will cost money which must be provided by the people and the Government of India.

Procedure

Elementary education is not progressing as rapidly as was

expected. Financing of education was discussed to see whether any sociological barriers hindered the progress of elementary education. Ways and means were suggested to lessen these barriers and suggestions were made to remove them gradually from society.

Classroom instructional and allied issues were examined in the light of accommodation, furniture, teaching materials, teacher preparation, text books, stationery, student attendance, retention, curriculum, and parental cooperation. Suggestions were made to make instruction and learning meaningful and to bring about cohesiveness between the school and community, thus contributing to the progress of elementary education.

The economic conditions of the country were discussed in the light of its economic growth, the national gross product, the per capita income, the percentage of GNP being spent on education in the country, and the approximate time to implement compulsory, free elementary education along with its anticipated expenditure.

The following specific items were considered:

1. The total population of India and its rate of growth
2. The number of children to be educated in the age group six to fourteen years
3. The cost of education per pupil per year
4. The total direct educational expenditure
5. The total indirect educational expenditure.

Sources of Data

A study of the several five-year plans, especially as they referred to elementary education, the recent report of the Education

Commission, some of the reports of the Estimate Committee, several reports of the Financial Committee, various educational Annual Reports published by the Federal Government of India, and international studies on elementary education of the Asian countries provided a major part of the sources of information for this study.

The data needed for this study were grouped into four divisions:

1. The Federal Government's publication, such as books, gazetteers, periodicals, reports, and papers
2. The State Governments' publications, budget reports, books, and pamphlets
3. Library books, magazines, periodicals, and different papers
4. Miscellaneous sources.

Analysis of Data

The presentation of data consisted of simple descriptive techniques, such as written descriptions, charts, comparisons, and tabulations of financial conditions of elementary-educational programs, in particular, and of the communities of India, in general. The financial data and the other factors which influenced the economic conditions of the country were discussed as they related to the purpose of this study.

The task of providing for universal, free, compulsory elementary education is one of the most expensive social services to be rendered for the children of India. Some of the most important and hardest problems of elementary education are the financial

problems. Financing of elementary education is a joint venture of the federal and state governments along with the local communities and the people at large. The total expenditure to provide elementary education for those who are in school is the responsibility of the state.

A study of the trends of population growth and the number of children in different age groups, especially in the age group of six to fourteen years, was analyzed with a view to finding out what percentage of these children were in school, and what percentage were completely out of the school system.

Future enrollment based on the population growth was analyzed in order to plan for the future elementary educational programs for those children who are in the age bracket of six to fourteen years.

The national income was analyzed in order to find out the GNP and to assess what percentage of the GNP was allocated to education, especially elementary education. A study of the educational cost per pupil was made in order to analyze the future trend of cost per pupil taking into account the current prices in the country.

The information gathered from various sources aided in establishing the number of years which would be required to place all the children in the school system. An analysis of the total elementary educational cost was assessed.

Organization of the Study

This study of the financing of elementary education has

been organized into seven chapters. Chapter I is the Introduction; chapter II is the Review of Literature; chapter III Research Methodology; chapter IV the Present Conditions of Elementary Education; chapter V the History and Financial Background of Elementary Education; chapter VI Trends in Future Elementary Education; and chapter VII Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations.

CHAPTER IV
THE PRESENT CONDITION OF ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION IN INDIA

In order to project an educational plan and an analysis of its cost, an understanding of the present conditions of the elementary education in India is essential. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the existing state of elementary schools in the country under the following broad outlines:

1. Organizational Patterns
2. Student Enrollment
3. Retention and Dropout Rates
4. Recruitment of Staff Members
5. Accommodation and Equipment
6. Elementary-School Teachers' Salary Rates

These six items will be discussed in the following sections.

Organizational Patterns

Elementary education in India is divided into two sections, namely primary schools and middle schools. In some states people call them lower primary and upper primary schools; in others, lower elementary and higher elementary schools; or junior basic and senior basic schools. Whatever name may be given, they all mean the same thing--elementary education.

In general, it could be said that India conducts two parallel systems of education. One system is called elementary, lower secondary, and higher secondary; the other is junior basic, senior basic, and multi-purpose (vocational) secondary-school system. The age group breakdown is common to both systems from six to eleven years or more, eleven to fourteen years, and fourteen to eighteen years. There are schools exclusively for primary, middle, or secondary grades. Some schools are known as composite schools conducting classes from Kindergarten to twelve with an internal breakdown of primary, middle, and lower and higher secondary schools. Normally, the primary school conducts the first four grades (standards); the middle school the fifth to eighth grades (standards); lower secondary, ninth and tenth grades (standards); and higher secondary, eleventh and twelfth grades (standards). In some cases the last four years are brought together as one unit of schooling as higher secondary school (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 157).

Number of Schools

According to the publication by the Planning Commission (1974), there were approximately 527,244 elementary schools in India (see the breakdown in table 1).

Student Enrollment

Education plays a dominant part in the development of the country's economy and the progress of social advancement in modernization. Education is beneficial to the individual growth and the progress of a nation. It contributes to the economic advancement of both the individual and the nation as a whole. Therefore,

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

School	Enrollment	
	1974	1977
Primary Schools	429,888	550,000
Middle Schools	97,356	150,000
Total	527,244	700,000

Source: Educational Development in India, 1977, p. 70.

recognizing the needs of the Indian people for a minimum grade of education, efforts are being put forth to spread education far and wide and in all corners of India. Hence, there is a great drive to enroll more boys and girls into the school system (Draft Fifth Five-Year Plan, 1974-79, p. 191).

The government and people of India are working untiringly to achieve the target plan of implementing elementary education in India by 1986. The reports indicate that India will probably achieve its enrollment objective in the primary section of the elementary education, but it is highly improbable that it will reach the enrollment target in the middle-school enrollment (India: A Reference Annual, 1979, p. 172).

Constitutional Directive

According to the constitutional directive of 1951, Article 45, every child should have a chance to acquire an elementary education at the expense of the state. Practically all states in the

Union of India legislated an educational act which would provide free and compulsory elementary education to all children in their respective states. Since then, the schemes of elementary education provide for the intensive enrollment in schools and the training and appointment of teachers. The Central Advisory Board of Education made suggestions that the ultimate educational pattern should be (1) eight years of elementary education, (2) three to four years of secondary education with varieties of courses, and (3) three years of college education leading to the first degree (India, 1968, p. 64).

National Scheme

The provision for universal, free, compulsory elementary education has been conceived as an integral part of the national scheme of education in the subcontinent of India. Earlier in the history of elementary education, many Indian nationals tried to persuade the government of India to implement at least a four-year schooling for all children in all parts of India. Dadabhai Naoroji spoke about it in 1882. Gopal Krishna Gokale made several efforts in the central legislature from 1910 to 1912 to induce the government of India to assume the responsibility of providing for at least four years of elementary education to all children. Gandhi proposed that the government of India provide to all children an education free of cost up to matriculation, minus English and introducing craft in all grades (Naik, 1976, p. 7).

In spite of constant requests from leading men, the plea to provide elementary education for all children was unheeded by the

rulers until after India gained independence in 1947. During that period, one child out of three had been enrolled in school in the six-to-eleven year age group, and one out of eleven was enrolled in school in the eleven-to-fourteen year age group (ibid.). For the expansion of elementary education in 1972, the government of India granted financial assistance to all states including union territories for the appointment of 30,000 additional teachers and 240 assistant (superintendents) inspectors of schools. A provision was made for the free supply of textbooks, stationery, and facilities to provide midday meals to about 900,000 school children living in the poorer sections of India. This is a drive to enroll more children in schools (Report 1971-72, p. 3).

In all parts of India, education is free from grades one to five in government schools and in schools run by the local bodies and it is also free from grades (standards) six to eight in all states except for boys in Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal. These states extended free education in the school year 1974-75. The compulsory education acts are available in all the states except Manipur, Nagaland, Tripura, and the (union) territories, such as New Delhi, Andaman and Nicobar Islands, and Chandigarh (Report, 1974-75, p. iii).

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

Steps have been taken to provide incentives to enroll more students from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and from other backward communities which are financially the weakest in the country. Scholarships have been granted and reservation of seats

in quality educational institutions are available (Report 1975-76, p. 11).

In a conference of state ministers of education from August 10 to 12, 1977, the Government of India re-emphasized that all efforts should be made during the sixth plan period, that is from 1978-83, to realize the goal of placing all school-age children from six to fourteen years of age in classrooms (Report, 1977-78, p. 6). The government of India has to undertake its most important top priority programs. One of them is the elementary-education program. The other is the national adult-education program which aims at achieving universal literacy in the country within a definite period of time not exceeding more than a ten-year period, which means all people will be literate by 1990. The people and government of India are working constantly, planning in advance, and doing everything possible to make people literate and knowledgeable in matters pertaining to everyday life (Report, 1978-79, p. 1).

Enrollment between 1950-51 and 1978-79

In the 1950-51 school year, the enrollment was 22.22 million in the elementary schools, but in the 1960-61 school year it had more than doubled, reaching a total of 48.40 million in that period. At the end of 1970-71 school year, there were 67.28 million children in the elementary-education system in India. This growth in enrollment is a phenomenon. In spite of insurmountable difficulties, India has done well in enrollment. Within the twenty year period, 1951 to 1971, school enrollment increased nearly 30 percent. In the school year 1977-78, enrollment in grades (standards) one to five was 71.30 million and in grades (standards) six to eight,

18.70 million; and the total enrollment from grades (standards) one to eight was 90.000 million (Draft Fifth Five-Year Plan, 1978, p. 228). From 1971 to 1978 the enrollment increased by 32.72 million in grades (standards) one to eight. It is projected that by the 1982-83 school year, there will be approximately 120 million children in grades (standards) one to eight.

Private Education

From time immemorial, India is noted for private school education. The very Gurukula (preceptor-learners) system of ancient India, the Hindu schools of the early period, the Buddhist schools, the indigenous schools under the Muslim period were all private schools. There were some private schools under the British rule. The private schools increased in number and in enrollment in the Republic of India.

In the modern period, several enlightened nationals have played prominent roles in private education. Among them were Ram Mohan Roy, Veerasha Lingam Ponthulu, Gopal Krishna Gokhale, Rabindranath Tagore, Mahatma Gandhi, B. R. Ambedkar, Mahatma Paule and many others (Vidyalaya, 1971, p. 28). Some Christian missionaries have laid solid foundations for private education and prominent among them were St. Francis Xavier, de Nobili, William Carey, Duff, Wilson, Anderson, Swartz and other Catholic and Protestant missionaries.

Under the private management, India has 38,560 elementary educational institutions with an enrollment of 11.36 million pupils. The majority of these schools receives governmental aid; but there

are 8,201 elementary schools which do not receive governmental grants or subsidies and these schools have an enrollment of 1.24 million students (Education in India, 1975, pp. 73, 74, 137 and 138). The Seventh-day Adventist organization has made contribution to private education in India without receiving any financial aid from the government.

Girls' Education

Among India's lower classes, the education of girls does not receive much consideration after the girls reach the age of nine or ten years. At this age the girls become real breadwinners and their services cannot be spared for such unproductive activity as education. Early marriage is another important reason why they do not attend school beyond the age of nine or ten. The education of girls for a large section of the people of India is an artificial accomplishment, and it is concluded that education does not serve any useful purpose in their lives. Because of this parents keep their girls at home where they can help in the preparation of meals or in the care of younger brothers and sisters (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 158).

The social status of girls is very low. They are expected to bring a dowry which creates hardship to fathers. After marriage, according to tradition, these girls belong neither to themselves nor to their parents' home but to their husband's family. Under these circumstances, only parents with a progressive outlook in life send their daughters to school. However, women now have a much brighter future and a great number of them not only go to school

but actually become teachers, principals, professors, scientists, lawyers, doctors or nurses, and even diplomats.

The prime minister of India, Mrs. Indira Gandhi, is a "conspicuous example of high regard for an able woman" (King, 1973, p. 373). Under the present compulsory education scheme, the education of women is rapidly becoming familiar. Seven Indian states have provided free elementary and secondary education for both boys and girls; another five Union territories provide free education for girls from elementary grades (standards) to secondary grades (standards); and most of the states have passed the acts on the compulsory elementary education for all children from grades (standards) one to eight (Education in India, 1977, p. 2).

Boys' Education

To an Indian peasant it is not unusual that there must be a certain number of babies. Sons are more desirable, honorable, and necessary (King, 1973, p. 373). Parents prefer to send their boys to school regularly, as the education of boys serves a definite purpose either in business, politics, or in other forms of employment. Therefore, boys' education is encouraged if their services can be spared for that purpose (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 159).

Retention and Dropouts

India's rural population is predominantly agrarian. Hence, formal education appears to have little value since most of the educational ideas have been an imitation of the industrial nations which have not proved appropriate to India's environment (Davis, 1968, p. 152). Rural parents think that there is little value in

sending older children to school when they can be working to bring some income which helps meet the necessities of the family. Education has been a tradition of certain castes and it has taken a long time to realize that education is essential to everyone. Still, uneducated villagers do not see any light in their children getting an education, therefore, they do not encourage their children to attend school regularly.

Retention of pupils in the first four grades is a very serious problem. Concern for increased enrollment appears to take precedence over retention. Children seem to enter the classroom and turn around and go back home, that is, they do not come back to school after their initial visit. If children are admitted to school in grade one, then sufficient care should be given to retain the same children in the classrooms (Mukerji, 1976, p. 81). It is essential that each enrolled child consistently progress from one grade to the next and that he does not discontinue school until he completes the prescribed grades (standards) of study.

The term retention means to hold back. In a school system when a pupil fails in his school work, he will not be retained in the same grade (standard) for more than a year. Dropout means that a child leaves his or her school without continuing his or her education. The term retention has a very demoralizing effect on pupils and their parents. It results in a waste of time, talent, money, and effort. Parents are compelled to withdraw their children because of repeated failures in the school work, and these types of children may never have a chance in their lifetime to acquire an education or to become literate (Mukerji, 1976, p. 85).

Children go to school to learn and ultimately become successful in their academic endeavors. The national figures indicate that from one hundred pupils who enter the first grade (standard), about one-third will complete the first four grades (standards) (Fischer, 1970, pp. 255-56).

A recent study conducted in Satara and Poona (India) revealed that retention and dropouts in the first grade were 46.50 percent and 43.90 percent, respectively. The children dropped out of school because of failure in school work or because they had to assist their parents in earning some money for their living expenses. The rate of dropouts in some rural schools is estimated to be as much as 70 percent before the completion of the eighth grade (standard) (Rai, 1979, p. 30).

More than 50 percent of the total number of dropouts and retentions between grades one to four occurred in the first grade (standard) and amounted to 65.30 percent by the time children reached the fifth grade (standard), and 78.36 percent when they reached the eighth grade (standard) (Mukerji, 1976, p. 83).

The extent of retention and dropouts in the elementary education system is very high in India. This problem was brought to the attention of the Indian educators some forty years ago by the Hartog Committee and the issue has been discussed since. But no effective action has been implemented to reduce the retention of dropouts in the classroom (Education and National Development, 1970, p. 273).

