From

Regional Centre

to

National University for Educational Planning and Administration

Kavita A. Sharma

in

Research Collaboration

Dr. Manju Mukul
Mr. Chandrachur Singh

2010
It has been my privilege to chart the journey of the National University of Educational Planning and Administration from its origins in 1962 as the UNESCO sponsored Regional Centre for the Training of Educational Planners, Administrators and Supervisors in Asia. The course of this work too has been a long one and as full of twists and turns as that of the Regional Centre. The idea was first put before me by Prof. Ved Prakash, the then Vice Chancellor of NUEPA in 2006 or 2007 but nothing came of it. It may have developed a life of its own at NUEPA but by the time it returned to me, it was 2008. At that time I was busy with my assignments as a New Century Fulbright Scholar. I also changed my job with all the upheavals that go with it. However, Prof. Ved Prakash said that I should still take it up as I had earlier written 50 Years of University Grants Commission and he had faith in my abilities but I myself was full of trepidation and uncertainty. Anyhow, change of job, residence and three research associates later, the work is at last complete.

NUEPA has done so much in the fields of training, research and consultancy that it is a real challenge to bring it all together. In any case it is impossible to mention everything as the work done is vast. I am sure there has been an element of subjectivity in what I have picked up but the guiding principles have been one, what has contributed to the mandate and vision of NUEPA at its various stages of growth and development, and two, what I see as some vital educational issues from among the vast number of very significant issues that the faculty NUEPA has worked on. I am aware that perceptions may differ but that is a risk that is embedded in the very nature of the assignment.

While most documents were available thanks to the cooperation of my colleagues in NUEPA, there could be an omission or two like the Special Audit Report of 1989 which could not be found in spite of best efforts. However, it is remarkable that so much was available as the preservation and retrieval of documents is one of the most challenging tasks for an institution. On the whole, this assignment has been a great
learning experience for me as it has given me valuable insights based on detailed research into the educational issues that I may otherwise not have had.

I am grateful for this opportunity to NUEPA and Prof. Ved Prakash. I am very thankful to Prof. Govinda, the present Vice Chancellor of NUEPA, Prof. Sudesh Mukhopadhyaya and Prof. Sudhanshu Bhushan to name just a few colleagues who have always readily provided the required reports and other documents. Thanks are due to Dr. C.L. Sapra, Prof. M.V. Mathur, Mr. J. Veeraraghavan, and Mr. R.P. Saxena, for their detailed comments which have been of immense help. The faculty meeting to discuss the first draft was invaluable and thank you all for taking the time out from your busy schedules to give insights which cannot be obtained from the mere reading of documents. Thanks are also due to the Library and to the ever smiling and helpful Mrs. Sushma Asija.

My research associates, Dr. Manju Mukul and Mr. Chandrachur Singh from Delhi University have worked hard and steadily with me. Mr. Gautam Bharti and Mrs. Nirmala Hari have provided the vital secretarial assistance without which no work is possible. My invaluable comrade-in-arms, who has copy edited every page has been Mrs. Indu Ramchandani. Without all the help that these people have given, it would not have been possible to complete this work. There are several others including my family members and I am very grateful to them all.

KAVITA A. SHARMA
TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I: THE EARLY YEARS

Inception of the Institute
Why UNESCO?
The Karachi Plan
Establishing the Regional Centre
Funds and Material Provision
The Early Years
  Objectives of Training Courses
  Fellowships
  Selection of Fellows
  Qualifications Required of Fellows
Training Courses
  The Third Course
  The Fourth Course
  The Fifth Course
  The Sixth Course
  The Seventh Course
  The Eighth Course
  The Ninth Course
Meets, Seminars, and Conferences
  An Appraisal
Change of the Old Order
Evolving towards National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators (NSCEPA)
  Widening the Educational Base
  The Importance of District Level Planning

Chapter II: THE DECADE OF THE SEVENTIES

International Year of Education
Life-Long Integrated Education
Regional Seminar on Modern Management Techniques
Regional Training Seminar on Educational Statistics
  Eleventh Course for Educational Planners and Administrators
The Twelfth Course
The Institute and the Member States
National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators
Orientation Course for Principals of Kendriya Vidyalayas
Orientation Course for Education Officers of Himachal Pradesh
Internship Programme for Direct Recruits to the Uttar Pradesh Education Service
Training Course for State Education Officers from the North-Eastern Region
All India Conference of District Education Officers (DEOs)
All India Survey of Educational Administration
Educational Administration as a System
Development of Education in Sikkim
Collaboration with International Agencies: Second Group Training Course in Educational Planning
New Dimensions
Training Programmes for Principals of Colleges
Training Programmes in Financial Management
Central In-service Training Course
Seminar for Education Officers from the Northeastern Region
Training Programme for Lakshadweep
Orientation Programme for NSS
National Seminar and Conference on Education for Rural Development
Advanced Level Workshop on Education for Rural Development
Increasing Activity
Education for International Understanding, Cooperation, and Peace
Collaboration with USEFI
Orientation Training Programme for School Principals Proceeding to the UK
Summing Up

Chapter III: ESTABLISHING NIEPA AND A PERSPECTIVE PLAN

Organs of Policy Frame
  Council
  Executive Committee
  Finance Committee
  Programme Advisory Committee
  Publication Advisory Committee
UGC Scale of Pay
Delegation of Powers
Implementation of the Official Language Policy
Staff
Campus
Academic Structure
  Educational Planning Unit
  Educational Administration Unit
  Educational Finance Unit
  Educational Policy Unit
  Social and Non-formal Education Unit
  Higher Education Unit
  Sub-national Systems Unit
  International Unit
Structure of NEIPA
  Administration and Finance
Administrative Initiative
Framework of Rules and Regulations
  Service Regulation
  Rules for Appointment to Project Posts
  Guidelines for Research Proposals and Scheme of Assistance for Studies
Role of Academic Unit
Task Forces and Committees
Academic Infrastructure
Perspective Plan
  The Setting of Aims
  Planning and Administration at the District Level
  Planning and Administration at the Collegiate Level
  Non-formal and Adult Education
  Educational Planning
  Monitoring and Evaluation Informed Discussions on Educational Issues
  Educational Administration
  Informed Discussions on Educational issues
  International Responsibilities
  Pre-doctoral, Doctoral and Post-doctoral Work
  Publications Programme
  Academic Infrastructure
  Faculty and Academic Support
  Building Programme
Conclusion

CHAPTER IV: GROWTH OF THE INSTITUTE

Diploma Course in Educational Planning and Administration
Increasing Activity
Institution of Associateship
National Award for Innovative Concepts and Practices
Management of Schools for the Blind
Research Activities
International Collaboration
  Sri Lanka Programme
  Teacher Training College of Thailand
Population Education
Study on Ashram Schools
Study on the Use of ITIs by Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes
Support to the Governments
Educational Disparities
Mobilization of Resources
Higher Education
  Internal Assessment and Evaluation
  Status of Teachers in Higher Education
Pivotal Role in Seventh Five Year Plan
  Research Associated with the Seventh Plan
Model Schools
Formulation of the New Education Policy
Long Term Perspective
Indian Education in 2000
  Primary Education in India: Some Census Evidence
  Primary Education on the Use of Simulation Models for Educational Planning and Management
  Primary Education in India: A Trend Analysis
Planning Education for the Future Development – Issues and Choices
Beginning the Eighth Five Year Plan
Summing Up

CHAPTER V: REVIEW OF NIEPA (1989) 149

The Achievements
The Task Ahead
Views and Suggestions
  Review of Objectives
  Administration
  Faculty
Recommendations of the Review Committee
  Objectives
  General Observations on the Role of NIEPA
  NIEPA with Reference to States and Union Territories
  The Mission
Perspective Plan
  NIEPA Council
  Executive Committee (EC)
  Academic Committee (AC)
  The Role of the Director
  Joint Director, Deans, and Consultants
  Improving the Quality of Training
  Choice of Programmes
  Improving Research and Publications
Doctoral Programmes
Faculty Size
NIEPA and Participation of Other Institutions
The Administration of the Institute
Campus
Summing Up

CHAPTER VI: THE DECADE OF THE 1990s 171

Diploma in Educational Planning and Administration
Universalization of Elementary Education
Compulsory Primary Education in Delhi
Effective Utilization of Resources
Regional Disparities
District Level Planning and Implementation
Quality of Education
Inclusive Education
Music and Sports
  Implications

Sample Survey Techniques in Educational Statistics
Evaluative Study of Educational Technology
Schools in Sikkim
Higher Education
  Economics of Agricultural Education
  Gender Issues in Higher Education
  Principals of Women’s Colleges
  Functioning of Colleges
  Autonomous Colleges
  Efficient Utilization of Resources in Higher Education
  Distance Education
NIEPA’s Active Contribution to Some Pivotal Policy Issues
National Policy on Education
Summing Up

CHAPTER VII: EARLY YEARS OF THE NEW DECADE

International Diploma in Educational Planning and Administration (IDEPA)
Research
Education for All
Elementary Education in India: Access, Participation, and Equity
The Role of NGOs and Inclusive Education
Tharu Children
Education of the Urban Poor
Expenditure on Education
District Primary Education Programme (DPEP)
Improvement of Quality
Operation Blackboard
District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs)
Secondary Education
Higher Education
  Women’s Studies
  Financing of Higher Education
  Impact of Globalization on Higher Education
  Privatization of Higher Education
  Foreign Universities in India
Summing Up


Training
Research
Publication
Pro-active Roles
Networking
Staff Development and Structure
Expenditure
Resources
Summing Up
CHAPTER IX: ESTABLISHING THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

The Formation of NUEPA
Academic Departments
Support Department
Capacity Building
  Programme Thrust
  Training Material
  Training Methodology
Generation of Knowledge through Application and Action Research
Dissemination, Consultancy and Professional Support
Administration and Campus Facilities
Some New Beginnings
Achievements in Research
  NUEPA-funded Research by the Faculty
  International Collaborative Research
  National Level Research Initiatives
  Other Initiatives
NUEPA and the Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Education for Peace and Sustainable Development
Summing Up

NUEPA GLOSSARY
Chapter I

THE EARLY YEARS

Inception of the Institute

The National University of Education Planning and Administration (NUEPA) began life as the Regional Centre for the Training of Educational Planning, Administrators and Supervisors in Asia at New Delhi in February 1962, under an agreement between the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the Government of India. The establishment of the centre was a logical result of the importance attached by UNESCO to the training of planners and administrators who were seen as essential for the proper planning and development of education. The involvement of UNESCO in setting up of such an institute was of immense significance given the fact that the State of education in Asia was poor. The resources were scant and regional cooperation was necessary if education was to spread in this region. UNESCO was the only organization that could provide a framework for regional cooperation in education. The vision statement of the institute "To become a centre of excellence in educational policy, planning and management by promoting advanced level teaching, research and capacity building in national and global contexts" clearly reflects this.

The Centre began with a view to preparing key personnel needed for implementing the Karachi Plan formulated in 1959–1960 in a meeting held at Karachi under the auspices of UNESCO to look at the educational challenges in its Asian Member States. The first director was Shri A.V. Pai. The Centre was re-designated the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (AIEPA) in April 1965. The Institute began life without any infrastructure of its own. Pending the construction of its buildings and hostel, it was temporarily located in one of the buildings of the Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi, and the Fellows were accommodated in a government hotel. It shifted to its own premises in 1973. Its name underwent another
change when a new agreement was signed between UNESCO and the Government of India on August 26, 1970 and the Asian Institute became the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA). It finally became a university in 2006. Today, it is the only university in the country for educational planning and administration.

Why UNESCO?

The two World Wars with their increasing destruction and human loss brought to the fore with great urgency, the need to form an organization that could promote world peace. That the way to it was through culture and education was realized in the early 1920s as can be seen in the statement of the French philosopher Paul Valery, “A society of minds is the prerequisite for a society of nations.” This became a source of inspiration to both thinkers and politicians. It led to the establishment of a unit known as “The Committee on Intellectual Cooperation” in 1922 within the framework of the League of Nations initially composed of twelve individuals including well-known scientists and scholars such as Einstein, Madame Curie and Sir Jagdish Chandra Bose.

The League of Nations could not prevent the Second World War. The United Nations (UN) was then established in 1945 with the purpose of maintaining international peace and security, developing friendly relations among nations on the principle of equal rights and self determination and encouraging international cooperation in solving international economic, social, cultural and humanitarian problems. UNESCO, a specialized agency of the United Nations was created in 1946 to contribute to world peace by promoting international collaboration in education, science and culture.

At the preparatory conference in London in November 1945, sponsored by Britain and France, the French representative declared that the aim of the proposed organization was “to create the spirit of peace throughout the world”. His counterpart from Britain concurred saying, “our watchword is education that the minds of the people shall be attuned to peace.”
The Constitution of UNESCO came into effect in 16 November 1945. It indicated the possibility of a world where “through the wide diffusion of culture and the education of humanity for justice and liberty lasting peace would be established on the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind.” Julian Huxley’s famous formulation was adopted in the Preamble to the Constitution. Since wars begin in the mind’s of men, it is in the mind’s of men that the defences of pace must be constructed.” These words recognized the need to banish war after the horrible destruction and loss of life in the Second World War. The Preamble and Act I of the Constitution developed this postulate and declared in unequivocal terms that the denials of the democratic principles of dignity, equality and mutual respect could lead to conflicts and wars. A peace built only on political and economic arrangements of governments could not be a lasting one. “…the peace must therefore be founded, if it is not to fail, upon the intellectual and moral solidarity of mankind.” The objective of UNESCO was to build an international environment of peace through collaboration among nations through education, cultural exchange, development of science and technology, communication and related fields to further universal respect for justice, rule of law, human rights and fundamental freedoms without distinction of race, colour, sex and religion.

The Charter of UNESCO, unlike that of UN, had neither any permanent seats nor did it give any of the five great powers the right of veto in the Executive Board. Every member-state in its General Conference was given one vote. A “balanced geographical representation” was provided to various regions in the Executive Board.

UNESCO, of course, cannot independently protect or maintain peace in the world but what it can do and has attempted to do, is to diffuse knowledge, spread education, promote scientific research, protect the rich cultural heritage and facilitate inter-cultural dialogue and intercourse through dissemination of knowledge and information. It has tried to provide greater facilities of mass media and communication especially to the less developed countries that lacked them. It was realized that Asia was in urgent need of
help both to promoting education and in finding the resources to do so. India played an important role.

The Karachi Plan

In the Asia-Pacific region, the Karachi Plan worked according to the three fundamental characteristics of the region: its immensity, diversity and unity. Its attempt was to develop a capacity in the region to muster resources for cooperation including funds from other agencies of the UN and bilateral assistance sources and foundations.

UNESCO convened a Regional Conference on Free and Compulsory Primary Education in South Asia and the Pacific in Bombay in 1952 with two objectives. The first was to locate the major needs and problems of the region in the provision of compulsory primary education. The second was to mobilize resources for Member States both from within and from outside through international agencies.

Eight years since then, it was felt necessary to review the progress made so as to plan a more comprehensive and well coordinated drive for promotion of primary education in the area. The General Conference of UNESCO therefore in its tenth session in Paris in 1958 made financial provision for “preliminary studies in 1959 – 1960 with a view to initiating a Major Project of the extension of compulsory primary education in Asian Countries.”

It was expected that they would frankly assess the situation in the region and agree upon certain definite goals taking into account the available national resources both financial and technical personnel and the international and foreign assistance that might be available. They were also to outline possible solution to the problems together with the means required to implement them, prioritize the actions to be taken both in the short term and long term. The most important challenge was to evolve a Working Plan for provision of universal, compulsory and free primary education in the region.
In pursuance of this Resolution, the Secretariat reviewed all the relevant documents pertaining to Asian Members States and conducted a survey for which it sent out a questionnaire to the states for more recent information. This was studied and supplemented by the finding of four consultants. The consultants were Prof. J.P. Naik and Dr. E.A. Pires from India; Mr. M.S. Huq from Pakistan and Mr. M. Junsai from Thailand. Each of them made an on-the-spot study of the three or four countries assigned to them made an on-the-spot study of the three or four countries assigned to them to ascertain their actual problems and needs in connection with primary and compulsory education. All the material generated was collected and placed before a Working Party composed of the four consultants and a Secretariat Staff Member, Mr. M.K. Rahman from Pakistan who was the Programme specialist in Primary Education.

The Working Party prepared a document that gave detailed findings of the Survey and identified some of the problems and needs of the region, both qualitative and quantitative, which needed urgent attention if primary education had to be made universal. The results of the Survey were placed before the Regional Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States on Primary and Compulsory education held at Karachi from December 28, 1959 to January 9, 1960. It was attended by delegates from 17 member states, representatives of the United Nations (UN), International Labour Office (ILO) and United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF, now known as the United Nations Children’s Fund) and observers from the World Confederation of organization of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP), All Pakistan Women’s Association, Ford Foundation and Asia Foundation. The purpose was to plan for concerted action within the region, discuss whether the resources for the measures to be taken had to come from the national budgets of the concerned states or would assistance be required from UNESCO or other agencies operating in the region on a bilateral or multilateral basis.

The Meeting concentrated on drawing up a Working Plan for the region in the field of primary education to facilitate concerted action by Member States, International Organizations, in particular UNESCO, and other agencies working on bilateral and multilateral bases. After examining in detail the problems that required urgent attention,
it adopted a set of recommendations for action at national levels indicating measures required to be taken and the help needed from UNESCO and other agencies. The recommendations also included the projects in Primary Education that could be undertaken in 1961-1962 for the Eleventh Session of the General Conference in November 1960.

The Plan assumed that the total population of the area which was 750 million in 1950 would rise to 1100 million 1980. It proposed to expand schooling facilities which catered to 35 million (5.7% of the total population) in 1950 to 65 million (8.4% of the total population) in 1960; to 90 million (11% of the total population) in 1965, to 125 million (17% of the total population) in 1970; to 107 million (17% of the total population) in 1975; and 220 million (20% of the total population) in 1980. This was considered modest and realistic as it would reach a target after twenty years that had already been reached by some of the countries like Japan and Sri Lanka, while it was considerably lower than what prevailed in the advanced countries of the world. It assumed a teacher pupil ratio of 1:35, which was the international average, a substantial increase in the salaries of teachers, training facilities for them in good training institutions, provision of school buildings and equipment on a moderate scale, textbooks, teaching aids, and residences for teachers. The Plan assumes that the average recurring cost per pupil would rise from about 6 dollars in 1960 to 10 dollars in 1965, 12 dollars in 1970, 16 dollars in 1975 and 20 dollars in 1980. These estimates were very modest compared to the expenditure in more favourably situated areas in the world.

However, expenditure was not the only challenge. A more serious was the problem of personnel. For the implementation of the programme, 8.5 million teachers would be needed in the entire period that is about 407,000 per annum on an average. The annual need of teachers would rise from 242,000 between 1960 and 1965 to about 580,000 between 1965 and 1970. This would necessitate a rise in teacher educators from the existing strength of 19,000 to 110,000 in 1980; that is about 1,700 per annum on an average. The material requirements of the plan were also formidable. For an additional enrolment of 156 million children, 5.5 million classrooms needed to be constructed, 4
million residences per teachers and provision would have to be made for furniture, teaching aids, textbooks and reading materials. Obviously these goals would generate tremendous activity requiring immense resources in manpower and funds beyond just the requirements of teachers, teacher educators and educational administrators.

This highlighted the vast funds required. The Plan showed that the total cost of even this modest plan would be 65 billion dollars per annum. Even this worked out to only 3.5 dollars per annum per head that might rise to 5 dollars per head by 1980. This was a very small amount compared to Western Standards. The US was already spending 56 dollars per head of the population per annum. Very limited finances, however, were available in Asia at this time and so even the requirements of this modest programme could not be met from the internal resources. The average per capita income in many region of this area was about 60 dollars and the governments could not afford to spend more than 4 or 5 dollars per head per annum. From this it was clear that the progress of primary education could not be left to internal resources.

The meeting, therefore, emphasized that the only practicable solution was external financial assistance of a high magnitude primarily from the more favourably placed countries and agencies like the UNESCO and others for the following 5–20 years. UNESCO would have to use its good offices to make this materialize.

The next important issue was the major needs and problems of primary education in this region and how they could be solved. The meeting examined the existing position of primary education in the States of the region. It found that schooling facilities were inadequate and 87 million out of 152 million children were not enrolled in any school. There was no adequate and specially trained administrative machinery for planning and implementing programmes of primary education. The teachers were very poorly paid. The facilities for teacher training were inadequate and unsatisfactory. There was a great shortage of classrooms and equipment. Textbooks, reading materials and even paper were in short supply. Teaching methodology was inefficient. All these factors contributed among others to wastage and stagnation to a large extent.
Suggestions were made in an effort to solve these problems. Each Member State was asked to prepare a National Plan for universal, compulsory and free primary education in its area. These plans could be broadly based on the Working Plan adopted by the meeting and indicate the goals proposed to be reached, the period required for their attainment, the total expenditure involved, the internal resources available, and the type and extent of the external assistance required. Such national plans would be useful both for the mobilization of the internal resources and seeking external assistance.

The Meeting emphasized the pivotal role and importance of educational planning, development and finance becoming an integral part of balanced economic and social development. Hence, the meeting recommended to Members States that each of them should place their educational plan and the Working Plan for further examination and analysis in front of their respective Ministries of Education, Economic Affairs, or Finance of any other appropriate national planning body, if possible, by June 1960. This would be the educational plan to become part of the national development plan, which would ensure its continuous implementation. It was also recommended that UNESCO should consult with the Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East (ECAFE) and other appropriate specialized agencies to undertake joint UNESCO and ECAFE studies of educational planning and financing as part of balanced economic development in Asia.

The Meeting further recommended the strengthening of the machinery for primary education by staffing it with competent officers. In particular, planning, statistics and finance sections were weak and needed special attention. Securing better teachers came next in order of priority. This meant revision of pay scales in areas where they were low; improving conditions of service particularly providing for security of tenure and adequate provision for old age. Increased and better facilities for teacher training were required together with training of teacher-educators. The Meeting felt that improved teachers would be the most effective way to raise standards of primary education. Larger number of school buildings, adequate equipment and teaching aids needed attention. Finally, assistance and incentives would also have to be given to
children to come to school in the form of mid-day meals, health services, free textbooks and educational materials. In short, the Meeting felt that intensive drive, both quantitative and qualitative, will have to be launched and continuously maintained for twenty years.

The last problem before the Meeting was to make recommendations regarding the exact scope and nature of the UNESCO programme for primary education in the Asian region during 1961-62. It felt that three types of programmes could be organized. The first would be to assist programmes at the national level to establish essential organizations for the preparation and implementation of programmes of compulsory primary education like units for demographics studies, statistics, research and evaluation, educational finance, school buildings research; and curricula research and research on text books and teaching aids. UNESCO should assist the establishments of such units by providing expert guidance, facilities for training of officials including award of scholarships and fellowships but monetary grants. The second would include proposals involving more than one State and implemented through bilateral and multilateral arrangements. Projects in this sphere would include research in the teaching of languages which was a special problem in the Asian region; the accumulation of curricular and supplementary reading materials and preparation of textbooks; education of girls and tribal children. The third would include schemes in which all or most States of the region would be involved. This would mean the establishment of centres for training of teacher educators, training of educational supervisors and administrators; research in the designing and construction of school buildings; and the establishment of an Educational Bureau which would function as a coordinating agency and clearing house in the region for the programme. These projects would be finance mostly through the funds of UNESCO and other agencies of international cooperation.

While the entire plan was welcomed at the Meeting, there was also an acute realization that the funds available for it were very inadequate. Hence it requested the Director General to recommend to the General Conference at its eleventh session to be
held in Paris in November 1960, to increase the allocation substantially and to continue the programme for twenty years.

In conclusion the Meeting limited the attention of the advanced countries; UNESCO and other bilateral and multilateral agencies of international cooperation and emphasized the magnitude of effort required to provide universal compulsory and free primary education to the 220 million children of Asia over a period of twenty years. It emphasized that the magnitude of the problem was only matched by its urgency and significance as on its successful implementation depended not only the future welfare of the region but also the peace and prosperity of the entire world.

To assist Member States in developing the various elements of the Plan, UNESCO set up three regional institutions for teachers-training, school buildings and planning and a Regional office responsible for documentation and coordination in Bangkok. The meeting of Ministers of Education of Asian Member States – the first of a long series – held in Tokyo reviewed the Karachi Plan in the context of economic and social development and established an intergovernmental framework for regional cooperation. Japan offered to support as an industrialized country.

Establishing The Regional Centre

The General Conference of UNESCO, at its eleventh session, considered the Karachi Plan and authorized the Director-General to initiate work in educational planning and regional activities pertaining to education in Asia. Thus was born the Regional Centre in February 1962, which was redesignated as the AIEPA on April 1, 1965. The services of the Institute were to be made available to the following participating Member States of UNESCO in Asia: Afghanistan, Burma, Cambodia, Ceylon, Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Republic of Korea, Laos, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nepal, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Republic of Vietnam. The main functions of the Institute were to: provide short in-service training courses for the officers of the various Ministries or Departments of Education (DoE) of participating Asian Member States;
undertake and promote research in the techniques of educational planning and administration; and place the results at the disposal of such Member States; and assist such States, on their request, in organizing educational planning services and holding national training courses.

The general supervision of the Institute was vested in a Steering Committee consisting of the Secretary to the Ministry of Education, Government of India who was to be its Chairperson; the Director of the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok; and the Chief of the UNESCO Mission in India. The Director of the Institute was to be the Secretary of the Committee.

**Funds and Material Provision**

UNESCO assumed the responsibility of meeting the salaries of the fulltime staff members and honoraria for part-time lecturers. It was also to provide equipment, books and other publications that were not available locally. Under the agreement, UNESCO’s assistance was to cease after a ten-year period ending in 1972. The Government of India, for its part, was to provide teaching and residential accommodation with the necessary furniture and fittings and the administrative and ancillary staff. It was also to meet the cost of internal travel of the staff and of the fellows.

The first full time Director of the Institute was Dr. K.S. Saiyidain. He joined in April 1966. Author of several books he had been Education Secretary to the Government of India and a Member of the Education Planning Commission. In addition there was the following staff: an Executive Director; a Coordinator of Studies; a Statistician; an economist; two UNESCO experts who were an economist and an educationist; a Finance Officer; an Administrative Officer; a documentalist and a librarian. In addition, the Institute could invite experts and specialists to deliver lectures and to participate in its programmes in the different fields covered by the Courses to be conducted by it.
The Early Years

In the early years UNESCO took a great deal of interest in the promotion of educational planning as a specialized activity. It organized a number of international conferences in different parts of the world, particularly in Africa, Asia and the Latin America, bringing together educators, sociologists, economists, administrators and statisticians, and collaborated with a number of national governments in setting up regional institutions for training in educational planning, like the Regional Centre in Delhi which later became the AIEPA. It also set up an International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) at Paris.

Educational planning was really as old as educational administration. The newly independent countries of Asia and Africa were passing through a revolution of rising expectations, not only for food, clothing, housing and medical care but also for education. The United Nations, by designating the 1960s as the “Development Decade”, had also given fresh impetus to the idea of educational planning. Studies of the economies of some of the advanced countries revealed that education was, perhaps, the single most important determinant of economic growth.

From its very inception, one of the key mandates of the Regional Centre and later Institute was to organize training courses in educational planning. It was also to organize short seminars and expert meetings for participants from within the region and short-term courses for Indian educators, to which trainees from other Asian countries would also be invited. Further, it would advise and assist the Asian Member States in the preparation of national courses in educational planning and administration in their own countries.

Objectives of Training Courses

The primary object of the training courses was to bring together senior officials from different countries of Asia to study the skills and techniques of educational planning and administration. By living and working together, the participants could exchange and
analyse ideas and experiences; acquire close acquaintance with the educational programmes of different Asian countries and the techniques adopted by them for educational reconstruction as an important tool of general socio-economic development; obtain a deeper understanding of the inter-relationship between different sectors of education and between the development of education on the one hand and the general socio-economic development of the country on the other; and enrich their minds and increase their competence as planners and administrators by developing greater insight and a broader approach to educational programmes.

**Fellowships**

In order to assist in the programme of training the officers of the various Member States, UNESCO awarded a number of fellowships, to enable them to participate in the Institute’s training courses every year. Fellows sponsored by the host country, the UNICEF and other agencies of international cooperation, and by the Asian Member States themselves could also be admitted to the courses.

**Selection of Fellows**

Fellows participating in the training courses from countries other than India were selected by the Director-General of UNESCO on the recommendations made by the Member States and in consultation with the Director of the Institute. The Fellows from India were selected by the Director of the Institute on the basis of the officers nominated by the State Governments through the Ministry of Education, Government of India.

**Qualifications Required of Fellows**

Candidates for Fellowships had to be persons who were holding or likely to hold responsible national or provincial positions in the administration and planning of education in the various sectors of education, such as school education, higher education, adult and youth education, and technical and vocational education. While it was
mandatory that the candidates were university graduates it was possible to consider other candidates whose previous academic background and experience provided evidence of their capacity to profit from an advanced training course. A degree or diploma in education or public administration was regarded as an added qualification. Candidates had to possess sufficient knowledge of English or French in the case of a bilingual course to enable them to take full advantage of the lectures and discussions.

**Training Courses**

Six Training Courses were held from September 1962 to December 1965. Two were for Educational Supervisors and four for Educational Planners and Administrators. The experience of the first two courses led to some modifications in the third one. The disappointing fact was that since the Centre was established, there had been no increase in the number of countries represented. In the first course there were representatives from twelve countries. The second course had participants from eight countries including one French-speaking country. The same Member States were represented in the third course. So even though the third course showed some improvement over the second, it did not register any marked gain in national representation over the first two courses. There were still some countries in the Asian region that did not participate at all in any of the three courses.

**The Third Course**

The third course for educational planners and administrators was designed essentially to familiarize the participants with the principles, problems and techniques of planning in different educational sectors such as primary, secondary, higher, technical and other areas of education. It sought to give them practical experience of educational planning and prepare them for the organization, expansion, and strengthening of planning activities in their respective countries. It included consideration of problems of educational administration, primarily as an instrument for the development, implementation, evaluation and improvement of educational plans. Its components
included elements of sociology, statistics, demography, human resource projections and costing of educational plans. There were also discussions on subjects like the principles of dynamic administration, training of teachers, education of girls, research and evaluation in educational planning and foreign aid in educational development. Apart from theory, substantial time was given for practical work. This consisted of an exercise in educational planning for a hypothetical country of given characteristics for a period of twenty years. The data of one of the Indian States was used for the purpose. Wherever feasible, the plan for Italy prepared by the SVIMEZ Association for Southern Italy was used. The Centre for Studies on Economic Development was consulted as a model.

The planning of a short course of a three-month duration involved various problems. For example, the diverse background of the participants was a challenge. While some of them had previous experience of educational planning, there were others who were making their acquaintance with the essential concepts for the first time. Further, some had spent long years in educational administration while others were relatively young and rather new to the task of educational reconstruction. The participants also belonged to very different age groups ranging from 29 to 61. With such a diverse group, the most practical way of using the time and resources during the course was to treat it as an opportunity for reorientation, with as much emphasis on the acquisition of practical skills as possible and that was the approach adopted. At the end the participants responded favorably to it and several of them admitted that that was the first time that they were really acquainted with the problems of educational planning.

*Syllabus:* The syllabus was prepared with the advice of experts. It consisted of theoretical concepts and a practical exercise. The main elements of the course were Introduction to Educational Planning; Foundations of Educational Planning.

This part of the course was devoted to a discussion of “principles of planning” in order to examine the relationship between educational planning, on the one hand, and social and economic planning, on the other. It also highlighted the educational developments in Asia, particularly between 1950 and 1960.
The Fourth Course

The Fourth training course for educational planners and administrators was held at the Institute from 31 July to 28 October, 1964. There were two firsts; one was a substantial increase in the number of countries represented, the second, in conformity with the requirements of the UNESCO, it was conducted in both English and French and was open to candidates who were familiar with either language. Out of the total twenty-seven participants, ten were French-speaking. The bilingual nature of the sessions often provided interesting comparisons of experience and viewpoints but to some extent it also handicapped the spontaneity of discussions despite the equipment for simultaneous interpretation provided by UNESCO. The equipment did not always function satisfactorily, while the two interpreters were hard pressed for time in attempting to translate the large number of working documents provided in the two languages.

The method of selection of participants continued to present serious instructional problems as the candidates appeared to have been selected on the basis of their service in the Government whether as officials of the Ministry or as members of the teaching profession rather than on their academic qualification. This resulted in differences of academic levels that became particularly noticeable during the last session. Also, it created difficulties in the comprehension of the subject matter because while it seemed easy for some, it was only partly comprehensible to others. However, the lively interest shown by all the participants in tackling the study of questions that were unfamiliar to most of them compensated for all the difficulties.

The practical exercise of preparing a long-term educational plan from 1961-81 was based on the data taken from the Punjab. It was worked out through a series of exercises that involved long and keen discussions between the staff and the participants, particularly over the selection of priorities. As a conclusion to the exercise, the participants were able to construct age-group pyramids of school enrolments, for 1961 and 1981, along with a carefully correlated table of the probable human resource picture.
in 1981. Two series of hypotheses were used for the planning of elementary education – those followed by the Karachi Plan and those which the participants themselves worked out.

The Fifth Course

The Fifth training course held by the Institute, lasted from November 20, 1964 to February 17, 1965. It was the second and the last course to be held for Educational Supervisors and Inspectors as distinct from courses for educational planners and administrators, the first of which was from September 15 to December 14, 1962. It was attended by twenty-two participants from ten Asian countries: Afghanistan, Ceylon, Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand and the Republic of Viet-Nam.

The course for education supervisors and inspectors was wound up because it was felt that greater emphasis was needed on planning, rather than on supervision and inspection. However most of the participants felt that they had been equally concerned with and would continue to be so with the problems of administration, and the down-to-earth implementation of educational planning. Even as Supervisors and Inspectors they had to shoulder responsibilities pertaining to these areas and that is why they had shown keen interest in the practical aspects of educational planning during the course. There was confidence that an authentic knowledge base had been built up derived largely from the experiences and knowledge of participants themselves, and so it would not go waste.

The Sixth Course

The Sixth course was conducted only in English. There were twenty-one participants from eleven Asian Member States of UNESCO. In addition there was an officer of the Government of Ghana under the Indian contribution to UNESCO’s African Emergence Programme. Although the basic structure of this course was the same as of earlier courses, it was longer than the previous courses for planners and hence more
comprehensive in both the theoretical and practical framework. This was in accordance with an earlier recommendation where it had been felt that the duration of the course could be somewhat longer.

A considerably extended background was offered of development theory, particularly social and human resource development in its economic as well as social aspects, sociology, political development, and comparative education. Some theoretical considerations were introduced regarding the planning process generally and educational planning in particular for example, acquaintance with the various methodological approaches. A number of separate practical exercises in educational planning were prepared by participants in respect of their own countries, with departures from the model exercise prepared at the Institute. An attempt was made to develop a few case studies in educational administration which supplemented the series of discussions in the field.

The course departed from a purely lecture mode to an extended use of syndicates and seminars. Twelve syndicates were organized followed by seminars on varied subjects such as, “Educational Administration and the Teacher,” and “Sociological and Methodological Considerations in Educational Planning”. The idea was that an extended course of lecture-discussions, and syndicates and seminars in educational administration, might help planners to arrive at not only quantitative targets but also see patterns of success and failure in the development of educational programmes.

**The Seventh Course**

Using the experience of the four-month course and profiting from the recommendations of the meeting of experts on Educational Planning in Asia convened by UNESCO in May 1966, a few new features were introduced in the structure of the Seventh Course. It started as before with a three-day orientation on planning in relation to economic and social development. The practical work of the participants was further strengthened, laying greater stress on educational aspects such as, wastage, stagnation, replacement of teachers, case studies, and techniques of preparing project proposals.
This was one of the new features of the course. The main feature of the new exercise was the computation of flows of students in to and out of the educational system based on figures of drop-outs and stagnation in different grades.

**The Eighth Course**

The eighth course was a little longer as the Institute’s understanding of research and training requirements for educational planning became clearer and more definite after the second experts’ meeting especially devoted to problems of research. On the recommendations of the UNESCO Evaluation Commission, it was decided to conduct single courses that might extend to six months. Accordingly, the Eighth Training Course, which was organized concurrently in English and French, was extended to five months for all participants and to a sixth month for some selected participants who wished to specialize in a particular area of study.

