CHAPTER - II

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The conceptual framework for the present study has been presented in Chapter I. This chapter presents the review of research efforts regarding elementary education. An attempt has been made to develop an overall understanding about the nature and findings of the researches conducted earlier, with a view to drawing support to the conceptual framework and the methodology of present study. The studies reviewed and presented hereunder have been conducted, covering different aspects of elementary education, which can be classified as follows:

1. Progress of Elementary Education;
2. Wastage and dropouts in Elementary Education;
3. Implementation of Universal Elementary Education;
4. Impact of Elementary Education.

Progress of Elementary Education

Studies reviewed under this section have examined the progress of elementary education in India during the pre and post Independence periods. All the studies reviewed have been conducted during the period 1958 to

1988. Among the twelve studies reviewed in this section, except two, the rest have examined mainly the quantitative aspects such as number of schools, enrolment and retention. The data for most studies were collected from official records. However, the inquiry of Ghatge, (A.V. 1973) into development of primary education in Pune was based on exploratory sociological survey and the sample consisted of pupils and parents. Similarly Chandrasekaran. R (1978), used tools such as information blank, questionnaire and interview schedule in order to collect data from pupils, parents and the functionaries of the department of education in Karnataka. Barnart N.K. (1981), supplemented the documented sources by discussion with concerned officials. Raina, B.L. (1988) used a combination of techniques such as record survey, interviews and informal discussions in order to collect data on quantitative expansion of education and involvement of functionaries and members of community in Jammu and Kashmir. In terms of methodology, these four studies have used some qualitative techniques in order to draw more meaning out of the quantitative information.

The studies revealed that there were very few schools until 1820 (Rege. M.S. 1961). The indigenous schools which existed in the pre-British period were

closed down with the advent of the grant-in-aid schools (Parasnis, N.R. 1958). However, due to the measures taken under the Primary Education Acts in different provinces, the period between 1920 and 1947 witnessed some growth in terms of number of schools and enrolment of pupils (Rege.M.S. 1961, Das, K.K. 1968). After independence the accessibility and coverage under primary education increased consistently (Devegowda, A.C. and Parameswaran, T.R. 1971; Murendrappa, D.R. 1972; Sharma S.P. 1977; Chandrasekaran, R. 1978; Raina B.L., 1988). Inspite of the overall growth, the educational pattern, administration, availability of facilities enrolments and attendance of pupils varied from area to area (Devegowda, A.C and Parameswaran, T.R. 1971). Besides such variations, a couple of studies also identified the inadequacies in terms of auxiliary facilities (Kamalamma, G 1969) and number of teachers (Ghatge, A.V., 1973). An intensive investigation by Raina B.L. 1988 indicated that there was a mismatch between official provision of facilities for education and the locally perceived need and utility.

Though these studies present the progress of elementary education in different periods of time in different regions, they have not probed much into the adequacy of the growth and progress made. Furthermore, except a couple of studies, others have viewed the

progress of elementary education in isolation from the Socio-cultural aspects peculiar to each region.

Wastage and Stagnation in Elementary Education

A number of studies have been conducted on this aspect of primary education right from 1950s, in almost all the states. Most studies have considered dropout as wastage and detention as stagnation. Some studies have also probed other aspects such as non-enumeration, non-enrolment and non-attendance.

Dropout is a common phenomenon in almost all the states and there is no difference in dropout pattern between urban and rural areas (Seetharamu, A. 1980 and Srivastava, S. 1980). Dropout is very high at lower primary stage, more specifically in classes I- III (Dhandekar, V.M. 1955; Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1956; Sharma R.C and Sapra, C.L. 1969; Das, C.R. 1970). This trend is also true in the case of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes students (Aggarwal, H.N. 1972). Among the pupils at the primary stage, the incidence of dropout is high in the case of girls (Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1956 and 1957).