It is the hope of the people that the primary grades (standards) would produce continued literacy in the children who

have completed the first four grades (standards), but past experience reveals that this is not so. Due to the absence of reading material and other necessary books in the home, it becomes very easy for children to become illiterate very quickly (Nyrop, 1975, p. 239).

Poor Attendance

One can easily enumerate several reasons why there is such poor attendance in the elementary schools. Since much of the school accommodation is limited in various parts of the country, the school is conducted on a shift system which affects the students' attendance. Some schools have double shifts, one in the morning and the other in the afternoon. The morning shift has better attendance than the afternoon shift. In rural boys' schools, 20 percent of the children are absent in the morning and 40 percent in the afternoon (Adams, 1966, p. 174).

Transportation, Textbooks, and Stationery

When children have to go to school, they have to walk a mile or more or commute to school by bus. Since bus fare requires money which the poor farmer or laborer does not have, children are often kept at home because of lack of funds and this affects the school attendance. Also, along with the expense of transportation comes that of reasonably good clothing, textbooks, stationery, and school lunch. All these cost money. Hence, education is considered a luxury in the eyes of the poor people since money is a very scarce commodity in the rural parts of India. Furthermore, children do not have the opportunity to use their literary skills. So

parents do not see any immediate benefit from education, thus their support to the program of elementary education is very poor (Smith, 1968, p. 160).

Practical Education

The village parents would like to have practical education rather than an academic one for their children. Therefore, they do not urge their children to go to school, nor do they encourage them to study hard. Furthermore, most parents are illiterate and are unable to help their children with their school work (Adams, 1966, p. 173). It is common to have parents withdraw their children from school after one or two years (Lamb, 1964, p. 192). The educational experts and others are working together to modify the educational curriculum so that it might relate to the life situation of the learner and the people.

Over-aged Children

There are quite a few over-aged children in the first four grades (standards) of the primary school. The over-aged children may be gradually eliminated from school and enrolled in adult-education programs which are being conducted in the evenings after their work program. The objective is to provide them with an education in order that they may become literate and thus able to understand directions given to them in the factory or other areas of work. Eventually, the government of India may have to supply financial aid to the poorer sections of India, thus enabling them to send their children to school regularly (ibid.).

Recruitment of Staff Members

Trained teachers are hard to locate. Some of the elementary schools try to secure well-trained teachers, but, unfortunately, over 25 percent of the teaching personnel has not received any training at all in the teaching profession. Many village school systems do not require trained teachers to be employed in their schools (King, 1973, p. 380). Also, in rural areas a large number of elementary schools do not have trained teachers. All schools--elementary, lower secondary, and higher secondary public schools--do not normally require teachers to be fully trained (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 161).

There is a wide variety among teachers in the Indian school system. There are well-cultured and highly polished ladies clad in beautiful sarees with good educational qualifications. Yet, one may see a cadaverous elderly person unshaven or anything between well-dressed and poorly attired. A teacher may be a high-school graduate with no professional training or a farmer on a part-time teaching appointment to earn enough to live on or to supplement his income (King, 1973, p. 391).

Elementary education is facing an acute teacher-shortage problem. In the 1965-66 school year the required number of teachers was 2,800,000 but only 2,200,000 teachers could be found. So there was a shortage of 600,000 teachers for the elementary schools. This shortage of teachers affects the rural schools more than the city and suburban schools (Rai, 1979, pp. 24-25). According to Beredy (1969, p. 260), in the 1965-66 school year 51 percent of primary-school teachers and 60 percent of the middle-school teachers were

professionally trained. Thus, 49 percent of the primary-school teachers, and 40 percent of the middle-school teachers did not have any professional training.

Quality teachers are not attracted to the teaching profession because the salaries are very low in the country compared to other occupations with equal qualifications (Rai, 1979, p. 25). A teacher's salary may be low and irregular in payment. It is possible to find a teacher's salary at the lowest scale in the country, that is, the pay is equivalent to a domestic servant's wages (King, 1973, p. 370). The salary scales of primary-school teachers are worse than some laborers who do not have any education (Safaya, 1979, p. 210). Thus, intelligent, well-educated young people do not accept teaching jobs because they lack adequate remuneration equal to the degrees, diplomas, and professional training required for the job (Rai, 1979, p. 25). Even the attendants or peons of the state and central government are better paid than elementary-school teachers (Bettelheim, 1968, p. 322). The teaching profession is the lowest paid occupation in India today (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 161).

The teacher generally is male, young, and urban-oriented in his outlook. He is reasonably educated and trained academically as well as professionally. Teaching may be a transitory occupation. He will be looking for a job which may pay better wages than the teaching profession. When he succeeds, he will leave his teaching profession (Tibbets, et al, 1968, p. 10). Thus, India's educational system has a lack of trained manpower--not only teachers but also

educational administrators and other professionals required to improve the quality of education (Bereday, ed., 1969, pp. 257-58).

Teacher Preparation

A Western-type teacher preparation has been adopted and it is gaining in popularity in India's educational system. Teachers of all types are being trained or educated in various teacher-education institutions. A great emphasis is placed on in-service education for all teachers. Enlightened people recognize the importance of trained teachers for their schools, therefore, they try to secure well-qualified men and women for their institutions (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 158).

There are signs which indicate that in the near future important changes are expected in providing equipment and personnel for elementary education. All states are planning to start colleges of elementary education where research in this field will be undertaken. In fact, a few states have already started this new program. Further, the central government recently initiated a teacher-preparation program. Their educational ministry through the National Council of Educational Training and Research opened four regional colleges in different parts of the country in order to train teachers for multipurpose schools. Prospective teachers are given training for a period of four years in an integrated program which includes pedagogy. For the first time in the history of India, teacher education is given to those who teach agriculture, commerce, and technical skills. In addition to this, the regional colleges offer future teachers of science and technology a one-year course leading

to the B.Ed. degree or diploma in education. Within the developing nations, the local teacher has received a western-type education (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 161).

The teacher may be teaching in a mission school or his work assignment may be in a rural or urban school. If he teaches in a town, he may hold many jobs to supplement his income. His working hours may be either split hours, morning, afternoon, or evening school. But he does not have job security. He is subject to transfer without his consent to the move (Smith, 1968, pp. 62-63).

The teaching profession should be acknowledged as the noblest of all professions. The country is greatly indebted to teachers who are shaping the destiny of the nation in the education of children and youth in the schools. Teachers in general are the better educated people in the developing countries. A large number of teachers have academic and professional degrees and they should be paid a reasonable wage so that they may work, devoting their time and talents to educating the younger generation. Therefore, the society should regard the teaching profession with utmost respect and provide it with good working conditions, adequate salaries, and proper in-service education (Mukerji, 1976, p. 312).

Buildings and Equipment

The housing accommodations of primary schools are not satisfactory. There are a few well-constructed buildings existing in the country. These accommodate approximately 50 percent of the children. Most of the better constructed buildings are in the cities, urban, and suburban areas. A great majority of schools are conducted in

rented accommodations or buildings which are given for school purposes without rent. These accommodations are unsuitable for school instructional purposes as they have a poor lighting system, improper ventilation, and a generally unhealthful environment (Mukerji, 1976, p. 102). Furthermore, these buildings are unattractive and offer inadequate facilities for the classrooms (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 158). In fact, unsatisfactory school buildings grew from 30 percent to 50 percent by the mid 1970s (Nyrop, 1975, p. 239).

Classes held in the rural towns are in rooms, on the rooftops, and open platforms. When weather permits classes are conducted outside with most of the children sitting under a large tree. When it is cold, hot, or raining, the classes are held inside with the children sitting on the floor. In the winter, during the coldest months, they may bring mats, but otherwise they sit on the cold floors (Adams, 1966, p. 172).

The school premises range from modern buildings to the village structure consisting of a roof on four poles. There is hardly any equipment in them (King, 1973, p. 390).

Classroom Furniture

There is limited furniture in the rural elementary schools or in poor villages. Even the teacher may not have a chair or a table. The school children, many little boys are naked from the waist up, either sit or stand on the bare floor. Some may have a mat. In city schools, children sit on straight wooden benches without backs. In country towns they may sit huddled on mattresses (King, 1973, p. 390).

Classroom Conditions

The elementary schools are overcrowded. There are inadequate housing facilities, a scarcity of equipment, a lack of ample visual aids and instructional materials, as well as an insufficient number of teachers (Jain and Kapoor, 1979, p. 76).

Those teachers who work in the city have blackboards and textbooks, and the school children are equipped with slate, painted tins, or wooden rectangles for writing purposes. The remote village children may have to practice their writing skills in the sand (King, 1973, p. 391). A teacher-pupil ratio of 1:35 is recommended by several educational commissions, but a teacher may have over sixty pupils in his classroom (India Today, 1979, p. 11). There are no libraries in the rural areas or in the schools where the children can borrow books and other materials. Teachers do not have any reference books and other resource materials to add to their textbook material. A great number of schools are conducted on the principle of three teachers for every four classes. Fairly good use is made of monitors to assist the teachers. Monitors are children who can do their classwork better than other pupils (King, 1973, p. 390).

The teachers in India may be like teachers everywhere with repetitious tasks in teaching reading. But with the material and equipment available, the teacher seldom expects to do better than utilize the "chalk and talk" technique and the traditional way of standing in front of the blackboard "writing the letters, saying the sounds, and getting a chorus from the class." At the end of the first grade, the children are able to read the scripts

of their own mother tongue or regional or state language. There may not be much practice in writing (ibid., p. 391). One should bear in mind that often two classes meet in one small room under the direction of two teachers. The problem of management and traditional discipline may weigh heavily in "favor of formalism." In the middle school, after the age of ten or eleven, classes of forty or more are common. In the lower secondary or higher secondary classes, fifty or more students are assigned to a classroom. This tendency of larger enrollment in the upper class indicates to what extent formal education and discipline prevail in the traditional training ground for white-collar occupations. Both memory and irrelevant curriculum are commonly expected in such environment (ibid.). Though these shortcomings prevail in the school system in India, it is a wonder that India's 90 million elementary school children between the ages of six to fourteen years would make headway in their learning pursuits (India [Rep.] Planning Commission, 1978, p. 228).

Classroom Equipment

The provision for adequate quality of instructional equipment for elementary schools, including teaching aids, books, and stationery, will be of great importance. The schools are poorly equipped at present; this inadequacy makes instruction ineffective. With regards to the expenditure needed for this aspect of educational programs, an estimate based on research studies conducted in small areas indicate that the total cost of providing equipment for an elementary school would be approximately one hundred rupees per

pupil at 1964 prices. Perhaps, a percentage of inflation should be added to this amount. It was presumed by the planners that this would include furniture, teaching aids, craft equipment, books, materials for games, sanitary facilities, and utensils for school meals. If a school should buy the minimum equipment, it would cost not less than fifty rupees per child. Fifty rupees per child for about 90 million children in school (1978-79) would cost the state exchequer 4500 million rupees for one school year.

Unfortunately the bigger and better accommodations are being built for colleges and universities and, comparatively speaking, their classrooms are well furnished and equipped; but it is being done at the expense of the rural primary and middle schools which do not have decent school buildings, nor do they have furniture, equipment, and library facilities. The deterioration in elementary education is attributed primarily to the perpetual lack of congenial atmosphere, clean environment, and well-prepared teachers in the classrooms (Nanda, 1977, pp. 64-68).

Statistics for the school buildings are not available in all states. In general, however, the building facilities are far from satisfactory, especially in rural areas. The school buildings constructed by the government or local bodies are very few. A few existing buildings house about 40 percent of the total student population. The remaining large number of schools are conducted in rented or rent-free buildings, mainly public buildings that are not maintained properly and are not suitable for

instructional purposes since they are improperly lighted and poorly ventilated, located in rural villages (Saiyidain et al., 1966, p. 48). After one decade (1975) the building situation has not improved (Nyrop, 1975, p. 239). Mukerji (1976, p. 102) adds that in addition to being poorly lighted and improperly ventilated, they are a health hazard for both children and teachers.

It is a well-known fact that building construction costs have increased in all parts of India and building expenses are beyond the means of educational budgets. The comprehensive building program has been stopped altogether. The meager sums of money the government and local bodies are able to invest for the school-building construction is very small; therefore, the school accommodation problem remains unsolved in the foreseeable future (ibid.). Buildings constructed by the government and the local bodies house only about 50 percent of the primary school children. The remaining 50 percent of the children are accommodated in unsuitable rural public buildings (ibid.).

The school-building problems in 1980 are very acute in the country. For every existing school the population demands four more schools with proper facilities. If the country attempts to meet the requirements of the 1951 constitutional directive of providing an elementary education to the general masses of children, it should also provide facilities to accommodate these school children (Nanda, 1977, p. 67).

One-Teacher School

One-teacher schools make up a sizeable portion of the total

number of primary schools. At the end of 1950-51 school year, there were 68,841 one-teacher schools, and these increased to 11,220 by the end of 1955-56 school year. In the 1960-61 school year, the number of one-teacher schools were 145,246, and at the end of 1964-65, there were 150,889. Such schools are constantly growing in number (Mukerji, 1976, p. 69) in order to provide for every child a school within easy walking distance from his home.

One frequently discussed problem in elementary education is the one-teacher school. One common view held by the educators is that these schools are not as efficient as the multi-teacher schools because a single teacher in a multi-grade (standard) school has to instruct four or five classes at a time. A multi-teacher school has a teacher for each grade (standard) and he or she is able to do better at this job of teaching than a single teacher can do trying to teach four or five subjects at a time in a multi-grade (standard) school. A general remedy or reform suggested is to eliminate one-teacher schools completely or gradually reduce the number to a minimum. However, these suggestions do not seem to be succeeding. Instead of being eliminated, single-teacher schools are on the increase, because schools are being opened in small rural areas with scanty population. Another suggestion is to limit single-teacher schools to no more than three grades (standards) for a single teacher. If there are four or more grades, an additional teacher must be assigned (The Indian Year Book of Education, 1964), p. 390).

Approximately 40 percent of the elementary schools are single-teacher schools. In fact, the percentage of schools where

one teacher teaches just one grade is very small. More than one-half of India's elementary school teachers have to teach more than one grade or class at one time. This situation is not changing rapidly, therefore, research in multi-grade or multi-class instruction is urgently required. The teacher-training colleges and institutions should make special efforts to orient teachers to the special techniques of teaching multi-grades (standards) or classes so they may be properly equipped to handle students efficiently when the occasion arises to work in a multi-grade (standard) school (Education and National Development, Vol. 2, 1970, p. 416).

If teachers are working in a multi-grade or a multi-class system in rural schools, it is very hard to provide substitute teachers when these regular teachers have to use casual leave for more than a day or two due to illness or other emergencies because there are no teachers in reserve to work as substitutes. The only alternative is to close the school for the duration of the teacher's leave of absence. This becomes even more difficult and impractical in a single-teacher rural school (*ibid.*, p. 460).

Elementary-School-Teachers' Salary Scale

The salary scale of teachers for primary schools from grades (standards) one through four are given in table 2. There are four types of teachers who work in these schools. The first group are those who have passed matriculation and have received teacher-training education. The second group have passed just the matriculation examination. The third group of teachers have passed the eighth-grade examination and have received training in the

teacher-training educational program, and the fourth group have just completed an eighth-grade (standard) education and have received no training beyond this point. This is the most common pattern followed by most of the school systems (Education in India, 1974, Vol. IIa, pp. 34-36).