The participants of the training course were also given an opportunity to participate in two seminars organized by the Institute during this period. One was a week-long seminar on the “Implications of Planning Education”, which was attended among others by educational and other administrators from eleven Asian Member States of UNESCO. The Members of the Governing Board of the International Institute of Educational Planning, Paris, who held their own annual meeting in Delhi around this time, attended the seminar for part of the period.

The latter part of this Regional Seminar, which lasted for about a week, was attended by experts from the Region to discuss the problems of research related to educational planning. On the basis of their deliberations they decided that there was urgent need, for collaborative research in two areas. One was adjusting popular demand for education to the needs of national development. The second was raising productivity and reducing costs in established educational systems.
Apart from the usual features of the previous course, certain new and development aspects of educational planning received attention. Hence the course touched on subjects like, “International Assistance for Educational Development” and “Development Planning and its implications for Educational Planning” together with school mapping. The latter is a technique of planning designed to help in locating institutions with due regard to the distribution of population and the needs of education for the area to ensure economic utilization of specialized resources. Some tapes prepared at the International Institute of Educational Planning, Paris, were also used as material for instruction during the course.

**The Ninth Course**

The ninth course began on September 2, 1968. The first five weeks were for those who needed special attention in improving their written and spoken English. The actual course commenced in October 7, 1968. While the Institute was basically involved with training, different addresses at these programmes went beyond their limited aims and focused on the more fundamental educational issues confronting the developing countries. It set the time for future development. For example, Dr. Triguna Sen the Union Education Minister outlined the challenges of education and linked them to economic growth and development in his inaugural address. Referring to Gunnar Myrdal’s *The Asian Drama* and its theme for a radical change in the entire educational system of the Asian nations, he pointed out the linkages between education and poverty. The main hypothesis of the book was that the Asian countries were poor because by and large their people lacked the preparation to face the tasks of modern life. This was due to three main weaknesses in their educational systems. The first weakness was that the systems were not properly related to the life, needs, and aspirations of the people; the second was that they were quantitatively inadequate; and the third was that they were qualitatively poor. Gunnar Myrdal emphasized that the efforts at educational development made by these countries had been mostly directed towards quantitative expansion. Their success in raising the standards of education had been meagre and, in most cases, had done little to transform their educational systems to suit their life, needs,
and aspirations. Myrdal, therefore, concluded that there was need for a radical change in the entire educational system of the Asian nations and warned that unless this was done there was little or no chance of their poverty being effectively reduced.

Education, therefore, said Dr. Triguna Sen, was the most important tool for national development and the money spent on it was not ‘expenditure’ but ‘investment’. This belief would give educators a better bargaining position with politicians, financers, and administrators when asking for larger allocations for education. But educational planners too had a challenge before them. They had to discover how their educational systems could be related to the life, needs and aspirations of the people, how standards could be raised and how equality of educational opportunity could be provided within the level of the investment in education that their nations could afford at that time.

The task was difficult and complex because the education system in some of the countries was not planned from a national point of view but was created by the colonial powers for their own limited objectives. The objectives were not very relevant to an independent nation and had naturally become completely redundant after the end of colonial rule. Further the populations of all these countries were large and rapidly increasing. Hence they were young countries, in the sense that the number of persons below the age of twenty was inordinately large.

The standards of education in these countries were generally not up to the mark. The gap between the developed countries and these countries had become wider after the Second World War as industrialized nations had made very rapid strides in education while the developing countries had remained stationary. The education system in developing countries was very conservative and rigid, making it resistant to innovation, experimentation, and creativity. The vastness and complexity of the problem was matched by the paucity of resources as the per capita income was low and even lower for education. Often there was no money to spend even on basic physical infrastructure. Further, educational planning was necessary but the skills required for it were scarce even in developed countries as this aspect had only then begun to receive attention. In the
absence of any alternative policies and programmes, educational planning in developing countries was largely based on ideas, practices, and programmes borrowed from the industrially advanced countries. This often led to unhappy results as ideas and practices could not be just borrowed without experimentation and adaptation.

So how were all these challenges to be met? There was obviously a need for much greater collaboration not only between the developing and the developed nations but also between the developing countries themselves. The combination of these two would yield the best results in the shortest time.

Similar issues were raised in the valedictory address delivered by Prof. D.R. Gadgil, Deputy Chairman, Planning Commission on January 29, 1969. Talking of the policy background of educational planning in all countries where resources were limited, he highlighted the basic problem which was how to assure a minimum level of general education for the people at large. This was very important as education was at the root of all progress and essential for any society that claimed to be democratic or egalitarian. The Constitution of India had laid down as a significant directive of State Policy that the State would, within ten years of the commencement of the Constitution, compulsorily provide to every child free education up to the age of fourteen. This was a national aim but, as he pointed out, even after more than twenty years of independence, there were a number of States in India where the Constitutional Directive had not been even half fulfilled. The State had not been able to provide compulsory and free education to every child even up to the age of eleven. So education up to the age of fourteen remained a distant dream. This was largely because of the constraint of resources. If all the necessary resources had been put into the effort to fulfill this aim right from the beginning, it might have worked. Whatever it was, the big problem in educational planning was how to get not only universal literacy, which was merely the first stage, but a minimum level of general education. No advance could be made in modern industry, agriculture, or in any other field without achieving a general level of education. And here the planner, the administrator, or the politician, had to make some kind of a decision on what was the
minimum that he/she had to make available for the purpose, and what was the utmost that was affordable.

All administrators were fairly well-acquainted with the political process. It was generally known that the allocations were the result of various pulls and pressures. For example, the importance of adult literacy was being recognized and might require large sums of money but a balance had to be found between adult education and education of children. It had to be also understood that in spite of illiteracy in Asian peasant societies people could still be familiarized with the advances of techniques.

Again, the issue of human resource planning was difficult in a country where education levels were low because planning only made a significant impact at the higher and more specialized stages. Even this was difficult in developing economics which Dr. Sen termed as ‘shallow economies’. By this he meant that the supply overflowed rather quickly because the economy did not have the capacity, elasticity, or flexibility to absorb too many specialists. This could be seen in the case of engineering education. An apparent paucity of engineers, led to rapid expansion of engineering education, but this proved to be a mistake and many engineers remained unemployed. This showed that while the scarce resources needed to stretched to the utmost in the case of general education, specialized education needed far more carefully planning.

In all developing countries, the effective implementation of the plans was also a challenge. While on the one hand, a large area of general education had to be covered, and on the other, some attention had to be paid to specialized education such as university education, research, technological training and so forth, there was also an intermediate area, which was very important. A large mass of people left education too early and entered into the workforce at an age when it was difficult to give them vocational training. But the more affluent and urban educated professional classes stretched out their education to a period that was much longer than the country could afford. So it created two unequal positions. Of course educational planners could not do too much
about this but had to be aware of all these problems including that of vastly growing section of the educated unemployed.

**Meets, Seminars, and Conferences**

Apart from Training Courses, the Institute organized and participated in several meets and seminars. One was the Conference of Ministers of Education and the Ministers responsible for economic planning in the Member States of Asia convened by UNESCO with the cooperation of ECAFE in Bangkok in November 1965. Its aims were to review the progress in the implementation of the Karachi Plan and the resolutions of the First Conference of Asian Ministers of Education in Tokyo 1962; discuss major policy issues related to the overall development of education with regard to the economic and social development; and make the necessary specific recommendations directed towards action at the national, regional and international levels.

Some of the salient recommendations were that Member States should do a careful survey of the administrative structure of education in the context of the magnitude of the tasks that lay ahead in educational reorganization and development; establish adequate training facilities for educational administrators; and give high priority to developing a bureau for educational planning and statistical services.

UNESCO was invited to increase the facilities for the training of personnel for educational administration and planning of the regional and international institutes; increase the number of fellowships for advanced training in the region; assist Member States with equipment and fellowships in organizing and conducting national training courses; develop further clearing-house activities for the dissemination of information relating to educational planning and administration at the Regional Office at Bangkok; and organize facilities for the training of statistical personnel. The main proposals and recommendations of the Conference were brought out in a publication by UNESCO, “An Asian Model of Educational Development – Perspectives for 1965-80”. In May 1966 the UNESCO held an Experts’ Meeting in Shimla on Research and Training Requirements
for Educational Planning in Asia. The basis for discussion was a working paper prepared by the Institute and a number of other papers presented by the UNESCO Secretariat and the IIEP at Paris. The sixteen distinguished experts who attended the Meet made wide-ranging recommendations amongst which were: provision of diverse training programmes and seminars for officials and specialists; regional and national courses at various levels and in different fields; and shorter seminars for the information of policy makers. It was also suggested that the Institute exercise a promotional and co-coordinating role in respect of the research and studies connected with educational planning carried on within the region.

A seminar was also held in Shimla on Planning Adult Literary in June 1966 for which a working paper prepared at the Institute served as a basis of discussion. The participants of the Seminar later visited various centres of adult education in India and the two Indian participants went to Iran on a similar visit.

As a part of its scheduled programme, the Institute organized a National Seminar on Educational Planning and Administration for Indian Officials at Srinagar from June 12 to 25, 1967. Apart from experts from the Ministry of Education, the Planning Commission and the staff of the Institute, representatives of the Departments of Education primarily concerned with educational planning and administration in various States of India also participated.

At the inauguration Dr. K.G. Saiyidain emphasized the importance of educational planning. Educational administrators he said, had usually lacked conviction, dynamism, a sense of purpose, and the human touch and imagination required to succeed in spite of several challenges. While in the ultimate analysis, the teacher was more important than the administrator, and methods and curricula were of greater significance in the life of the child but these could not come into their own and exercise their full impact till the administrator provided, within the limits of his/ her power, the necessary conditions for it. For projects on increase of agricultural production and other ‘prestigious’ ventures, larger
funds were somehow always found but it should also be possible to find money for education which was a necessary condition for the success of all other schemes.

Dr. Saiyidain agreed with the Sargent Report that good education was not cheap, but he was realistic enough to recognize that India was a scarcity economy, and so it was necessary to carry the great burden of an all-sided programme of national development through resourcefulness and skill to subsist on what affluent nations would regard as a shoestring budget. Of course efforts had to be made to get the resources increased but it was also important to utilize the available resources at an optimum level. For example, the curricula had been dull, static, unimaginative, and out of rapport with the psychology of the children and the demands of the new world but curriculum reform could be done without prohibitive expenditure. What was needed was to bring together the best talent and imagination available amongst teachers, administrators, specialists in school education and scholars in the various faculties of the universities. Also subjects were often taught for very short intervals because of purely sentimental or pseudo-political reasons and discontinued long before the students reached a breakthrough point at which they could be really useful. This resulted in a waste of resources. Further, it was necessary to simultaneously provide better school books with more significant and lively materials as these could make a generation of students, more rational, tolerant, socially-oriented and capable of true self-expression than the present generation. Of course only curriculum and textbooks were not enough, but they did play a vital role in producing a truly educated mind.

Improvement in methods and techniques could also be brought about except perhaps, for certain entirely new educational technologies such as dissemination of knowledge through the television. The improvements could be done by teachers through constant upgradation of the knowledge of children, subject matter, the psychology of learning, and of the sources of creativity in the students which is distinct from the investment of large financial resources. When Dewey established his famous Elementary School in Chicago, it was not a much more expensive school than the ordinary American schools of the day but he invested himself in it – his mind, imagination, and thus capacity
to inspire his colleagues. This led him to succeed in weaving theory and practice together. Similarly, when Rabindranath Tagore set up the school at Shantiniketan, it was a simpler school in some ways than the others in the neighborhood. It became a more lively and joyous educational centre because Tagore himself, with his multi-splendoured personality, worked in it and was able inspire his colleagues to give their best especially to the welfare of the poor and to the below-average children who were admitted to the school at the time. The majority of teachers of today may not become a Tagore or a Dewey but the essential point is that success cannot be achieved without large financial resources. What is needed is the magical influence of the human personality.

In December 1967, the Institute organized two interesting and significant seminars - “Implications of Planning Education” and “Research in Educational Planning”. A number of participants who were not necessarily working directly in the field of education were invited to the first one. To the other were invited those who were involved, directly or indirectly, in educational planning. The object of the first seminar was to stimulate a meaningful dialogue between educationists, economists, administrators, and professionals in allied areas. If such a dialogue was not carried on and often it was not, the consequence was that they were apt to work at cross purposes. Some national and international experts were associated with the seminar as consultants, which made the discussions more meaningful. The other seminar was a gathering of research specialists, who had studied some of the areas in which research should be initiated on a cooperative basis in the region.

Thus, right from its inception, the Institute was occupied not only with training but also research and policy planning. The members of the Institute constantly engaged in various aspects of educational research and in the propagation of their ideas and findings. To this end they participated in national and international seminars and published several monographs, studies, papers and books. Many made presentations at forums of policy making which had an impact on the projection of education in the country. For example, between July and September 1966, Dr. Saiyidain attended the panel on education organized by the Planning Commission to consider the educational
programmes to be included in the Draft Fourth Five-Year Plan in the light of the Report of the Education Commission. Between October and December 1966, he was part of the Educational Panel of the Planning Commission and the Panel set up by the University Grants Commission to consider problems of student discipline. He also attended the Regional Symposium on In-service Training of Primary School Teachers in Asia held in the Philippines during July 5-19, 1967 where he spoke on the Role of Universities in Modern Life. Dr. S. Shukla, Coordinator of Studies delivered five lectures on the “Theory of Education and Educational Development” in the training on Research Methodology at the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT).

In his address in the Philippines, Dr. Saiyidain pointed out that in the world of today, knowledge increased but wisdom did not. Men could control the giant forces of nature but not themselves. National and class passions clashed and peace was not to be found. In such an environment he said, it was the business of the university to raise basic and awkward questions, to ask where man was going, to explore the meaning life, to reassert the primacy of the values of the spirit, to refuse to be dragged like a blind follower in the wake of science and technology or tradition and superstition, to stand for thinking objectively and feeling with compassion, to stress the fundamental unity of mankind and expose the triviality of many things that divide them. For where, he said, if not in the university, could inspiration and faith be found which were necessary to fulfill this difficult task? It was for the university to provide the required leadership in creating such a mind and it could do so if it wanted to. He cited Jawaharlal Nehru, who in one of his addresses had said, “A university stands for humanism, for tolerance, for reason, for the adventure of ideas and for the search of truth. It stands for the onward march of the human race towards ever higher objectives. If the universities discharge their duties adequately then it is well with the nation and the people.” However, said Dr. Saiyidain sadly, he had the uncomfortable feeling that many of the universities in the world today had lost that flavour. In the words of Jesus Christ, “When the salt hath lost its flavour, wherewith will it be salted?” Hence, it was vital to put back the relentless pursuit of excellence in all its activities in the university.
An Appraisal

Towards the end of his tenure at the beginning of 1968, Dr. Saiyidain evaluated the work of the Asian Institute. He wrote a philosophical farewell piece in which he narrated not only what was being done at the Institute but also how it reflected the ideas and attitudes of the larger society. In some ways, he felt that the work of the Institute in India was more difficult and complicated than that of the other three Institutes of Educational Planning and Administration at Beirut, Dakar, and Santiago de Chili, because the other regions were more compact and comparatively better integrated linguistically, culturally, and politically. However, what made the work of the Institute more difficult also gave its members and participants a stimulating opportunity to practice the greatest art in life – the art of learning to live, think and study together common or even differing problems of interest in an atmosphere of reason and mutual understanding.

An essential characteristic of intelligent planning was sensitiveness to the nature of the world a proper assessment of the social order in which one was living and a vision of what was likely to be the shape of the future. Only then could planning become purposeful and ensure that the different schemes and plans formulated in various sectors did not work at cross purposes, but strengthened and supplemented each other. Such a harmonization of the highly complicated structure of modern planning was possible only when the persons and organizations concerned with it were knowledgeable about each other’s activities and needs. He recalled one of the seminars which had been organized by the Institute in the previous December in which a small effort had been made to initiate a dialogue between educational planners, economists, and those concerned with the formulation of general planning policies and with the allocation of resources.

He referred to what he had said at the final functions of the alumni’s Refresher Course a few days earlier. What was important in life was not so much what happened to the individual but what happened to the cause or the purpose which he was called upon to serve. It was important to ascertain whether the cause was really significant and whether
the individual had the capacity to identify with it. An individual derived his significance from the nature of the cause which he was privileged to serve because something of the greatness of that cause passed into his own personality. While talking of Mahatma Gandhi, Jawaharlal Nehru had once said, “We were all small men and women. To Gandhi belongs the credit of picking us up and using us in the great cause of freedom and the service of the masses. And it was under his leadership for such purposes that we gained some stature and some measure of the greatness of our cause.” There were more than three billion human beings living on this earth who had potential significance. It could however, become real when their gifts and talents, their integrity and devotion, their sincerity and humanism found expression in work which was valuable both for the individual and for the society of which he was a member. It was only when people were engaged in such causes, no matter in what hierarchical positions they were and rated them higher than their personal interests that there was a strong likelihood of much of the bitterness, narrowness and selfishness in their lives from melting away.

Change of the Old Order

The year 1968 heralded change for the Institute. Not only did Dr. Saiyidain’s tenure come to an end but on completion of his assignment as Executive Director, Mr. Kapur also retired from the Institute with effect from March 31, 1968. He was appointed the Vice-Chancellor of Sambalpur University, Orissa from April 1, 1968.

Dr. Khare the Statistician went back to his Department and the UNESCO expert, Mr. H. Amatsuchi finished his term to return to the Education Ministry in Japan. So in a sense, the old order changed giving way to new. However, Dr. Saiyidain’s departure was delayed for a while. In the meantime he was invited by the University Grants Commission (UGC) to become a member of the Committee set up to consider proposals regarding the institution of new courses in the colleges of Delhi University.

Dr. Saiyidain’s successor was Prof. M.V. Mathur who had been the Vice-Chancellor of Rajasthan University. He had been Head of the Department of Economics
and Public Administration at Rajasthan University and had worked in a number of teaching and administrative positions including a spell at the UN Headquarters at New York. He had been Member of the Indian Education Commission (1964-66), Member of the Second Indian Finance Commission, Consultant to the IIEP, Paris on its Study of Educational Planning in the U.S.S.R. and Chairman of the Rajasthan Public Administration Enquiry Committee. He was a member of Public Administration and an authority in Public Finance. As Chairman of the Indian Economic Association in 1967, he had presided over the last Indian Economic Conference at Madras.

Soon after he joined, Prof. Mathur participated in the International Conference on Educational Planning at the UNESCO Headquarters in Paris where the then current position in the field of educational planning was reviewed. In his first formal public statement, Prof. Mathur stated what many perceptive observers had been pointing out for several years that the explosion of education was making greater and greater demands on national resources. These could not be met by the existing methods of teaching and educational management and hence educational planning faced a new challenge and opportunity. While the achievements of the previous decade in terms of the techniques used to forecast population and manpower, costing and relating the educational plans to economic and social development were helpful in moving towards the new goals, increased innovations and qualitative improvements were required to bring about a rapid transformation in educational and management techniques. The work of this Institute therefore, would have to take on these new dimensions in the near future. The Institute, he pointed out, had also begun to receive some recognition for its capacity to serve the Member States of the region. For example, at the request of the Royal Government of Laos, Mr. J. Pernau-Llimos, from the Institute had been the principal professional involved in the running of a National Course for the training of educational workers in that country. There were indications of similar interests on the part of some other Member States. It was good for the Institute felt Mr. Mathur to get more closely involved with the efforts of each of the Member States in upgrading its educational personnel and modernizing its educational planning and management. The Institute’s programme of national courses was also likely to be of considerable help towards that end.
There was exchange and sharing of expertise among Member States. The Asian Institute for Economic Development and Planning, Bangkok, for instance had invited the Asian Institute in Delhi to depute some members of the Faculty for a two-week period to do four to six seminars during the third and fourth week of November 1968. The Ceylon Institute for School Building Research had offered the services of Mr. R. Sheath and Mr. P. Senarath to assist the Institute in its current course for a few days.

From December 16 to 21, 1968, the Institute held a Preparatory Seminar of Experts in New Delhi to consider how educational planning in the Asian Region could become a part of the regular university teaching curriculum. The Seminar reviewed the state of development of knowledge in the various academic fields related to educational planning. It examined how new concepts could be introduced either into the existing courses or new courses could be designed in universities in different countries to improve the capacity of higher educational planning. The overall assessment of the seminar was that the current climate was favourable in the Asian Region for introducing educational planning as a subject in the Faculties of Education, and for promoting some other social sciences, such as Economics and Sociology.

**Evolving towards National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators (NSCEPA)**

Up to 1966, the Institute had worked on the region as a whole with no special emphasis on India. On February 10, 1967, a meeting was held to examine the possibility of adding an Indian wing with financial help from the UNESCO as follow-up action on the Report of the Indian Education Commission. The Institute at this time began concentrating on Indian education, as a prelude to becoming the National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators (NSCEPA) as recommended by the Education Commission. Towards this aim, it started concentrating on organizing seminars, conferences and other academic activities with focus solely on India. Some significant issues were taken up.
Widening the Educational Base

A State Seminar on ‘School Improvement Projects and Community Support’ was organized in 1969-70 which highlighted the importance of community participation to increase the penetration of education. Prof. N.D. Sundaravadivelu, the then Vice Chancellor University of Madras made some valuable points on making education more widespread. He referred to Mahatma Gandhi’s concept of *Gramraj* which, he pointed out, essentially meant that the village had to take the responsibility for its own welfare and upkeep without looking at any external agency. There could be no two opinions on the soundness of the philosophy and the vitality of the idea. He pointed out that the mind-set of the villager had undergone a change as unlike his forefathers, he understood the value of education although illiterate himself. He keenly wanted to educate his children and this desire could be used for the rebuilding of the morale, and for inculcating the spirit of self-help, self-reliance and self-confidence among the masses. Education could now be regarded as a birthright and essential for every citizen of the Republic. Without it democracy could not function efficiently and safely for long. This realization had prompted the constitution-makers to make it a Directive Principle in the Constitution. It was mandated upon the State to provide free and compulsory education up to the age of fourteen. Very wisely, no lower age limit had been given.

With the spread of education, more and more children from poorer families went to school. The result was that instruction was not merely confined to those who could afford a square meal but was extended to those who were even poorer. To educate a starving child was next to impossible as hunger and the consequent inattentiveness considerably affected the capacity to absorb and benefit from classroom teaching. The same circumstances adversely affected the participation of the children in co-curricular activities. Under these circumstances the children of the poor, however well equipped by nature, could not do as well as those children whose wants were adequately and properly satisfied. Hence, said Dr. Sundaravadivelu, as long as conditions of existence were not
the same, it would be a mockery of the promised equality of opportunity to only give access to schools and make education free without any further support.

If the children of the poor had to benefit fully from their schooling and if the nation’s money and efforts spent on them were not get wasted, it would be necessary to ensure that they got at least one square meal in a day. This was essential if the expenditure on education was to be meaningful. Dr. Sundaravadivelu wondered whether it was possible to divert resources to a School Meals Programme and also to seek community help for this. He took the example of the villagers of Nagalapuram who had consulted among themselves and decided to donate grain to organize a scheme for giving mid-day meals to poor children in their school. From there the idea of free meals organized by local donations spread far and wide and was enthusiastically implemented in many villages.

The time-honoured hospitality and charity of the Indian villagers found one more channel of expression. The rich and the poor, the literate and the illiterate vied with one another in contributing their mite. Housewives showed the way by setting apart a handful of rice each day for this. Farmers took the movement further by donating grains at the threshing field itself. Children also did their bit. In an elementary school at Avinashi, Coimbatore District, the movement was launched by each pupil bringing a match-box full of rice for a few days. In certain high schools the entire student community contributed a handful of rice once a week. Cash donations flowed freely from salaried and monied persons alike.

Many of these elementary schools were so starved of many essential requirements that often they did not have even a decent place to function from. Even some of the sheds in which they were housed were mere apologies for sheds, being more suitable for cattle than for future citizens. There were schools, which had buildings but these were in bad state of repairs, without the barest equipment or teaching aids. In spite of these impediments, the brave schoolmaster tried to teach young children, many of whom were first-generation learners. Children could not be meaningfully educated in these
conditions. And when schooling was substandard it could only produce sub-standard entrants to high schools and colleges. All efforts to improve the standard of education have to start from the bottom, from the elementary schools. The deficiency has to be made good even at the foundation. Since these problems required immediate remediation, it was necessary to think along unorthodox lines.

A Pilot School Improvement Project was attempted in a compact block with about forty elementary schools. The first stage was a comprehensive survey of the actual condition of each school in that area keeping in view the normal requirements of an elementary school with regard to accommodation, furniture, equipment, teaching aids, library facilities, sanitary provision, space for play activities and gardening not only for the present but also for the future. This survey revealed the actual deficiencies in each school. The people in the school village and the neighbourhood were apprised of them at formal or informal meetings. The teachers acting as catalytic agents persuaded the villagers to come forward either individually or jointly to provide the suitable and adequate needs of the school, according to their capacity. This novel idea caught the imagination of the people and the response was spontaneous and generous. After the villagers had undertaken the task to provide various requirements, a conference of the people, donors, and teachers was held at the headquarters of the Block where the articles presented to the schools were exhibited. The conference and the exhibition demonstrated to society the possibility of quick and widespread reconstruction through self-help. It thus created an ownership of the people in the school and hence the desire to maintain and upgrade it.

The Importance of District Level Planning

Another national seminar was held on “The Role, Function, Recruitment and Training of District Education Officer” in New Delhi from February 11 to 13, 1970. It was felt that the District Education Officer occupied a key position in the educational administration of the State but his role and functions differed from State to State. Since the District Education Officer played a key role in the expansion and development of
education through planned activity, it was increasingly realized that the system of his recruitment and training had to be reviewed and suitably modernized to equip him for the emerging tasks of development. The Seminar was therefore designed to deal with the statement of the present position by the State and Union Territories; the role and function of District Education Officers; the recruitment of District Education Officers; and the training of District Education Officers.

In his inaugural address Professor M.V. Mathur, Director, AIEPA, emphasized the need of educational administration as education had become the single largest organized activity of society since independence India had one of the largest educational systems in the world. It was therefore, of paramount importance that due attention be given to the proper recruitment and training to those who managed this massive educational enterprise.

The issues were taken up by Mr. S. Chakravarti, the Education Secretary, who pointed out that the district was becoming more and more the unit of developmental planning. Hence it was necessary to give appropriate training to the District Education Officer to not only become professionally competent in his own field but also to play a significant role in the general community development in collaboration with other departments. Therefore District Education Officers could also be recruited from universities and research departments. Provision had also to be made for in-service training and orientation courses to instill in the officers attitudes and knowledge which would contribute to their becoming developmental generalists.

This was reinforced by Prof. Rao in the valedictory. He also suggested that as an experimental measure, some of the primary schools could be staffed by graduate teachers and freed from inspection. Similarly, some good secondary schools could also be exempted from routine inspection. Another pivotal issue was of teachers and how vital it was to build Prof. Rao stressed up their academic and professional competence of teachers. He suggested that as a pilot project, about fifty talented young graduate teachers from each district could be selected and given facilities for postgraduate
education at the State expense so that, after completing their higher education, they might return to teaching and do their work with greater confidence.

Thus in the early years of its inception the focus of the institute was on meeting the challenges of education with optimum utilization of scarce resources and as such immense importance was attached to planning and training of personnel to make effective implementation possible. Planning was not to be taken as just something related to the economic field but also something that could be used in almost every sphere. For instance there was not only economic planning but also social planning and within that too there were areas such as public health and education that required further planning. In any developmental sector, therefore, planning could refer to a whole range of activities beginning from the simplest enunciation of a goal or a purpose to the formulation of complex interlocking programmes including their evaluation and review. What all planning activities, however, shared in common was that essentially they were all directed towards eliminating or reducing shortages, or increasing supplies of one kind or another. The institute was a living demonstration of the need of educational planning particularly in the developing countries.
Chapter II

THE DECADE OF THE SEVENTIES

International Year of Education

The year 1970 was declared the International Education Year. The Institute celebrated it with three academic events: a Meeting of Experts on Life-Long Integrated Education; a Regional Seminar on the Application of Modern Management Techniques to Educational Administration; and a Regional Training Seminar on Educational Statistics. The normal training and research programmes of the Institute also carried on.

The themes of the three seminars were interconnected. The importance of Life-Long Integrated Education was particularly important in the context of a ceaseless explosion of knowledge and the objectives of the Second Development Decade; the 1960s being the First Development Decade. It was also one of the twelve priority objectives and themes set out in the Resolution adopted by the Executive Board of UNESCO indicating the programmes for the International Education Year.

The second theme, pertaining to the “Application of Modern Managements Techniques to Educational Administration”, flowed from the first as the implementation of programmes that would make life-long learning effective required large financial investment and complex administrative machinery. The thought was that modern management techniques that had led to useful results in the fields of business and industry could also be applied to educational planning and administration with suitable modifications. However, their successful application required readily retrievable, fairly accurate, and up-to-date statistical data. The availability of reliable statistical data was not very satisfactory in most of the Asian countries and it was this consideration that largely determined the choice of the theme for the third seminar on educational statistics.
Life-Long Integrated Education

The meeting on Life-Long Integrated Education was held in New Delhi from August 10-18, 1970. It was attended by experts from Canada, India, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines, the USA, and observers from various national and international agencies. The chief objective was to examine the concept of life-long education; suggest concrete plans for implementation; and develop guidelines for incorporating the concept into the educational plans of the countries in the Asian Region. The inaugural and the valedictory addresses highlighted the concept of life-long learning from two different angles: of the policy maker and of the recipient. Together they emphasized the importance of life long education and how to provide it. This issue has assumed an even greater significance today.

In his inaugural address, Prof. V.K.R.V. Rao, the then Minister for Education and Youth Services, emphasized that education was a life-long process; it had an integrated character; and it needed to have universality to make it applicable to every individual. Work, education and play had to converge while the formal and the non-formal systems of education also had to come together.

The Meeting defined life-long education as, “a process continuing throughout life which aims at integrating all kinds of learning experiences for the development of global personality.” It noted the findings that were emerging from a vast body of research data, which showed that human beings by and large retained their ability to learn throughout their life. It emphasized that continuing education was especially vital for unskilled workers and subsistence farmers; dropouts from schools; skilled workers with limited formal education; technical workers; leaders; senior citizens; and educators and administrators. It commended the concept of the Open University; highlighted the role of voluntary organizations and international cooperation; and stressed the need for harnessing various forms mass media of communication. The administrators had to be reoriented and research intensified so as to make the formal system of education more
open and flexible and bring the informal system into greater alignment with the concept of life-long integrated education.

While Prof. V.K.R.V. Rao outlined what needed to be provided for development of life long learning, Mr. S. Chakravarti, the then Secretary, Ministry of Education, presented the consumer’s point of view in his valedictory address. He emphasized that life-long learning should provide knowledge, wisdom, and a value system to enable a person to make appropriate choices at every stage. A person should have the capacity to adjust creatively to the life cycle, that is, to understand, adapt, and control the changing environment; have appropriate nourishment and assistance to grow to his full potential; and develop social awareness and responsibility.

The Report of the meeting was published under the title “Life-Long Education”. It was widely circulated by the Indian National Commission for Co-operation with UNESCO to the Member States of the Asian Region, important national and international organizations and certain educational journals.

**Regional Seminar on Modern Management Techniques**

The Regional Seminar on the Application of Modern Management Techniques to Educational Administration was held at New Delhi from November 2-12, 1970. It was attended by participants from Afghanistan, India, Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand and the Republic of Vietnam, together with management specialists, experts and observers and resource persons from various national and international agencies.

The main objectives were to acquaint educational administrators and planners with the theories and concepts of modern management; make them aware of the application of some of the modern management techniques to administration in general and to educational administration in particular; create receptivity for trying out some of these techniques; and to promote studies and research in the application of modern
management techniques to educational administration, particularly in the developing countries of the Asian Region. The inaugural and valedictory addresses brought out the implications of using industrial and business management practices in education both from the point of view of educationists and industry.

While inaugurating the Seminar, Dr. D.S. Kothari, the then Chairman, UGC emphasized four elements: quality or excellence at all levels of education; commitment among pupils to use education for the betterment of the community; involvement of students and teachers in policy, decision making and implementation; and the development of a suitable organization to help realize these aims. However, he sounded a note of caution on blindly applying management techniques of business and industry to education as the aims of the two were different. While in the traditional sense, education was highly competitive, it was also a tool of social transformation and hence had to inculcate a commitment to or identification with fellow human beings. Therefore, management techniques used in other fields had to be adapted to serve the purposes of education.

Mr. K.T. Chandy, the then Chairman, Hindustan Steel Ltd., presented the viewpoint of the industry in his valedictory address. He observed that the industry was greatly interested in the improvement of the management of education as it not only drew its talent from the sphere of education but also participated in the educational process by building a work force for the future. He believed that all the methods available to the industry for planning were also capable of being applied in the field of education, as these were primarily methods of quantitative and qualitative analysis.

Management techniques were defined in the Seminar as all concepts, principles, tools, methods and procedures actually used or which could be used efficiently in the process of management. These included sophisticated decision-making techniques and procedures as well as intricate equipment developed to supplement the executive’s values, judgment and experience. Several of them were discussed.
The need for modernizing the administration of education in the Asian Region was recognized to ensure greater efficiency and effectiveness. While it was accepted that the mere application of modern management techniques was not a substitute for good managerial judgment, yet these helped the educational administrators to make better and more scientific decisions. Hence the educational administrators needed to be made aware of their usefulness in introducing the necessary changes. It was recognized that the newly established institutions were better placed and more suitable for experimentation, innovation and change than the older and well-established ones.

The recommendations to Member States were to reorganize their administrative and organizational machinery; examine its efficiency and effectiveness; conduct a continuing and meaningful dialogue between educational administrators and exponents of modern management techniques to facilitate collaboration and make the management of education better; and encourage researches, studies and investigations by improving both facilities and methodology so that better management techniques could be formulated and applied. It was also recommended that UNESCO, IBRD, UNDP, Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration and other international agencies should assist Member States with their expertise and other means in the dissemination of the knowledge of principles, methods, techniques and aids of modern management that could be applied to education.

**Regional Training Seminar on Educational Statistics**

The Regional Training Seminar on Educational Statistics was organized in New Delhi together with the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok, from December 7-18, 1970. Representatives from 17 out of the 20 countries in the Asian Region and several experts and observers from various national and international agencies participated in the Seminar.

The main objectives were to review the current situation regarding educational statistics in the countries of the Asian Region; discuss the problems of data collection and
presentation; acquaint the participants with the methods of dealing with the stock and flow statistics, sampling procedures, techniques of projection and certain other techniques relevant to the work of an educational statistician; and to provide techniques that would improve the collection and utilization of educational statistics. Both the inaugural and valedictory addresses emphatically brought home the vital importance of statistics in proper planning.

Both Mr. Pitambar Pant, Member, Planning Commission, and Mr. Chakravarti, the then Secretary, Ministry of Education and Youth Services, emphasized that no developmental planning was possible without proper collection and utilization of data. Data was essential at every stage to know what had been achieved and what needed to be done. The planning of primary education was comparatively easy but the complexities increased when one went beyond that. Statistical data was not only necessary for planning but also for continuous ‘feedback’ on the progress of implementation so that course correction was possible where required. The participants therefore, needed to pay attention to improving the timeliness, comprehensiveness, comparability and accuracy of data, and on making it more relevant to the goals and objectives of development.

While statistics had to play a larger role in the management of education and in the demographic aspects of educational planning, it had to move from static population studies to dynamic aspects of population analysis, and to forecasting and projections. This would help the planners and administrators in perspective planning and in evolving a strategy for educational development. Hence educational statisticians had also to get increasingly concerned with the content and quality of education.

The Seminar reviewed the situation of educational statistics in the Asian countries and noted that in several countries the collection of educational statistics needed further strengthening, both in terms of quality and variety of data. Of course there were various constraints, such as the inadequacy of trained staff and equipment, procedural delays as well as inadequate coordination between planners, administrators and statisticians for determining priorities. Keeping in view these factors several recommendations were
made for improving the collection, consolidation and interpretation of educational statistics in the region. Some areas of focus had to be student repeaters, wastage because of failures or drop outs, and surveys to verify accuracy of data and the efficiency of school systems. There was a need to train both the professional as well as field staff personnel at various levels. UNESCO was requested to sponsor short-term training courses in educational statistics at the Regional level in collaboration with the AIEPA, New Delhi, UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok, UNESCO Office of Statistics, Paris, and the Asian Statistical Institute, Tokyo.