Many studies on dropout have also investigated factors leading to dropout. Poor economic conditions of families has been reported by many researchers (Vyas,

N.N. and Chaudhary, N.D. 1970; Masavi, M.I. 1971; Khandekar, M. 1974, Bihari, L.R. 1969; Bureau of Economics and Statistics, 1970; Punalekar, S.P. 1975; Seetharamu, A.S. 1980; A.N. Sinha Institute of Social Studies, 1981; Sarthar, B.N. 1980,and Srivastava, S. 1980). Contrary to this finding is the result of Tiwari's (1970) study. This study which attempted to investigate the family dynamics of dropouts in Agra town concluded that the parents of dropouts were economically better off than the parents of non-dropouts. A study conducted by A.N. Sinha Institute of Social Studies in Hazaribagh district also revealed that the incidence of dropout was not related to income.

The studies conducted by Bombay Municipal Corporation (1956), Tiwari, (1970), Bihari, L.R. (1969), Aggarwal H.N. (1972) and Sarkar, B.N. (1980) revealed that parents indifference towards their children's education caused dropout.

Bombay Municipal Corporation (1957), Bihari, L.R. (1969), Bureau of Economics and Statistics (1970),Sarkar, B.N. (1980), Srivastava, S. (1980) reported that children dropped out of schools due to household work. It was also found out to be one of the main causes for the dropout of girls.

Some studies compared the educational levels of parents of dropouts and concluded that the incidence of dropout decreased as the educational levels of parents increased. Tiwari (1970), Punalekar, S.P. (1975) and Nayantara, S.N. (1981).

Among the school related factors, qualification, per capita income of teachers and curricular activities are negatively related to dropout (Sharma, R.C. and Sapra, C.L.(1969). Aggarwal, H.N. (1972) and Kasinath (1980) reported that high teacher- pupil ratio was the reason for the problem of dropout. The correlation between the dropout at class I and the school index is also found to be significant and positive (Nayantara, S.N.1981). The dropout of girls in particular is related to lack of separate school for them (Srivastava, S. 1980). School building and space are not related to dropout is revealed from the study conducted by Kasinath (1980) in Karnataka.

Migration of children is found to be the reason for dropout in urban areas (Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1956). Large size of family also exerts influence on dropout (Pillai, G.V., Benjamin, J. and Nair, K.R. 1980).

Stagnation is another major problem at primary stage. Failure of pupil in all subjects leads to their

detention in a particular class. However in Orissa it was found out that there were discrepancies between the percentages of pupils actually passed in all subjects and the percentages of pupils actually promoted by headmasters. The later was found to be much higher than the former (Panigrahi, D., Das, S. and Das, K.C., 1972).

A few studies focused on enumeration and enrolment of children at primary stage indicated the gap between enumeration and enrolment. A large survey of over 48 thousand people in Bombay revealed that out of 4,969 children of 6-11 years enumerated, more than 14 per cent boys and 24 per cent girls were found to be non-enrolled (Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1957). The enrolment in primary schools is not consistent and enrolment of girls is lower, particularly in upper primary level (Bureau of Economics and Statisfics, 1970). Enrolment of children is also influenced in rural areas by regional variations in family and school factors. The school factors favour school participation more in low dropout areas than in high- dropout areas (Seetharamu, A.S. and Ushadevi, M.D. 1981). Non-enrolment is low in families where the head is having education beyond metric (A.N. Sinha Institute of Social Studies, 1981). Except in Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, in other States there is no regular system of

annual census of children in the age group of 6-14 years (NIEPA, 1979).

Non- attendance in rural areas is more acute in the case of girls (Srivastava, S. 1980). The distance the children have to cover in order to reach the school does discourage them from being regular (Seetharamu, A.S. 1980).

As the review indicates, wastage and stagnation is one of the widely studied aspects of elementary education. Right from 1955 (Dandekar, 1955), researches have been carried out to understand the nature of this phenomenon both at the primary as well as middle school levels of elementary education. The sheer number of investigations on this aspect indicates the magnitude of the problem. Irrespective of the economic condition of the state and irrespective of the setting (urban or rural), the problem continues to be a great strain on the resources of the Central and State Governments. The studies reviewed in this section have convered a number of variables such as socio -economic conditions of parents, size of the family educational levels of mothers, caste, sex, teacher pupil ratio and geographical location of schools etc. Almost all studies have used descriptive survey design. Besides collecting enrolment, attendance and dropout figures the