There are some exceptions to these four types; i.e., some teachers have attended one or two years of college and then received training in teacher education; also, there are those who failed the matriculation examination but have had elementary, lower-grade teacher training; and, in some cases, there are those who failed the eighth grade, but are in the teaching program.

A few who have passed four years of college, received the B.A. degree, and have earned a B.Ed. degree as well usually teach in the experimental model primary schools (ibid.).

These various types of teachers receive salaries anywhere from Rs. 65 to 300 as initial monthly salary depending on general educational qualifications and training in pedagogy.

The salary rates of the elementary-school teachers based on the minimum qualifications of Matriculation Pass (or equivalent) and Secondary Grades or Senior Basic Trained are given in table 2 for 1963 and 1973. Other categories are excluded for the sake of comparison.

Explanation of Salary Scale

The comparative salary scale is shown in table 2.

Example: In the state of Andhra, the beginning salary is Rs. 80 and the annual increment is Rs. 4.00 until it reaches

TABLE 2
COMPARATIVE SALARY SCALE
1963 VS. 1973

State	1963 ¹		1973 ²		DA Rs.
	Salary Rate Rs.	DA Rs.	Salary Rate Rs.	DA Rs.	
Andhra	80-4-105-5-150	10.00	96-6-144-8-200	120.00	120.00
Assam	52.5-1-65	11-12	140-6-170-EB-7-205-275	10.00	10.00
Bihar	50-2-70-2-90	25-40	230-5-280-EB-6-340	12.00	12.00
Gujarat	56-1.5-1.5-65-70 SG-70-3-100	45	135-5-155-EB-7-205	10.00	10.00
Haryana			125-5-150-5-250	98.00	98.00
Himachal			125-5-250-10-300	98.00	98.00
Jamu & Kashmir	70-5-120-8-160		220-8-260-10-300	17.60	17.60
Karnataka	80-3-110-4-5-150	15	100-4-140-5-190-EB-5-220	127.00	127.00
Kerala	40-4-60-5-120	39-38	235-7-256-8-296-9-350-9.5-395	37.60	37.60
Madya	90-2.5-100-4-140-50-170 (Starting Salary Rs. 95)	10-15	169-4-185-5-240-EB-6-270-10-300	45.00	45.00
Orissa	80-3-110-3-116-4-120-5-135 Govt. School 70-1-79-85 Local Boards	10	255-5-285-7-320-EB-10-330	---	---
Punjab	120-5-175- Spl. Grade 60-4-80-5-100-5-120	40-45	125-5-250-EB-10-300	93.00	93.00
Rajasthan			110-160-8-200	98.00	98.00

54

TABLE 2 (Continued)

State	1963 ¹		1973 ²	
	Salary Rate Rs.	DA Rs.	Salary Rate Rs.	DA Rs.
Tamil Nadu	90-4-110-3-140	15	210-5-245-10-325	45.00
Utter Pradesh	35-2-45-2-65	33-35	200-5-250-6-280-8-220	14.00
West Bengal	80-2-100-2-130-4-150 (Basic Schools) 80-1-90-1-2-110-3-125 (Other Schools)		160-3-205-5-250	9.00
Manipur			125-4-145-EB-4-165-EB-5-200	110.00
Maghalaya			140-6-170-EB-7-205-EB-7-275	50.00
Nagaland			140-5-170-EB-5-190-EB-6-220	
Arunachal			140-6-170-EB-7-205-EB-7-275	70.00
Tripura			125-3-149-4-156-EB-4-200	98.00
Delhi			165-10-215-15-275-EB-15-350	150.00
Goa, Diu, Daman			165-110-215-15-275-EB-15-350	150.00
Pondicherry			165-10-215-15-275-EB-15-350	122.00
Chandigarh			125-5-250-10-300	99.00
Lakshadweep			220-15-310-20-430	145.00

Source: ¹Sayidian, et al., 1966, p. 333.

²Statistical Information, 1975, pp. 1-56.

Rs. 105; from Rs. 105.00 the annual increment is Rs. 5 to a maximum of Rs. 150. This improved rate of salary in 1974 did not keep up with the annual inflationary rate of 20 percent in India.

These salary rates for 1973, while better than the salary rates for 1963, are still subsistence wage rates. Teachers are unable to make a reasonably comfortable living, hence they look to other means of sustenance such as private tuition and other types of additional employment including teaching in the private-school system. Thus their attention is divided between teaching and an off-time job, and, in general, they cannot serve two masters satisfactorily.

In addition to the basic salary rates the teachers receive seven types of allowances depending upon the location of the school in which they work. Though these allowances are very meager, they are helpful.

1. Dearness Allowances abbreviated to read as D.A.
2. City Compensatory Allowance abbreviated to read as C.C.A.
3. House Rent Allowance abbreviated to read as H.R.A.
4. Town Compensatory Allowance abbreviated to read T.C.A.
5. Hill Allowance abbreviated to read H.A.
6. Winter Allowance abbreviated to read W.A.
7. Special Pay Allowance abbreviated to read S.P. & A.

Dearness allowance is paid to all teachers and non-teaching staff to defray the cost-of-living expenses beyond a certain limit in harmony with the cost-of-living indices of the consumer goods. In many states D.A. rates are the same for the teachers working in

government schools and private schools. Some states have merged a portion of the D.A. with the regular salary which is being treated as actual salary for the purpose of determining their leave salary, traveling allowance, and retirement or pension benefits. Teachers receive a D.A. of Rs. 34 to Rs. 88 per month depending on the salary rate (Mukerji, 1976, pp. 324-25).

The C.A.s are paid to the teachers who are working in the metropolitan areas, remote hill sections, and far away islands where the cost-of-living expenses are higher than the rural areas. House rent allowances vary from state to state, and in many cases from district to district within a state. They are as little as five rupees and go up to fifty rupees per month, depending on the location in which the teacher is working. The H.A.s are paid to the teacher who is located in the hills of Assam, Simla, Himachal Pradesh, and other hill areas. This allowance is designed to defray the high cost of transporting the material to the hill top and to the remote hilltracks where there are no roads and where things have to be carried by mules or by human effort. In Assam, H.A. ranges from fifteen rupees to seventy-five rupees a month. Punjab pays 10 percent to 12.5 percent of the teacher's basic monthly salary. Manipur grants a H.A. of 15 percent of each teacher's monthly salary. In addition, teachers receiving less than five hundred rupees in monthly salary in Manipur and Nagaland receive a W.A. of 10 percent of their monthly salary (*ibid.*, p. 326).

Teachers are demanding a uniform rate of salary for those who are working in the department of elementary education. The

salary scales vary from state to state, and different remuneration is given to teachers under government, local bodies, and private agencies. The wages also depend to a certain extent on the type of school, and a teacher with the same qualifications may receive one salary rate in a primary school and another in a middle school. Quite often, the salary scale for headmasters is different from that of assistant masters (Second Year Book, 1964, p. 286).

The present educational policy with regard to teachers' qualifications for the elementary school is to make matriculation (high-school diploma) the minimum general educational qualification and to make professional training mandatory for all teachers--thus eventually placing the majority of teachers in the matriculation group (*ibid.*, p. 287).

The elementary teachers work for three elementary organizations that still exist in the country, i.e., state governments, local bodies, and voluntary or private organizations. There are large differences among these groups with regard to salary, old age pensions, and other courtesies. Commenting on this, Vig (1973) stated:

The teachers in the government services are, by and large the best paid and they also receive pensions. The teachers in the local body schools often receive lower remuneration than those in government schools and the most common form of old age provision made for them is to institute provident funds. The teachers in the private schools are probably the least paid in practice. . . . The elementary school teachers should be made the employees of the state governments. In the alternative, they plead that in every state the basic conditions of remuneration, old age provision and security of tenure should be provided on equal terms to all these three categories of teachers. (pp. 289-90)

Teachers generally retire between the age of fifty-eight

and sixty years and are entitled to retirement benefits, such as pension (monthly) gratuity, invalid pension, and family pension. In case of untimely death of a teacher, the wife and children receive a certain amount of benefit, though it may be small. Similar arrangements exist with the private and local public schools. All school managements adhere to the educational department rules and regulations with regard to retirement benefits (Education in India, Vol. IIa, 1974).

Tripura experimental primary-school teachers are required to possess B.A., B.Sc. and B.Ed. degrees before they are allowed to teach in the primary-school system. These teachers receive an initial salary of Rs. 175 with a maximum of Rs. 325. This is more or less the same as the teachers' salary with similar educational qualifications. Tripura experimental primary-school teachers receive a salary of Rs. 400 per month. They are assigned to 15 primary schools. Teachers with B.Ed. degrees receive Rs. 325 or B.Sc. degrees receive Rs. 250. Teachers with B.A. degrees receive Rs. 175. (ibid.)

The middle-school teachers (teaching in grades [standards]

and sixty years and are entitled to retirement benefits, such as pension (monthly) gratuity, invalid pension, and family pension. In case of untimely death of a teacher, the wife and children receive a certain amount of benefit, though it may be small. Similar arrangements exist with the private and local public schools. All school managements adhere to the educational department rules and regulations with regard to retirement benefits (Education in India, Vol. IIa, 1974).

Tripura experimental primary-school teachers are required to possess B.A., B.Sc. and B.Ed. degrees before they are allowed to teach in the primary-school system. These teachers receive an initial salary of Rs. 175 with a maximum of Rs. 325. This is more or less the same as the high-school teachers' salary with similar educational qualifications in most of the states. Tripura experimental model primary-school headmasters receive a salary of Rs. 400 to 500 per month. The position of headmaster is assigned to 15 percent of teachers who have B.A. or B.Sc. degrees with B.Ed. (selection grade) and who, in addition, have passed B.A. or B.Sc. honors degrees (Education in India, 1970, p. 46).

Generally, the primary-school headmaster (principal) has passed the matriculation examination and possesses a certificate of teaching; he also has at least five years of experience before he is appointed to the position of headmaster. He receives a teacher's salary and in addition he gets Rs. 10 or more as the allowance for a headmaster's position of responsibility, depending on the size and the prestige of the school (ibid.).

The middle-school teachers (teaching in grades [standards]

five to eight) generally have a pass in matriculation and possess a certificate of teaching. Most of the primary-school teachers possess similar qualifications but receive much less salary than the teachers who work in the middle schools. Middle-school teachers are started with Rs. 130 and this goes up to a maximum of Rs. 150-275 per month.

Generally, graduate teachers are appointed to the middle-school headmaster's position in practically all states. Of course, these headmasters receive better wages plus an allowance of Rs. 20 or more, depending on the size of the school (ibid.).

The salaries of elementary-education teachers in 1974 were higher than the salaries of 1963. However, these salary rates along with D.A. do not keep pace with the prices of consumer goods and the runaway inflation which is running a race with the income of the teacher. Of course, the respective governments which hire the teachers to work in their schools are aware of the difficulties of the teachers, and it is hoped that they will do their best to increase teachers' salaries in tune with the rising cost of consumer goods so that teachers may do their best to educate the future workers and leaders of India.

Primary and middle-school teachers with a qualification of Matriculation Pass and Secondary Grade or Senior Basic Training received nearly an equal amount of pay for their work. In primary schools the four southern states pay, on an average, a starting salary of Rs. 168 per month and the average maximum salary goes up

to Rs. 290 per month. The Northern States pay, on an average, a starting salary of Rs. 194 per month with a maximum of Rs. 369 (Statistical Information, 1975, pp. 1-56). From the figures above, one can conclude that the northern states evidently pay better salaries to their teachers.

Similarly, the salary rates of the headmasters of four southern states were compared with the salary rates of the six northern states. The average headmasters' starting rate was Rs. 214 and the average maximum was Rs. 336. But northern states had a starting rate based on an average of Rs. 213 and a maximum of Rs. 343. Here again the northern salary rates are better than the wages in the south.

Middle-school teachers of the southern states receive an average starting salary of Rs. 168 per month and a maximum of Rs. 290; but the northern middle-school teachers receive an average starting salary rate of Rs. 232 and a maximum of Rs. 450. Northern middle-school headmasters receive an average starting salary rate of Rs. 266 and a maximum of Rs. 533. On the whole, the northern teachers and headmasters receive a better salary than the southern teachers and headmasters. Is an equalization of rates between the north and south possible?

Summary

Chapter IV has briefly dealt with Organizational Pattern, Student Enrollment, Retention and Dropout Rates, Recruitment of Staff Members, Accommodation and Equipment, and Elementary-School Teachers' Salary Rates.

The school organizational pattern currently used in India is:

1. Elementary Education (two sections):
 - A. Primary School - Grades (standards) one to five
 - B. Middle School - Grades (standards) six to eight
2. High School - Grades (standards) nine and ten
3. Higher Secondary - Grades (standards) eleven and twelve

Some schools have Kindergarten to twelve programs, while others have grades (standards) one to seven and eight to twelve. By the end of 1977 India had 700,000 elementary schools with an enrollment of approximately 81 percent of the total primary-school-age children and 37 percent of the middle-school children. The Constitutional Directive indicates that all children between six to fourteen years of age must be placed in the school system as soon as possible.

The educational organizational pattern is eight years of elementary education, three to four years of secondary education, and three years of college education to acquire the first degree. This is the basic pattern of education to be followed throughout the country. It is the national expectation to give instruction in the mother tongue of the student in all levels of education. Hindi has become the national language and English is the associate national language. In schools, Hindi is compulsory but English is optional.

All parents are requested to send their children to school up to the age of fourteen, but it is not compulsory. Thus, the choice of sending children to school is left with the parents.

Normally, parents like to send their sons to school, and because of government directives, girls also attend.

Admission to school is encouraged, enrollment is being boosted, but retention and dropout rates are not controlled. Regular attendance is expected but not required. It appears that poorer parents enroll their children but they do not send them regularly. In some cases they stop their children from going to school altogether. The dropout rate is estimated to be 70 percent before the completion of eighth grade.

There is no transportation provided by the school system in India so parents have to provide transportation for their children. It is also the parents' responsibility to supply textbooks and stationery and they have to send a midday meal along with the children. Some poor children from labor class receive textbooks and stationery from the government.

Well-qualified teachers are scarce because of low wages and lack of prestige. Therefore, there is an acute shortage of teachers in the country. Many well-qualified teachers leave the teaching profession each year and go into other professions which pay them better wages. The school administration as well as people of the community demand that well-qualified teachers who have skills in life-related and practical aspects of training be employed.

The facilities for elementary schools are very poor. Some 50 percent of the schools do not have proper buildings, furniture, equipment, teaching materials, and library facilities. Many schools are conducted in rented places, temples, or under trees. The absolute essentials such as textbooks and chalk boards are missing.

In the rural parts of India, there are many one-teacher schools which often do not function normally. When the teacher is absent due to illness there is often no provision for a substitute. Attendance is especially irregular in rural schools where parents take children away from school to perform odd jobs at home or to work for some one for a small amount of money to buy food for the family. Poverty is the main contributing factor to such a situation. It is hoped that these irregularities shall be set right when the government of India secures adequate finances for the school systems.