**Eleventh Course for Educational Planners and Administrators**

Apart from the Seminars, the Institute continued one of its main tasks of organizing training programmes. The Tenth Course had been conducted in keeping with the previous courses on education administration, but the Eleventh Course was enhanced by introducing several new features.

Practical work in administration and management was integrated with the practical exercise prescribed in the course and special attention was paid to such aspects as programming, project formulation, school mapping, budgeting and organization of the administrative machinery for the purposes of plan implementation. The most significant innovation was the elaboration of the Practical Exercise on an imaginary Garudaland. The documents prepared in connection with the Exercise were brought out in two volumes as Garudaland Planning Exercise. These were sent to the participants of the Eleventh Course, UNESCO, the sister institutions, and the National Commissions for Co-operation with UNESCO in the Asian Region.

The lecture discussions on administration covered a wider range of subjects relating to the current situation of educational administration in the Asian Region, and to the management process and modern management techniques applicable to educational administration. Pedagogy improved and became more creative as the methodology of simulation and role play was adopted, thus enabling each participant to play several roles
both as member of a Planning Team and as officer at different levels in the Department of Education (DoE) and General Administration.

The Eleventh Course paid particular attention to the emerging challenges of education in the 1970s and the steps that should be taken to meet them. Of special interest were the seven Director’s Seminars. These dealt with important educational issues of topical interest not directly covered by the theoretical part of the Course. The subjects discussed were the International Education Year, 1970; educational challenges in the 1970s; education and employment opportunities; student participation in the governance of universities and colleges; decentralization of educational planning and administration; and the role of universities in preparing educational planners.

The issues were also spelt out in the inaugural address of Mr. S. Chakravarti, Secretary, Ministry of Education and Youth Service, Government of India and Secretary-General of the Indian National Commission for Cooperation with UNESCO, the valedictory of Prof. V.K.R.V. Rao, the supplementary comments of Mr. J.P. Naik; then Adviser, Ministry of Education and Youth Services; and in the opinions expressed by Dr. Prem Kirpal, President of the Executive Board of UNESCO. They pointed out that the 1970s were very important years in the educational history of the world for various reasons. Primarily, there seemed to be a universal crisis in education leading to almost universal discontent. In every country of the world, whether advanced or developing, people found the education system unsatisfactory for various reasons. In the developing countries there was student unrest because of basic issues of insufficient teachers and inadequate facilities. But students were revolting even in the advanced countries where facilities existed and where standards were good. Hence all countries of the world had to take a second look at their education systems so as to improve them according to their own requirements and circumstances.

The General Conference of UNESCO had accorded education an over-riding priority in the work of the Organization in its eleventh session in 1960. In 1964, this high priority was also given to the application of science and technology to development but
education continued to be the most important concern of UNESCO. Asia’s massive need for primary education had been identified at Karachi and a broad plan of development had been adopted. Several countries had become independent and the period saw a tremendous demographic explosion. With it had come a revolution of rising expectations among the masses. This was the most dominant feature of the educational landscape in all countries, especially in Asia where the education systems were expanding rapidly both in size and complexity. It posed a challenge both in terms of quantity and quality. In the 1960s, educators thought mainly in terms of quantitative expansion of an accepted system which had been evolved by the industrial societies of the West; its extension both to the unprivileged masses in the West and to all sections of the traditional societies in the newly independent countries of Asia; and its efficient management.

The World Conference on Educational Planning held in 1968 in Paris highlighted the need for planning and made valuable recommendations addressed to UNESCO and its Member-States with regard to planning and administration. The 1960s was a decade of education, but most people still thought in terms of gradual extension and development of a comparatively stable system. The domination of economists in the field of education led to a number of scholarly, but often unreadable and unrealistic works on the so-called economics of education. In order to get increased financial resources for education both at the national and international levels, educationists began to emphasize and elaborate the obvious fact that education increased productivity and supported this thesis by impressive quantifications. It was only towards the close of the decade that the notion of a world crisis in education began to emerge, especially after a World Conference in Williamsburg, sponsored by the former President of U.S.A., Mr. Lyndon B. Johnson. The growing discontent of the youth and the implications of rapid technological changes soon revealed the dimensions of this crisis which amounted to nothing short of an impending revolution in education.

It was pointed out that that there were at least three important elements of the revolution that lay ahead and all these had often been discussed in national, regional, and
international meetings that marked the International Education Year of 1970. These were the accelerated democratization of education; the new concept of life-long education; and the youth’s rejection of the present order and state of things as being irrelevant to their needs. These could no longer be ignored by policy-makers, planners and administrators. Hence in meeting the emerging educational revolution of the 1970s, the role of planning and administration would be of crucial importance. First and foremost educational planning had to be accorded a place right in the centre of national planning. Considerations of quality and the need to satisfy diverse requirements of individuals and social groups pointed to the principle of decentralization both in planning and implementation. A new type of educational administrator was needed to innovate, implement and evaluate. Hence the processes of planning, administration, and teaching had to be put together.

With the development of new technology, the role of the teacher was likely to change radically. In the current system of education, the teacher was largely someone who imparted information but this was the costliest and the least efficient method of utilization of scarce resources because mere information could be disseminated through technology. But, it was only a teacher who could ensure personal interaction which was vital to teaching. Also, with technology, many differences between a teacher and a student disappeared. With information growing at a fast pace, each person needed to be a life-long student. This meant that every individual could be both a teacher and a student. In effect it involved a very radical change in education and its methods. The whole pedagogy therefore needed to change.

An explosion of knowledge was taking place because of which a new educational system would have to be developed around the key concept of life-long education. Life-long learning encompassed all educational activities, for all ages and for all sectors of society. This had to provide the framework for the organization and coordination of all educational activities. Further, education had to be comprehensive and influence the many aspects of development which it was required to serve. However, innovations could not succeed in isolation. A new approach and spirit was also required. Innovations
could also not be the monopoly of a small group of specialists. The whole education system would have to be impregnated with the spirit of innovation so that all administrators and teachers were oriented and trained for it.

The existing administration functioned according to the needs of a long political past of which it was a product. Its chief concern was control, to ensure that every thing was done in accordance with procedure. This made it generally slow and hesitant. Any innovation entrusted to it was almost doomed to fail even before it began. Hence, if it had to respond to the urgent need for imaginative solutions, it had to be radically revamped. A new approach and spirit were required. Since most educational systems found themselves overtaken by social transformation, steps had to be taken to ensure that they adapted constantly through the scientific preparation and planning of the necessary innovations.

The value perspective would also need to change so that it could evolve a synthesis of science and spirituality. With the development of science and technology beginning from the early seventeenth century material things, which had not been up to now considered as important as the spiritual and non-material, became predominant. Earlier, people on the whole were poor and the difference between the poor and the rich had not been very prominent. With the rapid developments in science and technology, nature was exploited to improve the “quality of life”. But this did not bring about equality or even equity as different countries had different standards of living and vast variations could be found even in the same country. However, in spite of the pursuit of the material, happiness eluded human beings and they felt that something was still missing. Therefore, it was felt the process of unalloyed material pursuit might have to be reversed. To do this, the education system of the future would need to inculcate non-acquisitiveness together with a spirit of service rather than the drive to dominate. This would require a combination of science and spirituality.

*The Twelfth Course*
Several important modifications and innovations were made in the Twelfth Course in its design and contents in the light of experience gained from the previous courses to make it more useful and functional. The Twelfth Course attracted a record number of forty-seven nominees from different countries of Asia, out of which thirty were from Member States. It indicated that educational planning had struck roots in the Asian countries. Hence the need for training of educational planners and administrators was being increasingly felt and the Asian Institute had been pivotal to this activity.

A substantially enriched and well-coordinated programme of lecture discussions, seminars, symposia, practical work and other training activities was successfully put into operation. In addition to the lecture-discussions conducted by members of the faculty, several guest speakers from institutions both in India and abroad were invited. Also, the Garudaland Planning Exercise was further improved in content and methodology. It became the central core of the course. An important innovation was related to the introduction of computation which was designed to give the participants, the basic skills and knowledge in the subject according to their individual abilities. The system of special tutorials was introduced to enable participants to pursue specialized studies according to their interests and aptitude.

Some basic educational problems facing the countries of the Asian Region were fore-grounded by Mr. T.P. Singh, the Education Secretary in his inaugural address. He had led the Indian delegation to the Third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and those responsible for Economic Planning in Asia, convened by UNESCO in cooperation with ECAFE, at Singapore, from May 31 to June 7, 1971. An attempt had been made to look back at the achievement of the 1960s and note the challenges of the 1970s. The issues were also brought to the notice of the participants of the course. Obviously these were the dominant issues in the minds of all policy makers of the time as they were also raised by Prof. Nurul Hassan in his valedictory address.

It was pointed out that expansion had been the dominant feature of the educational landscape of the 1960s. But mere linear expansion of the existing educational
systems was not enough and would only deepen the current educational crisis. The strategy for educational development had to change. Innovation had to be emphasized not for its own sake but because planned change was required to achieve the needed improvements and adjustments. Education had to be rethought.

Expansion had been the dominant feature of the educational landscape of the 1960s with enrolments doubling in many countries leading to sharp increases in educational budgets. Within the group of 16 countries covered by the Asian Model, both the overall targets and the targets for each level set for 1970, had been largely reached and, in some cases, even surpassed. While in the decade of 1950s, the main weight of expansion was at the first level of education, in the 1960s the average rate of increase was much higher at the second and third levels.

However a closer look revealed far less encouraging trends. In spite of the reduction in illiteracy in terms of percentage, the number of illiterates had increased by about fifty million between 1960 and 1970. Less than 60 per cent children were in primary schools and, although enrolment of girls had risen from 35 to 37 per cent of the total number of pupils, the figure was still much lower than for boys, especially in the rural areas. Moreover, the proportion of the total enrolment of pupils in the secondary level technical and vocational schools had not increased to the extent forecast in the Asian Model. For the region as a whole, the proportion was lower than it was in 1960. Similarly in higher education, very few students were reading science. Even the rise in enrolment rate was not as marked as it appeared at first sight. This was because the growth of population had been so fast that the age-groups to be dealt with were larger than those that were used as a basis for the Asian Model. Moreover, the wastage resulting from dropouts and repeaters in classes remained a matter of concern.

Prof. Nurul Hassan also brought out the issue of millions of adults, farmers and workers who had no opportunity in life either to become literate or to receive training that would enable them to raise their productivity and generally improve their quality of life. The capabilities of educational institutions were not fully utilized to provide services to
the local community and the full resources of the community had not been brought into play in a coordinated way for enriching educational programmes. Even more serious was the failure of the system to adapt itself adequately to the rapidly changing environment. All this indicated that the mere quantitative expansion of the existing educational system in Asia was not sufficient to resolve the formidable problems of educational development.

In addition was the issue of the change in the demographic profile of the students. The composition of student population now represented a wide spectrum of social groups, interests and abilities. Expansion of education had made expenditures rise sharply but it had also caused the educational profile and potential productivity of the labour force to also improve. Therefore, education was no longer only a desirable social service or compensatory social equity to the poor people. Economic policy-makers now saw it as a powerful tool of social transformation and a high yielding investment in overall national development.

In Asia, as in other regions of the world, the new needs were clustered around the twin ideas of democratization and development. This implied that human resources had to be fully utilized to carry out the economic and social transformation set in motion by the “green revolution” and the progress of industrialization. Hence educational facilities required expansion and improvement in rural areas, both from the point of view of equitable opportunities and also to make the best use of human resources. If education had to become a powerful tool of social transformation it had to relate to values, productivity, the teaching of science, mathematics, and technology and to the over-all programmes of national development. It was only through education that Asian countries would shake off their dependence on the West, both in science and technology and in the development of human resources and production.

Therefore, educational facilities at all levels had to continue to expand to assure every individual a meaningful right to education. Every child had to be provided universal primary education and given access to secondary and higher education. This
access had to be made especially available to all members of the under-privileged groups. Large-scale programmes of informal education had to be developed so that continuing education could be provided on a part-time, self-study or sandwich basis, to all persons participating in the labour force.

While expansion and professional management of education was essential, Prof. S. Nurul Hassan raised the basic issues of the need to transform the Asian societies on principles of justice, freedom and equality; modernize agriculture and develop industries through the intensive use of science and technology; and eradicate the dehumanizing poverty of the masses. In effect development had to be inclusive and this required a total reconstruction of the educational systems.

The Institute and the Member States

During 1969, the Institute took up a cooperative project for bringing out country-wise monographs on the system of educational administration in different countries of the Asian region. The main object was to get descriptive and analytical accounts of the systems of educational administration in various countries in the Asian Region. Sixteen countries, namely, Afghanistan, Burma, Ceylon, Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Republic of Korea, Laos, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand, and Republic of Vietnam collaborated with the Institute in this project.

To develop a common focus in the preparation of these monographs, a Regional Meeting of Research Nominees from different countries was held at New Delhi from December 18-20, 1969. The meeting suggested that apart from reflecting the unique features of a country’s educational administration, the monograph should also contain background information including relevant historical, cultural, demographic and socio-economic data. It should provide the constitutional set-up of the country, its national policy on education and major educational legislation passed by it together with the structure and system of education. Details were required of the organization of educational administration including institutional administration at various levels,
personnel administration together with organization of educational services such as curriculum development, preparation of textbooks and the conduct of examinations. Adequate information should be given on educational planning at different levels, finance, research and development, and the recent trends in improving educational administration.

The first drafts of the monographs were received from Iran, Japan, Republic of China, and Thailand. Correspondents from Afghanistan, Republic of China, Iran, Japan, Khmer Republic, Laos, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand, and Republic of Vietnam continued to keep the Institute posted with the latest developments in the field of educational planning and administration in their respective countries. Such collaborations were an essential part of the Institute’s activities.

In keeping with the aim that the Institute should provide training in the field of education, a Senior Fellowship Programme had been instituted in 1967 for second level training. The fellowship was designed to provide an opportunity to selected educational planners, administrators and others engaged in teaching and/or research in educational planning and administration to spend three to six months at the Institute studying special aspects of educational planning or administration generally, or with particular reference to a select country or region. For example, the Institute worked with the Indonesian authorities in their national programme of training educational administrators to implement major education reforms and organize a special two-month training course for Indonesian educational administrators during March-April, 1972. It was assisted by Mr. Kresno, a Special Assistant to the Chairman, Office of Educational Development, Ministry of Education and Culture, Djakarta (Indonesia), who joined the Institute during that period. The objective was to make a special study of the training needs of the educational administrators in Indonesia at the national and provincial levels and to collaborate with the Faculty in the organization of the course.

National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators
Apart from its studies and activities with the Member States of Asia, the Asian Institute had started to emphasize educational issues in India since 1967. This was a prelude to the setting up of the National Staff College for Educational Planners and Administrators (NSCEPA) by the Government of India which was registered on December 31, 1970 but came into effect from March 1, 1971. After it was established, the work being done at the Institute under the Indian Programme was transferred to the Staff College. However the Institute continued to be actively involved in the implementation of the programme. The Staff College was fully financed by the Government of India.

The aims and objects of NSCEPA were to organize pre-service and in-service training, conferences, workshops, meetings, seminars and briefing sessions for senior educational officers of the Central and State Governments and Union Territories; training programmes for teacher-educators and administrators connected with educational planning and management; and orientation programmes and refresher courses for the university and college administrators with the approval of the University Grants Commission. It was to undertake, aid, promote, and coordinate research in various aspects of educational planning and administration, including comparative studies in planning techniques and administrative procedures in the different States of India and in other countries of the world; provide academic and professional guidance to agencies, institutions and personnel engaged in educational planning and administration; offer, on request, consultancy service to State Governments and administration; act as a clearing house of ideas and information on research, training and extension in educational planning and administration services and other programmes; prepare, print and publish papers, periodicals and books in furtherance of these objectives, and to bring out a Journal on Educational Planning and Administration. It could offer fellowships and scholarships in furtherance of the Staff College; and provide, on request, facilities for training and research in educational planning and administration to other countries, especially of the Asian Region. In order to fulfill its mandate, it could collaborate with other agencies, institutions and organizations, including universities, Institutes of Management and Administration and allied institutions in India and Abroad.
The over-all authority of the Staff College vested in its Council consisting of twenty three members presided over by the Union Education Minister. The Director of the Staff College was the ex-officio Member-Secretary. It is evident from the aims and objects of the Staff College that the training of personnel was one of its most vital functions. But, the research component was also strengthened so that it could examine, report and recommend on issues pertaining to education in India at various levels from the district to the State and Union Territories and the Centre. Hence a great expansion of its activities took place as it undertook programmes both on the behalf of different government agencies at all levels, and on its own initiative.

**Orientation Course for Principals of Kendriya Vidyalayas**

The immediate concern of the Staff College at the time of its formation was the Fifth Five Year Plan. There was a need to sensitize educators at all levels with the aims of the Fifth Five Year Plan and the processes required for its implementation. School Principals and Education Officers in the districts had to be made effective stakeholders through orientation and training programmes. To this end, the Staff College organized several programmes. Among others, there were two orientation courses for selected Principals of Kendriya Vidyalayas to acquaint them with the role of their institutions in the national system of education and prepare them for the implementation of the new Fifth Plan programmes.

The main themes covered were Kendriya Vidyalayas and their place in the national system of education; development of Secondary Education since Independence; modern concepts of progressive education; school and community service and the use of mass media in education; personnel and financial management; work experience; in-service education, 10+2+3 pattern which in effect meant twelve years of schooling followed by three years of undergraduate college; vocationalization of secondary education; non-formal education; examination reforms and self-evaluation; physical
education, games and other outdoor activities; school and society; and service and financial rules.

**Orientation Course for Education Officers of Himachal Pradesh**

The Staff College did intense work with the various States of India. For example, in April 1975, it organized an orientation course on the “Modernization of Educational Administration” for District and other Senior Education Officers in collaboration with the state of Himachal Pradesh. The main objectives of the course were to help the participants get a better appreciation of the State’s educational goals in the Fifth Five Year Plan and to see how far were they in harmony with the national objectives of educational development. The idea was to acquaint them with some concepts fundamental to educational planning and administration with particular reference to Himachal Pradesh; prepare them for the implementation of the new programmes such as introduction of the 10+2+3 pattern; vocationalization of secondary education and non-formal education; and familiarize them with the service and financial rules of Himachal Pradesh.

**Internship Programme for Direct Recruits to the Uttar Pradesh Education Service**

Similarly, the Staff College conducted a special two-week training programme for direct recruits to the Uttar Pradesh Education Service in July 1975. Such a programme had been first started in 1974 onward at the request of the Government of Uttar Pradesh. It had three main elements. The first consisted of tutorials on the basic concepts and techniques of educational planning, administration and management; institutional planning; inspection and supervision; and institutional and personnel management. The second was field visits to selected institutions such as NCERT, Ministry of Education, Planning Commission, Central Statistical Organization and the Institute of Applied Manpower Research. The third was guided readings.

**Training Course for State Education Officers from the Northeastern Region**
To meet the needs of the State Governments and Union Territories of the North East, the Staff College conducted a three-month training course in educational planning and administration for twenty four Senior Education Officers. The main objectives were to acquaint the participants with concepts fundamental to educational planning and administration; give them grounding in the basic skills and techniques essential to their functioning as educational planners and administrators; develop their problem-solving abilities and stimulate critical innovative thinking; foster in them proper attitudes conducive to educational planning and development; and associate them as closely as possible with the management of the course so that they could, on return, organize similar programmes in their respective States. In addition to Educational Planning, Statistics, Administration and Organization, Comparative Education and Practical Work, there were four Director’s seminars on Problems of Higher Education; Status of Teachers; Planning for Higher Education; and Problems of Tribal Education.

One of the important features of the course was its participatory nature. The participants themselves managed it by constituting an eight-member Steering Committee from amongst them. In addition, they formed a Hostel Committee to look after their hostel arrangements and an Editorial Committee for the documentation of the course reports. A similar programme was held for Education Officer of Haryana from October 25 to November 3, 1976 and for those from Rajasthan from November 8 to 20, 1978.

**All India Conference of District Education Officers (DEOs)**

For the first time, the pivotal role of the District Education Officers (DEOs) in educational planning and administration was recognized. Hence the Staff College brought together all the DEOs from the various States and Union Territories at a Conference held at New Delhi from March 6-8, 1976. The main objectives were to prepare the participants for the implementation of the new Fifth Plan programmes such as the introduction of a uniform pattern of 10+2+3 throughout the country vocationalization of secondary education at the +2 stage; and the introduction of non-formal education.
Some states had already implemented this pattern and the Conference provided an opportunity to the officers from those States to share their experiences with the participants from the other States.

**All India Survey of Educational Administration**

A first of its kind, the Staff College undertook an All India Survey of Educational Administration in various States and Union Territories. Its main objective was to find out the current status of educational administration at various levels – National, State and District – and on the basis of the findings, recommend how educational administration could be strengthened and modernized. It described the existing set up and the functioning of the government machinery for educational administration at various levels. It then analysed the data to bridge the gap between planning and implementation.

For the purpose of the survey, UNESCO’s definition of education was adopted. It was supposed to be “organized and sustained instruction designed to communicate a combination of natural skills and understanding valuable for all activities of the life”. The scope of the survey was the governmental set up for education from pre-primary to the collegiate; all modalities of instruction, formal and non-formal full-time and part-time; and the various governmental and non-governmental activities in the field of general education.

**Educational Administration as a System**

Educational administration was regarded as a system with some functions to perform and certain objectives to achieve. To that end, a brief study of the administrative set up and its functions at district and block levels was undertaken. Extending the management approach, it was also examined whether the system responded to concepts like the setting of the goals of education, review, feedback and innovation.
One of the distinguishing features of the survey was that it was planned in close collaboration with and done with the active cooperation with the Governments and Union Territory Administrations from the very beginning. The draft questionnaires were widely circulated among the States and Union Territories and were finalized in the light of whatever comments and suggestions received.

**Development of Education in Sikkim**

One of the objectives of the Staff College was to offer, on request, consultancy services to State Governments and other educational institutions. Hence, once Sikkim joined the Indian Union as the 22nd State on May 16, 1975, Professor Nurul Hassan, the Union Education Minister asked Mr. Veda Prakash, the Acting Director of the Staff College to go to Sikkim to study at first hand, the educational problems of the State. Based on that he could recommend strategies for the future development of education in Sikkim with special reference to the role that the Staff College could play in their implementation. Consequently, a Report entitled ‘Extending Educational Opportunity in Sikkim – A Report on the State’s School System with Special Reference to Administration,’ was produced and submitted to the Union Education Minister on July 31, 1975.

**Collaboration with International Agencies: Second Group Training Course in Educational Planning**

The Staff College collaborated with the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok in organizing and hosting the second phase of the programme of the Second Group Training Course in Educational Planning from November 1- December 5, 1975. The main objective was to sufficiently prepare a team of participants from each country who could organize and conduct training programmes in educational planning and management at the national level in their own countries.
Apart from the usual lecture-discussions, panel discussions and tutorials in which the faculty of the Staff College also participated, the main focus of the programme was a practical exercise in preparing a suggested Five Year Plan for the improvement of quality of education at the school level. For this the Gurgaon District in the State of Haryana was taken as a sample. It involved a thorough study of the educational system of both the State and the District; a diagnostic analysis of the educational problems; formulation of plan proposals for qualitative improvement; drafting the report on the plan; and presenting it to the District Education Officials of Haryana for their critical evaluation and reactions.

The practical exercise, planned in close collaboration with the Education Officers of the Government of Haryana, used role-playing as a device to understand the different facets of educational planning and implementation. All the participants were divided into two groups which assumed roles of the Director, Deputy Director for Planning, and a number of specialists such as academic supervisors, curriculum specialists, teacher educators, statisticians, school building experts, and financial advisers to understand the challenges and the functioning at various levels.

New Dimensions

Apart from continuing the on-going programmes which had largely dealt with school education, the Staff College broke new ground by organizing training programmes in the areas of university and higher education and education for rural development.

Training Programmes for Principals of Colleges

Three programmes were organized for principals of colleges in Jammu and Kashmir; in Haryana, and the colleges affiliated to the North-Eastern Hill University to promote better appreciation of the role of a principal as an agent of change in the development of an institution. These were from August 2 – 13, 1976; January 27 – February 5 1977; and from February 7 – 12, 1977 respectively.
The main focus in all the three programmes was on acquainting senior education administrators with the current trends and main challenges in the field of higher education in India and abroad. The idea was to emphasize upon them that they were agents of change in areas of institutional and faculty development, planning, student welfare and other institutional aspects. They were not only to be made aware of rules and regulations but also of modern management techniques and their application to education administration. The broad themes that they considered were the 10+2+3 pattern, the development of higher education in India since independence and its challenges, and the role of the University Grants Commission (UGC). Pedagogical aspects, issues of teacher evaluation, faculty development, examination reforms, participation of students in administration and the relevant rules and regulations, all formed part of the discussions. Other related areas for consideration were world trends in higher education and the application of modern management techniques to education administration.

Training Programmes in Financial Management

The National Staff College recognized the pivotal role of financial management in educational planning and administration. Hence it collaborated with the Faculty of Management Studies, University of Delhi to organize two short orientation courses for finance officers of universities at New Delhi. The response was so enthusiastic that the first training programme held from May 31 to June 11, 1976 had to be limited to finance officers from twenty-four universities in India. This necessitated another programme for the second batch of twenty-three finance officers from July 5 to 15, 1976.

The main objectives of the programme were to enable the participants to appreciate the role of education in general and the role of higher education in particular in the socio-economic development of the country. The aim was to develop in them a better comprehension of the existing system of financial administration in the Indian universities and to facilitate its systematic review particularly in the context of the changing dimensions of higher education in India. For this, they had to be assisted in
identifying and understanding the newer role and responsibilities of the finance function in Indian universities and in assessing its impact on academic programmes. Finally, the idea was to promote an awareness of the techniques of modern management in general and of modern financial management in particular, especially from the point of their application in educational administration.

The main theme for discussion was higher education and planning for quality. Then there were issues directly related to the financial management of universities like the role and responsibilities of finance officers; financing of higher education; grants-in-aid by State Governments to universities; system of financial administration; accounting as a tool in management; revenue planning and monitoring; financial aspects of planning higher education; financial Management – concepts and techniques; cash flow analysis; model budgeting and the budget process in universities; and delegation of authority in universities.

Besides the usual lecture-discussions, there were two panel-discussions on the Role and Functions of Finance Officers and the Problems of Financial Administration. A practical exercise on the application of cash flow analysis was also included in curriculum. The model budget proforma circulated by the UGC was discussed threadbare in many sessions so that the participating finance officers should have no difficulty with it. One full session was devoted to discussions with the Secretary, UGC, to clarify various issues. The participants were also requested to present a paper on the “System of Financial Administration” in their respective universities. These presentations were followed by discussions and clarifications.

Central In-service Training Course

Statistical analysis had long been recognized as a key element in educational planning and administration. Therefore, at the request of and in collaboration with the Union Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, the Statistics and Information Division of the Staff College organized a training programme in Educational Statistics for
Statistical Officers-in-Charge in Education Directorates of States and Union Territories at New Delhi from June 21-26, 1976.

The main objectives of the programme were to enable the participants to appreciate the role of up-to-date statistical data in educational planning, and to acquaint them with the different features of the revised forms of collection of annual educational data from the States together with the background as well as the prospect of the revision. The main themes for discussion were the role of statistics in educational planning; new methods and techniques of projection; problems of data collection and organization of statistics; revised system of collection of educational statistics and various forms of data collection; and problems of State governments in collection and consolidation of educational statistics.

Seminar for Education Officers from the Northeastern Region

The importance of the northeastern region was gradually fore-grounded and special emphasis was given to educational activities in this region. Hence a three-month training course was conducted from January 1 to March 31, 1976, in educational planning and administration for the Education Secretaries and Directors of Public Instruction of the States and Union Territories in the Northeast. A number of important problems common to all the States and Union Territories in the region came up for consideration. It was felt, therefore, that it would be useful to place these problems in a seminar before the Secretaries and Directors of Public Instruction of the States and Union Territories in the region. The subjects suggested were problems of school buildings; special problems of tribal education; introduction of the 10+2+3 pattern and its ensuing challenges; and the strategy for non-formal education. Other issues taken up were those relating to personnel and procedures in educational planning and plan implementation; identification of areas for joint or coordinated action in the region; and the support expected from the National Staff College.
In addition, some States in the region and the North-Eastern Council wanted their particular problems discussed. Manipur was concerned about the question of tribal dialects and training of teachers. In fact the Council itself wanted to concentrate on the training of middle level technical personnel such as engineering diploma holders, nurses and other para-medical personnel. Nagaland’s challenges were pre-primary education in the absence of any competent private organization to look after it. There were also issues pertaining to the vocationalizing of the “+2 stage” in a place like Nagaland which did not have sufficient industry. Even the cottage industry was not organized and commercial undertakings and establishments did not exist.

**Training Programme for Lakshadweep**

In collaboration with the Union Territory of Lakshadweep the Staff College organized a training programme in Educational Planning and Administration for Heads of Secondary and Senior Basic Schools at Kavaratti from November 26 to December 2, 1976. The main objectives of the programme were to make the participants aware of the basic concepts and practices in educational administration and planning; become conversant with the financial and administrative rules of the Education Department of Lakshadweep; and formulate institutional plans for implementation in the concerned schools.

The main themes for discussion were recent educational developments in India with special reference to educational objectives; basic concepts in educational planning; qualitative improvement in education and institutional planning; classroom experiments; teaching of science and mathematics; problems of educational development in Lakshadweep; the school and the community; the role of headmaster in school management; administrative and financial rules; supervision, inspection and evolution of teaching; preparation programme at school level; and supervision, inspection and evaluation of teaching.
Orientation Programme for NSS

Since National Service Scheme was considered important for nation building through the involvement of the youth in developmental activities, the Staff College at the behest of the Union Ministry of Education and Social Welfare collaborated with the Delhi School of Social Work University of Delhi, to organize a training programme for the key personnel of the National Service Scheme (NSS) at New Delhi during February 14-17, 1977. The main objectives were to give an opportunity to the key personnel involved in the implementation of the NSS to exchange ideas; discuss the concept, policy and programmes of the NSS; and consider its organizational and administrative aspects including supervision, cooperation and coordination, monitoring, and evaluation.

The main themes for discussion were the development of youth programmes in India including those developed under the NSS; and contribution of the youth in national development. Further, organizational and administrative activities were taken up like reporting and record-keeping; the role of various functionaries under NSS at different levels; supervision, co-operation and co-ordination under the NSS; and audit and accounts under the NSS.

National Seminar and Conference on Education for Rural Development

The need to spread education to all parts of the country was urgently felt as the rural areas were obviously under-served. It was imperative for all sections of society to have opportunities to access quality education. This had been a key concern that had been repeatedly emphasized at every course and seminar at the Staff College. The educational system in India, as in many other countries in the Asian Region, by and large continued the inherited colonial system and was highly elitist in its orientation. Therefore the educated rural youth, in spite of all the drawbacks of urban slums, preferred to migrate to the cities and towns. UNESCO, through its Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development (ACEID), Bangkok, made special efforts to draw the attention of the Member States in the region to the need to forge closer links between
education and rural development. While the initiative came from UNESCO, it fitted so well into India’s own national priorities and development strategies that the Government of India decided to convene a National Seminar-Conference on the subject and entrusted the responsibility of organizing it to the Staff College.

Consequently the National Seminar-Conference was held from December 15 to 20, 1976 in New Delhi. It was a sequel to the preparatory meeting held in Jakarta earlier (August 24-28, 1976) in which six countries – Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Nepal, and the Philippines – had participated. They had drawn up guidelines for the national workshops in preparation for the Regional Advanced Level Workshop to be held at New Delhi from March 17 to 26, 1977 after the National Seminar was over.

A twenty-member Steering Committee was formed with Prof. M.V. Mathur, Director, National Staff College as Chairman, to draw up the work plan and to select the participants for the National Seminar and Conference. The Committee felt that the programme had to be organized in two phases. In the first phase a National Seminar had to be held in which the Education Commissioners of the State Governments also needed to participate as they were mainly responsible for implementing the programme. About a hundred persons attended the National Seminar-Conference.

The overall aim of the National Seminar and the Conference was to understand and recommend to the concerned authorities how education could be better managed to contribute more effectively to rural development, especially through better inter- and intra-agency coordination at various levels of plan formulation and implementation. The terms of reference were clearly spelt out. It was realized that it was necessary to make the participants understand that development and education were complementary and mutually reinforcing. For this the key role of education in development would have to be demonstrated to them through an analysis of selected projects. This would make them comprehend the need for inter-agency coordination at various levels of plan formulation and implementation. Therefore an analysis of projects would have to be done to show the existing linkages between the various agencies and to examine the bottlenecks in their
effective coordination. Recommendations would have to be made on how functioning could be improved at all levels and how better coordination and cooperation could be secured within individual agencies and among different agencies. Obviously, the role of the change agent was important especially at the community level, and so recommendations on how he could discharge his functions more effectively through better coordination with other agencies were needed. Also there had to be streamlining of procedures and delegation of authority to encourage the community and the field agencies maximum possible initiative and flexibility of approach. Finally an action plan had to be developed so that accepted innovations could be immediately taken by the various agencies involved. Priority would have to be given to action at the community level.

Two states, Orissa and Gujarat were selected for organizing local seminars as had been settled at Jakarta. One seminar way held at Keonjhar Garh, one of the most backward districts in Orissa on December 8, 1976. The second was at Ahmedabad in Gujarat on December 2-3, 1976. These seminars were to identify problems of implementation and report the findings to the National Seminar.

The National Seminar was inaugurated by Prof. M.V. Mathur, Director of the National Staff College and was followed by a presentation of each segment of the total developmental spectrum by a well-known expert. Six working groups were set up to go into the various aspects of the subject. School Education for Rural Development; Higher Education for Rural Development; Non-formal Education for the Youth and Adults; Mass Media for Rural Development; Role of Voluntary Organizations in Education for Rural Development; and Inter-agency and Intra-agency Coordination and Cooperation for Rural Development.

The Working Groups prepared their respective reports which formed the working papers for the National Conference whose main focus was to chisel the recommendations of the seminar and make them acceptable as part of national policy. The Report of the National Seminar-Conference was published as “Education for Rural Development”.
Advanced Level Workshop on Education for Rural Development

An Advanced Level Workshop on Education for Rural Development was organized jointly by NSCEPA, New Delhi and the ACEID, Bangkok with the Government of India acting as the host from March 17 to 26, 1977. The aim was to make the idea of linking education with rural development universally acceptable. The subject had to be discussed at the Central Advisory Board of Education and a national policy in this regard had to be formulated. While several committees were suggested to coordinate the whole effort, NCERT was asked to develop a subject group to focus attention on rural development and promote coordinated research on the various aspects of the problem.

The main aim of the workshop was to provide an opportunity to the participating States to strengthen their capacities for managing innovative education programmes for rural development through technical cooperation among themselves. It brought together thirty one participants from six countries who represented diverse disciplinary backgrounds and who came from several agencies concerned with rural development, in their respective countries. It was the final phase in a series of activities discussing the management of education for rural development that had been going on for over a year. The National Workshops had already been held in the participating countries. The highlights of their reports were discussed in the plenary session. This was followed by the preparation of reports by each national group separately: inter-departmental and intra-departmental coordination and collaboration; identification of change agents; training of change agents; identification of the real needs of rural communities and their participation in development; and problems and strategies for managing education for rural development.

On the completion of this exercise, three inter-country groups of the Workshop were established to reflect on the problems and issues in respect of the six themes and to synthesize their experiences. The reports of these groups were considered in the plenary. The inter-country groups met again to review and revise their reports on the six themes,
taking into account the discussions held and the suggestions made in the plenary. The national groups were requested to prepare reports on the follow up action at the national level and in respect of continuing inter-country collaboration in the area of education for rural development. The report of the Workshop was brought out by the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia, ACEID, Bangkok.

**Increasing Activity**

The latter half of the 1970s saw significant widening in the functioning and organization of the National Staff College. Several new programmes and activities in educational planning and administration were added. For example the first correspondence course in Education Planning and Management for Senior Education Officers was organized in association with the UNESCO Regional Office of Education for Asia and Oceania, Bangkok. The primary aim and main objectives of the course were to familiarize participants with the latest trends in education planning and management; acquaint them with the developments in the field of education in India in the post-independence period; make them aware of the latest trends particularly in educational planning and management; develop in them the required attitudes, skills and knowledge to improve their technical competence and effectiveness as educational planners and administrators; and introduce them to a process of self-learning to enable their continuing professional growth.