investigators have also contacted pupils who dropped out and are detained, their parents, and functionaries of schools in order to ascertain the reasons for the incidence of wastage and stagnation. The findings of the studies reveal that wastage and stagnation is very high in Classes I-III both in rural and urban areas. Economic conditions of families and domestic work (particularly in the case of girls) emerge as the prominent reasons for the phenomenon. However, inspite of the numerous studies, the sum total of the finding fails to give any scientific understanding of the phenomenon (Desai. D.M. and Rao. K.S., 1974). This may be partially due to the limitations in the methodological procedures of many studies. Most studies have attempted to understand the problem at a particular point of time so, the findings indicated the magnitude of the problem only in the particular period in question and not the trend over a period of time. Further, as most studies have relied on more direct method of data collection, the socio-cultural dimensions of the phenomenon have not been captured well. The understanding of such dimensions would require indepth study of the responses of different sections of the community to primary education.

Implementation of Universal Elementary Education

Many studies have been conducted in this area covering aspects related to development, organisation and administration of elementary education. More specifically the studies have examined aspects such as compulsory education, finance, physical facilities, supportive schemes, enrolment, teachers and supervision.

Right from the British period, schooling facility both in rural and urban areas is inadequate. In many regions primary schools are not available within habitations (Desai, D.M. 1951; Govinda, R. 1980; Finance and Planning Department, 1974). Even in village where schools are available, problems such as lack of suitable accommodation (Tiwari, 1964; Sharma, R.S. 1973), noisy sorroundings, poor sanitation facilities (Finance and Planning Department, 1974) and lack of equipment and teaching aids were faced (NIEPA, 1974).

Besides the lack of schools and inadequate physical facilities, the implementation of universal elementary education is not effective due to factors related to teachers and teaching. Pranjape, R.S. (1970) after examining the working condition of teachers in Poona revenue region reported that the pay scales of the women teachers was lower than that of other persons with similar qualification. Tiwari's (1964) study in Utter

Pradesh also reported similar finding. The attitudes of the family members was also not favourable to the teachers. In a tribal context of Orrissa majority of the teachers in government managed schools were non-tribals where as in missionary schools most of the teachers were Christian tribals. Christian teachers evinced less interest in the education of non-Christian students in government schools. In contrast, the Christian teachers in missionary schools were concerned with and devoted to the education of the Christian students (Naidu, N.Y. and Pradhan, F.M. (1973). Govinda, R. (1980) and Singhal, R.P. (1988) reported the high teacher pupil ratio prevalent in rural primary school. The main reason for the high pupil teacher ratio is that teachers are not increased in proportion to enrolment of children (Pranjape, L.S. 1970).

Even though the income of women teachers was found to be low, they are liked by more children since they foster good habits and cleanliness among pupils (Gupta, L. 1979). More women are attracted to teaching profession as more prestige (Roy, K.V.1975). Though the quantitative growth of teachers is impressive, their work and conduct, negligence, unpunctuality and irregularity are the most serious problems (Sharma,

R.S.1973; Iqbal, Narain, Pande, K.C. and Sharma, M.L. 1974).

In addition to the inadequate facilities such as schools and teachers the programme of UEE is also constrained by unsatisfactory inspection. Inspection of schools is affected by lack of professional efficiency. Majority of the inspectors are ignorant of new techniques of teaching and their work load is also more. Coupled with this is the lack of touring facility (Tiwari, 1964; Sate Institute of education, Gujrat, 1965).

Various supportive schemes are being implemented in many states in order to enhance participation of pupils in primary Schools and achieve the goal of Universaliation of Elementary Education. Among the supportive schemes, the noon meal scheme or school lunch programme was implemented in many states in the seventies with the help of CARE- India. However, due to the operational constraints, except Tamil Nadu, other states withdrew the scheme. In Orissa, the schools with feeding programme attracted higher enrolment at primary stage, particularly in tribal areas. It also helped to reduce the absence of children and dropout (Roy, P. and Rath, R. 1972). The study by CARE- INDIA, (1977) in thirty six blocks spread across twenty districts in

Karnataka revealed that the difference between the number of children enrolled in midday meal and non-midday meal schools was statistically significant at 0.05 level and the feeding programme reduced variation in enrolment figures. Difference between mean attendance figures of midday meal and non-midday meal schools was not significant.