CHAPTER V
THE HISTORY AND FINANCIAL BACKGROUND OF
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN INDIA

A review of the financing of elementary education and the past method of funding these schools provides the background information for analyzing this type of education in India.

When studying the financing of elementary education, it is essential to discuss the total amount of expenditure and the total amount of money available from various sources to meet payments for elementary education. In short, it could be said that expenses and income may be compared to see whether income matches expenses of the elementary schools.

Money invested in elementary education should be measured in terms of educational achievement. But school-related statistics are not available to indicate the relationship between input and output in elementary education.

For some reason or another, the financing of elementary education has not received due consideration by the administrators, the educators, and the researchers. Educational finance problems are as old as the Indian educational system itself, but in 1980 they are acute. They were not so acute in prehistoric and medieval periods because at that time education was a personal matter and was left in the hands of the parents to educate or not to educate

their children. As soon as the educational system was organized the problem of educational finance was felt by the people, educational organizers, private bodies, the states, and the central government (Nanda, 1977, p. 328).

A short review of the early education in India and the mode of financing the educational program may assist in understanding the present method of financing education. For this purpose, the history of educational financing is divided into four parts, namely, (1) education prior to Muslim invasion, (2) education in the Mohammedan period, (3) education in the British period, and (4) elementary education in the Republic of India.

Education Prior to Muslim Invasion

The first schools in India were most probably schools where the priests taught the secret rituals of sacrifices. They were open to the Brahmin boys, sons of kings, and other high-caste young men from rich homes. From these castes or classes or ranks, the officials were chosen, therefore, parents sought education for their children. These schools were voluntary. Those who wanted an education for their children sent their boys to school and paid the cost. Education for the top caste children was mostly religious in character and instruction was given in the families of teachers or gurus. Most of the literature was in Sanskrit. Well-known teachers attracted more quality students and offered several subjects in different fields of study. Sometimes teachers joined together to offer various branches of study and perhaps to provide a system parallel to the present university education which provides

for both religious and secular training in medicine, law, warfare, logic, history, mathematics, and metallurgy (ibid.). The teacher was usually one of the village officials and the remuneration paid to him was either rent-free land, or a share in the annual harvest of the village (Powell-Price, 1955, p. 27).

Buddhist Education

The advent of Buddhism marked a new era in the history of education. Buddhism recognized neither the Vedas nor the hierarchy of castes headed by the Brahmins. Its teachers were not Brahmins except for a few who accepted Buddhism as a way of life. Education was made available to all people. This led to the spread of education and Buddhism was greatly responsible for a vast territory of literature and knowledge. Buddhist monasteries became the centers of learning that spread education to all classes of people. The goal of education was to attain Nirvana through a life of solitary meditation and self-denial. The Buddhist monks lived in monasteries and studied the life and doctrine of their founder. New ideas and increased enlightenment were given to all people not only in literature but also in arts and culture which were greatly improved. The kind teaching of Buddha was responsible for more humane sympathy toward the poor and the weak of society (ibid., p. 49).

Education flourished during the Buddhist period till 629 or 645 A.D. Education started for six-year olds and lasted for fourteen years. Records show that there were well-known centers of learning where thousands of students and teachers lived together

in the pursuit of learning and knowledge similar to modern universities (Reller & Morphet, 1952, p. 292). The famous centers of learning were located in Nalanda and Vikrama-sheila in Bihar, and Taxila (now Pakistan). Although the curriculum and methods of this type of education were not broad, the contributions of the Buddhist educational system were in effect challenging the concept that education was a privilege to be confined to a few. The achievements made in raising the level of education was significant in this era and it continued to the seventh century A.D. (Huq, 1965, p. 25). These educational institutions were financed from the imperial grants and gifts of the Hindu emperors and other rich people (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 153).

Education in the Mohammedan Period

The Mohammedan rulers of Delhi were not interested in the education nor the welfare of Hindus nor in the support of their schools and colleges. As a result the sonorous Sanskrit was replaced by polished Persian. Court favor was denied to the Hindu schools and the institutions of higher learning perished because of total and deliberate neglect. All the Mohammedans wanted was the Hindu wealth, and they exploited them extensively, destroying their homes, their institutions of learning, their sacred religious institutions, and their temples and converted Hindus to the Mohammedan religion at the point of the sword.

Apparently, the rulers during the Muslim period were not consistent in regard to anything they did. If a king gave grants to an educational institution of his choice, his successors would

invariably stop those grants and start making grants to some other educational institution.

In the Middle Ages, while other governments did not have a regular department of education, the Mohammedan rulers seem to have had one to care for both education and religion (Gulshan Rai, Sunday Times [Karachi], August 4, 1935). In addition, Feroz Shah Tughluc (1351-1388) allotted thirteen million rupees for pensions and gifts, three million and six hundred thousand rupees of which were given to scholars and religious persons (Law, 1916, p. 51).

In Muslim India, there was nothing like the modern type of education established and financially supported by the state. Rulers and noblemen of wealth encouraged education by grants of land or money to mosques, monasteries, individual saints, and scholars. Almost every mosque had a maktab (primary school) attached to it where boys and girls of the community received elementary education. Hindu Sanskrit and vernacular schools also continued to operate for the benefit of Hindu students both in the urban and rural areas. But, there is no evidence to indicate that these schools were financially supported by the imperial treasury of India (Majumdar, 1958, p. 573).

The educational program was self-directed and self-controlled by different communities. Both the Hindu and the Muslim rulers considered education a religious obligation. Therefore, they helped to spread it by giving liberal donations, grants, and scholarships. The institutions of learning were built from endowments. They neither demanded any authority over the educational institutions nor interfered with their management. The Moghul

royal courts encouraged poets, musicians, and other learned men. Furthermore, even the large landowners were morally obligated to propagate education far and wide. Every important large village had a primary school of its own supported by donations, gifts, and endowments (Mukerji, 1964, pp. 3, 4).

Schools Prior to British Rule

The schools prior to the assumption of British rule in India may be termed as indigenous schools or patsalas (Hindu primary schools) and maktabas (Muslim primary schools) taught in their respective vernaculars. These languages were spoken daily and were understood. There were two schools for one village or one school for a population of four hundred or more children. More than one hundred thousand schools existed in the states of Bengal and Bihar alone (Basu, 1941, pp. 6, 7).

Financing of Schools

Financing these schools was simple. Each pupil paid his own tuition fee either in cash or kind by the end of each month or when the crops were sold once or twice a year--agreements were made between the teacher and the parents of the pupil. Most of the schools were conducted in temples, mosques, houses, and public buildings. There were no bills to pay. The schools were single-teacher schools, the monthly wages of the teacher were nominal, and the teacher cost was divided among the students. These schools were privately managed; and the government had nothing to do with them administratively or financially. It was totally a private enterprise (Mukerji, 1976, pp. 29-33).

Education during British Reign

After the death of the last of the Great Moghuls 1707 A.D., India lost all signs of political power, order, and prosperity,-- not that these always existed under the Moghuls. It was during this turbulent period in the history of India that the British entered India for trade and commerce. Internal disputes and quarrels among the native rulers made the situation grave, but attractive enough, and if the British exploited for their benefit, they can hardly be blamed for it. Their expertise and genius for diplomacy, shrewd statesmanship, and smart trading methods were fully evident in this period of history, and gradually they gained mastery over the whole subcontinent of India. Their competitors in trade and commerce and territorial expansionism were driven into the political background (Beck, ed., 1970, p. 154).

The British educational policy in India was inconsistent. At the beginning of their rule, the requests by natives to be educated were ignored.

When the British came into political power in India, the question of education came up. It was being debated in the House of Commons in 1792 when the question of renewing the East India company's charter was brought up. Wilberforce, an evangelical missionary leader, made a resolution calling for the dissemination of useful knowledge to the native population of British India by starting schools in various parts of rural India.

The British educational policy was to enrich the enlightened upper castes so that they would educate the lower castes. It was a downward filtering theory just to please the pundits, the

land owners, and the influential top castes at the expense of the masses. For several centuries, these top castes and classes were educated and enlightened, but they never did anything to uplift the downtrodden, low caste Hindus in India. The Hindu priests told the ignorant people that it was their Karma that kept them in poverty, suffering, and degradation. It was the missionaries who worked for the poor people and started schools for them.

Missionary Educational Enterprise

Toward the end of the eighteenth century, the English East India Company was gaining power as a ruler, but it did practically nothing for the education of the natives. The company did not want to interfere with the religion or education since it was basically a business enterprise (Mukerji, 1966, p. 4). During this period in the history of education, several Christian missionaries tried to introduce a new system of education in India. Many private parties joined hands with missionaries and established schools in the country.

Christian Frederick Schwartz was recognized as the father of all Protestant missions in India. He served in Tranquebar, Trichanopalli, Tanjore, and Madras. He befriended the Rajah of Tanjore, whose kingdom had an area of 3,600 square miles, and in whose kingdom he opened several schools with the permission of the Rajah. Instruction given in the schools of the Rajah of Tanjore was in both Tamil and English. It was here that Schwartz founded his celebrated provincial schools for the education of the native children in English. These schools founded by missionary Schwartz

became the foundation for the entire school system of the British government in India. The British seemingly also adopted the idea of financing the schools with the public revenue of the Rajah. In addition Schwartz built hundreds of school buildings financed by missionary funds. He served in various capacities from 1750 to 1795 and died on February 13, 1798 (Wolf, 1911, pp. 85-88).

Missionaries excelled in numerical strength, and the hierarchy of schools which they established in different parts of the country was unique and gave to their educational policy a coherence and a capacity for improvement which no other system then possessed. The missionaries did an excellent service in educating the humbler strata of society, especially in the rural parts of India (Ingham, 1956, p. 66).

In 1813 while the education of the Indians was being debated, two missionaries, Grant and Wilberforce, worked hard to convince the British Parliament of the growing need for the company to take the responsibility for education in India. As a result several controversies arose. Regarding the financing of native education the British Parliament gave the following directive:

The Governor-General in Council is to assign any surplus profits arising from the territorial acquisitions, after paying the expense of military, civil, and commercial establishments, paying the interest of the debt and then to provide a sum of one hundred thousand rupees for the purpose of education and improving the literature and dissemination of knowledge of sciences to the natives of the British territory (ibid.).

The above statement is regarded as the cornerstone of English education in India. For the very first time the British Parliament had considered and accepted in principle that education in India had a claim on public revenues.

Sir Charles Wood laid a strong foundation for an educational program in India and his 1854 dispatch below shows all aspects of the educational policy of the British government at that time, and its financial policy on education:

1. That all indigenous schools instructing in secular education receive financial encouragement from the state.

2. That a "payment by result" scheme be adopted for state grants-in-aid so that it acts as a stimulant for improvement of the educational standard.

3. That a standard of examination be set by adopting a definite scheme of inspection, and a specific set of rules and regulations be adopted to suit the local conditions.

4. That the students attending local or municipal schools pay a tuition fee in money or kind. That a certain percentage of students be exempted from paying fees on the basis of poverty.

5. That elementary education be declared an exclusive recipient of local funds set aside for education.

6. That the administrative and financial control over elementary school expenditure be vested in school boards appointed for that purpose by local self-governments.

7. That district and municipal boards keep and maintain a separate school fund consisting of (1) a reasonable percentage of municipal revenues set in each case by the respective local

self-governments, (2) the fees be levied in schools, (3) eligibility to receive a set amount of state funds, and (4) any unspent balance with the school system from the previous school year.

8. That the cost of maintaining or aiding primary schools in each school district be charged against local funds set aside.

9. That district and municipal boards allotting and administering funds in aid of primary schools adopt rules prescribed by the department of education and no charge be made for it without obtaining previous sanction from the department (Sen, 1933, pp. 160-66).

10. That strong emphasis be placed on the propagation of mass education.

11. That promotion of girls' education receive top priority.

12. That all districts establish schools for the masses.

13. That the medium of instruction be in the local vernaculars.

14. With regard to religious instruction in the government schools and institutions as these "were founded for the benefit of the whole population of India . . . the education conveyed in them should be exclusively secular" (Majumdar, 1958, p. 820).

The educational dispatch of Sir Charles Wood was considered the Magna Carta of English education in India. It paved the way for the education of the masses through the administrative machinery of local governments. State governments were expected to participate as providers of grants to schools conforming to the rules and regulations of the department of education. Furthermore, under the

terms of Wood's educational dispatch, special grants were made for specific projects such as the employment of new teachers or augmentation of their salaries, the establishment of scholarships, the provision of finance for school-building construction and repairs, and for the purchase of school books and equipment. The amount of appropriation for each item was made after assessing the particular need and circumstance of a specific school based on the periodical report submitted by the state-employed educational inspectors and the progress reports sent by the schools. The grants-in-aid were made only to the schools imparting instruction in secular education. Special grants were given to schools providing instruction in English literature, culture, and sciences. However, before substantial progress was made in the adoption of the principles of Sir Charles Wood's educational dispatch, the great Indian Mutiny broke out in 1857 (Misra, 1967, p. 93). People had not forgotten the underlying motive of the British encouragement of Indian education as declared in Lord Macaulay's minutes. The private and parochial schools refused to take advantage of local and state grants-in-aid of education. The poor classes did not desire to establish schools at all because they were too poor to pay school fees and other subscriptions. Furthermore, they needed the labor of their children to enable them to live. The middle and upper classes were not willing to make any sacrifice for the establishment of vernacular schools for the poor; but English schools were established to provide education for their own children (ibid., p. 94).

Perhaps, this was the first time that the people resented

the imposition of monthly tuition fee and the demand for public donation for conducting English-type schools in the country.

Stanley Dispatch

The Sepoy (a native Indian serving in the British army) Mutiny broke out in 1857. It brought the East India Company to a close and the British Crown assumed the reins of the government of India. As soon as order was restored a new educational dispatch was issued by Lord Stanley, the first Secretary of State. He wanted to find out if education had anything to do with the mutiny of 1857. Furthermore, he wanted to ascertain how far to pursue the educational policy laid down by the dispatch (Wood's) of 1854 which suggested that the government establish and operate elementary schools and, if necessary, levy a compulsory local tax for defraying the educational cost. He abolished the grant-in-aid system completely because he considered the existing grant-in-aid system not attractive enough for elementary education; furthermore, he thought that it was not designed to generate the local efforts. A land tax levy of 1 percent was implemented all over the country in support of elementary education (Mukerji, 1966, p. 123).

Transfer of Educational Control (1871)

Lord Mayo introduced a program of decentralization of administration. In 1871 he transferred some of the departments such as prison, police, roadways, and education to provincial governments which were asked to meet all expenditure of these departments from three sources, namely, the receipts from these departments,

Central (Federal) Government subsidies, and more taxation of a specific nature, especially in support of elementary education. This system continued for a while and then Lord Lytton initiated a system of budget by shared revenues in 1877 (ibid.).

Summary of School Finance during the
Nineteenth Century (British Period)

Due to lack of adequate finance the indigenous schools met with natural death. There was not sufficient patronage even from the rural people because everyone wanted an English education. Though the government had taken an action to improve the indigenous schools they could not revive them.