The course was divided into two parts. One was the Correspondence Phase, and the second, the Contact Programme. The Correspondence Phase extended over six months and covered areas such as the Review of Educational Planning and Administration in India; Principles and Techniques of Educational Planning; Statistics required for Educational Planning; Economics of Education; and the Basic Principles and Techniques of Modern Management with Particular Reference to their Applicability to Educational Administration.
In view of the large number of participants, the first contact programme was organized in two batches from August 17 to 23, 1977 and from August 27 to September 2, 1978. Thirty-one persons participated in the first batch and 25 in the second. The main objectives of the contact programme were to enable the participants to meet the authors of lesson units for clarification, elaboration or elucidation of ideas; interact with their tutors in regard to their assignments; and exchange views about the difficulties experienced by them so that the course could be made more responsive to their needs. The participants were required to submit five assignments on any five books of their choice or three assignments and a term paper. The Second Contact Programme was organized from February 27 to March 3, 1979. Forty participants who had completed their assignments and term papers were invited to participate in it.

Apart from training, several very important seminars and workshops were held to show the vital role of education in the emerging global village. A National Training Seminar on Methods for Projecting School Enrolment was organized in collaboration with the Office of Statistics, UNESCO (Paris). Its main aim was to acquaint the participants with methods of analysing and projecting school enrolment.

Again, a seminar was organized on the Contribution of Education to the New International Order jointly with the IIEP, Paris, and the UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok. Thirty-two professional experts from Bangladesh, Hungary, Korea, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Yugoslavia, and India participated. The predominant theme of discussion was the relationship between education and equality, and employment and rural development.

Many important suggestions emerged. It was accepted that no single unique model of development was acceptable to all nations. Adequate attention had to be given to establish a new international order based on equity, justice, freedom and self-reliance. Each country had to realize that it not only had an obligation to its own people but also to all human beings which could only be fulfilled through cooperation and mutual support. For this the education system at all levels had to play a role in creating strong public
opinion in favour of the new economic order and clarify ideas on it while the elite needed to take the lead in creating the necessary climate for it. Priority had to be given to universal elementary education and the controlled expansion of higher education. A proper environment was required for experimenting with the innovations reflected in the Asian Programme for Educational Innovation and Development (APEID). Each country could consider whether it needed to review its educational policy so as to bring about a basic change in its educational infrastructure to make it more effective. There was need for equitable distribution of wealth and power and the abolition of the economic monopoly of the developed countries. An educational policy aimed at equality had to be given priority in national allocations to primary and adult education. The basic approach to the creation of a new international order should be to change attitude through education.

**Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace**

At the request of the Indian National Commission, the Staff College undertook a study to ascertain the current position regarding the promotion of international understanding, cooperation and peace through educational programmes from the pre-primary level to higher education. It examined the role of the UNESCO – Associated Schools and the expanded programme of the Indian National Commission. To do so, it analysed the syllabi and the methods of teaching for fostering international understanding among the school and college students. It also made a detailed study of education codes and manuals. A specially designed questionnaire was administered to the administrative functionaries supplemented by interviews and observations of their functioning. The plan of action suggested in the study included the need for direct reference to the promotion of international understanding and appreciation of human rights and fundamental freedoms and the revitalizing of UNESCO- Associated School Project. This was also one of the general aims of education in the revised National Policy Resolution on Education.

**Collaboration with USEFI**
At the request of the United States Educational Foundation in India (USEFI) the NSCEPA organized a three-day seminar on ‘Some Aspects of Administration of Higher Education” for a selected group of college principals who had recently visited the USA under USEFI’s Administrators Project, 1978. The main objectives of this seminar were to enable the participants to exchange their experience with each other with regard to the current trends in the development of higher education in India and the USA; help them identify areas of higher education in India, particularly with reference to affiliated colleges, for introducing meaningful changes; and consider introduction of feasible educational innovations within the existing resources.

It also organized a four-week Workshop in Indian History and Culture for Supervisors and curriculum Directors of Social Sciences from the USA. The main objectives of the workshop were to study the different aspects of Indian history and culture; familiarize the participants with the main trends in education and changing patterns of development in India; improve their understanding of the historical currents and cross-currents of modern India so that they could make the teaching of Indian history and cultures better in the US schools; and to further mutual understanding with the help of Indian scholars.

**Orientation Training Programme for School Principals Proceeding to the UK**

The NSCEPA designed and conducted an Orientation Programme for Principals proceeding to the UK in consultation with the Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE). Eight principals from various parts of the country participated in the programme. The main objectives of the orientation programme were to upgrade the knowledge of the participants about innovations in Indian education and help them to identify management problems, including those that might arise out of the implementation of the far reaching recommendations of Ishwarbhai and Adiseshiah Committee reports on school education in the mid 1976.
The main themes were innovations in India School system including flexibility in the choice of vocations with reference to a district or a group of districts; micro planning at district level; socially useful productive work with reference to Ishwarbhai Patel Committee’s Report; human relations in schools; principals as supervisors; vocationalization at the + 2 stage with reference to Malcolm S. Adiseshiah Committee’s Report; educational technology; the new horizons in Indian educational planning, and school and community relations.

**Summing Up**

The 1970s was declared as the Second Developmental Decade. This was logical as expansion of knowledge was both required and was also ceaselessly happening. It was because of this realization that the importance of life-long education was stressed upon and remains significant even today. The main objective was to acquaint educational administrators and planners with the theories and concepts of modern management; make them aware of the application of some of the modern management techniques to administration in general and to educational administration in particular; create receptivity for trying out some of these techniques; and to promote studies and research in the application of modern management techniques to educational administration, particularly in the developing countries of the Asian Region.

The awareness of education as a tool of social transformation meant that there was a need to inculcate a commitment to or identification with fellow human beings. However, expansion alone could not solve the problem. It was not even a matter of improving standards as in some countries these were very good. The key problem was the widening gap between what the education system was supposed to do and what it was delivering. Society was rapidly changing and with it the expectations from education were also changing. This led to a universal demand for adopting unorthodox methods to improve the education and meet the emerging needs.
The expenditure on Education in India increased by about 10 to 15 per cent a year in the 1960s and 1970s whereas the national income grew at about half that rate. Hence it was becoming increasingly difficult to find additional money for educational development. While money decreased, demands on education continuously increased. This was true for all the countries of the world for different reasons. It gave rise to a feeling throughout the world that some new approaches to educational planning were required so that resources could be matched with the essential needs. It made education planning, administration and finances very important and developing countries needed it more than the developed countries as they had a scarcity of resources.

Education could not be a matter of mere expansion as education without quality was useless. All efforts had to be made to improve standards of education at various levels and to keep educational policy makers, planners and implementers continuously abreast of the developments taking place at a rapid pace. This comprehensive educational revolution was not an easy task. It required new and effective knowledge about educational development through research and experimentation; an efficient system of educational planning and administration to engineer it into existence; the investment of immense additional resources; a national commitment together with vigorous and sustained effort; and of crucial importance, a large band of dedicated teachers. Such an effort was particularly vital to Asia because more than half of the population of the world resided here.

Far reaching changes in the content and structure had to be made to make it wider, more flexible and diverse. It meant a thorough revision and upgrading of curricula, adoption of new methods of teaching and evaluation, the full use of modern techniques and mass media, and the preparation of thousands of competent teachers committed to national goals in the pursuit of knowledge and excellence and the welfare of students. It was necessary to develop and extend the teaching of science and technology to a larger percentage of students to ensure that the middle and higher grade technical staff and research workers which the Asian countries needed were trained. Also, the populations
as a whole had to be helped to understand and master the environment for which scientific and technological thought provided the key.

A pre-condition for any kind of fruitful innovation was improved management at every level. Unless the educational systems were well equipped with appropriately trained modern managers, who in turn had good information flows, modern tools of analysis, research and evaluation, and were supported by well-trained teams of specialists, the transition of education from its semi-handicraft state to a modern condition was not likely to happen.

This task assumed the highest priority in the national development plans for the seventies. Every nation in Asia would have to accept the challenge and meet it in a way best suited to its own needs and resources. However, all such national efforts could be augmented through regional co-operation as that would enable mutually beneficial exchange of experiences. Probably that was why comprehensive educational planning had become widely accepted as vital to the orderly and efficient development of education. UNESCO had declared educational planning to be one of its top priorities and had developed its programmes, mainly through ministers’ conferences and technical meetings, by supplying educational planning experts to more than eighty countries, and by establishing regional and international training and research centers. Regional organizations and national institutions had also contributed substantially to the development of new concepts and methodologies in educational planning.

The Asian Institute had tried to train personnel at different levels. It had also constantly emphasized the importance of planning and administration in order to effectively make education accessible to as many as possible. As the Institute transformed into the National Staff College, not only did its training activities increase but also the research expanded and widened.

However, more changes were on the way. Prof. Mathur who had taken over the reigns of the Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration on July 25, 1968
and presided over its merger with the National Staff College in 1972, was now to oversee its metamorphosis with the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) in 1978, before he retired on October 3, 1980, paving the way for the advent of Prof. Moonis Raza on May 1, 1981.
Chapter III

ESTABLISHING NIEPA AND A PERSPECTIVE PLAN

In 1978, a major re-structuring of the NSCEPA took place. Even its name was changed to become the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA). The Council at its meeting held on August 10, 1977 constituted a committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Haribhau Joshi, the then Education Minister of Madhya Pradesh, with Dr. Prem Kirpal and Mr. P. Sabanayagam the then Union Education Secretary, as members, and Director, NSCEPA as Member-Secretary to consider amendments to the Rules of the Staff College and make suitable recommendations. The Committee considered the matter in a meeting held on November 14, 1977 and recommended certain amendments to the Memorandum of Association and Rules of the Staff College. Those were approved by the Council at its special meeting held on October, 19, 1978. NIEPA was registered on May 31, 1979. Its logo was designed by Mr. Suhrid Mukhopadhyay the then Chief Visualizer of the Directorate of Advertising & Visual Publicity (DAVP), Government of India at the request of Prof. Moonis Raza, Director in 1981-82 after it was approved by the Executive Committee. The first logo was printed on the Annual Report of 1982-83.

The main amendments as approved by the Council were a change in nomenclature and structure. The Staff College metamorphosed into the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA). Its membership was increased from 20 to 27 by adding six eminent educationists interested in educational planning and administration together with a member of the faculty. The President was to be nominated by the Government of India for a specified term and the Director of NIEPA would be the Vice-President. He was also the Chairman of the Executive Committee. The term of office of the Member of the Faculty of NIEPA was fixed for two years while the tenure of non-official members was for three years. A Programme Advisory Committee was
constituted to go into the various training and research programmes and other academic activities.

**Organs of Policy Frame**

**Council**

The apex body of the Institute was the Council headed by the President of NEIPA. Its function was to further the objectives of the Institute and exercise general supervision on all its affairs. The Director of NIEPA was its Vice-President. The Registrar of the Institute was the Secretary of the Council. The other members were:

- Chairman, University Grants Commission
- Four Secretaries to the Government of India (Education, Finance, Planning Commission and Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms)
- Director, National Council of Educational Research and Training
- Six Education Secretaries (Five from States and one from a Union Territory)
- Six Directors of Education (Five from States and one from a Union Territory)
- Six Eminent Educationists
- All members of the Executive Committee
- One member of the NIEPA Faculty

**Executive Committee**

The administration and management of the affairs of the Institute was to be done by the Executive Committee with the Director as its Chairman, and the Registrar its Secretary. It consisted of seven members that included nominees of the Secretaries of the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Finance and Planning Commission, one Education Secretary of State, one eminent educationist and the Executive Director of the Institute. The Committee functioned through the Finance, Programme Advisory and Publication Advisory Committees. The Executive Committee was responsible for the appointment of
staff, allocation of funds, approval of budget, acquisition of property, approval of programmes and other academic activities.

**Finance Committee**

The President appointed a Finance Committee under the ex-officio Chairmanship of the Director of the Institute. Its function was to scrutinize the accounts and budget estimates as also to make recommendations to the Executive Committee on proposals for new expenditure.

**Programme Advisory Committee**

The Executive Committee constituted a Programme Advisory Committee to make recommendations regarding training and research, coordinate all plans and programmes of the Institute and examine its academic aspects of the work. The Director was the Chairman of this Committee and the Registrar its Secretary.

**Publication Advisory Committee**

The Executive Committee also constituted a Publication Advisory Committee to recommend on all matters pertaining to the publications to be brought out by the Institute and to coordinate all plans and programmes connected with this.

**UGC Scale of Pay**

The Government of India approved the payment of the UGC scales of pay to the faculty with effect from April 1, 1982 on the recommendations of the Adiseshiah Committee which had given its report in December, 1980. This was an important landmark in the life of the Institute as it was hoped that this would help to attract and retain persons with high caliber. Later on in 1984, it was also decided to give the Registrar, the Librarian and the Documentation officer, the UGC scales of pay.

It was simultaneously decided to re-designate the posts of Fellow, Associate Fellow and Research/Training Associate as Senior Fellow, Fellow and Associate Fellow
respectively. The qualifications for these positions were to conform to those prescribed for the corresponding faculty positions in the university system or to those in the Indian Institute of Public Administration for personnel drawn from administrative cadres. The existing faculty was assessed by a Screening Committee before being given the University Grants Commission scales.

**Delegation of Powers**

Under the regulations of the Institute, the Director and Registrar generally exercised the powers of the Head of the Department and the Head of the Office, respectively, under the Government of India. Most of the administrative and financial matters had to be put up to the Director as the Executive Director did not have any powers and the powers vested in the Registrar were too inadequate. In order to streamline the functioning of the Institute and to relieve the Director of administrative and financial matters it was decided, with the approval of the Executive Committee held in June, 1982, to re-delegate adequate financial and administrative powers to the Executive Director, enhance the powers of the Registrar and re-delegate some powers to the Administrative Officer so that most of the administrative and financial matters could be decided at those levels enabling the Director to concentrate more on important policy and academic matters.

Financial and administrative powers were further delegated to the Dean Training, Heads of Academic Units and the Publication Officer with the approval of the Executive Committee in February 1983. This helped in the smooth functioning of the Institute resulting in quick decision making.

**Implementation of the Official Language Policy**

The Sub-Committee of Parliament on official language visited the Institute under the Chairmanship of Mr. Chiranjit Lal Sharma, M.P. on December 9, 1982 and made suggestions for the effective implementation of the official language policy in the work
of the Institute. The Hindi Cell was created during the year with one post each of an editor, a translator and typist for promoting the use of Hindi in the Institute in its academic activities, day-to-day work and correspondence with the States and the Union Territories. Efforts were also made to purchase more Hindi books for the Library. An Official Language Implementation Committee was set up under the Chairmanship of the Executive Director.

Staff

Up to 1980-81 there was no separate project staff and research activity was undertaken on a limited scale by the cadre faculty staff along with their training responsibilities. From 1981-82, with a thrust in research activity, a separate project staff on consolidated salary was appointed on project to project basis.

Campus

Till 1980, NIEPA did not have a residential complex. It was during Sixth Plan period (1980-85) that a residential complex was built in NIEPA campus. It included 16 Type I quarters, 8 quarters each of Type II, III and V and a Director’s residence. Rules were issued for allotment of quarters and their retention for limited periods after retirement. Sump well and tube wells were built to meet the increasing water requirements of office premises and residential complex.

With the construction of residential units, upgradation and increased occupancy in the Hostel, round-the-year library facilities, horticulture, site development and improved surroundings, the Institute developed into a full-fledged NIEPA Campus.

Academic Structure

The Institute had started with emphasis on training and collaboration with other countries in the Asian region. It continued these activities but a major shift took place as
the role of research gained prominence. The faculty was reorganized as a team of academics and educational administrators, engaged individually in specialized studies of areas and educational challenges and at the same time deployed in groups on particular tasks from time to time. As envisaged in the Perspective Plan, the academic work of the Institute was reorganized into eight Academic Units in October in 1981 to help the Institute develop expertise in specialized areas. This resulted in greater academic involvement and inputs in various training programmes and research. The units were:

1. Educational Planning
2. Educational Administration
3. Educational Finance
4. Educational Policy
5. School and Non-formal Education
6. Higher Education
7. Sub-National Systems
8. International

In 1985-86, the Distance Education and Educational Technology Unit was established. It was created primarily to develop intervention strategies in planning and management of Distance Education and Educational Technology. This was headed by Prof. Marmar Mukhopadhyay. This Unit existed till 1988-81 and NIEPA reverted back to its earlier arrangements of eight Units during 1988-90 when Prof. Marmar Mukhopadhyay was made the Head of Educational Administration Unit.

Up to then there had been three main Divisions, namely, School, Higher Education and Adult Education, each under the charge of one of the three Consultants at the Institute. One Consultant additionally worked as Executive Director. On reorganization, the faculty of the Institute comprising of 30 Senior Fellows, Fellows and Associate Fellows excluding 3 Consultants and 10 Senior Technical Assistants were reorganized into nine Academic Units. Eight Academic Units were headed by Senior Fellows and one by a Fellow. Two Consultants other than the Executive Director, were designated as Dean (Training) and Dean (Research) to coordinate training and research.
activities and help the Director in these areas. Additionally, Task Forces and Committees were constituted and the Project Staff was appointed.

1. Educational Planning Unit

Educational Planning had two broad dimensions. First, it dealt with bi-directional linkages of education with other socio-economic sectors. Second, it helped in the appraisal of the performance of the educational sector and determined strategies for realization of its goals. The effort was to study both these aspects in detail to bring out their policy implications in an integrated manner. Its work played an important role in the interface between the Ministry of Education and the Planning Commission as it assisted in developing expertise both for scenario building and for the more rigorous area of systems analysis and modeling taking the educational system as a sub-system of the social system.

Studies and training in the area of educational planning tried to analyse and provide linkages between education, demography, training, and employment. It also looked at inter-sectoral linkages in society, projection of human resource requirements in educational planning and regional and institutional planning in the educational sphere. The activities of the Unit focused on education under the various Plans, multi-level planning and long-range futuristic studies based on quantitative models and techniques. It took the initiative in organizing discussions with senior educational administrators in the States to help with the preparation of the Seventh Five-Year Plan.

At the time of its inception itself, the Educational Planning Unit organized a Training Programme for the Officers of Papua New Guinea, a Workshop on Input-Output Techniques in the context of Educational Planning, a Consultative Meeting on National Merit Examination, and a Training Programme on Long Term Educational Planning in Metropolitan Cities.

2. Educational Administration Unit
Modernization of educational administration to meet the challenges of existing responsibilities and the new tasks that emerge from time to time is a continuous process. While efforts have to be made for structural improvement of the administrative systems, quicker results in the immediate future can be obtained through the functional improvement of existing systems including personnel management and the morale of the institutions.

Improving the efficiency of educational administration through professional growth of educational administrators was one of the prime concerns of the Institute. The Educational Administration Unit, through its various programmes of training, research and other activities tried to strengthen the capabilities of educational administrators both at the institutional and the super-institutional levels. While on the one hand, it helped to modernize the educational administrative machinery, on the other, it tried to develop the required managerial skills in the educational administrators so that they could cope with the newer demands and newer challenges of the society in general and educational development in particular. Special stress was laid on areas like institutional management, delegation, leadership, decision making, motivation, communication, management of time, resolution of conflicts, innovations and change, human resource development and personnel and institutional evaluation relevant to the field of education.

3. Educational Finance Unit

Rapid population growth and phenomenal expansion of education at all stages led to serious constraint on the availability of finances. The emphasis in the development of education in the Sixth Five Year Plan was on the optimum utilization of existing facilities and resources, mobilization of additional resources and reducing wastages in expenditure. Effective management of educational finance was therefore considered significant.

The Educational Finance Unit accordingly engaged itself in the training and strengthening of the capacities of the Finance Officers in the State Departments of
Education and the universities. Its mandate was to familiarize them with the latest developments and trends in education and acquaint them with modern methods and techniques of financial management. It developed their knowledge and skills in areas like PPBS, Resource Utilization, Monitoring of Expenditure, and Non-monetary Inputs for Educational Development.

4. Educational Policy Unit

The major concern of the Government in the post-independence period was to increase attention on education as a vital factor in national progress. It continuously strove to provide access to education to all, transform the educational system to relate it to the needs of society and to raise the quality of education. Educational facilities were to be provided in rural and other backward areas and for the education of girls, scheduled tribes and the physically handicapped.

The Educational Policy Unit therefore was to address itself to some of the important issues of educational policy in India and the Third World. It undertook research studies on such areas as, Theories and Goals of Education, The inter-relationship between Education and Development, Regional Disparities in Education, Education and the Quality of Life, Education and Equality, and other related subjects. The idea was to generate discussion on matters such as Concurrency in Education and National Integration and to put them in a proper perspective. Emphasis was to be laid on the efficient management of incentives for the deprived and so a special project on Education of the Scheduled Castes in the country was taken up.

5. Social and Non-Formal Education Unit

The School and Non-formal Education Unit were to engage in the various problems and issues involved in the management of school and non-formal education. It was to find alternative strategies to solve those problems by arranging the training of officers concerned with school and non-formal education and of school principals. The
attempt was to develop their knowledge, skills and attitudes and improve their professional abilities so that they could achieve the desired results in a planned and systematic manner.

Since India placed a very high priority on the programme of universalization of elementary education, it resulted in the extension of educational opportunity for all with special attention to girls and children belonging to the deprived sections of the community. School education expanded considerably after Independence. It was felt that formal school education would have to be supplemented by the non-formal part-time and own-time education. Thus, the administration of education assumed new dimensions. The programmes of removal of adult illiteracy were also emphasized.

The district as an administrative unit of the Indian polity had a particular vitality because of its ecological homogeneity, dialectal uniformity, and historical continuity. The District Education Officer in charge of educational planning and administration at the crucial level of the district was, in more senses than one, the kingpin of the educational system in India. The Unit set up a course in Planning and Administration for District Education Officers consisting of three months of intensive curricular work at the Institute and three months supervised project work in the district of the education officer’s appointment. It was to be supplemented by short duration seminars and workshops for Education Secretaries, Directors and Deputy Directors of Education and other senior officers.

6. Higher Education Unit

The demand and aspirations of the people for higher education increased manifold in India since Independence. The number of universities, colleges and other institutions of higher learning went up considerably. They produced the bulk of educated and trained human resource. Moreover, colleges and universities, in addition to imparting knowledge, are also required to involve themselves with the developmental activities in the community and provide requisite support through extension services of students and
teachers. The training of Principals of Colleges was, therefore, of particular importance in raising the level of higher education in the country.

The mandate of the Higher Education Unit, therefore was to focus on improving the capabilities of higher education personnel such as College Principals, Coordinators of National Service Scheme, Registrars and other officers of universities, by organizing various training programmes in collaboration with the UGC and other bodies. The emphasis was to be on modern techniques of managing institutions of higher education and dealing with such issues as the role of college principals in the changing situations, techniques of institutional planning and management, management of student services, faculty improvement programmes, autonomous status of colleges, colleges and the community, linkages with other departments and institutions dealing with development, management of examinations, self-evaluation of college and other related matters.

The Unit was also to address itself to and research some of the current issues in the planning and administration of higher education. It had been serving as a Central Technical Unit of the National Commission on Teachers for Higher Education and going into various aspects of teaching and its effectiveness in higher education.

7. **Sub-National Systems Unit**

For effective planning and administration of education, it is essential to study its spatial dimensions particularly in the context of a country like India where differences of growth and development in different regions are quite significant. Even within a State, there are some districts or blocks which are less developed than others and their problems and needs are quite unique in themselves. In view of the plurality of cultures and socio-economic conditions and also because development and planning have to be related to the local environment, a decentralized approach has to be adopted, keeping in view the national goals and strategies.
The Sub-National Systems Unit, accordingly, has to keep its ears to the ground as far as educational developments in the various parts of the country are concerned and help in monitoring and evaluating them. It has to continuously develop specialized field experience and knowledge in respect of the five regions - Northern, North-eastern, North-western, Southern and Western. The Sub-National Systems Unit has to help the Documentation Centre to build up district and State documentation and interface with all the four thematic Units.

Apart from organizing training, research and consultancy with special reference to the regional and State level problems and needs, the Unit also brings the successful experiments and innovation of various States and Union Territories in Educational Planning and Management to the notice of other States and Union Territories by organizing Inter-State Study Visits. It thus promotes cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences. It helps various State Governments and Union Territories to reorganize their Education Departments and strengthen their educational administration.

8. International Unit

The promotion of regional cooperation and international understanding with specialized focus on Educational Planning and Administration was one of the major aims of the Institute. For this, exchange of information, expertise and sharing of existing resources is seen as a necessary step to develop collective self-reliance as a means for self-sufficiency in the countries of the Third World.

Since its very inception, the Institute had been extending cooperation to other Asian and African countries on requests from UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF, and the national governments themselves. The International Unit was to try to meet the growing needs in the area of international cooperation and exchange of views and experiences in educational planning and administration especially among the Third World countries.
It extended the training facilities and provided consultancy to neighbouring South Asian countries and other countries of Asia and Africa region. The aim of these programmes was to assist these countries in developing their indigenous training capacities in educational planning and administration. They served senior educational personnel who could then train other educational functionaries in their respective countries which would then have a multiplier effect.

Structure of NIEPA

Administration and Finance

The Institute was fully financed by the Government of India. It was headed by a President who was nominated by the Government of India. The Director was the Academic and Executive Head of the Institute, assisted by the Executive Director in Administration and Finance. The Administration Division and Accounts Section were headed by the Registrar and the Finance Officer respectively under the overall charge of the Executive Director.

The Institute had inherited a weak administrative set-up consisting of only one Superintendent for entire administration directly reporting to Registrar. The staff was mostly untrained. On the recommendations of a Committee consisting of Deputy Secretary (Planning) and Assistant Financial Advisor of the Ministry of Education and Registrar, NIEPA, the administrative set-up was strengthened and re-organized in 1980. A number of new posts consisting of Administrative Officer, Section Officer, Programme Attendant and Caretaker were created. The Administration Division was re-organized into three functional and viable units each under the charge of a Section Officer: Academic Administration; General Administration and Personnel Administration. Accounts Section was also strengthened by placing it under the charge of a Section Officer.
Academic Administration Section reported directly to the Registrar. The remaining two sections were placed under the charge of Administrative Officer who reported to the Registrar. A Record Room was also set-up preserving old records.

**Administrative Initiatives**

The Institute introduced the system of outsourcing various aspects of its routine functions such as security, cleaning and catering. This enabled it to substantially reduce the number of Class IV employees and at the same time improve the services in these areas.

During 1985, computer application was introduced in administration by programming automatic drawal of increments excepting in the case of Efficacy Bar, regular updates of staffing status, inventory control, various functions in accounting and preparation of annual reports. The Computer applications not only simplified the tasks involved but raised overall functional efficiency.

Training of personnel was vigorously followed as a policy to upgrade functional efficiency in the Institute. In the process, an in-service Training Programme was designed and organized in collaboration with the Institute of Secretariat Training and Management, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms from 14.10.1982 to 25.10.1982 for all the stenographers in the Institute to enable them to properly handle their unit files and correspondence and function as effective unit secretaries. A similar in-service training programme was organized for office functionaries in Administration and Accounts Divisions. A number of staff members were also deputed for cash and accounts training in the Institute of Secretariat Training and Management.

During 1984, an innovative and comprehensive system of office reporting was institutionalized which was broad-based to cover key areas of office functioning in supply and services, estate and personnel and other areas in addition to monitoring the
disposal of receipts. The system greatly helped in toning up the administration and improving the functional efficiency.

An Inter-departmental Review Committee was set up consisting of all civil and electrical CPWD engineers of construction and maintenance divisions from Superintendent to Assistant Engineers levels and Architects. Monthly review meetings were held on fixed dates under the chairmanship of Executive Director/Registrar. These proved to be highly effective in sorting out interdepartmental problems and taking spot decisions so that work could be expedited.

A number of other steps were taken to gear up administration and improve the functional efficiency at the Institute including the rationalization of the filing system, printing of file covers, issue of identity cards, preparation of job description for all posts and preparation of an organogram. Guidelines were issued for retention, review and weeding out of old records. An intercom system was installed to achieve better communication and coordination between sections, officers and faculty. Later on, in 1996 Group Savings Linked Insurance Scheme by Life Insurance Corporation was finalized and introduced in the Institute for the benefit of the staff.

**Frame-work of Rules and Regulations**

There was hardly any frame-work of rules and regulations in NIEPA at the time of its establishment in May, 1979. The Institute continued to follow the draft Service Regulations and Financial Regulations of the National Staff College till the preparation and approval of its own regulations. The decade of nineteen eighties witnessed a slow building up of a strong and comprehensive frame-work of its rules and regulations for proper and efficient functioning of the Institute. These included:

*Service Regulations of NIEPA*
On the recommendations of a Committee consisting of Director as Chairman, Joint Secretary (Planning), Ministry of H.R.D., Financial Advisor, Ministry of HRD and a representative of the Department of Personnel as its members and serviced by Registrar, the Service Regulations of NIEPA were finalized and enforced with effect from May 5, 1990 with the approval of the Government of India. These included recruitment rules, retirement age and benefits, medical facilities, benefit of added years of service in faculty positions, appointments to the positions of Emeritus Professors, Visiting Fellows and National Fellows, grant of Academic Leave, Study Leave and Sabbatical Leave for Faculty members and reservation of vacancies in faculty positions.

**Rules for Appointments to Project Posts**

Detailed procedure and recruitment rules for appointments to project posts were introduced and consolidated salaries fixed for project posts at all levels with qualifications corresponding to equivalent secretarial, technical and faculty positions.

**Guidelines for Research Proposals and Scheme of Assistance for Studies**

In 1984, comprehensive guidelines and check-list were issued for presentation of research proposals and submission of reports of the studies undertaken under the research programme of the Institute.

During 1987, the Scheme of Assistance by NIEPA for studies in the area of educational planning and administration was notified.

**Role of Academic Units**

The Academic Units were expected to function with full responsibility for the development and execution of various training and research programmes and provide consultancy and advisory services in the areas entrusted to them subject to the policies of the Institute and the availability of funds. The Units were expected to plan and schedule
various training and research programmes; consider proposals for advisory and consultancy services; coordinate all programmes within the Institute in their respective areas of functioning as allotted to them; and perform any other duties as may be assigned from time to time.

The Heads of the Units were expected to lead members of the Unit, coordinate their activities and help them in the performance of their duties, convene meetings from time to time to consider, plan and schedule various training and research programmes and other activities of the Unit. They were to exercise necessary supervision of the work of the faculty and other members of the Unit under the general supervision of Director, Executive Directors, and Dean Training.

**Task Forces and Committees**

The Academic Units functioned on long-term continuing basis. Special Task Forces and Committees were constituted by the Director from time to time for specific programmes.

The Project Advisory Committees consisting of experts were constituted for each research project to advise on, suggest and monitor the research projects taken up by the Institute.

An Advisory Board of Research Studies was constituted under the Chairmanship of Director. Among others, it included all the Head of Academic Units and Registrar as its Member-Secretary. The Advisory Board considered the research proposals received under the Scheme of Assistance for Studies.

Besides the cadre staff, there was a floating number of project staff corresponding to different faculty and non-faculty posts for research work depending upon the number of on-going projects and their requirements.
Academic Infrastructure

The academic infrastructure of the Institute consisting of the Library, Documentation Centre, Data Bank, Cartographic Cell and Publication Unit was further developed. An Electronic Data Processing and Reprographic Unit (EDPR Unit) and a Hindi Cell were created to support the growing and multi-faceted programmes and research activities of the Institute.

The Library which may claim to be one of the richest libraries in the field of educational planning and administration in the Asian Region, had over the years developed into a Centre for serious study and learning. Earlier, it used to be opened for limited office hours only and used to be closed on holidays. With a view to develop the NIEPA Library as a Centre for serious learning, it was decided to keep the library open up to late evening hours beyond office timings. It was also felt necessary to provide uninterrupted library services throughout the year by keeping the library open even on holidays excepting national holidays. The facilities in the library too, were significantly upgraded by making it air-conditioned and building cubicles, providing computer and photo-copying facilities and good environment. The Library was also equipped with facilities of micro-films and microfiches and a collection of videos and audio cassettes and films.

The documentation Centre was established in 1982-83 for building substantial documentation on educational planning and administration from all states to district levels. The documents collected included Five Year Plans, Annual Plans and legislation passed in the field of educational planning. Similarly, the Publication Unit, the Cartographic Cell and Hindi Cell provided substantial academic support.

Perspective Plan

The aims and objectives of the National Institute remained the same as that of the National Staff College however, it was realized that in the process of strengthening and
giving a new orientation to the programmes of the Institute, emphasis had to be laid on relating them to the goals and objectives of planned economic development in general and to those of the Sixth Five Year Plan in particular. A Perspective Plan for the Institute was drawn up. This constituted a blueprint for the development of the Institute’s activities and programmes in a phased manner with particular reference to the Sixth Plan some of which were likely to spill over to the Seventh Five Year Plan.

The transformation of the National Staff College into the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration brought about far reaching changes. Prof. Moonis Raza took over as its Director in May 1981, and within a couple of months he got a Perspective Plan of the Institute prepared with a ten-year vision. Done with intensive consultations with the faculty, members of decision-making bodies and experts, it was approved by the Executive Committee on 3rd September 1981. It was very detailed and comprehensive and provided a blueprint for the multi-dimensional growth of the Institute. This included the launching of two prestigious 6-month Diploma Programmes – one of National Diploma for District Education Officers and the other an International Diploma for personnel from Asian, Middle East and African States. It also sought to give a major thrust to research activities; re-structuring of academic structure; and building academic and physical infrastructure – including the development of the campus. It is one of the most important documents prepared by the Institute since its inception and the only perspective plan by it.

The Setting of Aims

It was acknowledged that in nearly two decades of its existence as an apex institution of educational planning and administration, a wide spectrum of training programmes had been developed. The transformation of the National Staff College into a National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration called for strengthening and restructuring of its programmes. It was felt that the time had come for the Institute to concentrate on a few selected training programmes and consolidate them so that a national cadre of educational planners and administrators develops and capabilities are
improved in key areas of educational planning and administration. The Institute should
endeavour to build regional and state capabilities in the field of educational planning and
administration; serve as a clearing house for the dissemination of information relating to
innovative experiences and new advances in this field; build symbiotic links between
impacting and generating knowledge for which basic and applied research in educational
planning and administration would have to be strengthened; evolve a simple and easily
manageable system of national monitoring of educational development and help the
government to administer it; to initiate and encourage informed discussion on educational
issues of national significance; provide consultancy services to central as well as state
governments, universities, boards and other similar organizations in India and abroad;
establish contacts with them and advance academic collaboration especially with
institutions in the countries of the third world.

Emphasis had to be laid on orienting the Institutes plans towards the goals and
objectives of planned economic development in general and to those of the Sixth Five
Year Plan in particular. Not only should the various programmes of the Institute give due
weightage to the educational goals of the plan but should also critically assess the
strategies envisaged in it. This should also form an important element in its curricular,
training and research activities.

Planning and Administration at the District Level

One of the key areas of the Institute’s research-training endeavours was
educational planning and administration at the district level. The district was important
because it was where the macro processes got implemented. Hence at this level the
emphasis shifted from the system of vertical linkages of sectoral planning to horizontal
linkages of regional planning. It was necessary to clearly comprehend this while
planning for education because in it the specific and the universal were intrinsically
linked. Since the District Education Officers in charge of educational planning and
administration in the district were vital. One of the crucial tasks of the Institute was to
plan a six-month pre-induction training programme for the District Education Officers.
Two components were required: three-months of intensive curricular work at the Institute, and three months of supervised project work in the district where the Education Officer was appointed. An annual intake of about 70 DEOs was expected and hence two courses with 35 participants in each were proposed. These would be in addition to the three special three-week in-service orientation programmes for DEOs already in office. These programmes would have to be supplemented by short duration seminars and workshops for Education Secretaries, Directors and Deputy Directors of Education, Directors of State Councils for Educational Research and Training (SCERTs) and other senior officers to develop consensus on major issues of educational policy, planning and administration. Considering the large number of personnel to be covered, appropriate correspondence courses could also be designed. To increase pedagogic effectiveness Audio Visual material and short films could be prepared in collaboration with organizations like the Centre of educational Technology and the Film Institute.