Many studies conducted on the administration and organisation of primary education highlight the issues connected with the programme of Universalisation of Elementary Education.

Sharma's (1973) investigation in Bhatinda and Ludhiana districts of Punjab revealed that the curriculum was fauclty and the texts books found in the schools were defective. In Uttar Pradesh, Tiwari (1964) reported that the progress of primary education was retarded due to the policy of meagre grant - in-aid to indigenous schools and opening of departmental schools. Furthermore, the school hours were unsuitable. In Bombay, the odd timing of the shift system resulted in poor attendance of children (Tinnu, T.B., 1959). In Rajasthan the dual control exercised by functionaries of panchayat Raj end Education Department resulted in lack of co-ordination between Panchayat Raj leaders and the officials of government education departments. Teachers

were afraid of political leaders and students from scheduled castes were not allowed to sit inside the temple. Teachers were also harassed by Panchayat Raj leaders and teachers' morale was generally low (Iqbal, Narain, Pande, K.C. and Sharma, M.L. 1974). Mandal, G.L. (1976) reported similar findings in Bihar. But contrary to these, in the neighbouring State of Gujarat, the management of primary education under Panchayat Raj, was effective. The leadership was service minded, committed to democratic ways and means, less politicised and benevolent (Patel, V.A.1975).

NIEPA (1979), conducted a number of studies on Administration of Elementary Education in relation to Universalisation of Elementary Education in the educational backward states of Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. The studies which aimed primarily at examining the adequacy of the administrative system of elementary education in relation to the U.E.E. programme revealed that except in Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, in other states there was no regular system of annual census of children in the age group 6-14. The enrolment of girls was less than that of boys in all the states except Madhya Pradesh. Seasonal absenteeism among the enrolled was reported from some states. The studies also revealed

inadequate physical facilities and lack of equipment and teaching aids. Monitoring and supervision were ineffective in all the states as the officials concerned had more administrative responsibilities. The co-operation of the local communities was not satisfactory and the school committees were ineffective in many states. Contrary to the general impression, only in Madhya Pradesh most teachers stayed in the areas where the schools were located. The above studies in almost all the states were conducted by arranging all the educational districts in descending order in relation to their enrolment ratio in the age group 6-13 and selecting two districts each from the third and fourth quartile, one with the highest enrolment and the other with the lowest enrolment. Further, some villages from each block were selected for intensive study which involved collection of various information from the functionaries at village, block, district and state levels.

The studies which examined the financial aspects of the Universalisation (Desai, D.M. 1951; Tiwari.1964; Bose, B.K. 1976; Venkatasubramanian, K.1978; Bose, P.K, Banarjee, P.K. and Mukherjee, S.P. 1975) revealed that financial dificulties and the high estimated cost of introduction of the compulsory education scheme were the main factors for the lack of enthusiasm for the

effective introduction of the scheme. Meagre grant -in-aid to indigenous schools retarded the progress of primary education in Uttar Pradesh. In West Bengal the expenditure per student between 1969-70 and 1972-73 increased, but investment on elementary education was unsatisfactory. In Tamil Nadu, the cost benefit analysis to find out the internal efficiency and productivity of the system and to identify the constraints on Universalisation proved to be otherwise. In Tamil Nadu, the absolute expenditure on primary education increased between 1955-56 and 1975-76. But in percentage to the total expenditure on education it decreased.

The basic focus of the studies reviewed in this section is various aspects of the management and administration of primary education in different states. Of these many have examined the conditions of various facilities available for primary education. These studies reveal that though the number of schools have increased, physical facilities, number of teachers in schools, status of teachers, inspection etc. are not satisfactory. Close scrutiny of the methodology of the studies indicate that while two studies (Desai, D.M. 1951; Bose, P.K., Banarjee, P.K. and Mukherjee, S.P. 1975) were based only on record survey, other studies (Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1958; Tannu, T.B. 1959;

Sane, S.P. 1960; Tiwari, 1964; Naidu, N.Y. and Pradhan, F.M. 1973 and Venkata Subramanian, K. 1977) used questionnaire survey, interviews, school visits, tests etc. for collecting data. The samples for the studies included schools, teachers, headmasters, Panchayat Raj officials, functionaries of government departments, parents and children. The tools used in most studies are questionnaires, inventories schedules and performas.