For the first time, in 1813, the East India Company under the pressure of missionaries and other interested people granted a sum of ten thousand pounds or Rs. 100,000 for the education of the native children of India. In 1833 this grant was increased to one hundred thousand pounds or Rs. 1,000,000. As a result, many elementary educational institutions sprang up in various parts of the country. The state expenditure on education continued to increase, and in 1870 it rose to 6.6 million rupees (Mukerji, 1974, pp. 33, 65).

The total expenditure in 1881-82 on elementary education was Rs. 7,909,840 and this amount of expenditure was financed by central and state governments raised through taxes, fees, and other sources (see table 3).

Because of this investment 32,916 primary and middle schools were established with an enrollment of 2,061,541 pupils. This was not a large number either in schools or in enrollment, but it was

TABLE 3
EXPENDITURE FOR 1881-1882

Source of Funds	Amount
Government funds	Rs. 1,721,658
Local funds	2,541,402
Fees	2,064,771
Endowments donated	1,909,940
Total	Rs. 8,237,771

a good beginning and was an appropriate step taken by the government in the right direction. Of course, there were a large number of children who did not enter school nor did they ever receive any education (ibid., pp. 134-35).

During the nineteenth century India's social, economic, and educational developments were lagging behind the western countries which made tremendous advances in education, economy, science, technology, sociology, and psychology. Though many defects and shortcomings existed in the national education of India, the country kept equal pace with the countries of the west until the middle of the eighteenth century. Historical events one after another adversely affected the country thus causing decay and deterioration in the entire life of India including education (Huq, 1965, p. 37).

Elementary Education from 1901 to 1947

The first All India Educational Conference was held under the direction of Lord Curzon, the Governor General of India at Simla in 1901. Few selected educators and the directors of Public

Instruction from various provinces were invited to attend the conference which lasted for two weeks and passed 150 resolutions. Lord Curzon took great interest in the drafting of the resolutions. He tried to study every problem pertaining to education and generated great enthusiasm about it. He published his educational policy in October 1904. In his review of the educational progress, he made the important remark that "four out of five villages are without a school. Three boys out of four grow up without any education, and one girl out of forty attended any kind of school." This is the total educational progress during the twenty years of educational operation under British rule. It plainly stated the unaccomplished task of education and its limitations which were far and wide in the country (Mukerji, 1974, p. 163).

However, the principle of progressive devolution of elementary education was accepted. The resolution of 1904 admitted that elementary education was not receiving a proper and adequate amount of public money. The active expansion of elementary education was one of the most important duties of the state. A clear cut financial policy was made, and provincial revenue and district board funds were claimed for elementary education. It further strongly stated that the district or municipal boards should spend their educational funds on elementary education only, not on higher education. The local bodies were to submit the educational budgets to the director of Public Instruction through their inspectors of schools for approval. The method of teaching was to be simple and appropriate for the basic needs of the rural population and teachers' salaries should be improved (ibid., pp. 163-64).

But more funds were invested in the expansion of secondary and college education and, therefore, elementary education did not receive its legitimate share of funds from the various contributors to the elementary education. In this connection Lord Curzon admitted that elementary education was so far ignored and disregarded by the government. "I am one of those who think that government has not fulfilled its duty in this respect," said Curzon. He should be praised for his good work in expansion of primary schools and for improving the standard of teaching in the schools (Rai, 1979, p. 16).

By this time Indian nationalism was spreading rapidly throughout the country. The National Congress at its Calcutta session of 1905 decided to launch the National Movement to create national awakening among the Indians and to assert their national rights and this led to a demand for compulsory elementary education (ibid.).

Financial Plan

The Imperial grant of Rs. 4 million in 1902 was increased to Rs. 7.5 million and a recurring annual grant of Rs. 3.5 million was promised, but most of this fund originally allotted to elementary education was diverted to higher education.

Among the Indian nationals, Raj Ram Mohan Roy and Gopal Krishna Gokhale were the foremost in demanding that the British government introduce compulsory elementary education to the masses. Gokhale presented an elementary education bill to the British Parliament in 1911 and the opposition was so strong that it was

turned down. However, the British Government gave a grant of 5 million rupees as a recurring grant to elementary education and another amount of Rs. 8.4 million as a nonrecurring grant to improve and to expand elementary education (Mukerji, 1974, p. 186). Gaekwad of Baroda experimented with elementary education in nine villages and the program proved very successful. He then introduced the program in fifty-two other villages in the Taluka of Amraiti City. The system met with astonishing success and, therefore, elementary education was made compulsory for all children in the state of Baroda by an Act of 1906 (Rai, 1979, pp. 16, 17).

Even though other Indian political leaders tried for compulsory universal elementary education, the plea only fell on the deaf ears of the rulers. In the meantime, nothing substantial happened for the education of the Indian masses. Even though Gokhale's demand for compulsory education was rejected in 1911, the government of India passed a resolution on elementary education in 1913 based on three principles:

1. The standard of education should be improved in preference to increasing their number.
2. The elementary education scheme should gradually lead to more practical purpose.
3. A provision should be made for higher studies and research in India rather than students having to go abroad.

The resolution clearly stated the need for expansion of primary schools, and the establishment of more middle schools at more central and convenient places. Subsidies were given to patsalas

and mukhtabs and emphasis was placed on the opening of boarding schools rather than giving grants to private schools. Girls' education was expanded in the lower levels. This expansion emphasized the need to draw teachers from better qualified groups as well as stressing better training for teachers who would be working in lower schools (Mukerji, 1974, p. 188).

In the meantime World War I broke out--a great hindrance and setback to the educational program. This tended to promote other activities in preparation for war, and thus funds were diverted to war rather than to education. Teachers were affected most adversely. Their salaries were very low already and were further reduced to less than one-fifth of their prewar value. The cost-of-living allowance did not restore to them a fraction of what they lost in real wages. Education suffered very seriously since the military occupied many educational buildings for war purposes. Scarcity in the supply of books, equipment, and other educational materials also hindered the program very much (Huq, 1965, p. 38).

After the war new enthusiasm gathered strength in the new nationalism which led to administrative reforms in 1919 to 1921. Under these reforms some of the departments including education were transferred to provincial governments without adequate financial support from the central government. Under the new administration, elementary education made tremendous progress since schools were established in the rural areas of the country as well as in municipalities. It was further stressed that teachers for these schools should be trained in a separate program of larger

universities which were a sort of an examining body. This was a wise plan and a strength to the teaching profession. With such a system, training universities sprang up in many parts of the country (ibid.).

Financial Arrangements

The allocation of funds for transferred employees from the central educational administration was not transferred to provincial governments nor could the minister levy any taxes for this purpose. The power of framing the educational policy fell on the provincial legislatures and the control of the elementary educational program was assigned to local bodies. All Indian educational services were in the hands of the Europeans whose rights and privileges were safeguarded. Furthermore, they were not very charitable to Indian public opinion. The scuffle between the European and Indian officers was solved by the royal commission, the top civil service of India, which discontinued recruitment of these services in 1924. India's central government lost interest in provincial education and amalgamated it with the central department of education.

The Central (Federal) Government of India had relinquished the total responsibility of education. It was unfortunate because the needed financial resources were not in existence in the treasury of the provincial governments. Therefore, the Hartog committee recommended that the deficiencies in educational financing be supplied by the central government in the interest of India as a whole. It further stated that educational responsibility should not rest with the local communities alone because elementary

education had an impact on all India and the responsibility for it should rest with the Central (Federal) Government (Misra, 1967, p. 73).

The Government of India Act of 1935 entrusted the entire responsibility of administration and financing of education to the provincial governments--except the responsibility of two universities at Banares and at Aligarh and the education in the centrally administered territories.

Sargent's Educational System

After the Second World War, the Central Advisory Board of Education under the chairmanship of Sir John Sargent submitted a detailed report of postwar educational developmental plans in India. The most important points of the report with regard to elementary education were summarized thus:

1. As soon as possible, universal, compulsory, free elementary education for all children--boys and girls--between the ages of six and fourteen years should be implemented. In spite of the practical difficulties of finding financial resources and the trained men and women teachers to staff the schools, a program of this type should be envisioned even though full implementation may take a period of up to forty years.
2. That the basic education should be implemented throughout the country on the principles enumerated in the two reports of Central Advisory Board of Education.
3. The senior basic (middle) school, being the final stage of schooling for the majority of children and youth who shall be future citizens and leaders, is of fundamental importance and therefore schools should provide good staff and adequate equipment.

4. Education depends upon the teacher. The present status and salary of primary school teachers are inadequate. The standard for training, recruitment, and conditions of service of teachers prescribed in the report of the committee approved by the Central Advisory Board of Education in 1943 present the minimum requirements for the success of a national system of education and these should be adopted and implemented all over the country.

5. A large increase in the number of trained women teachers should be realized.

6. The total annual cost, when this program is fully implemented should amount to approximately Rs. 2000 million (Sargent, 1945, p. 14).

The most important contributions of Sir John Sargent's report were (1) an acknowledgement of free and compulsory elementary education of the basic system of schooling to be spread over a period of forty years consisting of eight five-year plans and (2) the government taking the responsibility for the spread of basic elementary education.

Table 4 indicates the number of elementary schools, the enrollments, and the expenditures in the 1921-22 and 1946-47 school years.

Meanwhile, the Independence Movement received new impetus during and after the war as thousands joined the cause. There were not many jobs after the war and the educated wandered the streets of cities and towns looking for work. With little to do they joined the ranks of the freedom fighters and the movement for independence grew in strength and power so quickly that by June 1947 the British

TABLE 4
PROGRESS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Particulars	1921-1922 ¹	1946-1947 ²
Number of schools	160,072	172,663
Total enrollment	6,310,541	13,036,665
Yearly expenditure	67,540,147	232,895,147

Source: ¹ Indian Year Book of Education, 1964, p. 478.

² Mukurji, 1974, p. 230.

Government recognized the force as irresistible. With great political acumen and statesmanship, the government made a quick decision through the British Parliament. By the provisions of an act of independence, two independent sovereign nations emerged as Pakistan and India with independence granted on August 14, and 15, 1947.

Elementary Education in the
Republic of India 1947

Schools have been the greatest single modernizing agency in the national history of India. The people of India have realized this and the constitution of 1950 stated that all children between the ages of six and fourteen years should have compulsory, free elementary education. The Republic of India is a major developing nation in Southern Asia and it is the largest democracy in the world. If it should continue to grow as a democratic nation, its people need to be educated; its natural resources need to be

developed on a planned basis so the socio-economic transformation of its 650 million (1979) people can be realized; its masses of people need to be relieved of illiteracy, ignorance, superstition, and poverty through a planned attack (Education and National Development, 1970, pp. 780-88). The destiny of India is now being shaped in its schools (ibid., p. 1).

Educational responsibility rests primarily with the state governments. The Central (Federal) Government with the help of University Grant Commission coordinates educational facilities and determines the standards for higher education and research, scientific, and technical education. The Central Advisory Board of Education is a standing committee of the Central (Federal) Government which coordinates education in the country. The Central (Federal) Government has assumed the responsibility of five universities, namely, Aligarh, Benares, Delhi, Visva Bharathi, and Jawaharlal Nehru and other universities of national importance as authorized by the enactment of India's Parliament (India, 1971, p. 17).

The Central Advisory Board of Education makes the general educational policies. Its four standing committees work with elementary, secondary, university, and social education to formulate aims and objectives of each educational department, to evaluate prevailing or existing conditions, and to make future plans in their respective areas. A steering committee of the Board coordinates all activities of each section of the education (India, 1970, p. 61).

The Central Advisory Board of Education advises the government of India with regard to the formulation of policies promoting

education. One policy voted and implemented in 1975 said that the general educational pattern in the country should be:

1. Eight years of integrated elementary education (both basic and modern combined)
2. Three or four years of secondary with a variety of courses
3. Three years of college education (after secondary school leading to a first degree). This pattern of education was implemented in 1975.

The Education Commission of 1964-66 also suggested a uniform pattern of fifteen years of education in order to acquire a first degree--that means ten years of elementary education, two years of secondary education, and three years of college to obtain a first degree. The ultimate educational structure in the country should be 10+2+3; the higher secondary stage may be conducted either with high schools or colleges and it was left for the local communities and educational institutions to decide according to the conveniences prevailing in the different localities (India, 1970, p. 49).

Sources of Revenue

The fundamental sources of Central (Federal) Government revenues are custom duties, central excise duties, and the corporation and income tax--excluding taxes on agricultural income. The revenue from the wealth tax goes to the central (federal) revenues. In addition to these, the revenues from railways, postal services, telegraph services (after deducting expenses) go to the general revenue of the Central (Federal) Government (India, 1970, p. 179).

The land tax, states' excise duties, sales tax, registration, and stamp duty are the main sources of income to the states. In addition to these incomes, all states receive grants and loans from the Central (Federal) Government for developmental purposes. Property tax, octroi, and other terminal taxes are the sources of income tax for local bodies (India, 1979, p. 179).

Educational Responsibility of States and Federal Governments

The Constitution of India does not hold the Central (Federal) Government of India responsible for elementary educational finances because, according to the list of duties to be performed concurrently by the states and the Central (Federal) Government, there are two most important duties to be performed by the Central (Federal) Government: (1) indirect responsibility to require the government and Parliament to work together for universal compulsory, free elementary education for all children and (2) the main responsibility to maintain an equal standard of social services in all parts of the country. Therefore, it empowers the Federal Government of India to see that each state provides a minimum level of universal, free, compulsory elementary education for all children six to fourteen years of age (Aggarwal, 1972, pp. 97-101).

Federal involvement in education takes varying forms in different countries. For example, USSR has a heavily centralized educational program. The federal government of Canada has very little to do with education except acting as a clearing house. West Germany does not invest educational authority in its federal government, but in recent years the federal government of West

Germany is taking greater interest in the country's educational activities. Similar conditions exist in Australia. In the Constitution of the U.S.A., the term "education" does not exist. But the Federal Government of the U.S.A manifests federal interest in education by granting federal grants and subsidies to educational and developmental programs in the country and such assistance is continuously increased both in quantity and variety. Central India has its own peculiarity with regard to education. Education is the responsibility of each individual state, except for the maintaining of five central (federal) universities in India. However, central (federal) interests in education evident in the educational system in India are similar to those of the U.S.A. including the coordinating of the whole country's educational program as a whole and an attempt to maintain a uniform standard throughout the country (ibid., p. 96).

Statutory Provision

The Constitution of India states that no tax will be collected without the authorization of the law. Expenditures may be incurred according to the stipulation of the law toward which public funds are applicable. The administrators may spend the public money according to the authorization of the Parliament in the case of Federal Government, and according to the State Legislature in the case of a state (India, 1974, p. 139).

All receipts and payments of the Central (Federal) Government are kept under two different headings, namely, (1) the Consolidated Fund and (2) Public Accounts.

All revenues received, loans raised, and money collected by the Central (Federal) Government in repayment of loans go together to form the consolidated funds of India. No money can be withdrawn from this fund without the authority of an enactment of the parliament. All other revenues (receipts) and payments, such as deposits, service funds, remittances go into the public account which is not subject to authorization of the parliament. To meet an emergency not provided in the Annual Appropriation Act, a Contingency Fund of India has been authorized under Article 267 (1) of the Constitution (India, 1976, p. 148).