The studies and training programmes would have to be structurally linked with the various developmental agencies and programmes outside the educational system and also coordinated at various levels with the education system itself. For example educational planning had to interact with the District Employment Generation Councils. The faculty of the Institute would, also need live contacts with the district level reality in order to run the training programmes meaningfully, innovatively and creatively. This could be tried out by initiating a long-term research project based on Gurgaon district which looked at institutional costs, universalization of primary education, study of alternative non-formal education system, vocationalization at the higher secondary level, overall improvement in science education, strengthening of vertical and horizontal links within the educational system and the optimum utilization of non-monetary inputs. Similar studies could be done for other districts also as these were required for the training of personnel connected with planning and implementation of educational schemes.

Another major task proposed was to produce “An Atlas of Indian School Education” mapping out selected indicators of educational accessibility quantity, quality
and equity on the basis of district level data. This would be an important aid in the identification and analysis of the spatial dimension of educational development and its bidirectional links with regional development. It was also proposed to bring out a quarterly journal of and for the DEOs to give them a voice and aid them in their task of coordination and team building at various levels.

Further, it was recognized that there were areas of special thrust areas in schooling strategy like population and environmental education or educational strategies for national integration. In order to provide meaningful guidelines in the planning and administration of such programmes, the Institute needed to develop adequate research and training activities in these areas. Some basic training programmes were best undertaken at the Institute itself but others could also be done regionally.

As part of its mandate, the Institute was required to assist the state governments and others to develop appropriate training programmes for personnel at all levels but it was a huge task and the resources were limited. Therefore, a few pace-setting programmes could be organized and the strategy should also be to train the trainers. Further, it could collaborate with other institutions concerned with educational planning and management to conduct joint training programmes, research and case studies to reach a larger number of people.

Planning and Administration at the Collegiate Level

It was recognized that the undergraduate and post graduate colleges produced the bulk of the trained and educated human resource. At one end they were linked to schools and on the other, to the universities. They took higher education to backward and deprived groups. Hence to raise the levels of higher education, the training of Principals was important. The proposal was to run a two month pre-induction training programme for college principals supplemented by three orientation programmes for those already in service each of three week duration. To be effective, the Institute needed to do an ongoing in-depth study of a number of selected colleges. The findings could be factored
into the training programmes especially with reference to regional disparities; availability of higher education to deprived groups; relationship to developing the human resource requirements; institutional costs and utilization of non-monetary inputs. The Institute could bring out “An Atlas of Higher Education” as also a quarterly journal of and for the Principals of colleges. It was noted that many universities had introduced B.Ed. and M.Ed. programmes which would help in diffusing modern methods of planning and administration in the educational system. The Institute had to build bi-directional linkages with such programmes in the universities so as to learn from their experience on the one hand and to improve their theory and practice together with coordinating their endeavours on the other.

Non-formal and Adult Education

The area of non-formal and adult education occupied a crucial place in the educational system. In addition, satellite based programmes had been introduced. Their hardware and software both needed to be looked at. It was time for the Institute to study the planning and administrative requirements of satellite based non-formal educational programmes at primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

Educational Planning

It was felt that after two decades of experience, the Institute had reached a stage when educational planning needed to be given greater emphasis in its work. It had to play a defined role at the interface between the Ministry of Education and the Planning Commission. For this, faculty expertise had to be developed in the area of scenario building and the more rigorous area of modeling, systems analysis and seeing the educational system as a sub-system of the social system.

In order to fulfill these responsibilities, the Institute needed to initiate studies in bi-directional linkages between educational and demographical attributes; projection of human resource requirements in educational planning; critical assessment of investments
in education both public and private and at the different levels of centre, state and local; implications of equity-efficiency dilemma in local policy; and regional and educational planning in the educational sphere.

The work of modeling and scenario building had to be done in three stages for the VII Five Year Plan as had been done earlier for the VI Five Year Plan. Learning from past experience, a series of workshops of a week’s duration could be organized on planning techniques for the officers in charge of planning in the Education Ministry and of education in the Planning Ministry at the state level could be organized in 1982. The idea would be to impart training in methodology and identification of the required database. In 1983, a series of workshops, each of a week’s duration could be held to prepare an actual plan with actual data. And in 1984, a three days workshop could be organized with the participants of the previous two workshops together with the secretaries of education and planning to streamline the documents prepared in 1983. It was also felt that NIEPA should collaborate with Jawaharlal Nehru University in their eight week training programme run at the behest of the Planning Commission on state level planning for senior officers of the states.

**Monitoring and Evaluation**

In order to effect short term corrections and even long term changes, constant monitoring and evaluation was needed. Monitoring, of course, was to be done by the government but NIEPA could help in preparing a benchmark study on Indian Education, 1980; selection of suitable indicators of accessibility, quantity, quality and equity; establishment of an efficient monitoring system based on the speedy flow of data relating to the selected indicators; solution of problems relating to the collection, processing, storing and retrieval of data; and preparation of an annual report of the preceding year to be presented on July 1 of each year.

In addition to the programmes of the Education Ministry, the Home Ministry ran a number of schemes related to special educational facilities for the Scheduled Castes and
Scheduled Tribes. The Institute welcomed the opportunity to establish and administer a monitoring system for these schemes at the instance of the Ministry. Primarily the schemes were Ashram Schools for Tribal Children; and the Utilization of quota reserved for Scheduled Castes and Tribes in ITIs.

**Educational Administration**

Educational administration was necessarily linked with the nature of tasks to be performed and so needed to be flexible to respond to the changing nature of the tasks. When a disjunct took place between the available administrative structure and what it was called upon to do, it became an obstacle to educational development had to be studied so that the administrative structure could be modified. While major changes could be undertaken but immediate improvement could be brought about through better personnel management and enhancement of the morale of the institutions. The Institute had to develop well defined programmes for structural and functional improvement of educational administration covering areas like delegation of work, time management, decision making, motivation and communication.

The Institute had already prepared benchmark reports of various states and these needed to be continuously upgraded. Financial management including financial allocations and the relationship between them and the educational outcomes had to be study. Personnel administration and career planning had not been given the needed attention but were essential for the development of cadre. Uniform norms for expansion and maintenance of educational facilities to ensure equitable educational development in the country were required. Norms had also to be laid down for school buildings and furniture and other such details. These might vary according to the different conditions in different regions. Educational, administrative, financial and other interrelated acts, codes, rules and regulations had to be enacted. Also, the positive educational plans and experiences of states had to be disseminated to other states. It could, therefore, be quite useful for the Institute to organize inter-state visits of educational planners and administrators to interact with each other.
Informed Discussions on Educational Issues

While the Institute was concerned largely with problems of applied nature, but for effective analysis and recommendations, it was necessary to give the faculty opportunities to sharpen its conceptualization, strengthen its theoretical base and contribute greater clarity in the country on basic issues and objectives of educational policy. Therefore theoretical concerns had to find a proper place in the academic activities of the Institute. The Institute could initiate discussions with leading intellectuals of the country on educational experience in areas of scientific temper, humanist tradition, democratic principle, secular principles, federal polity and the challenges of equity.

Developing countries had a very large education base quantitatively but they had not developed a conceptional framework and theoretical base for educational planning and framework based on their own experiences. Rather, their investigations and researches were repetitive as they were largely concerned with examining and validating the hypotheses of the developed countries. This led to a gap between theory and practice, which had to be narrowed. It was suggested that the Institute should bring out a quarterly entitled “Education and Development” to meaningfully focus attention between the two in the context of the third world. Seminars and symposia also needed to be organized in this area. It was recommended that these should be at least two three-day seminars in that year on each of the following subjects: Measurement of Educational Development: “Choice of Indicators”; and “How many Days do the Universities Work?” In effect, discussions on issues pertaining to education had to become an integral part of the activities of the Institute so that varied educational experiences could be brought together on a common platform. A large number of institutions and individuals in Delhi were engaged in educational activity ranging from pre-primary, tertiary and research official, at levels which were quasi-official and non-official. These covered diverse fields like humanities and social sciences, natural sciences, technology and engineering. The
Institute had taken some steps to bring all these to one platform. For example, it had held a discussion on “The Educational Implications of the 1981 Census.”

**International Responsibilities**

Since India had wide educational experience of working with a very diverse population and planning for levels ranging from the most uninitiated to space scientists, the Institute was equipped to diffuse concepts of educational planning and administration particularly to other third world countries. The latter might also find the Indian experience far more useful and rewarding than that of the developed world. Therefore, the Institute could do a meaningful programme of international collaboration. While it could continue its collaboration with IIEP, UNESCO and other organizations of the UN, but if it wanted to take a leadership role, it could not confine itself to UNESCO sponsored and funded activities. The Institute had to work out training programmes, workshops and bi-national as well as multi-national seminars within the framework of cultural agreements especially with the English speaking third world countries. Therefore, it was imperative for it to set up an international division to examine and research educational developments in third world countries.

**Pre-doctoral, Doctoral, and Post-doctoral Work**

It was felt that both in terms of its national and international responsibilities the Institute would make a lasting impact if it did not concentrate on short-term training programmes but also moved towards developing full-fledged pre-doctoral and doctoral programmes based on a mix of curricular and project work in educational planning and administration. Since this could only be done in relation to a university system, possibilities could be explored with universities, in particular with JNU. Till such linkages were established, the Institute itself could run a post-graduate pre-doctoral programme leading to an advanced Diploma in Educational Planning and Administration. Attempts should also be made to get the Institute recognized by the universities as a centre for doctoral work. Also the Institute could encourage fellows of ICSSR, CSIR,
ICHR, the Planning Commission and also the Pool Officers working on Post-Doctoral projects pertaining to educational planning and administration to get themselves temporarily affiliated to the Institute. This would be mutually beneficial.

**Publications Programme**

It was realized that the multifaceted tasks which the Institute had set itself to undertake would require an elaborate publication programme consisting of the publication of periodicals, books and reports related to its various activities. At the time of the drawing up of the Plan, the Institute was only bringing out a quarterly bulletin providing information about its activities. There was however, no scholarly journal. Some of the publications that could be undertaken apart from the Bulletin would be journals for DEOs for college Principals, for Abstracts and Reviews on Educational Planning and Administration, a Research Quarterly entitled “Educational Development” and Occasional papers for limited circulation. Other publications could include reports, monographs and findings of research projects.

**Academic Infrastructure**

In order to fulfill all its aspirations, the academic structure of the Institute would have to be strengthened in terms of further augmenting the library and establishing a separate documentation unit, under the overall supervision of the librarian. This unit would have to function in close collaboration with the sub-national group to enable the Institute to function as a clearing house of information and experience. A data bank was an immediate responsibility to procure and store data pertaining to accessibility, quantity, quality and equity with the district as unit. Also, it had to work with the international system group to build and strengthen documentation of the educational experience of countries other than India and of the third world in particular.

**Faculty and Academic Support**
While the Institute already had a group of capable and dedicated faculty members, some remaining gaps in expertise could be filled in so that the required areas could be strengthened and upgraded. This was vital because faculty was the pivot for the success of the programmes. Problems of educational planning and administration had to be studied with the aid of three coordinates: theme, level and spatial. For this the faculty could form task forces and then pool the findings of their areas but all tendencies to form departments had to be resisted in order to retain flexibility.

**Building Programme**

Adequate physical infrastructure for the Institute had to be created even to strengthen it intellectually. For example, lack of housing facilities proved a big hindrance in faculty recruitment. Then the main building needed another floor so that functionally there were adequate numbers of rooms. The Director’s residence had to be built on campus and two units of the guest house were required to be modified to provide a kitchenette in each one of them. A seminar unit to seat 200 people, arrangements for simultaneous translation, use of audio-visual and other ancillary equipment and facilities were all needed. For all these requirements, the financial implications were worked out for the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85).

**Conclusion**

The Perspective Plan of the Institute had been drawn up in the context of the goals envisaged in the Sixth Five Year Plan and also keeping in view the over-riding importance of the programmes like universalization of primary education and vocationalization. The Institute had over the years acquired a certain level of expertise in these areas and was now in a position to transmit it on a larger scale so that the emerging challenges facing the education system could be met. For this the active cooperation of the Central and the State Governments was required together with help from many other institutions, regional and state, working in this area. The perspective showed that there was a simultaneous need to consolidate and expand the activities of the Institute and to
develop collaborative programmes so that the capabilities in planning and management at regional as well as state levels could be enhanced. Together they provide a blue-print for enhancing the capabilities to effectively implement the goals of the Sixth Plan within the education system.
Chapter IV

GROWTH OF THE INSTITUTE

On becoming the National Institute for Educational Planning and Development from the National Staff College, an unprecedented growth took place in its activities in both training and research on education. Much of it was the result of the Perspective Plan that had been prepared under the leadership of Prof. Moonis Raza. An effort was made to link training with the research projects. Studies were undertaken on Inspection and Supervision Practices and Proforma in some Educationally Advanced and Backward States, Cost of Supply of Education, Ashram Schools and the Facilities for Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST) in Industrial Training Institutes (ITI) Optimum Teacher-Pupil Ratio, Regional Disparities in Educational Development; Problems of Educational Planning; Monitoring and Development; Problems of Educational Planning, Monitoring and Statistics in States and Union Territories; and Norms for Maintenance and Development of Educational Services. All of them contributed significantly to the various training programmes organized by NIEPA at that time and were also seen to be helpful for its future programmes.

For the first time, in collaboration with the Kendriya Vidyalaya Sangathan, in 1981 the Institute organized a training programme for newly appointed Principals of the Sangathan from all over the country in which the Central Tibetan School Principals also participated. This was distinct from in-service orientation programmes. There was a similar programme on school management for Principals and Vice Principals of the Atomic Energy Schools in different parts of the country in collaboration with the Atomic Energy Education Society. Several other training programmes were also undertaken.

The Institute conducted many workshops. Two interesting workshops in 1981 were on Indian History and Culture and on Long-term Educational Planning. The one on Indian History and Culture was for Supervisors and Curriculum Consultants of Social Studies from the USA (June 30 – July 16, 1981). The main objective was to study the
different aspects of Indian History and Culture; familiarize the participants with the main trends in education and changing patterns of development in India; and improve understanding of the historical currents and cross currents of modern India. The idea was that such workshops would help in improving the teaching of Indian History and Culture in US schools which would also promote mutual understanding.

The Regional Workshop on Long-term Educational Planning was for a selected number of educational and socio-economic planners from different countries in Asia. The purpose was to acquaint them with methods and techniques of long-term forecasting in education and human resource development. It also heightened their awareness of the peculiarities of long-term planning as several factors had to be taken into consideration. Some of these were plurality, ambiguity, possibilities, constraints of planning the long-term future of education, and the intersections of planning with the socio-economic, technological and cultural development processes.

In 1982-83 the Institute diversified its training activities and started a number of new training programmes in educational planning, management, policy, education for the deprived and the handicapped and special programmes in areas of population education, National Merit Examination and Vocationalization of Education. A Diploma course in educational planning and administration was also conceived as a regular systematic arrangement for the training of new District Education Officers in the country.

Diploma Course in Educational Planning and Administration

The first course began on July 1, 1983 with twenty-nine participants from thirteen States and Union Territories. The need for such a course had been felt for a long time. The Sixth Five-Year Plan emphasized that good management in education was the key to successful implementation of the plans and policies of the government. It was felt that a training course in educational planning and administration for the newly recruited or promoted District Education Officers or those who were likely to be promoted as such would be of considerable help in building up a cadre of trained personnel in States and
Union Territories. Out of the six months, three months were spent by the trainees on intensive curricular work at NIEPA and the remaining three months they had to do a supervised project on the job. The curriculum had twelve modules comprising thirty credits in all. It stressed themes like the social context of education; educational development since independence; current problems in school education; concept, foundations and approaches to educational planning; quantitative methods of educational planning; educational planning at the district level; organizational behaviour and financial aspects of management; inspection and supervision; and educational administration at sub-national levels. The course also included field visits, practical, and syndicate work.

**Increasing Activity**

From the year 1984-85 there was a flurry of activity with NIEPA increasing and diversifying its training and research programmes together with playing a pivotal role in the formulation of the National Policy of Education under the leadership of Prof. Satya Bhushan who was the Director at that time. Many training programmes were organized throughout the year. A workshop was held on Planning and Management of Universal Elementary Education in which the emphasis was on the training of trainers. The participants were mostly from State Institutes of Education or State Councils of Educational Research and Training from different parts of the country. Apart from the techniques of training, a critical review was done of the implementation strategies for Universal Elementary Education from the First Five Year Plan to the Sixth Five Year Plan both from the point of view of achievement and areas of weakness.

A National Workshop was also organized towards the end of 1984 on Community Participation in Universal Primary Education in collaboration with UNESCO. A number of training modules were prepared with the help of those involved in training grass-root functionaries in the States and Union Territories. These dealt with subjects like Micro-level Planning and Management, specific experiments and innovations in the area of community participation in education with special reference to universal elementary education, its linkages and coordination with the Adult Literacy Programme.
Two programmes were especially organized for the accelerated achievement of universal elementary education in rural areas. One was held in August 1984 and pertained to women in the Mewat region of Gurgaon. The second was in March 1985 for officials concerned with the development of personnel such as Gramsevikas, supervisors of adult and non-formal education and officials in-charge of Anganwadis, in the villages. Innovative approaches were adopted in these training programmes by involving health workers and other related agencies. The attempt was to integrate education with health and nutrition. The programmes helped to promote functional education for adults.

Two national workshops, one on Developing Alternative Administrative Models for Non-formal Education and another on Planning and Management of Training Programmes in Adult Education for Higher Level Functionaries were organized in April and August 1984 respectively. These focused on linkages of adult education with other departments concerned with development, and the use of mass media for follow-up on the literacy and adult education programmes. In some States, non-formal education formed a part of the Directorate of Elementary Education, but in others it was a part of the Directorate of Adult Education. The feeling at the workshops was that whatever may be the model used, it was important to follow an integrated approach to formal, non-formal and adult education to achieve the targets of universal elementary education for adults.

Particular attention was paid to vocational and technical education. Two orientation programmes were organized, one on Women Polytechnics and other on Vocationalization of Education at the +2 stage. The issues dealt with the planning and management of vocational education in which it was emphasized that it was vital to conduct surveys to comprehend the needs of the community, identify relevant courses, link vocational education with development and take into account the aspiration of students graduating from these courses for vertical mobility.
In the area of technical education, a seminar was organized for the Principals of Engineering Colleges from different parts of the country in collaboration with the Indian Society for Technical Education to look at the management skills required to run these colleges. The emphasis was on the use of computers in administration, personnel development, resource management, training and placement, and continuing education. The question of obsolescence and utilization of workshop equipments was also deliberated upon.

In the field of higher education three new programmes were conducted. Workshop on Teaching Methodologies in Colleges which was sponsored by UNESCO and the UGC (October 1984); Orientation in Educational Planning and Administration for Heads of Departments of the University of Kashmir (Feb. 1985); and Orientation in Planning and Management of Science Education for Heads of Science Department of Colleges (March 1985).

**Institution of Associateship**

Apart from diploma courses and training programmes, a programme for the award of “Associateship” of the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration was introduced in 1982-83. The eligibility was a Master’s Degree in Humanities, Social Sciences or Natural Sciences and evidence of some research work of quality or demonstrable capacity to research in the area of educational planning and administration or requisite administrative and professional experience in the area. The period of Associateship was for two academic terms including the period of field visits and submission of thesis.

**National Award for Innovative Concepts and Practices**

Another landmark was the institution of a National Award for Innovative Concepts and Practices in Educational Planning and Administration in 1982. The First All India Competition for Education Officers working at the District level on Innovative
Concepts and Practices in Educational Planning and Administration was designed to promote innovative practices in educational planning and administration at the micro level; stimulate District Education Officers to cogently describe and meaningfully abstract general concepts from the experiences of innovative experiments and bring to bear their creative thinking on them; provide means through which the results of such experimentation, research and creative thinking by District Education Officers could be made available to their other colleagues. Provision was made for a maximum of ten prizes for award-winning papers selected at the national level. Besides, certificates were also to be given to the awardees.

Management of Schools for the Blind

As part of making education accessible to all sections of society, NIEPA organized a National Workshop on the Identification of Problems of Planning and Management of Education of the Blind in November 1982. It was attended by persons familiar with the problems and issues relevant to the schools for the visually challenged. Some of the participants themselves were visually challenged and possessed rich experience in the managing of such institutions. The workshop proved very useful in identifying the problems of planning and management of such institutions. It also helped in preparing the curriculum for an Orientation Course scheduled to be held in NIEPA for the Heads of Schools for the Blind during 1983-84.

Research Activities

In view of the greater emphasis on research activities in the Perspective Plan, the Institute took up a number of studies besides completing those in hand. It is evident that many of these studies pertained to issues of equity and the planning of education in different parts of India. Other areas in which studies were undertaken were on administration and cost of education at various levels, population education and the task of correlating education with the requirements of the population.
As studies got completed, new ones were taken up. Most of them had follow up workshops. Many of them related to education administration like a study on the organizational history of the Ministry of Education. Its main aim was to research the evolution of the education department during the British period and of the Ministry of Education since 1947; examine the constitutional provisions relating to the educational responsibilities of the Union Education Ministry; the subjects allotted to it since 1947 and the significant changes made since then; in-depth analysis of the leadership role of the Education Ministry, specially in policy formulation and coordination in education; and identification of the organizational changes that emerged because of the initiatives of the Education Ministry. Others dealt with teacher-pupil ratio, rules pertaining to service conditions of teachers and the funding of schools. Some studies were also done in certain areas pertaining to higher education like the funding of social sciences, policy making in Indian Higher Education and the developing of a model financial code for the university system.

Further, some research was undertaken by the Institute for UNESCO and other international bodies. A UNESCO-sponsored research programme focused on regional analysis of educational expenditure; comparative policy study on educational and equity planning in two States of India; a comparative study on some experiments for the component of education and its relationship with rural development; planning and mechanisms of administration; methods and problems of educational administration at the block and institutional levels; a retrospective study of educational developments in the Asia and the Pacific region from the 1960s to the 1980s.

**International Collaboration**

As part of its international collaborative activity, the Institute organized a three-month Training Programme for Officers of Papua New Guinea in Educational Planning and a two-and-a-half month Training Programme in School Management for Officers of Sri Lanka. The programme for Papua New Guinea was conducted in collaboration with the Commonwealth Foundation for Technical Cooperation, London.
**Sri Lanka Programme**

The Training Programme for educational personnel from Sri Lanka was conducted at the request of their Ministry of Education, in collaboration with the Swedish International Development Corporation Agency (SIDA) which is a Swedish Funding Agency for Overseas Development. As Sri Lanka was in the process of launching a new educational programme to give fresh orientation to its school system and make it more responsive to the developmental needs of the nation, it was anxious to strengthen and streamline the existing administration and management structures and upgrade the professional skills of educational managers at various levels, particularly the Heads of Schools who were the largest and the most important group needed to be prepared for their task of providing educational leadership. The training programme was held from November 28, 1982 to February 6, 1983 and was attended mostly by senior Principals of Schools.

The Sri Lankan Government also proposed to create a new cadre of Management Service Officers in their regional education department to provide educational management consultancy services to the schools and necessary training facilities to the Principals of schools, deputy principals, sectional heads, and circuit educational officers of the regions. It was, therefore, thought that some senior Principals of the schools of Sri Lankan Government might be trained for building up the new cadre of Management Service Officers.

The course was planned keeping these objectives in view. One of the faculty members of NIEPA, who was familiar with the educational problems and policies of Sri Lanka, was deputed to the country to assess the training needs and have detailed discussions with the officers of the Education Ministry of Sri Lanka and some of the prospective trainees. The faculty member visited a few schools in Sri Lanka to gain first hand information about their functioning.
The Institute collaborated with several organizations like the UNESCO Regional Office for Education at Bangkok, USEFI, and the National Association for Asia Pacific Education. Its members attended Workshops and Seminars in several countries of the region including the Philippines, Indonesia, Thailand and Japan. It also organized an International Seminar on the Rational Utilization of Resources for Educational Development with Emphasis on Non-Monetary Inputs both at the micro and the macro level. The major themes were a synoptic view of education for the future; improving the management at the institutional level; and creating better linkages within the educational system to improve interaction between different sectors of Education; and examining the Interaction of the Educational System with the Social System.

Among the international collaborations, a special one was a Training Programme held in Bangkok for Rectors of Teacher Training College of Thailand. The programme was of twelve days duration, from December 13-24, 1982. The main theme of the training programme was Educational Management with Focus on Systematic Utilization of Educational Resources. It was sponsored by the Government of Thailand in collaboration with UNESCO. Prof. Moonis Raza, Director, NIEPA, served as the Course Director. There were twenty-six participants. The course assumed significance because the Government of Thailand had felt that the Rectors of Teacher Training Colleges were recruited from among teachers who did not possess the necessary experience in educational management and utilization of educational resources. Some members of the faculty of NIEPA especially prepared some instructional materials on the different topics covered in the course. NIEPA issued certificates to all the participants.

Population Education

A very important programme of the Institute was on Population Education to tackle the problem of population growth in India. The Ministry of Education gave a proposal to UNESCO about a project on Population Education whose primary goal was
to gear the entire educational system to enable it to play a role in the developmental
efforts of the country. As part of the project, it was suggested that the Institute would also
be given the mandate to incorporate population education in its training activities.
Accordingly, a two-year project titled, “Population in the Training Activities in NIEPA”
was prepared by the Institute and approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture.

As part of this mandate, NIEPA organized special training programmes for
district Adult Education officer, Directors of State Councils for Educational Research
and Training (SCERTs) and State Institutes of Education (SIES) and College Principals.
The idea was to create awareness about population education so that it could be
effectively implemented at different levels of formal and non-formal systems. A number
of papers and other materials were also brought out which became inputs into the training
programmes. Of special significance were the data bases on various district profiles and
educational growth. The training was comprehensive and covered different aspects of
population education as is evident from the National Programme in Planning and
Management of Population Education for District Adult Education Officers held from
May 3 to 6, 1982.

The programme was attended by nineteen participants from seventeen States and
Union Territories. Its main objectives were to sensitize the Education Officers to various
issues in regard to planning, administration and management of population education in
the context of adult education; create understanding of population education as an
important developmental input into adult education in the perspective of the Sixth Five
Year Plan; develop skills in identifying the demographic parameters at the district levels
as indicators of the quality of life; identify the relationship between health and population
growth as one of the significant factor of population dynamics; develop understanding of
skills required for micro-level planning of the district adult education programme
integrating population and education; and develop conceptual clarity about the various
intervening dimensions of population education in adult education. The themes covered
in the programmes were population change and development; demographic parameters in
relation to development; implications of the census report; population growth and health;
integration of population education in adult education; and the role of the mass media in promotion of population education.

The National Programme for District Adult Education Officers was followed by a National Seminar – Workshop on the Problems of Planning and Management of Population Education in Higher Education in New Delhi on March 14-17, 1983. It was one of the major activities of the NIEPA Population Education project. Twenty-one participants from institutions of higher education, particularly teaching education personnel, and Heads of Departments of Education participated in the programme. Keeping in line with its objectives it focused on difficult areas and their linkages. The four-day Seminar included lecture discussions on conceptual themes, panel discussions on various aspects of linkages within a theoretical framework and group work exercises. The sessions resulted in proposals and schemes for organizing and coordinating Population Education Programmes in Higher Education at different levels.

The idea was to evolve a conceptual frame of reference for incorporating Population Education in Higher Education; examine organizational and structural issues and define and discuss planning and management strategies related to Population Education Programmes in Higher Education; prepare guidelines for a comprehensive design that would coordinate and integrate Population Education in Higher Education focusing on intra and inter-system linkages; and evolve a plan of action for institutions such as NIEPA, UGC, and Family Planning Association of India (FPAI).

The idea was to develop a conceptual frame of reference for introducing Population Education in Higher Education. For this planning, organization and structure of population education at the level of higher education had to be evolved in the context of horizontal and vertical system of linkages. This had to include disciplinary inputs and multi-level planning, management, monitoring, and evaluation of the programme with focus on teacher education. However, before any future planning could be done, it was necessary to examine the current status of population education in institutions of higher education and the role of the various governmental and voluntary agencies in the
programme together with the role of the university Departments of Education in relationship to their other programmes. Only then could the guidelines for the future plan of action be identified and designed.

Besides the special training programmes, training in population education and its management formed part of the various other ongoing training programmes of NIEPA. It continuously organized training programmes in planning and administration of population in collaboration with agencies like UNESCO, United Nations Population Fund and the Ministry of Education, Government of India. Their major thrust was to link population education with development. It was realized that the population education could not be confined to merely the concept of a small family norm but had to be viewed in a wider perspective that included the health of the child, status of women, preservation and protection of environment, rural and urban migration and the effect of population growth on educational development. Besides proper appreciation of the concept of population education, the participants in these programmes were exposed to the modern management techniques so that the population education programme could be suitably planned and implemented.

Study on Ashram Schools

Two important studies sponsored by the Ministry of Home were assigned to the Institute by the Ministry of Education and Culture. These were on Ashram Schools and the Exposure of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to Industrial Training. Both were begun in September, 1981, after an on-spot study of the problems of five States, namely Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and Bihar. The work in respect of Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra was completed and final reports were ready by March, 1982.

The main objectives of the study were to see how far the Ashram Schools had been able to meet the educational needs of tribal children in the areas where they were located; whether they had been able to bring tribal children into the mainstream of socio-
economic life; what was their cost-effectiveness in comparison to other formal type of primary and basic schools functioning in the same area.

The study showed that Ashram Schools had limited success as only 4 per cent enrolment had taken place of children between the ages of 6 and 11 years. On the other hand, it could be argued that since these schools were generally located in remote rural areas, they had to a certain extent met the need of the population which would otherwise have remained completely without education. Also, since they provided free board and lodge facilities, they had transferred resources to the poor sections of society and thus attempted to equalize the opportunities of education for those who were economically and socially unequally placed. Although the Ashram schools were intended to bring the tribal population into the mainstream of socio-economic life by providing common education, because there were separate schools for tribals, their integration with the non-tribal population did not actually take place.

**Study on the Use of ITIs by Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes**

An allied study sponsored by the Ministry of Home Affairs was on the exposure of the SCs and STs of five States to facilities of ITIs. The same five States were studied as in the previous study. The main objectives were to analyse the provisions and utilization of training facilities in the ITIs and Polytechnics by the SC and ST students as compared to those belonging to the non-SC/ST categories; study the extent of underutilization if any, of various training facilities, specially by the SC/ST students, and the reasons; identify the various incentive schemes available for them; patterns of their implementation; and the extent of benefits that the SC/ST students were deriving from such schemes. The questions raised were whether it was necessary to modify or expand some of those schemes? If yes, then, in what manner? What was the impact of the training provided by the ITIs and Polytechnics on the employment of the trainees, and especially on those belonging to the SC/ST in terms of emoluments, waiting time, and place and nature of employment?
The major findings of the study were that ITI facilities were available in almost all the districts and they were well utilized by of the scheduled castes but not by the scheduled tribes. The inter-caste and tribe-wise differences in the use of these facilities in the States where such data was collected was noted. The pass percentage in the ITIs in some States like Assam, Karnataka, Meghalaya and Nagaland was less than 50 per cent and was declining over time. For example, about 80 per cent of enrolled students completed their training in the years between 1975 and 1978 as compared to 66 per cent between 1982 and 1988. The dropout rate varied from institution to institution from 5 per cent in one institution in Andhra Pradesh to about 40 per cent in one of the ITIs in Gujarat. There were, however, no marked differences in the dropout rates between the scheduled and the non-scheduled groups. Major part of the dropout occurred during the first-two months of the session which was ascribed to the fact that most of them got admission in alternative courses mostly in general secondary education. The unemployment rate varied from 7 per cent for the non-scheduled group to 13 per cent for the Scheduled Castes and 20 per cent for the Scheduled Tribes. Self-employment rates were very low among all the trainees with minor differences between the scheduled and the non-scheduled groups.

Some systemic difficulties were pointed out. For example, while stipends were available to all the SC/ST students, there was a routinely delay in their disbursal. Hostel facilities for the scheduled groups were found to be substandard in most of the places. Reservation and relaxation eligibility criteria for the scheduled groups were provided for in all the institutions but these were implemented mechanically. Some important issues were also raised; for example, was the stipend a subsidy or a maintenance grant? Were hostels mere living places or learning environments?

Several important suggestions were made. It was felt that the amount of stipend would have to be substantially revised and the delay in the release of grants had to be corrected if the really poor amongst the SC/STs were to be helped. Money had to be placed at the disposal of the institution at the beginning of the session so that disbursal could be faster. The administrators of these institutes needed a great deal of sensitization.
Hostels had to be improved considerably. It was pointed out that mixed hostels where both scheduled and non-scheduled groups lived together were more desirable than separating the group. Wherever this had been tried out, it was working well and thus needed to be encouraged. An important recommendation was that if good students were to be attracted to the ITIs from both the scheduled and the non-scheduled groups, horizontal and vertical mobility was essential. That is, students should have the opportunity to move from the ITIs to general secondary schools and vice versa. The system needed to be flexible. Further, the curriculum had to be revised to equip the trainees for proper self-employment. Vocational guidance had to be made available especially to scheduled groups because generally they were first-generation learners. A flexible system would be useful in encouraging students.

As about two-fifths of the ITI trainees began work as apprentices in industries, it was necessary to get inputs from the industries themselves in the form of expertise or provision of practical training facilities. Regular vocational surveys of the areas also needed to be undertaken before introducing courses pertaining to new trades in the ITIs. It was found that the ITIs in the tribal areas were physically well equipped, but they needed committed teachers. Some additional remuneration and promotional avenues could also be provided to those working in the tribal areas to make it worth their while.

**Support to the Government**

The Institute was expected to provide advisory, consultancy and support services in the sphere of educational planning and administration to Central as well as State Governments, universities, Boards and other key autonomous organizations in India and to governments and international organizations abroad. Hence, it provided different kinds of services to the Centre, the States and other organizations by evolving norms for educational facilities at the school stage, working out a simple and easily manageable national monitoring system of the different aspects of educational development, undertaking several research studies with policy implications on educational administration and planning, assisting in the acceleration of the pace of the Centre’s
programme of universalization of elementary education and providing faculty resource to
other important organizations in their training programmes and other activities for the
qualitative improvement of education.

**Educational Disparities**

One of the mandates of the Institute was to study the educational disparities in the
various States of India and to help in the development and streamlining of systems.
This was the main task of its Sub National Systems Unit. In keeping with it, the Institute
undertook a study on the Development of Educational Norms for Haryana. It also helped
in the reorganization of the Education Department of Sikkim. The Expert Team
constituted for the purpose by the Ministry of Education was led by the Director of
NIEPA. It helped the Union Territory of Lakshadweep to prepare the Format of
Inspection Report for Schools and the Rajasthan Board of Secondary Education to review
the autonomy granted to Vanasthali Vidyapeeth and to the Vidya Bhawan, Udaipur. It
also participated in the High Level Meetings of the Education Departments and
Committees of the State Governments of Kerala, Jammu and Kashmir, and Uttar Pradesh.
The faculty of the Institute also served as resource persons in various programmes
conducted by the Regional College of Education, Mysore; State Resource Centre and
State Centre of Educational and Research and Training (SCERT), Haryana; the Delhi
School of Social Work; Continuing Education Centre, Jadavpur University, Shramik
Vidyapeeth, Bombay; HCM Institute of Public Administration, Jaipur; and SCERT,
Tamil Nadu.

A project on the “Regional Disparities in Educational Development: An Atlas of
Indian Education” had started in 1982 which was completed in 1984. The main object of
the study was to identify and analyse the spatial dimension of educational development
and its bi-directional links with the processes of regional development. The main sources
of the data were the Fourth All India Educational Survey and the Census of India, 1981.
The study revealed that the magnitude of regional disparities was high. Accessibility was
poor in the hill districts of Jammu and Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh and in
the districts of Northeast and mid-India tribal belt. Inequities existed among the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and the non-scheduled population as also among the male, female and rural-urban components of these population segments. While the deprivation of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes had no match, such deprivation was not confined to these groups only. In a characteristically backward region, the general population was hardly distinguishable from the low castes or the tribes in the colossal magnitude of lack of education.