The studies indicate that problems in the implementation of primary education are more or less similar across different states and across different regions within states. For example, lack of adequate physical facilities, poor status of teachers and ineffective inspection have been found to be the common problems. But with such problems, how does primary education develop? What variations are found in the organisation of primary education? What factors cause such variations? The studies reviewed have not adequately probed these aspects. The review does point out that variations do exist in the administration of primary education. For example, the administration of Primary education under panchayat Raj leadership in Gujarat was found to be effective whereas in Rajasthan and Bihar irregularities of various kinds were noticed (Iqbal et. al 1974; Patel, 1975 and Mandal, 1976). Further scrutify of such nature only will explain why

primary education operates in particular way in a particular context.

Impact of Elementary Education

Education is expected to lay the foundation for human development by improving the knowledge, skills and attitudes of individuals and thereby changing their life conditions - economic, social, political and health. The studies revived in this section have examined the impact of education on various aspects of life. Even though education is a continuum and includes different stages, most studies have viewed education in general without reffering to the impact of any particular stage. Impact has been studied in terms of aspiration for education, attitudes, modernisation, social development and economic change. Many studies have been conducted in tribal contexts and the samples include educated and illiterate persons.

Aspirations have been examined in terms of cognitive change, educational mobility and factors influencing the educational aspirations. A review of empirical evidence of measurable effects of schooling in terms of cognitive and non- cognitive changes, by Colclough (1980) revealed that there was evidence from all countries that cognitie abilities are enhanced by

schooling, though it is less clear that school is the only or indeed the best means of achieving cognitive and non-cognitive changes.

Sarkar, B.N. (1980) along with Mukhopadhyay conducted two studies in West Bengal to examine the educational mobility between father and sons and among the males and females of different caste/ religions. The design of the study was descriptive survey. The findings of the studies revealed that while 28.05 ± 3.29 percent of males were in higher educational status than their fathers (considering all the persons of the age 15 years) and 11.31 ± 3.26 per cent sons were in lower educational status. Net higher educational mobility was 27 per cent for the SC. Hindus in comparison with 35 to 39 per cent in other religious groups. While 28 per cent of the females attained higher educational status than their mothers, 3 per cent of the daughters had an educational status which was lower than their mothers.

The study by Bisht, G.S. (1972) was conducted with a view to determine the different factors which influenced the level of educational aspirations. The sample consisted of 100 students from twenty schools in rural and urban areas. Kuppuswamy's socio-economic scale and a questionnaire were used to collect data. The study found that size of the family, educational

facilities and recreational facilities were influencing the educational aspirations. Urban boys had higher educational aspiration than rural boys.

Education plays an important role in changing people's attitudes towards various aspects of life. Agarwal, M. (1980) studied this in Delhi in relation to change in the attitudes of Hindu and Muslim women. The sample for the study included 300 Hindu and Muslim women belonging to middle income group form the urban areas. To Measure the attitude of women regarding various aspects of social and cultural modernisation, an attitude scale was developed on the basis of Thurstone's equal appearing interval scale technique. The study revealed that education played a very important role in changing the attitudes of women to various social practices and traditions.

Dave, I. and Srivastava, C. (1958) studied the causal factors for the development of democratic attitudes among students. The sample consisted of two types of schools - routine type and unusual type, characterised by innovation in terms of practice. An intensive case study method was adopted. A test for democratic attitudes, teachers attitudes inventory and observation schedule were used to collect data. The findings revealed that there was a significant

difference in students attitudes of the two schools in the areas of understanding and tolerance, creative participation and respect for higher values of life. As compared to unusual type of schools the routine type schools suffered from indecision. The study also indicated that organisational set up of schools and school life were significant causal factors for the great difference between attitudes of students of the two types of schools.

Rama Devi, B. (1962) aimed at investigating the attitudes of women towards the traditional values in Madras City, with 344 women of age range 20 to 55 years. The data were collected using a traditional value scale, a five point rating scale, a character orientation test, an interest blank and a trait list. The study revealed that the low educated group married, group and non-working groups were more traditional than their counterpart.