The Constitution provides also for opening a Consolidated Fund and Public Account for each state. Likewise, all states have Contingency Funds to meet emergencies subject to authorization by the respective legislature at a later date. Therefore, no tax can be collected without the enactment of parliament or the state legislature, nor can any tax be allotted without the authorization of Parliament, nor can any state raise the funds for schooling without the authorization of the State Legislature. The receipt of funds or payment of loans or other expenditures should be authorized by the people of the respective governments without which no transaction will be effected.

Children in School

Upon receiving independence, India's first task in education was to appoint a commission to study the existing conditions of its schools and to present future plans for placing all children ages six to fourteen in school. It was the intent of the writer to

investigate what amount of money is being invested in the elementary-education program in India today.

Growth in the number of primary and middle schools has increased steadily (table 5), but it has not kept pace with the growing enrollment of primary and middle-school pupils (table 6).

The number of teachers in the educational system was also increasing. However, there was one woman teacher for every 3.64 men teachers in 1969-70; and one for every 3.04 male teachers in 1974-75 (table 7). The ratio between men and women is slowly narrowing, but an equal number of men and women teachers in the elementary-school system would seem more desirable.

Teacher-Student Ratio

Teacher-student ratio is far from ideal in the primary school. On an average, one teacher had thirty-eight primary pupils in the classroom in 1974-75. In the 1969-70 school year there were thirty-nine. Thirty-eight to thirty-nine pupils in the primary grades is too many for one teacher to handle. A teacher-pupil ratio of 1:25 seems reasonable since smaller children need more individual attention (India, 1978, pp. 73, 74).

The teacher-student ratio in the middle school is better. In the 1969-70 school year, the teacher-student ratio was 1:32 and in 1974-75 it was 1:30. In the same year teacher-student ratio was 1:26 in high school and 1:19 in college (Education in India, 1975, p. 3).

Financing of Elementary Education

In essence, the educational responsibility rests with each

TABLE 5
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
(In Thousands)

Schools	Years						
	1950-51 ²	1955-56 ²	1960-61 ³	1965-66 ²	1970-71 ²	1975-76 ⁴	1977-78* ¹
Primary	209,671	278,135	330,399	391,064	404,418	453,530	550,000
Middle	13,596	21,730	49,663	75,798	88,567	105,263	150,000
Totals	223,267	299,865	380,062	466,862	492,985	558,793	700,000

Source: ¹India: A Reference Annual, 1978, p. 50. ²Ibid., 1974, p. 50.

³Education in India, 1977, p. 19.

⁴Educational Development in India, 1977, p. 70.

* Provisional

TABLE 6
SCHOOL ENROLLMENT IN MILLION
Grades One to Eight by Selected Years

Grades (Standards)	Years								
	1950-51 ¹	1955-56 ¹	1960-61 ¹	1965-66 ²	1970-71 ³	1975-76 ⁴	1977-78 ⁵	1978-79 ⁵	1982-83 ⁶
Grades 1-5	19.15	25.17	34.99	50.47	60.50	64.50	70.15	77.10	92.15
Grades 6-8	3.12	4.29	6.70	10.53	14.30	15.93	17.76	21.10	27.76
Totals	22.27	29.46	41.69	61.00	74.80	80.43	87.91	98.20	119.91

Source: ¹India: A Reference Annual, 1968, p. 63. ²India's Fourth Five-Year Plan, 1969-74, p. 355. ³Report (Educational Annual Report), 1971-72, p. 14. ⁴Ibid., 1977, p. 2. ⁵Ibid., 1978, p. 7. ⁶Ibid., 1979, p. 3.

* Estimates

TABLE 7
 NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
 1969-70 vs. 1974-75

Schools	1969-70 ¹			1974-75 ²		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Primary	738,541	172,896	911,437	955,623	492,614	1,231,622
Middle	362,916	129,588	492,504	541,595	216,615	758,210
Totals	1,101,457	302,484	1,403,941	1,497,218	709,229	1,989,832

Source: ¹Education in India, 1969-70, 1974, p. 3. ²Education in India 1974-75, 1978, p. 15.

individual state. However, the Central (Federal) Government in consultation with the states is involved in making most important decisions. Once a decision is made, it is implemented throughout the country. The states and the Federal Government become partners in educational matters and both systems work together for the progress of education (Aggarwal, 1972, p. 85).

On the other hand, the states assume the full responsibility of financing the educational programs in their respective states. The Central (Federal) Government is only involved indirectly. At times the Federal Government of India allots money to educational programs in the country. It is becoming increasingly involved in educational activities one way or another, and it grants assistance to states, but not more than 5 percent of the total educational budget (Misra, 1967, p. 220).

The Federal Government's priorities are many but a few are mentioned here. It supports states in making universal provision for an effective elementary-educational program to every child; assists high schools to vocationalize the secondary-school program; pays attention to post-graduate education and research; and encourages the development of agriculture and industry in the country.

All states have agreed to provide elementary education to all children six to fourteen years of age. But each state has its own priorities and makes its own decisions in harmony with the prevailing conditions in its own territorial jurisdictions. One state may provide free secondary education and another may charge a tuition fee. The Central (Federal) Government of India does not set a uniform rate throughout the country. Such matters are left

with the states to do as they see best in that state (Aggarwal, 1972, pp. 85-86).

Though a large number of children are in school today and enrollment is growing rapidly and facilities are being provided as best as is possible, still millions of children are not in school. It is the desire of the writer to investigate what amount of money is being spent for the elementary-educational program in India today.

Educational expenditure is divided into two parts, namely, direct and indirect expenditure. The direct expenditure consists of the operational cost of the school instruction in the elementary grades (Misra, 1967, p. 192). Indirect expenditure includes cost of inspection and direction, administration, buildings, dormitories, furniture and equipment, land, scholarships, stipends, etc. (Aggarwal, 1972, p. 364).

Table 8 shows the direct and indirect expenditures incurred from 1951 to 1966. Most of these expenditures were met by state governments, but about 5 percent was met by the Central (Federal) Government. No fees were charged in the elementary schools. Elementary expenditures in 1969-70 grew to over three billion rupees. Details are shown in table 9. During the same year, India invested Rs. 1,496,540 in indirect expenditure for all levels of elementary education. (See table 10 for school-building expenditures, table 11 for dormitory expenditures, and table 12 for a total of both of the above.)

Elementary education incurred in direct expenditure over six billion rupees in the 1974-75 school year (table 13).

TABLE 8

ELEMENTARY EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE
(Rupees in Million)

Type of Expenditure	School Year			
	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66
Direct expenditure	910.51	1,448.10	2,573.60	4,937.90
Indirect expenditure	233.30	448.50	870.20	1,232.30
Total	1,143.81	1,896.60	3,443.80	6,170.20

Source: India: A Reference Annual, 1971-72, (table 22), p. 62.

TABLE 9

DIRECT ELEMENTARY EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE
1969-70 SCHOOL YEAR

Type of School	Rupees M
Primary School Expenditure	Rs. 2,089,720,473
Middle School Expenditure	Rs. 1,528,663,315
Total Direct Expenditure	Rs. 3,618,389,288

Source: Education in India 1969-70, 1974, pp. 178-79.

TABLE 10

INDIRECT SCHOOL EXPENDITURE ELEMENTARY-
SCHOOL BUILDINGS
1969-1970

Particulars	Grades 1 - 4 Primary School Buildings	Grades 5 - 8 Middle School Buildings	Total
Government Funds	17,244,129	14,938,488	32,182,617
Local Funds	6,303,563	13,452,773	19,756,336
University Funds	3,425	---	3,425
Fees	160,199	394,647	554,846
Endowments	5,651,425	14,275,946	19,927,371
Total Expenditure	29,362,741	43,061,854	72,424,595

Source: Education in India, Vol. 2, 1974, pp. 178, 179.

TABLE 11

EXPENDITURE ON DORMITORY BUILDINGS FOR 1969-70

Particulars	Primary-School Dormitories	Middle-School Dormitories	Total
Government Funds	3,971,419	4,210,717	8,182,136
Local Funds	214,523	52,699	266,222
Fees	80,322	5,654,168	5,734,490
Endowments	708,174	2,724,106	3,432,280
Total Dormitory Exp.	4,974,438	12,641,690	17,615,128

Source: Education in India, Vol. 2, 1974, p. 179.

TABLE 12

SUMMARY OF INDIRECT EXPENDITURE SCHOOL AND
DORMITORY BUILDING 1969-70

Type of Building	
Elementary School Buildings	Rs. 72,424,565
Elementary Dormitory Buildings	Rs. 17,615,128
Total Indirect Expenditure	Rs. 90,039,723

Total primary school expenditure for 1974-75 school year was Rs. 3,848,571,532, the middle school expenditure was Rs. 2,926,359,199, and total elementary education was Rs. 6,774,930,731. The combined government sources met Rs. 3,414,039,850 for primary-school expenditure and Rs. 2,652,331,033 for middle-school expenditure.

The expenditure of Rs. 6,774,930,231 for 1974-75 school year compared with the expenditure of Rs. 3,618,389,288 for 1969-70 school year is almost double in the five-year period. The cost per pupil is continuously increasing. One may cite at least two reasons for the rising cost; (1) school enrollment is ever increasing so more facilities are needed, and (2) inflation. Table 14 shows the per-pupil cost of education for selected years.

Table 15 shows the allocations for 1976-77, 1977-78, 1978-79, and 1979-80 school years.

When observing the table, one readily recognizes that the allocations to total education and elementary education have increased steadily from year to year, however, the percentage allocated to elementary education has been decreasing each year.

TABLE 13
 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL EXPENDITURE FOR 1974-75
 (In Rupees)

Schools	Salary Teachers	Salary Non-Teachers	Equipment Appliances	Other Item	Cost Per Pupil
Primary School	3,623,027,423	90,874,707	43,131,019	91,538,383	Rs. 83
Middle School	2,682,828,634	114,800,400	43,129,660	85,600,505	Rs. 127
Total Expense	6,305,856,057	205,675,107	86,260,679	177,138,888	Rs. 105

Source: Education in India, 1974-75, pp. 157, 158. (Government of India Publication)

TABLE 14

COST OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION PER PUPIL

Years	Primary-School	Middle-School	Average Cost
1950-51	Rs. 19.00	Rs. 37.00	Rs. 28.00
1955-56	Rs. 28.00	Rs. 40.00	Rs. 34.00
1960-61	Rs. 23.00	Rs. 40.00	Rs. 31.50
1965-66	Rs. 28.00	Rs. 41.00	Rs. 34.50
1970-71	Rs. 54.24	Rs. 77.00	Rs. 65.27
1975-76	Rs. 83.00	Rs. 127.00	Rs. 105.00

Source: Education in India, 1951, 1956, 1961, 1966, and 1974, p. 26, 1978, p. 158.

TABLE 15

ELEMENTARY EDUCATIONAL BUDGET ALLOCATION
Rupees in Billion

Years	Total Educational Budget	Total Elementary Educational Budget	% of Total Ed. Budget
1976-77 (Actual)	21.38	9.00	48.8
1977-78 (Actual)	24.74	10.22	48.6
1978-79 (Estimates)	28.75	11.27	47.3
1979-80 (Estimates)	32.14	12.51	47.4

Sources: Expenditure on Education, 1979, pp. 49, 69.
Expenditure on Education, 1980, pp. 56, 62, 63, 77.

Elementary Educational Expenditure
in 1979-80 and Beyond

For the entire educational system during the sixth Five-Year Plan period, 1978-1983, a budget of Rs. 19,550 million has been allocated. Out of this amount a sum of Rs. 9,000 million is earmarked for elementary education. This would provide an average annual budget of Rs. 1,800 million to the elementary-education program up to 1983 (Planning Commission, 1978, p. 229).

In addition to the annual budget, the Central (Federal) Government of India has a cumulative fund of Rs. 22,450 million which has increased over the past decade at the rate of 12 percent per annum as a non-plan budget for educational developmental programs of various types including universalization of elementary education, physical education and sports, enrollment of more girls in grades one to eight, and financial provision for the children of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, and landless agricultural laborers. A portion of this fund will be allocated to elementary education to meet its enrollment targets, for expansion of facilities, and improvement of instruction and curriculum content in view of the needs of the rural communities (India, 1979, p. 50). More details on expenditure are not presently available.

With the general population growth of India and its demands for more accommodation, more equipment and furniture, and more teachers in addition to the six million or more students who are withheld in the schools for lack of achievement, the money allotted hardly suffices for the continuation of the existing educational program. The picture is further complicated because of

high inflationary trends in the country and the number of children, higher than ever expected, waiting to come into the schools.

Summary

The historical and financial background of elementary education was discussed in chapter V and was divided into four divisions; (1) Education Prior to Muslim Invasion, (2) Education in the Mohammedan Period, (3) Education in the British Period, and (4) Elementary Education in the Republic of India.

Education prior to Muslim Invasion was conducted for boys of the Brahmins, sons of kings, and other youth who came from high caste, rich homes. Parents of these children sought the help of the priest-teachers to give instruction. The parents paid the cost of instruction, and the schools were not available to low caste people.

The Buddhist schools were open to all classes of children. Teachers were not Brahmins. The object of education was to attain Nirvana (self-extinction) through a life of solitary meditation and self-denial. Pupils studied the life of Buddha and his teachings. The Buddhist monasteries were the centers of learning and were financed by Hindu kings and other rich people.

Education in the Mohammedan era was confined to Islamic religion and the three Rs. The schools were conducted exclusively for Muslim children in the precincts of the mosques where Mohammedan priests were the teachers. The schools were supported by the rulers, wealthy people, and land grants. Almost every mosque had a primary school where the children of the community received instruction free of cost and there is no record to prove that these schools were

financed by the government treasury.

Hindus had separate schools in their temples, private homes, and under trees. These schools were directed by the people themselves and were financed by donations, endowments, and gifts. The government had nothing to do with management of the schools.

During the early British Period the East India Company confined itself to trading and had no interest in the education of the native children. However, wherever there was a trading center, it opened a school for the foreign workers' children,

When the British came to power in India, the question of education of native children was brought up. It was debated in the House of Commons in 1792. Wilberforce, a missionary leader, made a resolution calling for the transmitting of knowledge to the native population of British India. The missionaries opened up schools for the poor in different parts of India and they worked for the betterment of the masses. Even today, many schools in the country are managed by missionary organizations where several thousands of children are being educated. The missionary schools are the model schools in various parts of the country. The British also followed a policy of educating upper caste children and the poor had no chance of getting into such schools.

Eventually the British government introduced the British system of education in India and allotted funds from the public revenues. When the British departed from India in 1947, they left behind a well-organized education department--from primary schools to universities--which has become a model of the Republic of India. At the close of the British rule, there were 172,663 elementary

educational institutions with an enrollment of 13,036,665 students and an investment of Rs. 232,895,147.

The independent India has a large system of elementary education. There are nearly 750,000 schools with an enrollment of approximately over 100 million children in grades one through eight. The annual expenditure is over twelve billion rupees and nearly two million teachers are employed. Even with this it is sad to see over fifty million children who need to be placed in the elementary school system. India needs to invest at least sixteen billion rupees just for instructional purposes, but the scarce resources of India hinder the progress of elementary education in the country.