**Mobilization of Resources**

A Study on the Mobilization of Resources for Education had also begun in 1982 and was completed in 1984. It started as a pilot study for Delhi and was then extended to nine other States – Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, West Bengal, Uttar Pradesh and Kerala. Some of the major findings that emerged were that the share of government expenditure on education had been going up in all the States which was in keeping with the trend for the country as well. However, in some states, finances allocated for certain schemes remained unutilized; local bodies like the Municipalities and the Zila Parishads were being used to mobilize additional resources for education; School boards, particularly in urban areas, were collecting resources for running primary schools from local bodies like the Bombay Municipal Corporation, which were facing great financial stress in attempting to provide all kinds of services in the urban areas including education. It was suggested that in allocating and mobilizing resources, the regional dimensions had to be kept in mind as there were large variations in educational expenditure at all levels of education between one region and the other.

A pilot study was taken up in December 1981 on the cost of the supply of education in the Gurgaon district of Haryana. It was modified and completed in October 1984. The main objectives were to calculate the unit cost of education at different levels of education; examine its elements and determinants; suggest ways by which it could be reduced at various levels; and work out the ways and means of utilizing the available infrastructure. Two areas were selected for intensive study, one economically advanced
and the other backward. The focus was on an educational cluster in each block. The information was collected through questionnaires related to village schools and local resources in the area concerned. The study provided adequate information on the total and unit costs of education in the two cluster areas, besides some micro level analysis. The analysis of data indicated that what the households spent on education accounted for a reasonably high proportion of the total costs of education in the country and these had to be taken into account in any meaningful exercise on national accounts. Unit cost per person had been declining year by year contrary to the general belief that it had been increasing at a rapid rate. Of the total costs, non-recurring costs that led to physical capital formation in education, formed a very small proportion. Negligible proportions of total recurring costs were incurred on items other than the salaries of the teachers. In spite of this, most schools were suffering from severe shortage of human resources and did not have even the minimum physical resources required. The pupil-teacher ratio was the most dominant factor that influenced the unit cost of education.

It was suggested that multi-purpose buildings should be constructed that could be used for both educational as well as non-educational purposes. This would improve the levels of community involvement in educational activities leading to a significant improvement in the quality of education on the one hand and reduction in the cost of education on the other. The cluster approach to educational planning by itself reduced the total cost of education. It also enabled better and more effective utilization of human and physical resources of the community. This in turn contributed to further reduction in costs of education. It was suggested that it would be highly advantageous to open middle or secondary schools that included the primary classes rather than opening a primary school not only from the point of normal cost of education but also from that of effective costs as drop-outs and stagnation between levels were believed to be significantly less in middle and secondary schools.

**Higher Education**
Several studies were undertaken from 1982 to 1985 pertaining to the different aspects of higher education, such as developing a Model Account Code for the University System; Financing of Higher Education; Autonomy of the university community; National Studies on the Management and Utilization of Post-Matric Scholarship Scheme; Retention, Failure, Dropout and Repetition in Higher Education and Social Background; Living Conditions and Academic Performance of the Post-Matric Scholarship Holders belonging to the Scheduled Cases and Scheduled Tribes.

Of these, the interesting study was on the autonomy in higher education as it is a contentious subject. The objectives was to examine the extent of autonomy enjoyed by universities and whether it was a practical mode of university governance. The hypothesis of the study was that the concept of autonomy of the university and of the academic community was an alien implant which was not only increasingly irrelevant to the Indian University system but also delayed a rational consideration of the problems of governance of Indian universities. One the major findings of the study was that the model of autonomy best suited to a university depended on what the society saw as the purpose of a university or whether the aims of the university were in consonance with the social needs, demands, and aspirations of the people. Tax payers and buyers of education were increasingly conscious of the heavy expenditure being incurred on the university system without relevant outcomes. Further, independence without accountability was inimical to the true and lasting interests of a university. There was a fine balance between the independence that a university needed and the restraints that had to be imposed on its autonomy. Real autonomy ought to give genuine choice to students, teachers and administrators. Autonomy as was currently given could no longer remain an efficient and effective mode of governance. In a visit to autonomous institutions, their growth too was found to be marginal. However, some of these institutions had managed to do some examination reforms that had led to the overall improvement in the academic environment. They had also managed to design more creative syllabi, introduce the semester system and do continuous internal evaluation.

*Internal Assessment and Evaluation*
The issue of internal assessment or sectional evaluation in the universities had been occupying the minds of educational policy planners at least since 1981. A study was taken up to examine the prevailing practices of internal assessment. An empirical database had to be built and college principals made aware so that a feasible pattern of session-wise evaluation in colleges could be structured. The report of the study was sent for publication in the Journal of Higher Education.

**Status of Teachers in Higher Education**

Studies on various aspect of the status of teachers in higher education covered areas such as a survey of Higher Education in India; Economic Status of Teachers; the Basis of Recruitment and Procedures; Mobility and Inbreeding; Professional and Career Development; Work Ethos; Grievances and their Redressal; Participation in Decision Making; and the Professional Values of the Teachers.

The studies were based on a sample of university and college teachers throughout the country. Besides the responses of the teachers, responses of randomly selected students from different socio-economic background and academic achievements were also incorporated as were those of members of the community belonging to different socio-economic strata and educational attainments. The studies also drew upon a hundred and forty memoranda submitted by the teachers’ associations and views expressed by teachers and eminent educationists from various parts of the country.

It was found that more than one-fourth or about 27 per cent of the teachers came from an agricultural background and 12 per cent from business background. Another one-fourth came from the families of officers or workers in government or private offices. Eight and seven per cent respectively came from families of school teachers and professionals like doctors and engineers. A very small proportion of teachers came from families of college and university teachers and skilled or technical workers. Fairly young, 77 per cent teachers were below 45 years of age and another 17 per cent were in
The findings of the studies were that the economic status of teachers had deteriorated in the decade from the mid-1970s to mid-1980s. Although government policy accorded an honoured place to teachers in society and a corresponding economic status, in practice their status was relatively lower than that of other professions such as the civil services and of persons with similar or lower qualifications employed in institutions such as Banking and Public Sector Undertakings. There was a real difference in the facilities available in other professions and in teaching such as housing, medical allowance, children’s education and scales of pay. The social status of teachers had also deteriorated and politicians and bureaucrats viewed them as the lowest rung in the social hierarchy. However, teachers seemed to be reasonably well respected by members of the community and students.

The study revealed that teachers were dissatisfied about biases in appointments, the nature and coverage of advertisement, the constitution of the selection committees, the nature of interviews, and the time taken between the application and the selection. In varying degrees, this dissatisfaction was found both among college and university teachers. Procedures of recruitment, therefore, needed close scrutiny. The manner in which persons got into the profession, through ad hoc or temporary appointments, also needed serious consideration.

It was also found that the mobility of persons between academic and other professions was really not significant, whereas mobility among teachers from one institution to another was high. About 52 per cent of teachers in universities and 42 per cent in colleges went to other similar institutions. But this mobility was by and large horizontal rather than vertical, that is, teachers moved from one institution to another in the same position but not from a lower to a higher cadre because of the restricted number of higher positions in the profession. The extent of inbreeding was perceived to be 45 per cent or so, being higher in professional institutions. Nearly 49 per cent of university
teachers opposed inbreeding in the teaching profession, at least in theory. But this was not the ground reality.

Measures were suggested for improving the growth path of teachers in terms of entry, career development and professional development. The level of stagnation among teachers was examined. About 40 per cent teachers in colleges and 30 per cent in universities stagnated for ten to fifteen years in the same position. In contrast, persons in civil administration got at least three to four promotions in about the same period reaching positions of a Joint Secretary or an Additional Secretary, a post higher than that of a professor in a university. This was also true of people working in banks, Life Insurance Corporation and other such institutions.

The Study revealed that although the role of teacher was wide and he or she was expected to be responsive to societal needs, in practice it seemed to be confined, by and large, to narrow classroom teaching. Research and extension formed only a marginal part of the activities of college teachers; research forming only a slightly better part of the activities of teachers in universities. Even this limited role was not adequately performed, so much so that on an average, institutions of higher education worked for about a 25 per cent less than the minimum stipulated number of working days. The average number of lectures delivered by teachers was 30 per cent less than the prescribed number. Even on a working day, teachers in general, spent much less time in their institutions than what was required for effective teacher-student interaction. Research output was low, as was reflected by publications, research guidance, and other research-related activities. But there were significant high spots as well. Those who took their profession seriously did much more work than the prescribed norms.

The participation of teachers in social decision-making, in economic, political, and cultural areas was very limited. Although the participation of teachers in decision making was supposed to be part of the system with regard to issues pertaining to the development of the profession but more often than not these were taken outside the properly constituted bodies. The reasons for this had to be examined.
The major grievances among teachers were unfair appointments and promotions, poor working conditions, discrimination in the allotment of work, callous behaviour of administrators, and lack of facilities such as housing, conveyance, rooms in the departments, reading rooms and laboratory facilities. For the redressal of grievances, ombudsman and arbitration procedures seemed to be available to only one-third of the teachers. Hence most of the teachers turned to their unions for help, though most teachers believed that they should go to the court of law only as a last resort.

It was reassuring that the professional values of almost all teachers, at least on the ideological plain, had not changed. Most of them still believed that earning money by writing ‘bazaar notes’, doing extra tuitions, teaching from old lecture notes, dictating notes in the class instead of teaching, skipping classes without leave, instigating students against a colleague and favouring students by giving higher grades, were against professional ethics. Many also felt that there was a need for orienting teachers in values such as developing a scientific temper, a secular and democratic outlook, a sense of social justice and equity, environmental consciousness, love for human beings and civic responsibility.

**Pivotal Role in Seventh Five Year Plan**

The Sixth Five Year Plan ended in 1984. The Institute had naturally been involved in certain priority areas like, Universalization of Elementary Education, Mobilization of Resources for Education and others. It now actively got involved in the preparation of the Seventh Five Year Plan; the project on the Indian Education in the Year 2000, in issues pertaining to the role of Planning Commission, Non-Formal Education and others. Therefore it also conducted programmes in these areas.

It was proposed that the Institute should lay special emphasis on the priorities mentioned in the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) in particular to the achievement of the national objectives of universalization of elementary education; adult and non-formal
education improvement of internal efficiency of the system; performance-oriented administration; application of modern technology; management information system; and the removal of the disparities in educational development.

As in the Sixth Plan, the Institute played a prominent role in the preparation of the Seventh Five Year Plan. It was represented in the following groups set up by the Government of India:

(i) Steering Group on Education, Culture and Sports.
(ii) Working Group on Elementary Education.
(iii) Working Group on Secondary Education.
(iv) Working Group on Adult Education;
(v) Working Group on Educational Technology and Distance Learning.
(vi) Working Group on Art and Culture.
(vii) Working Group on Modernization of Library Services and Information.
(ix) Working Group on Resources required for Education Sector.

The Ministry of Education set up Task Forces on Elementary Education for nine educationally-backward States of the country and a National Committee at the Central level. The Institute was represented on all these Task Forces and in the National Committee. Senior members of the faculty took part in the meetings of these Task Forces held during the year in different States and made considerable contribution in helping the States to prepare micro-level plans for the Universalization of Elementary Education. The Institute also made considerable progress in the Action Research based on Innovative Practices in Educational Planning and Administration with the objective of Universalization of Elementary Education in a cluster of twenty villages in the Punhana Block of Gurgaon and arranged visits of trainees of various programmes organized by it to this project to study its operational aspects. Further, it helped the Ministry of Education in the preparation of the system of awards for excellent performance of programmes of Universalization of Elementary Education and removal of illiteracy.
Research Associated with the Seventh Plan

In order to fulfill its tasks, the Institute intensified its research activities, undertaking studies on its own and in collaboration with organizations like the NCERT. In collaboration with the latter, the Institute designed a programme pertaining to the universalization of elementary education and vocationalization of education at the +2 stage. It also invited experts from NCERT in areas of Non-formal Education and Vocationalization of Education at the Higher Secondary stage to lead lecture discussions and participate in panel discussions. The collaboration was a two-way process as the Institute also participated in seminars, meetings and conferences organized by the NCERT particularly in the All India Educational Survey and Vocationalization of Education. In the Evaluative Study of Non-Formal education programme at the Elementary Stage undertaken by the Institute in nine educationally backward States, NCERT was actively associated in the preparation of the study design. It also undertook the evaluation of the curriculum contents, instructional materials and strategies as a part of this study project. Another area of collaboration with NCERT was on the concept, application and management of curricula for the participants of various programmes in the Institute.

A national workshop on Coordinated Planning and Complementarity between Formal and Non-formal Education was organized with the cooperation of NCERT. Forecasting the requirements of education in the year 2000, its linkages with the demographic development and other socio-economic factors and issues of long-term planning were the important areas covered. A seminar was organized to study the relationship between education and employment. Educational productivity and productivity education was another new concept developed for the training programme in collaboration with the National Productivity Council.

Several studies were undertaken. Among them was a study on Optimum Teacher-Pupil Ratio in Schools. The main objective of this study was to find out the empirical situation in the country with regard to norms of teacher-pupil ratios as prescribed by the
State governments and the norms actually obtaining for primary, middle and secondary stages in school education.

It was found that there was wide variation ranging from 1:20 to 1:55 among the States and Union Territories in terms of teacher-pupil ratios prescribed by the different States. The size of schools, classes and the workload of teachers also differed. A large percentage of teachers did not even teach the minimum prescribed periods per week. Most of them took no interest in the programme of universalization of elementary education. More than half the schools worked for less than 220 days in a year. Nine out of ten schools meant for tribal children did not even conduct an annual census of children of school-going age. A large percentage of schools did not fully utilize the various incentives provided for girls, students from SC/ST, and other backward communities. There was limited supervision and guidance of teachers, student services and extension work. In Class V about 38 per cent schools had less than 25 students in each class. While simultaneously there were schools with more than 50 students per class.

The main recommendations were that it was desirable to have national norms which could be followed by different States and Union Territories. These could be relaxed in disadvantaged and backward areas as well as in sparsely populated areas. Further, it was felt mere enrolment should not be the basis for sanctioning the number of teachers. Rather it should be the average attendance of pupils reckoned at least three times a year. The schools should have a minimum of 220 working days in a year and norms of work load for different categories of teachers had to be uniform throughout the country as far as possible.

The study on Educational Policy and Planning dealt with the role of the Planning Commission. Its main objectives were to study the evolution of educational policies and planning in India and how it had been influenced by the overall national developments before and after Independence; the extent of the contribution made by various Commissions and Committees on Education and other developmental sectors; processes and techniques involved in the formulation of educational plans at different levels; and
the role of the Planning Commission, Ministry of Education, and the State Governments in the formulation of policies and programmes.

It was recommended that a professional cadre of the Indian Educational Service was essential to strengthen planning and policy formulation. A national system of education with a co-curriculum could be organized. Pace setting institutions had to be started to promote national unity and social integration. The role of Regional Colleges of Education run by NCERT needed to be redefined so that they became effective instruments for experimenting with educational innovations. In order to develop professionalization among the cadres and the key personnel, short-term induction programmes on the lines of the National Academy of Administration, Mussoorie, needed to be organized periodically by NIEPA and NCERT. The participants in these programmes had to be introduced to the concepts and techniques of educational planning, financing, management, evaluation and formulation of innovative projects in education.

It was necessary to link education with other developmental agencies and to transform the existing maintenance and control-oriented machinery into a development-oriented organization. Integrated micro-level planning should be an essential component in the training of the administrative machinery. The district should be considered a unit of educational planning, management, evaluation and finance. Educational development programmes had to be implemented on a project-based model.

A Study of Rural Households was undertaken to see the Impact of Educational Levels on Some Dimensions of Development. It attempted to answer various questions. Did the educational level influence adoption of new technologies and if so, was there a critical level of education that influenced such an adoption? Did it influence diversification of economic activities? What was the nature of the relationship between educational levels and households linkages with reference to market, social and cultural aspects? Did these influence the capacity to use and absorb other developmental efforts? Finally, did the educational levels in the household influence the succeeding generations?
The issue of External Financing of Education was studied to critically analyse the impact of external financing on education and make recommendations on how to improve the process of identification, preparation and approval of educational projects. It was found that more aid came for higher levels than for the lower levels of education. It was largely concentrated on technical assistance and items of construction and equipment. The external resources that came to India from various sources were largely concentrated on the prestigious Indian Institutes of Technology (IITs) and a few select universities where centres for advanced study were developed. However, in absolute terms, there was a marked decline in the relative share of private non-profit sources for educational aid. The share of bilateral and multilateral sources had increased. Bilateral aid concentrated on technical assistance while multilateral aid, such as obtained from development banks, catered to the needs of physical facilities and equipment. The private non-profit agencies usually concentrated on institutional development, educational innovations and reforms. Another characteristic of aid was that it was misdirected, as could be noted from its geographical distribution.

Model Schools

Consequent to the Government of India’s decision to start a Model School in each district of the country under the Seventh Five Year Plan, the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD) asked NIEPA to prepare a design for the management of Model Schools. This was done through joint consultations in which faculty members and the Directors from both NIEPA and NCERT participated. A number of other experts and Principals of different types of schools were also consulted. Finally, the suggested scheme for the management of Model Schools was submitted to the MHRD. The contents of the suggested scheme included management at the national level; regional directorates; management at local level; system of block grants; staff establishment of regional directors, principals, teachers and other functionaries; some vital management functions like communication, democratization, staff development and innovativeness; accountability and space area norms.
Formulation of the New Education Policy

The MHRD decided to get a diagnostic assessment done of the educational development since independence. A document, “Status Report and Policy Issues”, was prepared by NIEPA. The Ministry’s document on the “Challenge of Education” was partly based on the exercise done by the Institute. NIEPA organized four regional seminars and one national seminar to formulate the recommendations on the National Policy on Education. It was a gigantic undertaking. Letters, documents, press clippings and other reports numbering about 7,000 were received by the Ministry and the job of their content analysis was entrusted to NIEPA. Sixteen documents resulted which were made available to the various committees and groups constituted by the Ministry as an input in formulating the policy. These studies included Citizen’s Perceptions, Social Auditing of the Indian Education System, Restructuring of Indian Education, Voluntary and Professional Bodies of Education, Press on the New Education Policy and Perceptions from States.

Long Term Perspective

Apart from playing a significant role in the formulation of the National Policy of Education, 1986, NIEPA also undertook studies to project what Indian Education would look like in the year 2000. For this a project entitled ‘Indian Education in the Year 2000 – A Long-term Perspective’ was undertaken within which four studies were done. These were Primary Education in India – Some Census Evidence; Primary Education on the Use of Simulation Models for Educational Planning and Management; Primary Education in India: A Trend Analysis; and Planning Education for the Future Development – Issues and Choices.

Primary Education in India: Some Census Evidence

The document primarily focused on the age-specific population and enrolment levels corresponding to the primary stage of the Indian schooling system. A gender-wise
analysis of both the variables, in terms of its composition and growth rates, was presented. The main propositions examined were the growth of the age-specific population between the ages of 6 and 11 years of boys and girls over the preceding three decades beginning 1951; the growth of the enrolment of boys and girls in standards I to V in Indian schools during this time; the changes and improvements in the gross enrolment ratios over the years and the increase in primary stage enrolments.

The document noted that the number of girls per 1000 boys had been generally declining except in the preceding decade in which it had registered an improvement over the previous years. The growth in enrolment was greater than the growth in the area-specific population during the 1950s and 1960s, but both rates had become approximately equal during the 1970s. The enrolment of girls grew faster than that of boys during the preceding three decades. One of the significant points that emerged from the study related to the estimates of gross enrolments in the primary stage based on some studies that had been used to gauge the ‘real’ coverage of primary education.

*Primary Education on the Use of Simulation Models for Educational Planning and Management*

Simulation models found wide applications for understanding the behaviour of a system at both the macro and micro levels. In spite of their usefulness, however, they had not been much utilized in the developing countries up to this time. Without going into the technical details of the method, a paper was prepared giving a general description of the simulation models and their application in educational planning and management. A preliminary framework for the development of models of the educational system was discussed and the corresponding data requirements were spelt out. The application of the model was illustrated with an example. A large number of questions regarding the behaviour of the system could be answered by increasing the model’s complexity and this largely depended on the availability of data. The use of high speed data processing machines and systems modeling techniques could be employed to handle larger models.

*Primary Education in India: A Trend Analysis*
A document was prepared that focused on two aspects of the trends in primary education. The first was a statistical analysis of the development of education from 1951 to 1983 in terms of enrolment, teachers and expenditure. The second document attempted to make projections for the year 2000 with respect to these variables. The technique used for examining the trend and projections was regression analysis – simple and multiple. It was fitted for different time periods from 1951-1983, 1961-1983 and 1971-1983. The study showed that the rate of growth of primary enrolments had been slowing down. While enrolments at the primary level had increased substantially in absolute terms, they had not even come close to the corresponding increase of the age-specific population. This was mainly because of the continuing low enrolments of girls which, though improved over the period, continued to be very low.

Additional enrolment required a substantial number of additional teachers, if the teacher-pupil ratio was to be kept within tolerable limits. The study further showed that though expenditure in real terms increased over the years, a substantial proportion of this was eroded by inflation resulting in a fall in the real expenditure especially in the seventies. The study concluded that for achieving universalization of elementary education, concerted effort had to be made on three fronts: enroll more girls, provide more teachers and provide additional resources to primary education.

*Planning Education for the Future Development – Issues and Choices*

The document described the key attributes of the current pattern of development in the wake of the industrial revolution. Technology and related organizational changes had unleashed unprecedented changes in the world. The argument was made primarily in the context of economic development but it was explicitly mentioned that other social institutions in general, with Western English medium formal classroom-based education in particular, played an important role in facilitating this process of global evolution. The document examined the Seventh Five Year Plan so as to project and evolve a possible growth pattern of Indian education.
It portrayed different enrolment scenarios that were likely to emerge. It, however, clearly stated that individuals and groups had the acumen to survive in the short-term through their self-interests but if the real inputs were insufficient or uncertain, the goals associated with public endeavours were likely to be eroded in the long term. The study put forth an educational profile of the work-force and non-working population in the year 2000.

Keeping in view the perspective of the Seventh Five Year Plan and the constraints on the system, the trade-offs among the different sectors were put-together in a ‘choice’ matrix. In order to simplify the analysis, only two attributes the magnitude of public expenditure and the size of expansion were taken into account. The highest priority had to be accorded to quantitative and qualitative aspects of two sectors, namely, universalization of primary education and the development of higher education, especially professional education. Open-learning systems needed enhanced emphasis as they promised to be extremely cost-effective, particularly if operated on a large scale. The growth of general secondary and higher education had to be kept under control as these sectors displayed an innate tendency of run-away expansion and, in the process, expropriated resources meant for priority sectors. It was hoped that even this simplified version would help in laying bare the inter-relationship among different facets of education for working out a long-term feasible plan of educational development.

All this work enabled the Institute to prepare a comprehensive paper entitled “Education Development – A Status Report and Policy Issues”. The status paper included write ups on Aspirations and Needs; Performance; Social Interface of Education; Education-Employment Interface; Problems and Issues; Planning; Management; and Towards New Challenges. This document and the sector-wise analysis of the educational system conducted by the Institute were utilized as inputs in the Ministry’s paper on “Challenge of Education – A Policy Perspective” which formed the basis of a national debate on education.
Beginning the Eighth Five Year Plan

As for the previous plans the Institute provided professional support to prepare plans of action for different States and Union Territories and participated in the Working Groups of the Eighth Five Year Plan on Statistics, Monitoring and Evaluation; Sub-group on Local Level Planning and Management; Working Group on Pre-primary and Elementary Education; and Sub-group on Early Childhood and Elementary Education. The Institute also participated in formulating a strategy for the training of personnel for the National Literacy Mission.

Summing Up

The Institute, as is evident provident excellent advisory, consultancy and support services in the sphere of educational planning and administration to Central as well as State Governments, universities, Boards and other key autonomous organizations in India and to governments and international organizations abroad. Hence, it provided different kinds of services to the Centre, the States and other organizations by evolving norms for educational facilities at the school stage, working out a simple and easily manageable national monitoring system of the different aspects of educational development, undertaking several research studies with policy implications on educational administration and planning, assisting in the acceleration of the pace of the Centre’s programme of universalization of elementary education and providing faculty resource to other important organizations in their training programmes and other activities for the qualitative improvement of education.
Chapter V

REVIEW OF NIEPA (1989)

A review of the work and progress of the Institute was taken up in 1989 by a Committee constituted by the Government of India, Ministry of Human Resource Development, and the Department of Education under the Chairmanship of Shri P.K. Umashankar, Director, Indian Institute of Public Administration. The Committee collected information about the actual work done by NIEPA from 1989 with reference to the objectives laid down in the Memorandum of Association. Generally speaking, it was felt that NIEPA had done extremely well in fulfilling its objectives as identified in the Memorandum of Association (MoA).

The Achievements

NIEPA had conducted extensive in-service training programmes for various functionaries in the field of education. These had covered personnel in strategic positions such as district education officers, adult education officers, senior university personnel and others. Not only had the training programmes reached out to the various categories of educational planners and administrators but they had also ensured that all the regions, States and Union Territories were covered. The feedback received from the States and Union Territories that had participated in the training programmes and, from some of the individual participants, was very positive as they all said they had benefited from the interactions. The pre-service training programme for education officers was also very successful. Normally officers at these levels were rather reluctant to undergo long-term training in distant places, but that NIEPA should have been able to train two hundred of them and also have special programmes for Andhra Pradesh, Assam and Uttar Pradesh, showed that the role of NIEPA had been accepted by the states. The Committee acknowledged that NIEPA had also more than fulfilled its objectives in organizing pre-service and in-service training and other programmes for senior educational officers of the Central and State Governments, universities and college administrators. In regard to
the training programmes for teacher educators, it was after 1986 when the National Policy of Education was implemented that NIEPA had come into the picture by extending its training programmes to the functionaries of the District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs). The personnel and training department was also happy with the one-week training programmes for IAS officers in NIEPA.

NIEPA had taken the initiative and done valuable work in preparing training materials and modules at various levels for different organizations. In any case it was acknowledged that the Institute was steadily moving towards becoming the apex institution in the field of training. However, while it had not managed to arrange programmes for legislators it had arranged discussion groups for top-level persons in the field of educational planning and administration. It had also rendered good professional support to the Central Advisory Board of Education which was the highest policy-making body in the field of education.

Apart from training, the Institute had paid considerable attention to research and had conducted a number of studies. The fact that institutions like UNESCO, the IIEP, Paris, ICSSR and UGC had supported these efforts showed that they had confidence in NIEPA, and recognized it as an apex organization rendering significant service. The research projects, by and large, ranged around current and important issues in the area of educational planning and administration. Action research was also initiated and two projects were taken up that were of great importance. One was on the universalization of elementary education and eradication of adult illiteracy and the other was on institutional planning.

NIEPA was able to provide academic and professional support services to important bodies like the National Commission of Teachers, Finance Commission, Planning Commission, State Governments, State Institutions of Public Administration, NCERT and others. NIEPA was being increasingly recognized as a significant professional institution in educational planning and administration and was readily consulted by State Governments and other professional and academic organizations,
including international organizations. An impressive contribution had been made by NIEPA to formulate the National Policy on Education. It was a recognition of the expertise and capabilities of its faculty that the Institute was made to shoulder a very heavy responsibility in this regard by the government.

NIEPA had gradually evolved as a clearing house of ideas and information on research, training and extension. These were being disseminated through the Institute’s Journal on Educational Planning and Administration both in English and Hindi apart from the published research work of the faculty. The Institute had also brought out a series of documents on various issues relating to different aspects of education. Some of the recent publications of the Institute, the Committee noted, touched on important issues in the field of educational planning and administration and attracted the notice of scholars and academic experts. The Institute also collaborated with other agencies such as UGC, universities and Institutes of Management in developing programmes and materials. The collaboration with UGC was detailed and extensive and it covered a wide area of activities.

Although it had not yet developed the scheme of honorary fellowships for conducting research, NIEPA did confer associateships of the Institute in the field of its work. It also had a programme to give national awards for innovative concepts and practices which was under review. In addition, the Institute had undertaken international training programmes and had organized them regularly for personnel from the Asia and Pacific Region, the Middle East and the African States. These programmes had been appreciated by the international bodies and were rated highly.

The Committee was of the view that NIEPA had moved in the right direction in fulfilling its training and research responsibilities. The objectives of the Institute had been fulfilled in an ample measure, largely through the excellent leadership of its successive directors and the devoted efforts of the faculty and the staff. While individual areas of activities could be further developed the Institute had, on the whole, made substantial contributions in its fields of competence and had secured recognition not only among
central and State governments and agencies but also sister academic institutions within
the country and abroad.

The Task Ahead

The Committee felt that the Institute was well poised to undertake a more
significant role in educational planning and administration and could move to spending
more time on research than it had thus far done. Of course the Committee acknowledged
that NIEPA had been under great pressure to expand its training activities and this had
made inroads into the time available for research and consultancy. Nevertheless, the
Institute had to move on to greater responsibilities and more challenging tasks. It was
time for it to redefine its role and to sharpen its tools.

The Committee, while reviewing the work of the Institute, had wide ranging
discussions and consultations with persons and groups who had been associated with
NIEPA. These included former Directors of the Institute, distinguished academicians,
State secretaries and directors, and the faculty. Letters were sent out to the secretaries and
the directors of the State governments and Union Territories and a questionnaire was sent
to participants in courses conducted by NIEPA. Eminent educationists who had been
connected with NIEPA in one way or another were interviewed separately by various
members of the committee. The strengths and weaknesses of the Institute were identified,
but it became evident that there were many more of the former than the latter. Valuable
and constructive suggestions regarding NIEPA’s future role had been made.

Views and Suggestions

One key suggestion was that there was need to develop a long-term perspective
plan for NIEPA. A plan had been made in 1981 but it needed revision. It was felt that
there was lack of clarity about the future direction that the Institute had to take and the
roles of its staff. In addition to a long-term plan, it was felt that NIEPA should plan its
activities annually which would give them a focus.
Review of Objectives

The objectives included training, research and consultancy but for various reasons over the years, the focus had been only on training. About 60 training programmes were conducted through the year leaving little time either for qualitative improvement of the courses or for research. Research and consultancy were pre-requisites for training and when there was no balance between these activities, the quality of the training was bound to deteriorate. Many of the training programmes were repetitive, the response to some of the programmes had decreased, or the clientele utilizing the facilities was not the one that was most in need of them.

It was suggested that only about 15-20 per cent of faculty time should be spent on conducting training programmes and even these should be confined to the experimental areas. They should be treated as laboratory courses to experiment with new training design and content. NIEPA should concentrate its energies on training the trainers so that a regular training infrastructure is created throughout the country. It should also develop training modules for different client groups which would combine academic research and field experiences. Initially the faculty of NIEPA might need to assist in organizing these training programmes at various locations with the ultimate objective of making the States self-sufficient in this sphere. Once this objective was achieved, NIEPA should primarily remain a research and development institution in the field of educational planning and administration.

The review indicated that NIEPA had to emerge as a national level resource centre for the following: training of trainers; preparation of training materials; identification of training needs; and for conducting thematic courses. It had to be the think tank for the country on educational planning and administration for which it needed to evolve an Indian school of thought in this field. NIEPA’s research activities had to include policy research on the processes of policy formulation and implementation in the
Indian context. For this, it was required to build up a sound and comprehensive information and database on educational planning and administration.

NIEPA was usually dependent on audio-visual media material from outside the country. It was felt that this policy should change and NIEPA itself should be able to develop media material in collaboration with other institutes in the country. For this more efforts were needed to study the educational problems in a holistic sense. It required the involvement of social scientists working in similar problem areas in other apex bodies such as the Northeastern Hill University, Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU), Indian Institute of Public Administration (IIPA) and various University Departments had to be strengthened. Expertise could also be drawn from the field level functionaries in the States and Union Territories.

While NIEPA had to assist the Ministry to fulfill the objectives of the National Policy on Education, this role should not be allowed to erode its independence and autonomy. It was felt that up to them the Institute had been functioning more as a department of the Ministry than as an independent institution. Finally, some faculty members felt that NIEPA should not be drawn into the implementation process of programmes because that detracted from its legitimate functions.

Administration

The most urgent requirement was the reorganization of the administrative structure of the institution and the strengthening of its systems to ensure more efficient delivery of the outcomes. Administratively NIEPA did not have to be top heavy. There was no need for three deans when the faculty itself was less than thirty. The deans merely created another level of hierarchy. It was also felt that a full-time consultant was not necessary. If and when needed, one or more consultants could be especially contracted for specific purposes. As it stood, the consultants did not do the work that their designation indicated. One post of the consultant was designated as Executive Director.
and the positions of the Executive Director and the Registrar had structural conflicts in built into them. This meant that service rules had to be finalized.

The faculty members felt that they needed adequate administrative support while organizing training programmes. All the organizational work was currently being done by them and that placed a heavy burden on them drawing them away from the real academic content to be delivered. Once a programme commenced, at least 70 per cent of the time of the faculty went into managing and overseeing its smooth running rather than attending to its academic requirements. The system followed by the IIPA, where the administrative responsibilities are handled by the administration, was recommended.

On the issue of whether it was desirable to have branches of NIEPA either at the regional or State levels there was a difference of opinion although the majority of the faculty did not approve of it. The consensus was that NIEPA should work in collaboration with the existing educational organizations and institutions rather than setting up its own. Networking with other institutions such as University Education Departments was also important.

**Faculty**

All the faculty members felt the need for a definite policy of staff development. Refresher courses were required to stimulate the faculty into generating new ideas and stay up-to-date with the latest research on educational planning and administration. Faculty also needed to participate in field-based action research programmes and get the opportunity to interact with other intellectuals in the field. Apart from academic refresher courses pertaining to their subjects, the faculty needed orientation in professional management.

All the faculty members emphasized the need for field training so that they could be in a better position to advise the participants on real life problems instead of being mere talkers. Greater participation of the faculty in the planning of NIEPA’s activities
was essential; regular faculty meetings were required; and faculty members had to be better represented on the programme advisory committee. What was recommended was better faculty participation matched with greater accountability.

The faculty strength of the institution had to be increased in a phased manner by forty to fifty per cent in the years to come. While the number of units or departments ranged from six to eight, their structure needed to be rationalized. The existing units were not viable due to their small size and ad-hoc communication between them. There was no conceptual framework under which they functioned. It was suggested that another way of functioning could be to have thrust areas rather than units.

It was recommended that about fifty per cent of the faculty should be educational practitioners and the rest mainly scholars. Most faculty members pointed out the anomaly that while emphasis was on training, weightage was always given to research publications when promotions were considered. Adequate opportunity and time was not given for research and publication.

**Recommendations of the Review Committee**

**Objectives**

After the feedback received, while the twelve aims and objectives of NIEPA as laid down in its constitution were quite comprehensive, the stress and focus had to be on training, research, advisory and consultancy services, knowledge dissemination, and networking with other institutions and international agencies. Further, NIEPA needed to develop as a centre for excellence in educational planning and administration. This could be appropriately recognized in the MoA of NIEPA and the training and orientation of teacher educators did not necessarily need to form a part of NIEPA’s programmes.

**General Observations on the Role of NIEPA**
As far as the training activities of the Institute were concerned, the number of training programmes conducted increased from 34 in 1980-81 to almost 60 in 1987-88. The number of participants had also gone up from 751 in 1980-81 to 1474 in 1987-88. Nevertheless, it was felt that it was essential to rationalize the training programmes and to maintain them at levels that did not adversely affect the other activities of the Institute particularly the research and dissemination programmes. The quality of the programmes could be improved by confining the training to key personnel trainers and to innovative and experimental programmes. To do this, enough research was needed to do preparatory work and put together teaching materials before the programmes were offered. The Institute had to develop its own competencies in relation to the programme themes by reviewing developments in the management field. Finally, the participants had to be carefully selected.

The Committee recognized that about fifty research studies had been completed in four years. Most of these studies were descriptive, diagnostic, analytical and evaluative. However it was felt that they lacked management thrust or focus. Hence the results and the study reports could enthuse people to only a limited extent and served merely as sources of information about educational planning and administration. There was hardly any study that was experimental, action-research based and with original contributions that improvement could lead to an educational planning and administration. Therefore, it was felt that NIEPA needed to undertake more experimental and path-breaking studies. Action-research had to be stepped up in a way that new knowledge could be generated. Further, efforts to disseminate the new knowledge generated by its faculty and others had to be stepped up.