Pant, S.C. (1981) after his study of the impact of education on the attitudes, beliefs and behaviour of Muria school going children of Baster in Madhya Pradesh, reported that very few literates, compared to illiterates wanted to continue their parental occupation; instead they wanted to work in cities and they refused to do manual labour. A very large

majority of the teachers also felt that education changed the attitudes of Muria children.

The role of education in the modernistion process has been studied by some researchers. Each study has defined modernity in terms of different set of attributes. They are: geographical mobility, occupational mobility, participation in community affairs (Srivastava, L.R.N. 1968), occupational roles structure of ideals and leadership (Sarau, G. 1969); marriage, self improvement, and autonomy. To Inkeles and Smith (1974), a modern man or woman must have attributes such as openess, readiness for change, value of technical skills, aspirations towards education and occupation, awareness of and respect for dignity of others, optimism, rights for women etc. The findings of the studies reveal that there is a high degree of correlation between these values and education.

Srivastava, L.R. (1968) investigated the role of education in the modernisation of the tribes of Chota Nagpur - the Munda and Oraon. The sample comprised of 140 Mundas and 166 Oraon undergraduate students and two groups of educated and uneducated adults. Interview schedules and questionnaires containing questions on various indexes of modernisation were used as research tools. The study revealed that education influenced the

geographical mobility orbit of individuals and their occupational mobility. While the uneducated tribals were found to be lacking psychic mobility, their educated counterparts had higher empathy. While majority of the educated Munda and Oraon respondents actively participated in the affairs of their community, the uneducated mass was indifferent to such participations. Further, majority of the educated persons of both the tribal groups took effective part in the programmes of economic development of the village, whereas the uneducated people did not care about it. The uneducated respondents were also not politically aware.

An investigation by Saran, G. (1969) examined the extent to which the attitudes of village people shifted from traditional to modern as a result of education. The sample of the study consisted of persons of varying educational levels viz., illiterates, educated upto primary level, upto middle school level and studied matriculation and above. They were drawn from three villages in the district of Ambala in Punjab. Data were collected through an interview schedule. Observation technique was also used. The study showed that educated persons had modern attitudes towards some variables and traditional values towards some others. Education significantly influenced the change in the occupational

roles. Changes were more in the case of structure of explanations as compared to the structure of ideals or actions. The pattern of social interactions of educated persons were more diversified. The traditional norms and practices were fast loosing ground. However, educated persons of remote villages could not take up new occupational role. Slow rate of change was noticed in isolated rural communities. Most of the educated youth of the villages migrated to urban cities in order to take up jobs which were more in conformity with their educational background.

In order to investigate the role of education in the modernisation process, singh, S.G. (1978) conducted a case study of two villages in Manipur. From these villages 215 male educated as well as uneducated adults were selected on the basis of the stratified random sampling. Then the persons included in the sample were interviewed. participant observation method was also adopted to collect data. The study revealed that in many social variables the educated possessed more modern attitudes. Educated boys and girls got married at a later age as compared with the illiterate and less educated groups. There was great and significantly positive impact of education on various aspects of life of the village people. Education was looked upon by

both the educated and the illiterate persons as the path to all round progress, self-improvement and autonomy.

A similar study was conducted by Sarkar, S. (1979) in a tribal setting in Mokokchung district of Nagaland. Data for the study were collected by visits to different educational institutions and agencies and field research with the help of questionnaire and interviews with the Ao Nagas. The study revealed that the impact of western education on the Ao Nags tribe was significant and positive. There was progress and development in different fields of life.

The study of Inkeles and Smith (1974) on determinants of individual modernity in six developing countries including India revealed that education was the single most variance of scores on the modernisation scale. The effect of schooling was found to be cumulative and continuous and even very small amounts of schooling had a positive effect as measured by the modernity scale. The evidence reviewed also suggested that there was a strong empirical basis for believing that schooling helped to make people more productive at work and there were also other interactive effects of schooling upon objectives of various aspects of social policy, including family size, health, nutrition, literacy and awareness of national culture. Hence an

investment strategy which gives a central place to schooling, particularly primary education will not only facilitate growth but it will also do so in a more equitable way than most available alternatives.