CHAPTER VI

TRENDS IN FUTURE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

No plan will be successful in a democratic society unless the society invests in the improvement of the human substance. This may be done through an increase in production, social services, education, and technical training. It is extremely urgent that all possible resources be discovered and used for educational development (Planning Commission, 1951, p. 46). Education should have priority in the national budget and it should take its place immediately after paying for shelter, food, and clothing (Misra, 1967, p. 217).

Today's world is based on science and technology. But it is education that resolves the level of prosperity, social welfare, peace, and security of the people. Its educational quality and quantity depend to a greater extent on the investment that the country is able to make on its educational program, especially on compulsory, free elementary education (Education and National Development, 1970, p. 4).

Education is one of the most outstanding and important business enterprises of a nation. Education is related to the total population and more closely, but directly, with the school age population. Educational services absorb the largest portion of the population for its services. The educational program of a nation,

like India, requires an enormous amount of money and makes a considerable demand on the national financial resources of the country (Aggarwal, 1972, p. 357).

Gross National Product

India has a mixed economy which is shared between a small, rapidly growing and very important government sector and a large private sector of industries. The government industrial sector is further shared between the Central (Federal) Government and the state governments which have not always seen eye to eye. The private sector contributes almost 75 percent of the national income. Furthermore, the modernization and developmental growth of the economy has to a great extent been aided and financed with the help of foreign investments, but those grants and aids have been greatly decreased since early 1970s (Nyrop, ed., 1975, pp. 395-96).

According to the Reference Annual of 1977-78, India is fairly rich in natural resources and manpower which have not been fully utilized. India's economy is still predominantly agricultural, and nearly one-half of the national income is realized from agriculture and related programs and activities which make use of about three-fourths of the working force. Ever since India attained its independence in 1947, the goal has been to generate other sources of revenue--especially in industrial and allied areas (Reference Annual, 1975, p. 161).

In 1975-76 the GNP at factor cost was estimated to be Rs. 641.168 billion at current prices. At 1960-61 prices, it was Rs. 234.140 billion. The national per capita income at current

prices was estimated to be Rs. 1,005.00 and at 1960-61 prices, it was Rs. 366.00 (Reference Annual, 1977-78, p. 161).

India's GNP in 1978-79 grew by approximately 4 percent, a respectable performance on top of the strong 7.5 percent increase in the previous fiscal year. The average growth of the economy during the past four years has exceeded 5 percent, considerably above the 3.5 percent annual average since independence (Foreign Economic Trends, September 1979, pp. 3, 4).

India's GNP in current prices is over Rs. 771.00 billion (\$100 billion), its economy is about fifteenth in the world. Per capita income is almost Rs. 1,310 (\$170). India's GNP is about three and one-half times higher in international dollars, taking into account its purchasing power, compared with other economies (ibid.).

Education contributes to the all-round development of the country and therefore more investments in education are necessary.

Paying for better public schools will call for substantially increased governmental support for elementary and secondary education . . . private business is sensitive to the direct relation between improved education, higher incomes, and increased economic growth. Moreover, the private sector recognizes the extreme economic costs that accompany our failures to educate our children. (Burrup, 1974, p. 53)

India has good intentions of investing large amounts of money in education, especially in elementary education, but it has many pressing needs and therefore diverts educational allotments to other projects. Hence, the growth of education has been hindered and the economic growth stunted.

Gross National Product and Per Capita Income

In spite of existing social and other barriers, India has

done very well in its economic development during the past several years. India's GNP and its per capita income is shown in table 16. Since 1972 its national income growth consistently lies between 3.5 percent and 7.5 percent annually. The GNP at current prices in dollar values have been converted to Indian rupees at the prevailing exchange rates of one U.S. dollar = Rs. 7.171 in July 1979 (The Far East and Australasia, 1979, p. 414).

TABLE 16
GROSS NATIONAL PRODUCT AND PER CAPITA INCOME PER YEAR

Year	GNP in Billion \$	GNP in Billion Rs.	Per Capita Income in \$	Per Capita Income in Rs.
1972-73	57.90	446.41	102.90	793.36
1973-74	71.80	553.58	125.00	763.75
1974-75	88.70	683.88	151.40	1,167.30
1975-76	82.28	634.38	134.93	1,040.31
1976-77	93.40	720.11	151.62	1,168.99
1977-78	102.55	790.66	163.30	1,259.04
1978-79	107.16	826.20	166.92	1,286.95

Source: U.S. Foreign Economic Trends, Dec. 1975, p. 21, Sept. 1979, p. 2.

India, on an average, has been spending about 3 percent of its GNP per year on education. About 40 percent was allotted to elementary education. Since its GNP is growing considerably from year to year, it amounts to an increased allocation to education. Therefore, an increased investment is being made in elementary education. However, whatever amount is invested in elementary education appears to be insignificant in view of the rising population,

the major contributing factors affecting free, compulsory elementary education in India.

Population Growth

The decennial census of 1971 indicates that the population of India was 547.95 million, an increase of over 109 million (25 percent) over the 1961 census. The Indian census officials said that in 1960 and early 1970 the annual growth rate was approximately 2.5 percent. Private independent demographers suggest that the population annual-growth rate has been 3 percent or more. Demographers at the United Nations, for example, estimated the mid-1973 population to be 600.4 million, a figure somewhat higher than if it would be reckoned at a growth rate of 2.5 percent. In 1974 there was a daily addition of 40,000 to the Indian population (Nyrop, 1975, p. 89).

Life expectancy at birth had been increased to about forty years of age by 1971. The male-female ratio was given as 1000 to 930, providing a margin of 3 percent of error in underenumeration of females. Early in 1974 nearly 43 percent of the population was under fifteen years of age, but it was 41 percent in 1961. Between the decades of 1961 and 1971, there was a 2 percent increment in the same school-going age group--on 153.44 million children (ibid.).

Increments in school enrollments are mainly due to two reasons: (1) the absorption into the school system of children who at one time could not have attended school, and (2) population growth. The most important contributing factor to absorbing more children is the implementation of the compulsory elementary

education program which was started in 1950. Though this introduction was gradual, it was expected that should the progress of enrollment be continued, all children within the age range of six to fourteen years would be attending school. In the second case, it is obvious that the size of the school-going age group from which the school enrollment is drawn will increase as population increases (Vig. 1973, p. 1).

The population in India is increasing at the rate of a little more than 2 percent each year. Table 17 indicates the trend of population growth from one decennial census to another beginning from 1951 to 1981.

TABLE 17
POPULATION TRENDS FROM 1951 TO 1981

Year	Population
1951	361 million ¹
1961	439 million ²
1971	548 million ³
1981	668 million ⁴

Source: ¹India: A Reference Annual, 1968 p. 6. ²Ibid. ³India, 1977 and 1978, p. 6. ⁴Estimated at the annual growth rate of 2 percent.

The population increase between 1951 and 1961 was 78 million; and between 1971 and 1981 it is estimated to be about 125 million which will need accommodation in schools. India's population was approximately 653 million in mid-July, 1979 (The Far East and Australasia, 1979, p. 423), 2.84 times greater than it was seventy-eight years ago. A demographic study by the United Nations in 1976

indicates the population in various school-going and school-potential age groups (table 18). Of particular interest to this study are the five-to-nine years and ten-to-fourteen years of age groups (Statistical Year Book, 1976).

TABLE 18

SCHOOL-GOING AGE GROUP IN 1976

Ages	Population in Millions by Age Groups					
	1-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25-29
Both sexes	88.80	79.06	72.80	64.01	53.39	49.29
Male 310.07	45.66	40.92	37.71	32.81	27.43	25.54
Female 288.03	43.14	38.14	35.09	21.20	25.96	23.75
Total 598.10 million						

The actual and potential school-age population for the period 1971-1986 is given by sex for the age groups five to ten years and ten to fourteen years in tables 19 and 20, respectively. The population is estimated for 1980-81 and 1985-86 since the actual figures are not available.

Tables 21 and 22 give an estimate of the potential school-going age group for the years 1977 to 1983. At the end of the 1978-79 school year, there were 15.94 million primary-school children and 60.82 million middle-school children who did not have the opportunity to attend any school (see tables 21 and 22). According to estimates found in these tables for the school year 1982-83, there will be 107.19 million primary-school children and 93.61 million middle-school children. Thus 80.88 million children will not be able to attend

TABLE 19

SCHOOL AGE POPULATION BY SEX IN INDIA
AGE GROUP FIVE TO TEN YEARS
GRADES (STANDARDS) ONE TO FIVE,

Years	Type of Students	Number of Students in Millions			
		Boys	Girls	In School	Out of School
1970-71	Potential Students	38.9	36.2	65.1	5.1
	Actual ¹	31.3	28.7	60.0	
1975-76	Potential Students	45.6	41.9	87.5	12.9
	Actual ²	39.5	25.1	64.6	
1980-81	Estimate	52.4	48.8	100.2	
1985-86	Estimate	60.6	57.2	117.8	

Source: ¹Report (Annual), 1971-72, p. 14. ²Report (Annual), 1976, p. 2.

TABLE 20

SCHOOL AGE POPULATION BY SEX IN INDIA
AGE GROUP ELEVEN TO FOURTEEN YEARS
GRADES (STANDARDS) SIX TO EIGHT

Years	Type of Students	Number of Students in Millions			
		Boys	Girls	In School	Out of School
1970-71	Potential Students	30.9	30.4	61.3	48.3
	Actual	9.2	3.8	13.0	
1975-76	Potential Students	38.5	35.7	73.2	57.3
	Actual	10.9	5.0	15.9	
1980-81	Estimate	45.2	41.6	86.8	
1985-86	Estimate	52.0	48.4	10.0	

Source: Estimate: Vig, 1970-1991, p. 26.

TABLE 21

POTENTIAL SCHOOL-GOING AGE GROUP
AGE GROUP FIVE TO TEN YEARS
GRADES (STANDARDS) ONE TO FIVE

Particulars	Numbers Given in Millions					
	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83
Estimate Potential School Pop.	90.32	93.04	95.77	96.80	104.52	107.19
Actual Prov. for School	70.15 ¹	77.10 ²	80.86*	84.62*	88.38*	92.15*
No School Provision	20.17	15.94	14.91	12.18	16.14	15.04

Source: Estimates: Vig, 1971-1991, p. 26. ¹Report
(Educational Annual), 1978-79, p. 3. ²Ibid., 1977-78, p. 7.
*Estimates.

TABLE 22

POTENTIAL SCHOOL GOING AGE GROUP
AGE GROUP ELEVEN TO FIFTEEN YEARS
GRADES (STANDARDS) SIX TO EIGHT

Particulars	Numbers Given in Millions					
	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83
Potential School Going Age	79.50	81.92	84.35 ¹	86.78	90.19	93.61
Actual Prov. for Schooling	17.78 ¹	21.10 ²	22.67*	24.37*	26.07*	27.78 ¹
No School Provision	61.72	60.82	61.68	62.41	64.12	65.84

Source: Estimates: Vig, 1971-78, p. 26. School Provision.
¹Report (Educational Annual), 1978-79, p. 3. ²Ibid., 1977-78,
p. 7. *Estimates.

school due to lack of accommodation, trained teachers, furniture, equipment, and teaching aids, as well as a lack of food and suitable clothing.

If the GNP grew at 7.5 percent per annum, it would amount to Rs. 1,103.35 billion by 1982-83. If the total education program should receive 6 percent of the GNP (Rs. 1,103.35 billion), it would amount to Rs. 66.20 billion. Thus, if 50 percent of Rs. 66.20 billion were allocated for elementary education there would be Rs. 33.07 billion. If this growth rate of the economy and investment were kept at a constant rate of 6 percent per year, the educational system would be able to take most of the children into the schools before 1990. But India is not able to do this due to various other commitments.

In the 1982-83 school year, there are plans to invest only Rs. 13.85 billion in elementary education to be divided between primary and middle school--Rs. 9.62 billion and Rs. 4.23 billion, respectively. At the present rate of investment all children between ages six and ten will be in school by 1990 A.D. and the eleven to fourteen age group by 2000 A.D.

Past enrollment records indicate an annual increment of four million from the 1978-79 school year until 1982-83 for the primary section (see table 23). The middle-school section has an average annual enrollment rate of 1.68 million during the same period (table 24).

As long as primary enrollments have been achieved by 1990 it may be possible for India to invest more money in the middle-school enrollments so all school-age children will be in school

TABLE 23
TOTAL ENROLLMENT AND PERCENTAGE TO TOTAL POPULATION
1950 - 1983
GRADES (STANDARDS) ONE TO FIVE (AGE FIVE TO TEN)

	1950-51	1955-56 ¹	1960-61	1965-66 ²	1970-71 ³	1975-76 ⁴	1976-77 ⁵	1977-78 ⁶	1978-79 ⁷	1979-80*	1980-81*	1981-82*	1982-83*
Enrollment	19.15	25.2	34.99	50.47	60.5	64.70	67.53	70.15	77.10	80.86	84.62	86.88	82.15
Percentage	42.6	52.9	62.2	76.7	80.0	83.9	80.9	82.8	93.7	97.85	100.00	102.15	105.3

TABLE 24
TOTAL ENROLLMENT AND PERCENTAGE TO TOTAL POPULATION
1950 - 1983
GRADES (STANDARDS) SIX TO EIGHT (AGE ELEVEN TO FOURTEEN)

	1950-51	1955-56 ¹	1960-61	1965-66 ²	1970-71 ³	1975-76 ⁴	1976-77 ⁵	1977-78 ⁶	1978-79 ⁷	1979-80*	1980-81*	1981-82*	1982-83*
Enrollment	2.12	4.3	6.5	10.93	14.2	15.94	17.00	17.79	21.10	22.77	25.72	26.52	27.78
Percentage	12.7	16.5	22.5	30.9	35.0	36.9	37.00	37.9	46.1	48.17	50.36	52.59	54.9

Source: ¹India: A Reference Annual, 1968, p. 63. ²India's Fourth Five Year Plan, 1969-74, p. 355.
³Educational Annual Report, 1971-72, p. 14. ⁴Ibid., 1976-77, p. 2. ⁵Education in India, 1977, p. 19.
⁶Annual Report, 1977-78, p. 7. ⁷Ibid., 1979, p. 3. *Estimates. ⁸(Educational

by 2000 A.D. (The Far East and Australasia, 1980, p. 146) even considering an additional 40,000 babies daily at the prevailing population growth rate (Nyrop, 1975, p. 89).

India tends to spend very little on education compared with the well-developed countries. It does not consistently invest a certain percentage of its total GNP. It spent 1.2 percent of its GNP in the 1950-51 fiscal school year, 1.9 percent in 1955-56, 2.4 percent in 1965-66, and 3.4 percent in 1971 (Safaya, 1970, p. 143).

Other developed countries like UK invested 6.2 percent in education; USSR 7.00 percent, and Japan 5.2 percent.