While the Journal and other publications of the NIEPA faculty served a very useful purpose, dissemination needed to be further strengthened. This could be done by preparing a large number of simple and well-written documents for educational administrators. The Institute had to have a good mix of training, research, advisory and
dissemination activities. Detailed recommendations to strengthen each of these activities were presented.

**NIEPA with Reference to States and Union Territories**

A large part of NIEPA’s mandate and its crucial role was to support the programmes of the State government and the Union Territories to improve educational planning and administration. This was vital and NIEPA had been assisting various Central and State government agencies from time to time. Hence it should be able to attract a large clientele on a variety of issues pertaining to educational planning and administration. One of its immediate priorities was to encourage and support the development of institutions in the States and Union Territories which could themselves undertake tasks of educational planning and administration. They had to be gradually developed in a way that they could in time function on the lines of NIEPA in the context of their own needs and requirements. NIEPA should therefore choose strategic and important areas to assist States and develop similar competencies in a network of institutions to help educational planners and administrators.

Some measures are recommended to enable NIEPA to play this role effectively: One or more institutions in the States could be chosen for NIEPA to assist them through training and other support together with material assistance to develop them into self-contained units capable of managing their own tasks. For this the central government had to extend full support and help to NIEPA in this effort.

The Committee was not in favour of NIEPA setting up its own units in the States because such an arrangement was not likely to be supported by the States and other existing institutions and might be ineffective in the long run. What NIEPA had to do was to gradually transfer its responsibilities relating to the training of functionaries at district level or of principals of college and others to units and institutions at the States level. At the same time, it had to support their efforts to undertake action-oriented research and other forms of research activities.

Democratization of administration in education was important. Sufficient efforts had not been made to promote efficient administration at the lower levels of the
educational hierarchy. NIEPA had the capacity, the Committee said, to take up programmes in collaboration with the State agencies to promote decentralization of educational administration and effective implementation of programmes.

Proposals were being considered by the government to set up State Advisory Boards of Education, Councils of Higher Education, District Boards of Education, and other similar important bodies to strengthen educational administration in the States. There were also proposals on involving the Panchayati Raj institutions and urban local bodies in education, including educational planning and administration. NIEPA needed to extend professional support and play a key role in establishing these institutions.

With educational institutions of different categories and types growing, the administrative set ups in the States at different levels were under great strain. The people running these institutions had to be equipped to discharge their responsibilities. NIEPA would have to play a leading role in this area. Different States had their own administrative hierarchies, systems of management, pattern of recruitment, and rules and procedures. NIEPA could undertake inter-State studies and action research programmes to identify efficient, cost-effective and easily adaptable structures and systems.

The Mission

NIEPA needed a mission so that the faculty had constant direction in all its activities. The mission statement could be, “to be a National Centre for excellence in educational planning and administration including improvement of quality of planning and administration in education by constantly generating new ideas and technologies and disseminating them through strategic groups.”

Perspective Plan

It was important for NIEPA to evolve a long-term perspective plan for the following ten to fifteen years. A task-force of internal and external members could be constituted for this purpose which should give a detailed five-year plan and indicate the major thrust areas of research and training. While doing so, it had to take note of the objectives set in the National Policy on Education and the Programme of Action
supporting the policy, the five-year-plan objectives and the various programmes intended to promote educational planning and administration in the field. It had to also take note of the issues and problems that were the constant concerns of the State governments and other agencies engaged in this task and clearly identify the role and the specific inputs that could be offered by the Institute. The Perspective Plan had to also keep in view the various objectives identified by the international, national, and State level bodies in the field of educational development and clearly identify the role that NIEPA would play to help achieve some of those objectives.

**NIEPA Council**

The Council of NIEPA was the supreme decision-making body with about 25 members. As it was at the time of the Review, it had representation from the various support and client systems of the Institute – the DoE, Finance, Personnel, Planning Commission, UGC, NCERT, State Governments, and eminent educationists. Only one member represented the NIEPA faculty. The Committee recommended that there should be three faculty members so as to increase faculty participation in decision-making and give them an experience to the larger decision making system. The President could nominate up to three faculty members on the recommendation of the Director. They together with the Director, should be able to take the help of this Supreme Body to achieve the objectives of NIEPA. The Council through its annual meeting needed to play an active role in understanding and reviewing the activities of NIEPA and in providing the necessary support. Executive summaries of all important publications and documents produced by NIEPA should be circulated to the Council members.

**Executive Committee (EC)**

The Executive Committee was the next most important decision-making body of the Institute. The seven-member EC appointed the staff, allocated funds, approved budgets, acquired property and approved the programmes and other academic activities. However, there was no faculty member on the EC. The Committee recommended that two of the three faculty members on the NIEPA Council should be made members of the EC. This would help the NIEPA Director and faculty to have a say in the managing of the
affairs of the Institute. It was also proposed that the Academic Committee should be given the authority to approve the academic programmes.

**Academic Committee (AC)**

The Executive Committee had been appointing a Programme Advisory Committee (PAC), which advised it on the various programmes and activities of the Institute. The PAC had 16 members with representation from the various constituents of the NIEPA Council, such as, the MHRD, the Planning Commission, NCERT, UGC and others. It was recommended that the PAC be replaced by a new committee called the Academic Committee (AC) to act as the major academic decision-making body of the Institute. It should be included among the authorities of the Institute under Rule 3 of the MoA. Its function should be to approve and finalize all the academic programmes of the Institute; work as a think-tank for the faculty; and as a link between the faculty and EC.

Chaired by the Director, the AC could develop long-term and short-term academic perspectives and plans for the Institute. It could also consolidate annually the research, training, dissemination, and advisory programmes planned by the faculty, study them and identify the gaps and thrust areas for further work.

The AC should consist of all the unit and group coordinators and since these would change by rotation, it was hoped that most faculty members would get the opportunity to work in this committee over a period of time. In addition, this committee could have representation of the Directors or Commissioners or Secretaries of Education from three or four States, one Vice-Chancellor, two representatives of MHRD, two to three representatives from the Social Science and Management disciplines and the Joint Director of NIEPA.

**The Role of the Director**

The Director must necessarily play a very important role in an institution like NIEPA. Besides providing leadership to faculty and administration, he or she was also the link with the external world. Being located in Delhi, he or she had to play a very critical role in terms of protecting the autonomy of the Institute and at the same time
meeting the expectations of the Ministry. It was very difficult to balance these. The Ministry, therefore needed to continuously strengthen the hands of the Director by not making routine demands on the Institute and ensure that he or she functioned with a greater autonomy. At the same time, it was also in the interest of NIEPA to work with the Ministry and influence its policies and practices.

A participative style of leadership, which had been the style of the Director so far, was highly commended. It was felt that a large part of the Director’s time should be devoted to identifying and creating opportunities for the NIEPA faculty to make an impact. Most of the internal routine administration should be done by the Joint Director. Academic issues should be handled by the Director and all members of faculty should report to him or her. The Director should have periodic faculty meetings to discuss various issues and keep them posted with information of the major developments. The Committee endorsed the practice of treating the Director at par with a Vice-Chancellor.

**Joint Director, Deans, and Consultants**

The Committee had examined the role played by the Executive Director, Deans and Consultants in the past. While there were no Executive Director, Dean or Consultant in NIEPA at the time of writing the Report, yet the Committee made recommendations pertaining to each of these.

**Joint Director:** The position of the Executive Director was introduced with the intention of managing the administrative system and providing support to the faculty. He or she was supposed to coordinate between the faculty and the administration. This role was effective whenever the person occupying this position also relieved the Director from the burden of day-to-day administration. It was recommended that this position should continue, but it should be re-designated as Joint Director (JD) at par with a Pro-Vice-Chancellor. Then, there should be a Registrar who should report to the Joint Director as well as to the Director. The Joint Director would officiate as Director in the latter’s absence.

**Deans:** It was recommended that these positions be abolished and converted into faculty positions. The Committee accepted the views of the Faculty when it concurred
that the Deans were found to only introduce another layer of hierarchy without any visible benefits. The faculty felt distanced from the Director if the Dean formed a layer between them and the Director.

**Consultants:** The Committee agreed with the Faculty that consultants on permanent positions led to a new hierarchy as they ended up taking administrative positions rather than offering expert help in academic programmes. But the Committee felt that short-term consultants could be advantageous to NIEPA if utilized properly. They could be appointed as short-term experts in the fields where such expertise was lacking in the Institute or when it was difficult to get it on a long-term basis, or when it was required to conduct specialized programmes; short-term research projects; or to provide faculty development and institution-building help to the Director and faculty of NIEPA.

Appointments of consultants could be short-term contracts of up to six months; in exceptional cases for one year. As far as possible these consultants should be borrowed from other specialized institutions and should represent specialization in a discipline that NIEPA might not have. Practitioners could also be appointed to assist in specified programmes. All selections had to be made by a duly constituted selection committee with the Director, as Chairman. This committee should have the freedom to invite eminent and distinguished persons as consultants. However at any given point of time there should not be more than five such consultants working at NIEPA.

**Improving the Quality of Training**

The Committee recommended that NIEPA should offer fewer programmes but of good quality. It was felt that not more than five hundred programme days or hundred programme weeks should be spent on training. Assuming that each day there were four sessions, five hundred programmes would mean two thousand programme sessions to be conducted by forty faculty members. This would work out to about fifty sessions per faculty in a year. This means each faculty member would spend on an average of fifty days or ten weeks at the rate of one session a day. The faculty member was also expected to prepare for each session thoroughly which could take one day of preparation time per
session including library work, development of audio-visual aid material, discussions with participants, attending programme meetings, and understanding the participant profile. Thus a faculty member would be working on training for about one-third of the working days in a year. The rest of the time it was felt, should go on research, advisory and dissemination activities and on training and development of new methodologies all of which also required research.

The quality of training offered by NIEPA could be improved by judiciously choosing programmes for preparatory work before launching the training; by providing well planned inputs and using innovative skill-based methods; by proper follow-up action to appreciate the problems in implementation; and by ensuring support from the implementing agencies and encouraging the participants to adopt innovative practices advocated during the training.

**Choice of Programmes**

NIEPA needed to choose its clientele and programmes according to its competencies. The client should also want to have the programme and there should be scope for making an impact. For this a survey was needed of the persons for whom the training was intended like top-level administrators, State level directors, vice chancellors, deans and others and the strategic themes in which training inputs could have an impact. NIEPA faculty needed to determine the programmes to be offered and whenever the ministry required NIEPA to conduct training, a healthy convention of consulting the Institute was essential.

Training a DEO and other such functionaries where hundreds of officials were involved had to be left to State institutes and local institutions. At the most, NIEPA could run one or two experimental programmes in a year to evolve new methodologies. NIEPA faculty needed to focus on the training and develop modular material that could be used by other training centres and institutions. Special efforts were needed to develop State-level competencies to train headmasters and institutional heads where the numbers to be trained were large.
The Committee realized that it might not be possible for NIEPA to immediately discontinue its training programmes of district-level functionaries as that could cause a lot of dislocation in the programmes launched for them. But a two-pronged approach could be evolved. Efforts had to be made to develop competence and capabilities in the States to undertake these training programmes as these were of strategic importance for effective implementation and at the same time new functionaries in these areas had to be trained. Hence a plan of action had to be carefully drawn up to ensure a smooth change over.

Preparatory Work: Before any programme was launched the programme faculty team needed to do enough preparatory work to understand the training needs of participants and design the programme accordingly. For this it could visit selected clients, call short meetings, visit other institutions and prepare case studies. For every programme, preparation had to begin a few months in advance. A team of faculty needed to meet to decide the inputs required and the materials to be collected. The programme coordinator then had to prepare a budget, discuss it in the group and get it approved by the Director. Thereafter, the programme coordinator required freedom of implementation without any further permission except where there were deviations from the approved heads.

Programme Inputs: NIEPA faculty needed to use training methods that were aimed at skill development. It had to move away from lecture discussions to case-study methods, workshops, role plays, management games, simulation exercises, in-basket and other skill-based methods. Audio-visual aids could be developed and used to increase the involvement of the participants. It would be useful to also conduct faculty development workshops in the latest training techniques. Faculty could be sponsored on field visits to other management institutes to study the methodologies used by them.

Follow-up: It was recommended that NIEPA faculty should periodically visit the client and client organizations to assess the utility of the training programme. Evaluations and follow-up studies were required to enrich the programme inputs. These could be conducted in the form of follow-up workshops.
Improving Research and Publications

The Committee stated that NIEPA should be known for its contribution to the improvement of educational planning and administration in India and other parts of the world. This was only possible through high quality research. It recommended several steps in designing, programming and implementing the research activities of the Institute. A clear distinction had to be made between fundamental research-policy analysis and the maintenance of a data-base of educational planning and administration; between research on implementation and evaluation of educational programmes and projects; comparative studies; and action-oriented research. Desk Studies were equally needed as were state-of-art reports; position papers; in-depth econometric analysis requiring heavy data collection; and prospective studies on the future of the educational system in India.

Prioritizing Research Topics: The choice of the research topics had to be made on the basis of three major criteria: priority issues that were likely to emerge; issues that the Indian educational system was actually confronted with; and the comparative advantage of NIEPA over other universities and research institutions in India to research these issues within a manageable period of time.

In the area of policy analysis, a priority area was to examine resource implications of the alternative modes of financing education at sub-sectoral level such as higher education, vocational education, or pre-school education. As far as implementation and evaluation were concerned, one possible priority could be to develop a methodology for introducing feasibility tests to assess the capacity of the institutions to implement educational plans and projects. For comparative studies, it might be useful to examine how planning experience in education was evolving in India and in countries abroad. In the area of educational administration, there might be a need to consider developing qualitative and quantitative indicators to improve the management of the educational system such as resource indicators on teachers, costs, performance indicators and indicators on the conditions of schooling and other related areas. Also of major relevance was the articulation of formal with non-formal educational projects while keeping the local initiative alive. Other issues required discovering some facts on the situation of educational personnel such as headmasters, supervisors, regional and district officers and
others; the community involvement in education in areas such as organization, finance and tutoring; and the extent of communication and information exchange between levels and sectors of the educational system.

These suggestions of the Committee were to be taken only as illustrative. The faculty of NIEPA needed to evolve its own research priorities based on its perception of the major needs, advice required by the authorities in the central and State governments, the Perspective Plan of the Institute, and the views of the experts. They would have to keep up with the changing scene and situation in the world of educational planning and administration.

*Modalities:* Each research project needs to be prepared in three phases:

(a) Analysis of the problem through literature review, desk studies and state-of-art studies leading to position papers;

(b) Explicit formulation of the issues to be researched and assumptions to be tested including the methods for documenting such assumptions; and

(c) The agenda for the implementation of the research including provisions for partnership, budget, and organizational features.

Faculty members had to be encouraged to publish their work in the Institute’s journal and other reputed journals. At the same time, they also needed to publish their books and monographs with commercial publishers. As in the past, arrangements could be worked out with the publishers and NIEPA could agree to buy some minimum number of copies for distribution among Council members and other client groups. NIEPA faculty need to develop monographs and occasional papers for dissemination among educational planners and administrators and the Institute had to establish a suitable dissemination facility for this purpose.

**Doctoral Programmes**

To keep the academic interests of the faculty alive, interdisciplinary research had to be stimulated. NIEPA faculty could be encouraged to guide doctoral students in
educational planning and administration as that facilitated its own development and growth. Arrangements for this could be worked out with the local universities. It was recommended that NIEPA should also provide fellowships to interested candidates to pursue doctoral work. This was one way of encouraging interdisciplinary research. It would also help NIEPA faculty to maintain links with other relevant departments and institutions of social sciences. A Centre for Studies in Educational Planning and Administration could be created for this purpose if found necessary by the Academic Committee.

**Faculty Size**

An optimal size of faculty was required to carry out all the activities of the Institute. About 40 full-time faculty members was the required strength. Assuming that about 5 were on leave at any given point of time, NIEPA could aim at a faculty size of 45 in addition to the consultants. All faculty positions should be senior fellows in professor’s grade. However, NIEPA might also require faculty in the grades of Associate Fellows and Fellows depending on the qualifications of the candidates. After every five years the performance of the candidates and the contributions made by them needed to be comprehensively reviewed by an expert committee. Inputs from the performance appraisals had to be considered for decisions pertaining to promotions. In fact, a comprehensive review of performance for every faculty member was desirable. The Director was recommended to give a feedback to the faculty after such a review.

These recommendations made it clear that every faculty member recruited to the Institute was to be seen as a potential Senior Fellow. It was hoped that this sustained the motivation of the faculty and enthused its members to strive for excellence. However, appropriate disincentives were also needed, to discourage mediocre or poor performance.

The faculty had to be supported by research staff, recruited on a project-to-project basis. It should also be encouraged to participate in short-term exchange programmes with other relevant institutions in India and abroad. For this the Institute could work out short-term attachments to develop their competencies. The Director should allocate a separate faculty development budget for these purposes.
NIEPA and Participation of Other Institutions

NIEPA required a separate budget to hold annual research conferences and workshops in which other institutions interested in educational planning and management could participate. It was also felt that the Institute should also be able to finance research studies and action research on a selective basis, which could be undertaken by such institutions.

The Administration of the Institute

Adequate delegation of powers was essential at different levels in the Institute. It was recommended that a committee be constituted with the representatives of the integrated financial advisory wing of the Ministry to review the current delegation of powers in the Institute and extend them to avoid administrative and financial delays and enable quicker dispatch of work. The Ministry might review the delegated powers of the authorities of NIEPA so that they could be given a large degree of financial and administrative autonomy.

NIEPA had an excellent tradition of farming out various aspects of its routine functions such as security, cleaning, and catering. This tradition needed to continue. It enabled the Institute to maintain a small core in the administrative wing and yet provide efficient services to enable the academic work at the Institute.

Early action had to be taken to finalize the service rules and also other rules and regulations relating to the internal administration of the Institute. A small group of the Executive Committee could perhaps be constituted to pursue action on this matter and ensure time bound completion of the work.

Campus

NIEPA was a very important and strategic institution not only for the MHRD but also for the entire country. It was therefore essential to help the Institute to grow, develop its own personality and character and make contributions. The various recommendations were intended to allow NIEPA to develop as a National Centre of Excellence.
At the time of the review, NIEPA had inadequate space and facilities. It was, however, essential for it to have a large campus of its own with enough seminar rooms, hostel facilities, computer centre, library, auditorium, faculty and staff quarters, playground and recreational facilities. It was strongly recommended that the Ministry should assist NIEPA to acquire land and develop a new self-contained campus. This would allow it to attract and retain good faculty. Till such time that a campus could come up, houses could be hired for the faculty.

**Summing Up**

The Committee, in effect, acknowledged the significant work done by NIEPA. Its growth was noted and there was the feeling that it had moved in the right direction. While it had done a lot in the field of training and it was always under great pressure to not only continue these training programmes but also expand them, the Committee felt that the time had come for the Institute to spend more time on research and undertake greater challenges and responsibilities. For this, the Institute had to reorganize its academic and administrative infrastructure and also enhance and upgrade its physical facilities. This had to be done for the Institute itself as also for its faculty and support staff.
Chapter VI

THE DECADE OF THE 1990s

The Report of the Review Committee was submitted to the Ministry of HRD in 1989. Its recommendations were examined by the Empowered Committee constituted for the purpose and its decisions together with the recommendations of the Review Committee approved by the Government of India were received in NIEPA in January 1991.

In order to implement the recommendations of the Review Committee and the decisions of the Empowered Committee, Art. 3 of the Memorandum of Association of NIEPA was amended by adding to the main Mission and Objectives for which the Institute had been established. The Institute was “To be a National Centre for excellence in educational planning and administration intended to improve the quality of planning and administration in education by means of study, generation of new ideas, techniques and disseminating them through interaction with, and training of strategic groups and to achieve the same.” Amendments to rules were carried out to strengthen the Council and the Executive Committee with the approval of the President, the NIEPA Council and the Minister for Human Resource Development. The Planning and Programmes Committee which was earlier called the Programme Advisory Committee was included as one of the “Authorities of the National Institute” with functions as defined by the Review Committee and the decisions of the Empowered Committee. Its composition, functions and powers were incorporated in the Rules of NIEPA.

In the light of the Recommendations of the Review Committee, and the decisions of the Empowered Committee, the Institute, while continuing its training activities both within the country and through international collaborations, intensified its research activities. It also tried to establish strong linkages between research and training. Studies were conducted in some key areas of education and the Institute responded to the changing national and international environment.
The Institute continued with its diploma programmes and training. It conducted around fifty training programmes in a year but in many areas the focus shifted. For example, centralized planning gradually began to give way to decentralized planning. Up to then the Institute’s main effort had been on integration of inputs, processes and products of planning at the institution, district, state and national levels. With the onset of liberalization of the economy, the focus also shifted to strategic, indicative rather than comprehensive planning in the conventional sense. Besides the universalization of Elementary Education, Social Safety Network emerged as the new approach to the theory and practice of planning.

Additionally, the Institute established the NIEPA Colloquium, a professional forum for discussion and exchange of views on important issues in education and development. This was to enable the faculty to sharpen its conceptualization, strengthen its theoretical base and contribute to greater clarity on basic issues and objectives of education. It thrived for a few years and some very eminent educationists, scholars and practitioners, addressed the colloquium like Mr. Hedayal Ahmed, Director UNESCO, Bangkok. Professor P.G. Altbach, Director, Comparative Education Centre, New York; Dr. George Psacharopoulos, a noted economist of the World Bank; Dr. M.R. Achuthan of Long Island University, Southampton, USA, Mr. P.K. Michael Tharakon of Centre of Development Studies, Trivandrum, Prof. Kotoski of Moscow University, Dr. Kishori Lal, Director General, Central Statistical Organization, Federal Government of Canada. They spoke on diverse subjects ranging from Education in the Asia Pacific, Costs in Education, Public Policy Formulations, Role of Anti-poverty Programmes and that of Education, Literacy Programmes, Soviet Diplomacy, UN System of National Income Accounting with Special Reference to Service Sectors and many others.

**Diploma in Educational Planning and Administration**

The Institute had started a Diploma in Educational Planning and Administration in July 1983. As part of the recommendations of the expert committee an evaluation was
done in 1991-92 and it was felt that with the changing the educational scenario, the role and functions of the DEOs had changed and so their training requirements had to be looked at afresh. The study examined various aspects of the course content, its impact and the views of the participants on its effectiveness. About 180 officers, who had undergone training in the first nine courses, were the target group for the study. A questionnaire was mailed to all the officers and the 68 responses received were analysed. The objectives were to examine the relevance of the various components of the course in the day-to-day functioning of the trainees; identify the areas overlapping with other programmes which the trainees might have attended earlier or after the NIEPA training; prepare a career profile of the trainees in terms of their age, experience, training and career mobility; and to do a post-facto assessment of the extent to which the various courses had fulfilled their stated objectives.

It was felt that by and large the course had achieved its objectives. Transfer of knowledge and skills was more successful. The respondents were satisfied with the course methodology. But the changing role of the DEOs demanded emphasis on some specific areas such as computer applications in education; planning and management of vocational education; micro-level planning, decentralized planning, school mapping, school complexes and people’s participation in education; management of political and other pressures in day-to-day functioning at the district level; litigation, dealing with court cases and a course on law relating to educational institutions; a course on administrative rules, regulations and accounting practices; technical and management education; and planning and management for various centrally-sponsored schemes such as adult and non-formal education operation blackboard, early childhood care education and population education.

**Universalization of Elementary Education**

Universal elementary education, primary education, delivery systems, costs, regional and demographic imbalances and other related subjects had been a constant preoccupation in both the research and training programmes of NIEPA. As the Institute
grew, the research activities intensified. The approach was multi-disciplinary with the main thrust on theory, policy relevance, methods, techniques and processes of educational planning and development. The attempt was to synthesize theoretical and empirical issues, provide sound empirical and analytical base for policy and plan formulations; and give significant inputs for various training programmes.

The research project, “Education in the year 2000 AD – A Long Term Perspective”, which had been started earlier was restructured to focus on analyzing educational expenditure; average years of schooling completed; long-term perspective for the development of education; and medium-term projections. Thirteen papers and documents were consequently prepared:

(i) Educational Expenditure in India – A trend analysis;
(ii) Determinants of Educational Expenditure in India - Alternative hypothesis tested;
(iii) Unit Cost of Education in India – Alternative hypothesis tested;
(iv) Universalization of Elementary Education – A simple general equilibrium type policy model;
(v) Private Demand for Education : A probabilistic approach;
(vi) An Inter-industry Model : Economic effects of education;
(vii) Spatial Locational Pattern of Educational Institutions in India : A study of divergence between spatial and actual patterns;
(viii) A Model of Balanced Maximal Growth of Education and Economy;
(ix) Demographic Pressures and Migration : A case study of Meghalaya;
(x) A Model of Decomposition of Growth into Component;
(xi) Economic Growth and Literacy : International experience;
(xii) Determinants of Growth of Literacy in India : spatio-temporal dimensions in a probabilistic framework; and
(xiii) Transition, Drop-outs and Average Years of Schooling.

A study on the universalization of elementary education by 2000 A.D. had been done. A further study was undertaken entitled, “Universalization of Elementary
Education by 2000 A.D: Resource Implications of Alternative Policy Packages.” The objectives were to develop a framework for the support structure needed for policy perspectives; analyse the expenditure required for the universalization of elementary education; and develop State-wise projections of enrolments focusing only on backward States in the short run but on all States and Union Territories in the long run.

Although all-round efforts had been made to eradicate illiteracy, and there was also significant success, the situation was yet not satisfactory. The majority of the population continued to be illiterate. The study analysed the spread of literacy in India since 1901 using district level data so that strategies could be moulded accordingly. It had three components: analysis of literacy patterns since 1901 and the nature of its spread at the district level; the determinants of literacy in the districts using secondary data and factors influencing literacy at the grass-root level; and a district-level literacy database developed for different census decades beginning with 1901. The picture was dismal in several districts with regard to the progress of literacy as a whole and female literacy in particular. In 163 districts, female literacy was below 11.30 per cent in 1981. However, a group of districts had also made significant progress and interestingly these were also the areas that had shown good overall development. This confirmed the proposition that literacy and development were interdependent and area-specific strategies had to be formulated integrating the promotion of literacy within a developmental framework.

Keeping the link between education and development in mind, area-specific research was done in Maharashtra on the “Study on Education and Development.” The role of education in accelerating the pace of development, while generally recognized, required empirical probing. Using district-level data for Maharashtra, an attempt was made to explore the relationship between education and other spheres of development such as demography, nuptiality and fertility, health, economic activities and availability of safe drinking water. Significant regional variations were found and it was observed that areas that traditionally performed better continued to do so in all fields, including education. In the coastal region, there were enclaves of educational development but there was an evident link between education and development in different spheres. For
example, areas of high female literacy showed lower birth rates, lesser infant mortality and a higher mean age of marriage. This confirmed the need for an integrated area approach to educational development.

A National Sample Survey was sponsored by the MHRD in 1991 and assigned to the Institute to monitor the universalization of elementary education as a long-term project. Samples of data were needed to estimate the necessary educational rates and ratios in each State and Union Territory to enable realistic educational planning and fixing of targets for elementary education in the country. The main objectives were to collect, compile and analyse information on enrolment and repeaters from class I to V with age break-up for the same classes; improve the existing methodology of using sample survey for collecting educational data; and develop a technique for setting targets based on the multiple indicators available in the data collected both through sample survey and the census.

The report of the study was divided into two phases. Observations in the first phase showed that while there was no dearth of research studies and reports on the growth of elementary education, no systematic attempt had been made to work out the completion rate for any age-grade by any State, Union Territory or even by the Central Government. The need to work out completion rates arose in the context of the 1986 National Policy on Education which laid down that “all children who attain the age of 11 years by 1990 will have had five years of schooling.” The study revealed that the system of monitoring the achievement of universal elementary education only on the basis of gross enrolment ratio was not adequate. Completion rate was a better indicator and closer to reality. However, that alone was also not enough. Indicators of admission rates in class I, together with transition rates from classes I to V in terms of repetitions and dropouts were needed to monitor the enrolment and the flow of students from Classes I to V. Therefore a multiple indicator approach was required to work out the completion rates for class V in the age group of 11-13 years and for Class VIII in the age group 14-17 years. That would help in monitoring the flow of pupils from entrance to completion.
Compulsory Primary Education in Delhi

With regard to the Delhi Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1960, the Institute did a study in 1996 to understand the policies and practices of the government with regard to Universal Compulsory Education since Independence; examine the documentary evidence regarding universal compulsory education in the States and Union Territories which had passed Acts of State Legislature on Compulsory Education; see the status with regard to implementation; and with reference to the Union Territories and the State of Delhi investigate why there was little or no implementation.

The Institute also carried out an investigation into the Quality of Primary Education in the Composite and Municipal Corporation Schools of Delhi. Composite schools started functioning in 1990 when government model schools were converted into composite schools. The objective of the study was to see what contributed to the improvement of their quality; assess the quality in the primary sections of the composite schools and Corporation schools in Delhi; and examine the impact of the behaviour of Headmistress/Headmaster on school management.

The study was an in-depth field-based investigation. The schools selected were the best municipal corporation schools in the opinion of the education officers. The final sample was limited to 18 schools, comprising nine Municipal Corporation Schools and nine composite schools. The quality of primary schools in Delhi was greatly affected by inadequate human resources, teacher transfer policy, admissions, school surroundings, physical facilities for teachers; non-availability of teaching aids, irregularity of teachers, defective non-retention policy and the attitude of higher authorities. Within the constraints faced by the schools, certain strategies were suggested by school heads and teachers for the improvement of quality. These were greater emphasis on child-centred education, better incentive schemes, functional parent-teacher associations, regular inspection and supervision and the availability of sufficient teaching aids that could be improvised in the schools themselves with the help of children.
Another study was done to reflect upon the basic issues of the areas of investigation and the gaps that needed to be filled by a strong research base. Multiple studies were carried out on different aspects of school education using research into Delhi Schools as the base. These studies dealt with the issues of enrolment, retention, infrastructural facilities, quality of teaching and what made it effective, accountability of teachers, involvement of home, overall management of schools and perceptions about private unaided schools. Remarkably, apart from providing research inputs the results led to some introspection.

While these studies concentrated largely on making schools effective in all spheres, several questions arose. For what and for who were these effective schools? Who was gaining from the research on school effectiveness? The research itself appeared to be riddled with errors. It was normative and regulatory, bureaucratic and distempering focusing on processes and constructs of schooling. There seemed to be no concern with education’s societal responsibilities and preparing children for citizenship, parenthood or work.

Reflecting on the reported studies on Delhi schools, the researchers felt that the quantum seemed to be quite exhaustive. Unending dimensions of school education had been looked at but each and every aspect still needed to be critically examined and required in-depth recommendations. The main concentration had been on curriculum, textbooks and teaching methodologies in different subjects mainly in the science stream. Several studies on different aspects of tests, examinations, procedures, and system had been taken up but other factors that contributed to school education and student performance could be looked at to improve the quality of schools. A wide range of studies on the characteristics of students had been reported which included the capabilities, comprehension, scientific and divergent thinking, interests, problem-solving abilities and creativity among students of different socio-economic groups in separate categories of schools. Studies had also been done on interests, influence of environment, background, effective development and other interrelated issues pertaining to students.
All such studies were symptomatic that needed to be probed further to suggest remedial measures that could be used by dealing with educational personnel.

The studies on teaching-learning processes, their effectiveness through video, computer software, T.V. programmes especially in teaching certain subjects were also undertaken. Work done on the effectiveness of peer interactive learning, programmed learning and self-paced instructional method based on one particular subject were found to be all stereotyped and did not convey much. More meaningful research on general instructional methodology and classroom practices in actual teaching-learning situations were needed. Studies on how to make teaching effective within the available resources needed to be carefully analysed. Case studies of good schools where standards of teaching and achievement performances had improved needed to be developed. Limited studies were reported pertaining to issues on teachers, principals, education officers and other officials occupying key positions in school education. Studies on different issues concerning teachers were quite meaningful as each individual study touched upon a specific, critical and sensitive problem. But these needed to be related to personnel at higher levels also so that a more realistic picture could emerge and more precise and relevant suggestions could be made.

Capacity building, leadership behaviour and styles, problems encountered in school management were some of the crucial areas that needed urgent attention. It was felt that an assessment of priority areas would be very fruitful in chalking out the further plan of action to make school education more effective. A strong research base for the effective management of school education was somehow missing in the studies that had been conducted. It was high time to do in-depth studies on educational personnel involved in the management of school education so that better monitoring was possible and more effective control could be exercised. This would bring bureaucrats and practitioners closer instead of their remaining in watertight compartments. There was no research available on these sensitive issues. Therefore, diagnostic studies with practical models applicable in real school situations were of special significance.
Studies pertaining to the allocation and utilization of funds and finances in the processes of school education were quite limited. Such investigations were required to make the education personnel aware of the priority areas that needed more allocation and which had to be varied according to the type and category of the school, needs of students, the people that the school was catering to, the working conditions of teachers and the kind of community support received by the school, among other similar factors.

Certain anticipatory studies could visualize the applicability and impact of new emerging concepts, innovations and experiments that were carried out in the international scene. Inclusive education that proposed to bring together children with special needs with normal children in regular schools could be taken up. Similarly, the latest concepts of school-based management training, budgeting and others were becoming popular abroad. Their effectiveness in the context of Indian schools had to be researched in different school settings.

The scenario the world over showed unsustainable development in urban areas. Life was difficult due to the ever-changing, ever-growing and ever mobile nature of mega cities. It caused disparity in almost every sphere such as the living standards, schools and facilities offered in them, accessibility, retention and attainment and participation in school activities. The learner had to be the main focus of attention, but education was being imparted purely on set standards as if it was a separate entity from the student. For meaningful education some information about the learners, for example the kind of families they came from, facilities in their homes, sanitation, cleanliness and health, was needed. Education would be meaningless if the activities, management and the processes in the schools were not related to the socio-economic status, and to the facilities available at the homes of the children. In an urban setup, children lived in varying conditions – from slums on the one hand to the most affluent complexes on the other. There was wide disparity in school education according to the status of the children. In order to usher sustainable development, inter-sectoral studies were needed to examine relationships and linkages between education and health, sanitation and so on. There was urgent need for action researches to understand the actual nature of problems.
encountered by the urban masses so that prognostic measures could be taken and the child treated in a holistic fashion.

**Effective Utilization of Resources**

Some major on-going concerns of the Institute with regard to education were utilization of resources, planning and implementation at the district levels, regional disparities in education, and quality and equity. A study was undertaken in 1993-94 on the effective utilization of resources in education. The objective was to analyse the cost-effectiveness of education based on institutional cost; oversee the pattern of allocation and utilization of resources in a school for different functions over time; and examine the factors behind the variations in the allocation and utilization patterns in different institutions.

The cost of education at primary, upper primary and secondary levels had increased during the four-year-period, 1988-91. The cost per student was higher but it varied in different schools. More than 95 per cent of the cost was the salaries of teachers, leaving very little for development. This was true for all schools, whether these were run by local bodies, or were primary schools run or aided by the government. An index from the wastage due to failure and dropouts showed it was about 30-45 per cent in primary and upper primary schools, but alarmingly high at the secondary stage. An extension of cost analysis was to see to what extent the wastage occurred because of inefficient utilization of resources. This was particularly useful in policy making. Based on the cost-size relationship, optimum levels of enrollment for primary, upper primary and secondary schools were estimated. It was also pointed out that the modernization of administration and computerization of statistical information was important both at the institutional and the macro State and National levels.

**Regional Disparities**
India is a vast land with uneven regional development leading to educational disparities that needed to be understood. In 1994-95 a study was undertaken entitled, “Regional Disparities in Educational Development in India: An Enquiry into the Educational Disparities in the Context of Social Well Being at the Grassroots Level.” Its objectives were to analyse the disparities in educational development at the school level and evolve a system to reduce them; analyse linkages between education and other spheres of development; and evaluate the existing development delivery mechanism so that a framework could be developed and integrated planning at the grass-root levels done accordingly. The study was based on district level data of the Fifth All India Educational Survey and primary data was generated from fifteen districts of the country through a household survey.

The problems of elementary education in the northeast were studied with special reference to SC and ST children in the context of low female literacy areas to develop strategies for intervention including a planning mechanism in a phased manner for the Ninth Five Year Plan (1997-2002). Also, a study was undertaken to research 10% of primary schools of West Garo Hills. Forty primary schools from the district were selected on the basis of random sampling. The three development blocks covered were Dalu, Tura and Rongram. Questionnaires were given to the school headmasters, parents and guardians of the school children and administrators at every layer of the education department.