Education's role in changing individual attitudes, values and aspirations and the development of modern outlook of life is evident from the studies revived above. The change in attitudes and the modern outlook must enhance changes in the economic and social spheres of society. There is a lot of evidence to show that education contributes to economic and social development. A number of studies reviewed confirm education's role in improved farm out put, income levels and the general life conditions.

Bogaert, M.V.D. (1979) ran an experimental programme in most of the village of Kanke and Ormanjhi block in Ranchi District of Bihar. The programme had various components such as literacy, skills training for small and marginal farmers, conscientization and motivation, social skills, primary education for dropouts and children who were not enrolled etc. This programme was run in villages with one male and one female field officials stationed in each village. The field officers ran the educational programme and trained the village volunteers. Finally one male and female

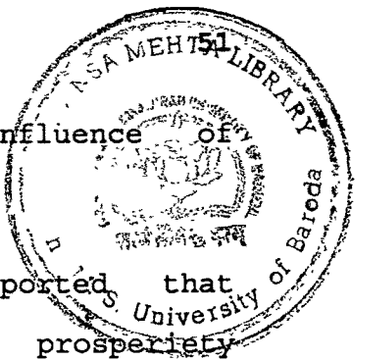
volunteers were selected from each village. To cover the functional areas of the programme individual experts and institutions were engaged. The results of this experiment revealed that only in those villages where educational inputs were provided there was a positive response to the efforts of sponsors and agents of technological change.

Chaudhari, D.P. (1968) examined the relationship between education and agricultural productivity in the specific context of Indian agriculture. Besides others, the study hypothesised that the cultural factors substantially influenced the impact of education. The study was conducted in ten agricultural economic research centres in 1037 cultivating households from nineteen villages of Punjab and Uttar Pradesh. Inter-state data and inter-district data analysed for entire India. Inter-district data for each state and region and inter-village data for two states, viz, Punjab and Uttar Pradesh were also analysed. The study revealed that the level of education of the farm workers was positively related to their level of production. The socio-cultural factors may weaken the impact of education on agricultural productivity. The impact was weak in the specific regions, e.g. in Uttar Pradesh and subject to those limitations, the impact of each of the four levels of education of the farm workers on the

level of agricultural productivity was significant, the relation being particularly strong with primary and secondary education. The inter-household data borne out the elements of externalities in educational impact. At the macro as well as micro levels, the impact of education on the level of productivity was fairly pronounced in Punjab, while in Uttar Pradesh it was rather weak.

Raju, K.N. (1975) studied the influence of education on farm efficiency in West Godhavari district of Andhra pradesh. The sample of the study consisted of thirty three illiterate farmers and thirty three educated farmers possessing land holdings of different sizes. The study revealed that the holdings ranging from 2.50 to 4.99 acres of the educated farmers were the most efficient as the productivity of the land, human labour and family labour were higher than that of illiterate farmers for respective inputs.

Dey, B. assessed the contribution of education to agricultural development. Data of 39 countries distributed all over the continents and 19 states of India on literacy together were covered by the study. The study showed that there was a high correlation between education and agricultural development in the



countries. But in India no direct influence of education among cultivators was noticed.

Venkatasubramanian, K. (1978) reported that primary education contributed for economic prosperiety of people. An analysis of earnings of persons according to qualification Tamil Nadu showed that primary schools completers earned more than the illiterates, and middle school completers earned more than the primary school graduates. The study also established that primary education improved the quality of work and productivity.

The study of Fuller et al., (1987) looked at economic effects of the spread of literacy in 1900 and in 1940, in Mexico. The study with a basic model-the value of aggregate output (Q) is a function of land under cultivation (N), size of the labour force (L), amount, amount of capital stock (K) and Literacy (T), summarised as : Q = f (N,L,K,T) estimated output of agricultural production and tobacco related production. The findings revealed that in Mexico, urban centres clearly benefited most from the spread of literacy and the impact on rural agraian growth was slight at best.