It is hoped that India will be in a position to invest on an average of not 3.0 percent of its GNP, but at least 6 to 7.5 percent of its GNP in the expansion of education, and allocate 50 percent especially at the elementary level.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

There is a definite desire and demand for the people of India to have elementary educational opportunity for all children. However, not all children between the ages of six and fourteen are able to attend school at the present time. What is even more important is the fact that over ten million children are reaching school age each year. Therefore, it is essential to know why these children are not in school and what can be done to provide free, universal, compulsory education for them.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate relevant data with regard to economic factors that relate to universal, compulsory, free elementary educational program for all children of India. Answers to the following specific questions were sought, hopefully to provide solutions to the problem. These questions were: (1) What is India presently spending annually for elementary education? (2) What can India afford to spend annually for universal, compulsory, free elementary education? (3) How much money is needed to implement universal, compulsory, free elementary education for all children in India? (4) What other factors tend

to interfere with the potential resources which may be allocated to elementary education? Each question has been answered as follows:

1. What is India presently spending annually for elementary education?

It was observed in table 15 that the allocations to total education and elementary education have increased steadily from year to year. On the other hand, percentage of allocation has been decreasing from one year to the other. On an average, India is spending 3 percent of its GNP for all aspects of education, and elementary education receives about 48 percent of it.

2. What can India afford to spend annually for universal, compulsory, free elementary education?

A. Since India's population is nearing 668 million it would take all the money India could spare to provide food, clothing, and shelter for its ever increasing population.

B. India is doing well under the present economic conditions. At the close of 1978, India's Gross National Product was Rs. 826.20 billion. India has budgeted (estimate) approximately 3.4 percent of its GNP for education--28.75 billion rupees.

3. How much money is needed to implement universal, compulsory, free elementary education for all children in India?

According to population estimates (tables 20 and 21) there will be 183.58 million potential elementary-school children in the country for the 1980-81 school year.

At the 1975-76 prices, India spent Rs. 83 per pupil per year for the first five grades (standards), and Rs. 127 per pupil

per year in grades (standards) six to eight. With an inflationary rate of approximately 20 percent per year, the 1975-76 prices become Rs. 166 per pupil per year for the first five grades (standards), and Rs. 254 per pupil per year in grades (standards) six to eight for the school year 1980-81. Thus elementary education costs an average of Rs. 210 per pupil per year. At the average cost per pupil per year it would cost India Rs. 38.55 billion to provide an elementary education for these children. This does not include the cost of providing school buildings, furniture, equipment, and teaching materials, nor for training additional teachers. It is estimated that these extra items would cost approximately 25 billion rupees.

4. What other factors tend to interfere with the potential resources which may be allocated to elementary education?

It was noted that several factors interfere with the allocation of more funds for elementary education. The most important of these are reviewed briefly.

Social Barriers

One of the most important factors which tend to interfere with the potential resources of India's social structure is the caste system which is rigid and inflexible and restricts communication, social mixing, and upward mobility. As a result, the nation lacks social cohesiveness, solidarity, and cooperation. It is a serious problem in India at any moment. The foundation was laid years ago when states were reorganized on a linguistic basis. This has contributed to local loyalties and the driving out of people who

do not speak a particular language. Akin to this is the caste loyalties. When both caste and language are combined conflicts arise. A community divided against itself does not contribute effectively to any program of nation building including education.

Cultural Barriers

Sacredness attached to certain animals such as cows, monkeys, rats and other rodents which destroy approximately 12 million tons of food grains each year interferes with the control of the animals. If proper steps were taken to conserve this large quantity of food grains it would save nearly 4 billion rupees which could be used for educational purposes or for investments in industries.

Nationalized Industries

The nationalized large industries are financed and managed by the central (federal) and state governments. These industries are not doing as efficient a job as the privately managed industries, and production is lagging behind. The privately managed industries and businesses yield 75 percent of the Gross National Product. However the government controlled industries contribute some money to the GNP, but they have a greater capacity to contribute more to the economic progress of the nation.

Population

Over forty thousand new babies are being born each day, this contributes immensely to the population explosion. Whatever economic progress is made by the country is neutralized by the new arrivals which swell the population by ten million or more each year.

Effective measures to curb the population growth would assist in economic development making more money available for education or other purposes.

Untouchability

In addition to the problems created by the caste system, for example, is the practice of untouchability which thwarts easy communication with fellow human beings. Untouchability is practiced by some castes against other castes thereby isolating some groups of people from other groups of people. The community practice of untouchability is transferred to schoolrooms where tension begins and back to the community where emotionally disturbed people cannot get along amicably, and ends with quarrels, fights, damage, destruction and death. Furthermore, untouchability encourages superstition, ignorance and illiteracy. Ultimately, untouchability interferes with the social mobility, individual progress, community development, national advancement, economic growth, and the spread of elementary education.

To further summarize, it should be pointed out that the existing schools are filled with children and there is no room for additional pupils. As a result, the number of illiterates increases steadily. Table 25 indicates the number of estimated illiterates from the 1977-78 to 1982-83 school year tabulated from tables 21 and 22.

According to table 25, the number of illiterates is growing each year on an average (between 1977 to 1983) of 78 million per year. As already estimated the cost per child per year in elementary

TABLE 25

POTENTIAL ILLITERATES IN MILLIONS
1977-1983

School	Number for Whom Schools Are Not Available					
	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83
Primary (1-5)	20.17	15.59	14.91	12.18	16.14	15.04
Middle (6-8)	61.72	60.82	61.68	62.41	64.12	65.84
Total	81.89	76.41	76.59	74.59	80.26	80.88

education is Rs. 210.00. Therefore, to place these 78 million more children in school at inflated prices would cost an additional Rs. 16.35 billion rupees. This amount of money is not available for them to go to school.

The financing of elementary education for different periods was discussed earlier in the section on history of education. For each period there was a similarity in school financing with slight modifications as time went by to meet the growing need of the pupils and the community at large. The financial pattern of each period has been summarized as follows:

Educational Finance Prior
to Muslim Invasion

In this period, education was confined to the Brahmin boys only. The Brahmin priests were the teachers who instructed the children in the three Rs. In addition to it, they were taught religious hymns and poetry, and some of them were committed to memory. The instructional cost was met by the parents. Education was neither universal nor compulsory. The government had nothing

to do with the schools which were privately owned and operated by individual teachers in the villages.

Educational Finance in Buddhist Period

During the Buddhist period, the schools were opened to all boys from all communities. There was no discrimination against anyone. The schools were located in the Buddhist monasteries where boys received instruction in the three Rs, and also were taught the doctrines of the founder of Buddhism. Some of the Brahmins accepted Buddhism and they became teachers in the Buddhist schools. The schools were supported by donations given by the rich Hindus who embraced Buddhism. Some of the Hindu rulers and kings made large contributions out of their personal funds, and some of the expenses were met by the monasteries. These schools were managed by the Buddhist religious organizations in different villages. Education was a private business, and as such government did not interfere with the management of schools and financing them.

Educational Finance in British Period

In the early British period, education was in the hands of the Hindu and Muslim priests and these schools were called the indigenous schools. At the beginning of the British rule, every large village seemed to have a school which catered to the upper caste children whose parents paid the instruction cost. Though education was restricted to boys, the rich people gave private tuition for their daughters at home. According to literature review, there were over 100,000 thousand elementary schools in Bengal

alone at the time the British occupied this territory.

During the early rule of the East India Company, the management did not pay attention to the schooling of the native children, though they started modern elementary schools for their foreign employees' children. Subsequently, the East India Company started schools for the children of the native employees. The cost of education was met by the company.

In the early period of the British rule, education was in the hands of missionaries who opened schools for the low caste people and all who wanted an education for their children. The natives constantly requested elementary education for their children. In the beginning, the British were not in favor of starting schools for the natives. But the pressure from the people was so great, that they felt obligated to allocate some funds for elementary education. Later they took full responsibility of financing elementary education from the public revenues. The schools were neither compulsory nor universal but served a fraction of the total population. However, they strongly propagated education for girls and established schools exclusively for them.

At the time the British departed from India in 1947 they had established 172,633 schools with an enrollment of 13,036,665 million students and spent a sum of Rs. 232,895,147 on education. They left a well-organized educational department with experienced and efficient personnel to serve in the educational program. One needs to remember that after ruling India for over 200 years, the British government brought the literary rate to only 15 percent.

Educational Finance in the
Republic of India

The independent India followed the footsteps of the British in financing elementary education by supporting it with public funds. They passed compulsory, elementary educational acts both at the Central (Federal) and state levels and presently allocate increased amounts of money for elementary education. As a result the enrollment has grown tremendously. At the end of 1979-80 school year, there were approximately (estimated) 103.63 million children in the elementary school system with an estimated expenditure of Rs. 11.27 billion.

Conclusion

On the basis of the data presented in this thesis and an evaluation thereof, it appears that India still has a colossal task before it in order to achieve its noble goal of providing universal, compulsory, free elementary education to school-age children in India.

The reasons for this conclusion are multi-dimensional.

1. First of all, the population is growing at a rate of more than 2 percent per year. At the same time, the GNP is growing at the rate of 7.5 percent annually. There appears to be a race between the population growth and economic development. As a consequence, a gap is widening between the GNP and the population growth in India. India is expending 3 percent of its GNP per annum for education. It appears that the growth in GNP is unable to keep up with the population growth. Thereby it is becoming

virtually impossible to reach the goal of providing universal, compulsory, free elementary education to all children.

2. Unless the aims of education change from primarily academic to less academic orientation supplemented by a more practical and life related type of curriculum, it would be extremely difficult to reach the expected goals of education, the needs of pupils and the needs of the community at large.

3. India has one of the largest, educated, unemployed populations there is. Little can be done for this group and the situation will worsen until school changes the attitudes of students in their work and study concepts.

4. As long as the laborers are paid the least wage possible and investors absorb most of the profits to their own benefits, there is little that can be done to improve the economic conditions of the people and educational problems of the country.

5. As long as strong cultural and social barriers exist in rural India, it is nearly impossible to work toward improving industry, education, or economy of the country.

6. India's educational objectives probably will not be realized as long as the country is fragmented by class, caste, creed, and superstition. The cultural outlook of the society needs to be changed from that of an elitest pattern of education which lays emphasis on white-collar job orientation to work-oriented curriculum. Little can be done in the present situation. However, more money allocated to elementary education to provide more educational facilities for more children would be a step in the right direction.

Recommendations

On the basis of information gathered for this study and the systematic evaluation of the materials, the following recommendations have been proposed for consideration, discussion, and possible adoption in an attempt to help India reach its goal of providing universal, compulsory, free elementary education for all children.

1. Practical aspect of educational programs need to be provided from grade (standard) one to eight. If children are taught practicality early, they will cope better with life's expectations. Work/study programs would help develop dignity of labor.

2. Whereas, India depends heavily on taxes from trade and commerce for its income in general support including education, it is, therefore, recommended that its tax base be expanded to include agricultural income and personal property to provide more funds for education.

3. In view of the fact that India has serious funding problems in educating all elementary school age children, it is recommended that funds allocated to education be spent for that purpose and that purpose only.

4. Whereas India has a shortage of funds for education it is advisable that the people emulate the example of Decan Education Society, People's Education Society, Karnatak Education Society, and various Christian organizations, all of which are establishing schools in rural and urban areas with a view to mobilizing the resources and services of the general public in

support of education in these areas. It is further recommended that the local, state, and Central (Federal) Governments allocate a greater percentage of money for elementary education.

5. India needs to develop great numbers of small-scale industries throughout the country in which they can employ the educated population, thus increasing its GNP which could provide more money for education.

In spite of great steps made in the green revolution (agriculture) of India to make the country self-sufficient in food grains, it is essential that it continue to improve in scientific agricultural practices in order to continue its self-sufficiency.

6. There is a ray of light in the fulfillment of India's noble educational objective of providing universal, compulsory, free elementary education for all children. A greater attempt could be made toward reaching these goals provided the following steps are taken:

A. The rapidly growing population contributes daily to the problems of India, therefore, it is recommended that India strives desperately toward a systematic birth-control plan in order to cut down the number of elementary school-age children. Though India has done much in this field, there is a gigantic task yet to be fulfilled.

B. It is recommended that India diligently implement its two streams of educational programs--practical and academic which have been nationally accepted to provide job-oriented training so that young people might find jobs and make more money to support the educational system.

7. India has been spending on education an average of 3 percent of its GNP--an amount insufficient to meet the demands of providing free elementary education. It is therefore recommended that 6 to 7.5 percent of the GNP be invested so that educational gaps between the rich and the poor may be narrowed.

8. The Government of India planned to establish two stream educational programs--practical and academic--but this plan has not been implemented. It is therefore recommended that further study be conducted to determine the reason for not implementing these plans.

9. The government of India has systematically allocated on an average 3 percent of GNP for education, yet it is fully aware that its commitment to provide universal, compulsory, free elementary education is falling short. It is therefore recommended that further study be made to ascertain why the government could not provide more than 3 percent of the GNP for education.

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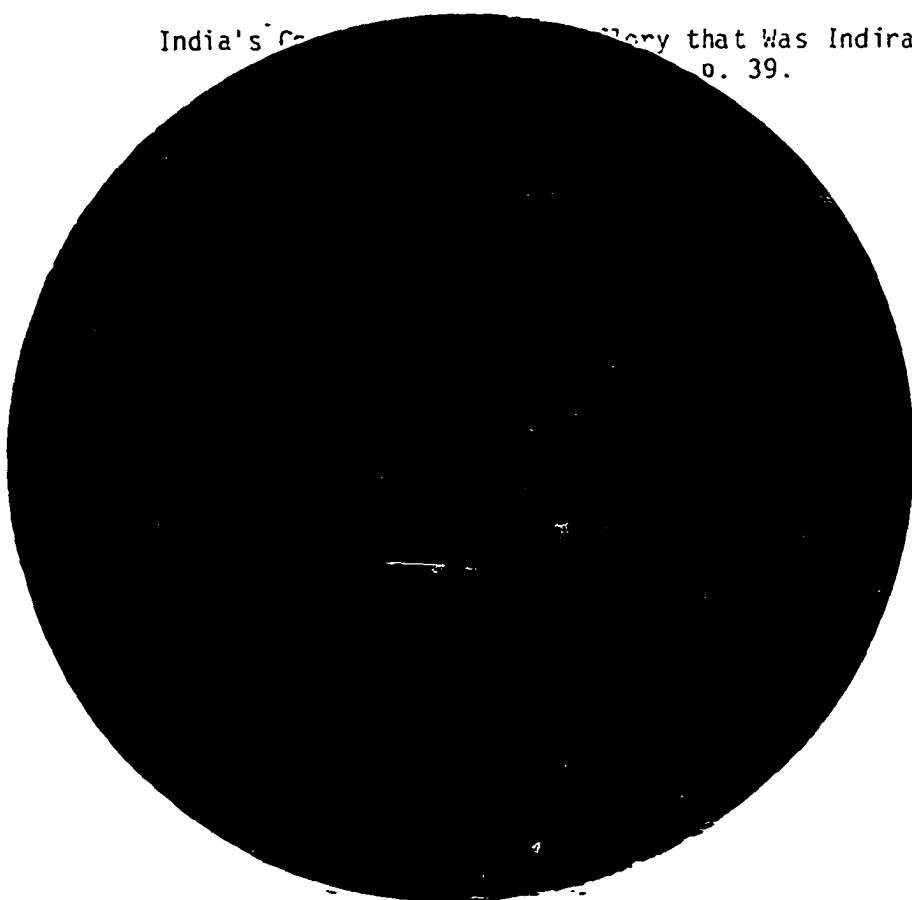
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