Nalla Gounden, A.M. (1965) attempted to assess the contribution of education to India's growth during the brief period of ten years from 1950-51 to 1960-61. It was a library cum descriptive type research. The

study revealed that the rate of return to education was 15.9 per cent for literates, 15.3 per cent for primary and middle, 12.1 per cent for matric, 8.9 per cent for degree and 9.6 per cent for professional degree. This indicates that the rate of return is the highest for primary stage among all the stages of education. Social impact of education is evident from the following studies.

The study of Vaikuntam, Y. (1980) investigated the spread of education and the consequent changes in Andhra Pradesh during the period 1880-1920. The date for the study were mainly collected from secondary sources. The results of the study indicated that one of the important consequence of the spread of education was the upliftment of women. There was also upliftment of harijans and depressed classes due to the growth of education.

The social change among tribals at different levels of education, namely, primary, secondary and higher was investigated by Singh, R. (1982). The study was conducted on the population in Ranchi district in Bihar. The sample consisted of persons of seven educational levels-illiterate, could read and write, education upto middle school level, education upto secondary level, graduate and post graduate. An

interview schedule was used to collect data. The study revealed that significant differences were found in many areas such as occupation, housing pattern, child rearing practice, family income, health habits etc. among the various groups, with various levels of education. The educated tribals had changed their way of thinking and doing. They had also gained consciousness towards modernisation and westernisation.

Singh. J. (1978) studied impact of education in terms of inter-generational vertical social mobility. The population of the study consisted 450 fathers in the age range of 46-65 and 1300 sons in the age range of 26-45 years, selected from 450 families in the Union Territory of Chandigarh. Scales of varied kinds were used in the study. One of the major conclusions of the study was that the vertical social mobility consistently decreased with the increase in the educational level. However, the study did not probe the causes for this phenomenon.

Prajapati, G.K. (1982) assessed the social consequences of education among the scheduled castes. The sample consisted of fifty eight students and twenty three teachers from Danapore sub divison. The study indicated that education had not been able to loosen the

caste ties. The study also revealed professional mobility among the educated scheduled castes.

A study in a village of Jammu and Kashmir by Raina, B.L. (1988) revealed that education had made an impact on the village families in terms of living habits and batter life conditions. Though economically well off families accrued benefits of education more, literacy, awareness and skills were inculcated in the social groups which were economically self-sufficient and high caste.

A research undertaken by Lakra, S. (1976) attempted to examine the damages that have occured due to education in the socio-economic and political spheres of the tribal people - the Mundas, the Oraons and the Kharias, in the tribal regions of the Ranchi District. The data were collected through mailed questionnaires, from the educated tribals in urban and rural areas. Besides this, personal interviews, observation and case study were also used to generate data. The investigation revealed that before the advent of the missionaries the tribals were in poverty and debt. Due to the efforts of the Christian missionaries, education spread among the tribals and they were protected from the clutches of money lenders. The education brought them three fold benefits, Viz, they got their lands back, got

emancipation from forced labour and had their self-respect restored. During the year 1863,more impetus was given to girls' education. But conversion also reached its peak by 1885. Subsequently, they developed a taste for western music and dance, neglecting their own cultural expressions. The standard of living also rose with education. Education made them free from poverty and the allied problems and there was change in their outlook of life. They also picked up clean habits and gradually became conscious of the need of education for their children. However, the less educated youth were becoming delinquents, particularly after the dawn of independence. The primarily agricultural tribals were also migrating to cities neglecting agriculture and traditional mode of living.

An Overview

The studies reviewed so far indicate several aspects that lend support to the conceptual frame work of the present study. From the review it is clear that there has been phenomenal growth in primary education since Independence in terms of number of schools, teachers and other facilities. However, no study attempted to investigate whether the increase in various facilities made available were adequate to meet the actual need. That apart, inspite of the quantitative

expansion, wastage and stagnation continues to be very high. The studies also reveal the variations in all aspects of primary education across states. Similar variations are bound to exist also in different regions within a state. These variations indicate that primary education evokes different responses in different socio-cultural settings. Though it is possible to understand the existence of variations in the implementation and working of primary education, from many studies reviewed in this chapter, very few studies have probed into the factors responsible for the variations. As such factors may be related to socio-cultural aspects of life in each region, they need to be understood in different contexts. Similarly the interactive effect of primary education, which the studies have not investigated adequately should also be probed in distinct socio cultural contexts.