In spite of free and compulsory primary education in Meghalaya, a large number of registered students either did not regularly attend their classes or left without completing their education. The most important factor responsible for this was poverty. Poverty led to malnutrition and hunger and so introducing the mid-day meal scheme was a step in the right direction. Just the free rice would make vulnerable children attend school.

The West Garo Hills district was relatively more developed in terms of the transport network and the number of educational institutions, compared to other districts
but female literacy was fairly low in this region. Contrary to expectation, the mid-day meal scheme did not help to hold back girl students despite the poverty and backwardness of the district. However, the scheme in the State was hardly two-years-old and as such it was too short a time span to draw firm conclusions regarding the impact of the mid-day meal on the attendance of girl students in schools. The efficacy of the mid-day meal scheme, the difficulties associated in its implementation and the likely suggestions for their improvements were also worked out.

The Tamil Nadu model had recorded a 6 per cent success rate through the mid-day meal scheme. The central government had also tried to attract children to schools in the same way. The effort was successful up to a point even in the West Garo Hills of Meghalaya. The study found that Meghalaya was distributing dry rations but the cost of converting them into hot meals was high and would have to be borne by the Centre. A hot meal was seen as a positive incentive for bringing children to schools especially in the most backward and the poorest districts but better information management was needed for the proper assessment of the benefits of the scheme.

There were administrative problems, for example, in transporting the food grains to the schools. Because of the slow recovery of money spent on transport, there were delays in lifting the grains from the Food Corporation of India (FCI) warehouses or godowns. The village wanted three or four months of their requirement of rice delivered in one trip but the FCI would not allow that. There was also no proper storage place for the rice. Nevertheless, if properly implemented, then the mid-day meal could improve the attendance at the primary education level in the district. The programme was successful in Dalu and Tura but not in Rangram where Jhuming cultivation was still in practice as it meant that tribal groups moved constantly from one area to another.

A holistic view of the total education system had to be taken together with each component of the system. While trying to implement the goal of universal enrolment at the primary stage, it was necessary to place it in the overall context of the school education and its linkage with other stages. A total vision of school education had to be
evolved and multidimensional strategies worked out to improve the quality of education along with quantitative expansion. In the case of female education, emphasis needed to shift from mere enrolment and retention to positive support to the girl child to ensure at least five years of effective schooling.

A pilot study was undertaken of the factors that contributed to the literacy status of Meghalaya and Mizoram with particular emphasis on the girl child. The objective was to make a block-wise comparative analysis of the literacy rates in the two States with particular focus on the growth and the disparities in levels of literacy; study and analyse the patterns of growth of the first level of education in the two selected States; and do a district-wise comparison of the rate of growth of population with that of literacy.

Till 1951, the spread of literacy had been slow among the females in the Mizoram hills. From 1961, however, it grew faster than male literacy leading to a tremendous reduction in disparity by 1981. By 1991, the gap between male and female literacy was the least, being only about 5.79 per cent. The Mizos, who were the most numerous group among the tribes, were found to be the most literate but there were pronounced inter-district variations both in the spread of literacy and the growth rate. By 1971, Aizwal, the most populous district with a strong base of literate population moved ahead at a faster rate than the State as a whole in each census period, that is, 1971, 1981 and 1991.

Beginning with one school in 1894, the Mizo Hills had 274 schools in 1946 with the majority of schools located in the northern part of the hills. By 1951, 66 per cent of villages in this area had primary schools. The spread of schools was slower in the rest of the areas. In 1961, the Mizo hills with most of the population residing in rural areas, had primary schools in 77.26 per cent of its villages. In 1981, 80.86 per cent of the villages were reported to have schools within habitations and 94.59 per cent of the rural population had access to primary schools.

The total enrolment increased seven times between 1947 and 1990. Till 1950, female participation in literacy programmes was poor but in the decade ending 1960, the
girls’ enrolment registered an 89.27 per cent increase, which was reflected in the participation rate of 90 girls for every 100 boys in the school in 1960. In the next decade (1960-70), the growth rate peaked in total enrolment (95.65%) and girls (101.01%). The participation rate was very high showing 95 girls for every 100 boys. However the growth slowed down in the following decade.

A similar study was the “Impact of Area Intensive Programme for Educationally Backward Minorities.” Its large objectives were to evaluate the scheme in relation to providing basic educational infrastructure and facilities where there was a concentration of educationally backward minorities; evaluate the implementation framework to see whether it was adequate to achieve this goal; and suggest changes in the scheme keeping in view the framework of the National Policy on Education 1986 and the gaps its implementation.

More specifically, the effort was to investigate the extent to which the non-formal education centres and primary and upper primary schools were being utilized and how much their educational infrastructure was being strengthened. Improvement in enrolment and participation had to be examined together with the impact of the participation of Muslim girls in the secondary stage through the scheme of multi-stream residential higher secondary schools.

A regional database on infrastructure and facilities in primary schools was undertaken by the Institute at the behest of UNICEF. Uttar Pradesh, being one of the most educational backward, was chosen as the State to be studied. Due to socio-economic reasons, U.P. had the largest number of out-of-school children and the education of girls also lagged behind. Immediately after the 1990 “Education for All” Summit an effort was made to revitalize education by allocating more resources from the State and by seeking foreign assistance. Consequently the State was implementing one of the largest externally funded projects in basic education.
The learning environment in any educational setting is an important factor in school management and it has a strong association with learning outcomes. The persistence of low levels of literacy in the State was due to the inadequacy of the educational system to meet the basic educational needs of a rapidly growing population. The average rural female literacy was extremely low, 19 per cent in 1991. There was a striking rural-urban disparity in the literacy rate, 50.4 per cent for urban females compared to 19 per cent for the rural females. There were similar disparities in access and participation in primary education and these were exacerbated in the socially and economically deprived sections of the society, many of whom were first-generation learners. The literacy rate among the SC population constituting about 22 per cent of the total population, was less than 10 per cent in nearly half the districts. While these statistics did not indicate the quality of literacy and the overall educational attainment, it was very clear that the State was far from achieving the goal of universal literacy and education for all objectives.

A review of the available data from various sources indicated that the information on school environment was generally lacking both in quantitative and qualitative terms. Neither the Central nor the State governments had any data about the various types of educational facilities, the nature and kind of school infrastructure and the gradual changes that might have been made in the quality of infrastructure. Moreover, separate data for rural and urban areas separately was difficult to get. Special surveys were conducted to fill in the gaps in the data to the extent possible. The areas examined were the status of school infrastructure, access to school education, condition of school buildings, type and number of classrooms in different types of schools and all related information including that on enrolment and teachers. The study used the latest data available from the Sixth All India Educational Survey for the State of U.P. Additional data on primary school infrastructure and associated variables was also obtained from other State government sources.

**District Level Planning and Implementation**
The Institute undertook a study of twelve DIETs – six each in Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan. These had been established at varying points between 1988 and 1992. The study covered different aspects such as availability of suitable infrastructure, adequacy of human resources and the utilization of the financial resources to manage in-service training programmes. It was seen that the DIETs, far from being the pace-setting institutions as they had been envisaged, had not lived up to their promise as they faced several impediments to their functioning such as inadequate infrastructure, unutilized facilities and low number of faculty. They were supposed to conduct more and more in-service training for teachers, headmasters, instructors and supervisors of non-formal education and adult education, community leaders and others but these were neither organized in a systematic manner nor were they undertaken according to the requirements of the district. There was no proper institutional planning in the majority of DIETs and the targets for the years were not developed. While the DIETs of Andhra Pradesh may not have implemented the fixed plans for imparting training to the educational personnel in various categories at least they had set the targets. The DIETs in Rajasthan had not even done that much. Nor had the DIETs developed and maintained the required database.

A similar study was done of selected DIETs in Haryana to identify the areas they had selected for educational intervention in the socio-economic and educational contexts of the districts; survey the activities undertaken by them since their inception and the infrastructural facilities available to them; study the administrative, financial, and academic support received by them from the district, the State and the National agencies for designing, implementing and monitoring their activities; and assess the implementation of the scheme in general and of the selected DIETs in particular, and recommend ways by which to make the DIETs more effective.

The DIETs had been set up at the initiative of the Central Government to restructure and reorganize teacher education and to provide support to district planning. Although the Central Government had provided the financial support, the success of the scheme really depended on the efforts made by the State government. One of the most
important activities of the DIETs was in-service education of teachers and the training of
functionaries dealing with adult education and non-formal education. This also brought
up the question of the required laboratory area for running pilot projects. None of the
DIETs had initiated any work to identify this or planned its activities. They had also not
developed a database on district profiles, especially teachers, planned interventions or
evolved a policy of in-service training.

Quality of Education

Both the quantity and the quality of education were areas of concern. Hence an
important study was on the Quality of Basic Education Services in collaboration with the
IIEP, Paris, as part of its larger inter-regional project on the Quality of Basic Education
Services in Developing Countries. It focused mainly on interspatial quality variations
within the delineated sub-national space. The study highlighted the need for different
policy interventions in different areas because of the physiographic and socio-economic
variations. The main objectives were to assess the status of primary schools in terms of
the facilities provided and the local environment in which they operated; make a
comparative analysis of the quality of primary school functioning in varying conditions
ranging from the least developed to one of the most advanced localities; measure the
outcome of schooling in terms of the achievement levels of learners of grades IV and V
with specific reference to literacy and numeric skills; and correlate learner achievements
with various inputs and process factors operating in the primary schools.

The study was based on empirical evidence generated from schools located in five
select localities in Madhya Pradesh, identified as one of the more educationally backward
States in the country. Keeping in view the basic framework of the study, the five
localities were selected in a way that they varied in the levels of overall development
ranging from a very backward locality to a highly advanced one.

The level-wise analysis of performance in the sample schools revealed that even
after completing five years of schooling only 10 per cent children had the basic
knowledge and skill components in Hindi and 5 per cent in Mathematics. However, systematic improvement in the situation could be observed in developed urban localities in comparison to the backward rural localities with respect to the subjects and the grades. The mean scores of learners in the three rural localities were lower than the overall mean score for the entire population. Learner achievement was also correlated with the level of infrastructural facilities available in the schools. Schools with multi-grade teaching had lower learner achievement. The other factors that contributed to learning achievements were good teacher training, homework, internal management of schools and availability of textbooks. Learner achievement did not vary substantially between boys and girls but children with educated parents performed better than those with illiterate parents. On the whole, private schools showed higher achievement levels than the government schools in the urban areas. Schools that prepared annual and monthly plans, for teaching following them strictly together with a regular evaluation of the children showed a comparatively better performance. The role of the headmaster in providing academic leadership by insisting on planning and adhering to it was very important for improving the quality of primary education in India.

As a follow up to this study, an inter-district analysis of the quality of basic education was sponsored by IIEP, Paris, to focus on micro-level analysis of the variations among the five localities in the five districts of Madhya Pradesh that had been studied. The basic assumption was that the quality of primary education needed to be seen in the operational context of the schools. Therefore, further analysis of the data was attempted with specific focus on the variations in learner achievement between schools located in the same locality. The study was conducted in five selected localities of Madhya Pradesh, which consisted of a least developed tribal locality, two rural localities, one underdeveloped and the other developed and two localities one in a semi-urban area and the other in the most advanced locality of the city.

Five project reports were brought out. Each of these focused on the locality and its characteristics in terms of general infrastructural development; schools and facilities in them; day-to-day activities in each of the schools; the teaching-learning processes and the
outcomes in terms of learner achievement; and planning for the improvement of quality focusing on the areas that required immediate intervention.

The specific needs of schools in different localities needed intervention in different areas of education. In some schools, the need could be for infrastructure while in others for textbooks. In some, the functioning of the Headmaster needed to be looked at and in others, the organization of activities in the school. The total learning time needed to be maximized and this could be done by strengthening the structures and processes related to internal management of the schools.

Various specific initiatives and the quality of their delivery were studied at the instance of the MHRD. In this context, a report was submitted to the UNESCO on the “Interface of Lok Jumbish with Shiksha Karmi Project in Rajasthan”. It had two objectives: make a consolidated assessment of the management of the Shiksha Karmi Programme, its structure and performance so that it could provide lessons to the Lok Jumbish Programme; and identify the potentials and practical strategies of the Shiksha Karmi Programme that could be utilized by the Lok Jumbish to yield optimum results.

Given the experience and work of the Shiksha Karmi Programmes in the area of primary education and Lok Jumbish’s focus on the same in its first phase, it was imperative for the two to draw upon each other’s experience and work in collaboration. The Shiksha Karmi Programme could act as an advisory body to the Lok Jumbish. It was recommended that NIEPA should adopt a cluster of villages or a block where both the Shiksha Karmi Programme and the Lok Jumbish were present so that a meaningful interface between the two was possible. In order to universalize the successes and failures of these experiments so that other Indian States could also benefit from them an in-depth study incorporating the intra-regional specificities of the Lok Jumbish and the Shiksha Karmi Programme could be undertaken and the feedback used to improve the efficiency and performance of all such attempts.

**Inclusive Education**
NIEPA undertook a district-wise analysis of the disparities in the literacy levels of the SC and non-SC population to probe the reasons for their existence. Spatial patterns of the spread of literacy among different segments of the SC population were to be seen and their similarities or differences with the non-scheduled caste population examined. To do this, a suitable method of measuring the gap in the levels of literacy had to be evolved. Also, the nature of relationship between literacy rates, disparity indices and socio-economic characteristics needed to be analysed to evolve region-specific policies for minimizing inequalities in the levels of educational development.

The patterns of educational development among various SCs clearly showed that the educational facilities and other incentives had been quite unevenly utilized among the various caste groups. The intra-caste disparities were as marked as the inter-caste ones. In this context, the scheme of protective discrimination came under severe criticism. The study clearly supported the hypothesis that some castes had benefited more than the others and so the policy imperatives for the educational development of the SCs had to be viewed from two important dimensions – one corresponding to the intra-caste differentials and the other in the context of differentials that existed between the Scheduled Castes and others. Any policy framework that addressed the one and not the other would be unable to achieve the goal of equity and social justice.

Within the SCs too, sub-groups needed to be identified according to their level of educational, social and economic development and a differential scale of benefits had to be made available accordingly. The process of de-notification of castes that had acquired a minimum level of development had also to be considered seriously, otherwise the intra-group disparities would continue to persist. Some people suggested that family should become the basis for providing incentives and other related benefits. For the effective implementation of many schemes, it was felt that it was essential to devise the cut-off limits whatever their nature might be, beyond which the benefit would not be automatically available.
Since the problems of the most disadvantaged and small-size castes were entirely different from those of the larger and better placed ones, the policies of protective discrimination had to take these into account. In the prevalent polices for SCs, there was greater stress on giving more concessions and incentives without assessing their real impact. The results of the analysis, though modest in terms of its coverage, showed that even after many decades of concessional treatment, wide inequalities persisted within the SCs.

Finally, it was found that increasing the educational infrastructure did not necessarily mean improvement in educational development. Mobilizing the demand for education among the SCs was equally important. Therefore, non-governmental organizations and university students had to intensively pursue activities at the grass-root level to bring more target groups into the sphere of education.

Inclusive education was an important goal in India and the Institute had continuously concentrated on it. A study in 1992 dealt with the educational development among the tribes in the sub-plan areas of Andhra Pradesh. It showed that since independence, the strategies and approaches to tribal development had changed. Based on experience and comprehensive planning, suitable management mechanism had evolved while formulating the Fifth Five Year Plan. It became evident that educational development could only happen when the area itself was developed from all angles. This approach was considered particularly suitable for planning in the more backward and concentrated tribal areas. However, it was important to examine the effectiveness of this approach for the educational development of tribes before it could be completely implemented.

In the policy framework, emphasis was placed on the medium of instruction of the tribal children. It was found that while the administration of tribal development activities had undergone noticeable changes in terms of control over the various agencies and bodies involved, there was a lot of conflict between the Education and Development agencies on the one hand and the local bodies and the welfare department on the other.
As far as access to education was concerned, there were noticeable variations in different areas. Institutions were performing below the desired level and the quality of education left much to be desired. As regards participation, there was not much involvement of the tribal people.

A study was done of Single-Teacher Schools in Tribal Areas in the East Godavari and Khammam Districts of Andhra Pradesh to find out whether all the villages without schools had been covered. If not, the data on the locational gap had to be collected. Also, information was needed on whether the entire school-age population was served in villages with single-teacher schools. Several issues pertaining to teachers had to be examined, such as, were only the local tribals appointed or were there others from outside? What was the method of appointing tribals from outside? What were the problems they faced pertaining to stay, language and others? Were all the teachers trained? How were the schools functioning in terms of attendance of teachers and students, quality of teaching, problems of communication, accommodation and other infrastructure? There were also challenges of interpersonal relationships among the teachers and the disbursement of their salaries. Questions with regard to wastage and stagnation amongst children had also to be examined.

Some vital conclusions and action points emerged. It was noticed that the demand for Ashram Schools had increased considerably since the single-teacher schools had come into existence. In some areas, the ashram schools were not able to meet the demand for admission as their numbers had not increased. There was urgent need therefore to plan for their expansion in terms of intake and infrastructure facilities. Due to the lack of planning, there was no budgetary allocation for different requirements except for the teachers’ salary. Establishing a school was erroneously equated with the appointment of teachers. As a result, several schools lacked even the minimum essential teaching material. Similarly, schools had been opened simultaneously and teacher requirement had not been properly projected. In the same way there was no proper planning of the number of teachers to be deputed for training so that alternative arrangements could be made and the schools could function without interruption. This
meant that more teachers needed to be recruited over and above the current requirement so that they could be deputed for training in a phased manner. When all the teachers were trained, the surplus could be utilized in the expansion of schools over a period of time.

The cooperation and participation expected of the community in constructing and maintaining the school building proved to be unrealistic as the community expected the Integrated Tribal Development Agency (ITDA) to provide the building. Hence budgetary allocation was needed for construction and maintenance and for the salaries of teachers and doctors.

There was also a need to develop school complexes with the ashram school taking the lead as this would facilitate interaction and constant monitoring. Inspection and supervision of these schools had to be on non-conventional lines. The officers needed to play the role of a friend, philosopher and guide and set an example so that teachers could play the same role with the students and the community. These officers needed to be adequately oriented about their role in the special contest. They had to plan and organize training programmes for the professional enrichment of teachers in collaboration with the DIET in the district, develop comprehensive tools for evaluation and monitoring of the schools objectively, and indicate the strengths and weaknesses of teachers.

The ITDA needed to take a policy decision that only trained teachers would be appointed. In case these were not available, the recruits had to be made to improve their qualifications before being deputed for full-time training. Meanwhile they had to be given short-time periodic training on the job. Although the ITDA appointed only tribal teachers, it was recommended that they should also have a small percentage of non-tribal teachers from the local areas so that there was healthy interaction between them rather than a feeling of exclusiveness among the tribal teachers.

Music and Sports
NIEPA undertook a study on the “Impact of Music and Sports input in Primary School Retention and Performance: The Udang Experiment”. The aim was to study the shift, if any, on the pattern of attendance across seasons, between 1993 and 1996; change in the dropout pattern, if any, between 1993 and 1996; examine the level of performance, the reactions of teachers, students and parents on music and sports activities; and the unit cost of this innovative intervention. The attempt was to find solutions to the problems of retention rather than the usual theoretical research.

The pattern of attendance and dropout was studied in identified schools. The children enrolled in 1993-94 were treated throughout the project till it was completed in 1997-98. The children could thus be identified by name, school and class from which they dropped out for the first time in any year. Instead of going back into the history of the rate of dropout in 1993 in the project cluster, which could have conformed to a pre-test post-test design, the study utilized the State level dropout data as the baseline.

The study showed that not only attendance increased because of music and sport activities, simultaneously there were also fewer dropouts. These activities changed the drab schooling to a culturally relevant joyful experience. The teachers were motivated and the community came closer to the schools. Also, the unemployed youth could be used in these activities to transform schooling into an enjoyable experience.

In concrete terms, the average daily attendance across seasons went up to 79 per cent on days of music and sports and 76 per cent on the other days of the week. The dropout rate, at the end of the project period, was 16.71 or 17 per cent against the State average of 49 per cent. The standard four students covered under the project performed as well as the students who were not on minimum level of learning-based tests in language and mathematics. The teachers were also enthused. The local primary teachers composed thirty-nine lyrics on mathematics, environment, science, language, history, great men and women of India and other such subjects. The extensive range of sports, fun sports, games, yoga, gymnastics and free-hand exercises were designed, tested and
used. The curricular music with notations and the sports and games evolved were documented with illustrations.

Although not a part of its project objective in this study, while looking at the role of co-curricular and extra curricular activities like music and sports in education, it was thought that it would be interesting to examine the management model put forward by the Institute of Environmental Research and Sustainable Development (IERSD) in Greece. It was the non-resident village model (NRV) for rural reconstruction which one of the many social experiments of that IERSD had been carefully nurturing as a developmental model. One of its main features was to build a three-tier leadership: Conceptualization, ideation and projectization; planning for implementation; and execution including monitoring and evaluation.

In this model, the implementation or execution was placed in the hands of the local primary and secondary teachers. The youth were involved as instructors and supervisors and actually managed various programmes and projects. A proper team was developed for this stage and it tended to be the most cohesive and compact. Its members carried out detailed plans for execution and monitored and evaluated the outcomes. They were in direct contact with the beneficiaries on the one hand and with the second order leadership for planning and management support on the other.

The second level of leadership was a group of highly respected, resident local teachers of secondary and primary schools. They were the opinion leaders in the local community. Besides the detailed planning for implementation, the second level leadership was largely responsible for environment building so that the system would accept and internalize intervention. This move had to build a cohesive team and extend its support to the third tier. Unless otherwise required, the second level of leadership was not required to interact directly with the beneficiaries. It remained as the backbone of the front-line leadership.
The conceptual leadership was provided by an NRV who had national and international exposure. An NRV was one who continued to be a villager by style and concern but did not normally reside in the village. Obviously, he or she had to be in frequent contact with the village. Such a leader provided the ideational leadership to the second-order leaders in the villages by bringing in ideas from far and wide and adapting them to the village conditions. He or she often remained behind the scene supporting the second-order leaders. Besides conceptualizing social intervention, one of the major roles of the NRV was capacity building of the second-tier local leadership and taking them beyond the conventional limited thinking and aspirations.

As a feature of this development model, the NRV leadership often remained unknown to the actual beneficiaries. The second-level leadership was relatively better acquainted with them but it was the front-line leadership that was known to the community for their contribution through the projects.

The second important feature of the model was to bring the teacher to centre-stage for rural reconstruction. Traditionally, village teachers were consulted by the local population on the education of children and their careers; the choice of bride or bridegroom for the children; buying and selling of property and settling disputes; health-related problems; issues pertaining to agriculture and farming; and political activities. This was because teachers had information and knowledge in an otherwise information-starved rural community. They were the only qualified or educated people with the exception of one or two medical doctors. There were usually no engineers, lawyers, and such other professionals in the villages.

The village teachers mobilized funds for school buildings; steered computer education and programmes on the information system; conducted modern vocational courses; hosted national and international guests; presented cases in international academic meets; effectively led crisis management in times of flood, fire, epidemics and communal tensions; and initiated health interventions. It was evident that given the opportunity, encouragement and developmental support, teachers could play a central
role in rural reconstruction. They made significant contributions to different areas of development which was quite distinct from their stereotypical role as primary or secondary teachers.

The important strategies adopted in the project design and implementation were: the involvement of primary school teachers in designing the interventions needed and subsequently in deciding the actual sports and music equipments and materials required for their schools. They could compose lyrics and have music activities. This led to an enhanced sense of self-esteem and self-worth and unfurled their creativity. Unemployed local youth of the villages who had an obsession for and talent in music or sports and games were utilized to transform and enrich schooling. The activities were regularly monitored by supervisors and documented. The instructors met more than once every week to exchange experiences and mutually sort out the problems faced in the schools. This was over and above the daily or frequent fitness training of the sports instructors and practice session of the music instructors. Experts and eminent scholars were invited to visit the village and see their projects. Their assessment and suggestions were taken as their comments and feedbacks were immensely helpful.

Implications

There were several significant implications of this project and study in the context of commonplace assumptions. For example, the dropout rate was brought down through this project to about 17 per cent without any economic intervention thus challenging the concept that poverty was the main reason for primary school dropouts. Given the correct management inputs, primary education could be transformed.

The project could be replicated and adapted into the larger system. Pedagogical interventions were more effective in the retention than systemic and structured interventions. What policy makers could learn was that the government should provide academic guidelines in the nature of goals, but not micro-manage. The intervention design could be developed locally using a district or even a block as a unit and, by the
lab-area approach identified as an innovative intervention strategy in the DIET Scheme, should be activated. A decentralized participative process in equipping schools was more effective than State and centrally sponsored mechanisms. The project empowered the teachers and involved the community giving everybody a stake in its success. It was an eye opener that talented unemployed youth were a potential resource for the universalization of basic education and rural reconstruction. Continuously monitored in different ways, it would improve school performance.

The project led to some positive outcomes. The SCERT, Calcutta had followed it with considerable interest in the previous two years. It disseminated the scheme widely to all the primary schools and Zilla Parishads and various policy-making bodies and authorities. Individual schools and enthusiastic teachers started adopting the sports and music activities. Members of the State Planning Board met the project director and the investigator to explore the possibility of up-scaling the project initially at the block level and subsequently at the district level. The Government of West Bengal made additional budgetary allocations to adopt/adapt the Udang model of making school interesting. Other agencies such as the planning cell of DPEP and the MHRD also realized the potential of this experiment and circulated it widely to create awareness that dropout was not an insurmountable problem.

**Sample Survey Techniques in Educational Statistics**

The experience in India was that effective planning and implementation was difficult because the database for policy and plan formulation was inadequate, outdated and unreliable. Even when it was available there were gaps and limitations. Besides, there were issues of its timelines, credibility and representativeness. As a step towards developing a meaningful data system the Institute, in collaboration with UNESCO Paris, undertook a project on “Use of Sample Survey Techniques in Educational Statistics”. The study identified the variety of sources of educational statistics in India, their inadequacies in terms of extent, coverage and the nature of the existing data system. It developed a sample design and comprehensive institutional and household questionnaires. The
methodology could be replicated with or without the modifications warranted by locational specificities. The study highlighted the extent of over-reporting the enrolments, incidences of overage and under-age and dropouts, and the age-gender-caste specific variations of these characteristics.

**Evaluative Study of Educational Technology**

Educational technology is vital in the spread of education. Its use began in the 1990s but the success of any scheme depends on both the financial and non-financial inputs. One of the major non-financial inputs is effective management. This was found to be weak. Certain strategic management interventions were therefore necessary. Major activities were required and these needed to be monitored if the use of technology was to be effective. On consultation with teachers and principals, it became evident that maintaining a logbook was the most dependable indicator of the utilization of media but a record showing the use of television was available only in 8.76 per cent schools, and that of radio in 6.83 per cent schools. The next major indicator was the time table. More than 22 per cent schools provided a place for radio programmes in the time table, and more than 20 per cent schools for television, particularly in the classrooms. However, the location of TV sets in classrooms had direct correlation to their utilization.

There were at least two more supportive inputs necessary for enhancing the utilization of media. Readily available information showing the schedules of radio and television programmes was required. Teachers had to be trained to utilize the radio and television programmes as a teaching aid. They could maintain log books recording basic questions and key issues for discussion on the programme. However, since these programmes were not necessarily based on the syllabi and there was overwhelming emphasis on curriculum and examination, it was found that the teachers were not too concerned about them and chose to disregard them. Although it might not be pedagogically very sound, it was felt that if quizzes and tests were conducted and made a part of the evaluation, the utility of radio and TV programmes would be enhanced.
The same strategies could be adopted for recorded audio cassettes. It was recommended that schools should acquire a few blank audio cassettes to record and students should be invited to narrate stories, recite poetry or participate in discussions. The opportunity to listen to one’s own voice was great encouragement for the children, and it provided powerful feedback for learning articulation. Such cassettes did not need to be preserved and could be re-used. Teachers could also use blank cassettes to record their own presentations or make recordings from the radio and use them in class. All these school-level activities needed professional inputs from the District and State levels.

Keeping these findings in view, certain management and monitoring activities were called for not only at the elementary school level but also at the Central, State and District levels. At each level two types of agencies were available. There were the professional support systems such as the Central Institute of Educational Technology (CIET) at the National level; State Institute of Educational Technology or Educational Technology Cell (SIET), or SCERTs at the State level; and DIETs at the district level. Some departmental or governmental agencies could also be used, such as the MHRD at the Centre; the State Directorate particularly the officer in-charge of the Educational Technology scheme at the State level; and the DEOs at the district level. As a broad policy the professional agencies and the governmental organizations needed to collaborate. Such collaboration was there at the National level but it was rather weak or dormant at the State level and almost absent at the district level. The utilization of educational technology facilities could be enhanced by synergy between the implementing and the monitoring actions. As a general rule, it was recommended, that a chain of accountability should be formed from the schools to the district, State and National level agencies.

**Schools in Sikkim**

In 1999, a study was done of the school complexes in Sikkim, which had become a part of the Indian Union in 1975. In earlier studies on Sikkim, Jangira (1975) had studied the location of the existing school-level educational institutions so that the aided
and private schools could be taken over by the State government and new schools opened. Veda Prakash (1975) had studied the general pattern of education in Sikkim. The Ministry of Education and Culture did an in-depth study in 1981 of the working of the State education department and highlighted its defects. The panel suggested reorganization of the State education department. Bhattacharjee (1987) reviewed the development of education in Sikkim in a historical perspective. However, since the school complexes had not received adequate attention it was essential to study them and draw implications for their effective organization.

Situated in the eastern Himalaya, Sikkim had remained relatively isolated from the rest of the country. Educational administration was unique in many respects. It was almost entirely government controlled. The administration of all the schools was done from the Directorate of Education. This posed several problems, particularly in the context of different hill terrains in which the schools were situated. The school complexes were formed as a strategy to facilitate their administration. Sikkim was one State that could perhaps be singled out for giving a fair trail to the scheme of school complexes as mooted by the Education Commission of 1964-66. Therefore, it was necessary to appraise the performance of these complexes.

A few questions that arose in this connection were: What was the composition of school complexes and their average size? What functions did they perform and how effectively? What were their problems? What were the mechanisms used by the administration to receive feedback from them and how effective were these? The study tried to answer these and other related questions. The purpose was to identify the strength and weaknesses of the system, which would help in evolving an appropriate action programme for improving its efficiency. For this, it was necessary to find out the infrastructure in these complexes, how the organizers were appointed and their powers and functions. It was also necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of linkages between the complexes and their feeder schools on the one hand and the complexes and the headquarters on the other.
Higher Education

Economics of Agricultural Education

NIEPA had sponsored a study on Cost Benefit Analysis of University Level Education in Agriculture. Even though agriculture came in the rural sector, higher education in it was elite-oriented making agricultural education inaccessible to the weaker sections. The return of agricultural education was high and its cost low for the households suggesting a possible reduction in subsidies. But private costs other than fees had risen significantly and this required policy interventions so as to prevent the costs from going beyond the reach of even middle-income groups. Privatization and full cost fee programmes were not recommended and liberal loans were suggested.

A study was done on the market for agricultural graduates. The cost-benefit analysis of Rajasthan Agricultural University served as the basis. The main objectives were to quantify and analyse the components of private and social costs in various streams and levels of education in the university; study the demand side of agricultural education; identify the main demand sectors; prepare the income profiles of the graduates of the university; study the cost-effectiveness of agricultural education; observe the horizontal and vertical mobility of the agricultural graduates; analyse the socio-economic background of the current year agricultural students to evaluate the admissions policy together with the implications for achieving the social objectives of economic development in India; and probe whether the reorientation of agricultural education could effect an increase in social returns.

It was found that the university’s intake was heavily loaded in favour of the relatively affluent sections. Since most of the entrants to post-graduate and research, especially in Dairy Science, were from relatively affluent families, subsides could be reduced and part of the institutional cost shifted to the students or their parents. Effective measures however, were needed to enable students from the weaker sections to get through school education and opt for education in the various branches of agricultural
education. The rate of return would be quite high, since the opportunity cost was low. However, in reality, despite reservations, the weaker sections had failed to enter the stream in adequate numbers.

It was found that private costs other than fees had escalated. These could be reduced through proper management of hostels and libraries. Scholarships too, were not keeping pace with inflation and the analysis of the rate of return was inadequate. Therefore, the private and social rate of return needed to be used with caution in guiding policy-making in education, especially in taking decisions about fees and scholarships. Even when education was highly subsidized the weaker sections did not avail of the opportunities and social scientists and activists had to identify the reasons. One of the reasons perhaps was that the initial private cost was very high and the potential benefits took quite long to materialize. So even when the weaker sections had full information, they were not in a position to bear the risk for too long. It was felt that privatization and full cost sharing by the students was not a just, realistic, and effective policy option, as was suggested by many proponents of the new economic policy. Access to finances through liberal loan schemes had to be made easy and widespread. For this an independent education finance corporation could be established.

**Gender Issues in Higher Education**

With regard to the perceptions of educational administrators on gender issues in higher education, some vital areas were taken up. The objective was to compare the perception of educational administrators in universities in India and Canada. The study specifically explored the factors that facilitated the entry and career path of women. It also examined the gender differences in the perception and exercise of power; the recognition and regard given to an administrative position; the work orientation; and the professional climate in which administrators functioned.

Some of the salient findings of the study were that women saw monitoring, encouragement from family and friends, combined with luck and seniority in the
university, as crucial factors in procuring an administrative position. The general underlying lack of self-esteem and confidence had enormous implications in the training for confidence building. They knew that they wanted more power and they did not hesitate to exercise it but they worried about their ability to discharge responsibility. They enjoyed recognition, wanted more of it, and felt it was worth all the hard work. They gave less importance to pay and perquisites but placed greater value on satisfaction, self-esteem and autonomy. However, they felt that they were constantly under a microscope and this led to feelings of isolation. They felt that their accomplishment were downgraded and trivialized, which hampered their full participation in professional activities. Structural adjustments in terms of policy and practices needed to be made. Successful women became role models.

*Principals of Women’s Colleges*

In collaboration with SNDT University a project was undertaken to identify the training needs of the Principals of Women’s Colleges, study their problems at the institutional level, on the one hand, and the special problems of women’s institutions on the other. The idea was to conduct orientation programmes for senior administrators on the planning and management of colleges to enable them to function more effectively. A questionnaire was designed to obtain data on the general planning and management concerns that were common to the administration of all colleges; issues that were of special relevance to the education of women students; problems specific to women as administrators; and personal data of women administrators.

A study was also done on pace-setting women’s colleges to examine their stated objectives; circumstances that led to their establishment; specific requirements of women students in all aspect of their development; analysis of the specific programmes initiated for meeting these needs and their functioning; their processes and outcomes; and the other critical factors that contributed to their success so as to bring out the implication for the planning and management of women’s colleges.
Functioning of Colleges

An Action Research Study on the Development and Efficient Functioning of Colleges was undertaken to analyse the problems of development and efficient functioning of selected colleges, suggest suitable changes, and if necessary, improve their growth and functioning; help and persuade the colleges to implement the suggested changes and other developmental schemes, such as Computer Open Systems Implementation Programme (COSIP), COHSSIP and User Programming Language (UPL), and to restructure their courses so that education could be related to the social needs; examine the effects of the suggested changes, conceptualize the problems and remedies from the experiences gained so that this knowledge could be utilized to design training programmes for college principals.

The focus was to know the existing situation and problems of a college with regard to academic activities, teaching-learning processes, curricular and extra-curricular activities, implementation and development of the modern concept of planning and management to help to develop the academic, physical, cultural, and social qualities of the students. The teachers needed a perspective of social and community development through knowledge and skills. It was envisaged that the experience gained from the selected colleges would help in refining the recommendations for other colleges.

Some College Development Councils (CDCs) were selected to review the performances of the select colleges in the light of UGC guidelines and examine their problems and difficulties so as to assess whether they could act as nodal centres to help the principal in institutional planning and management and suggest measures to strengthen their role in the development of colleges.

The study showed that whenever the Council intervened in the felt need areas, it was effective in implementing programmes even when it had no statutory powers or resources. The Council was also effective in the dissemination of information. For example, information on the number of working days of colleges had effected changes.
Therefore, information on vital problems, such as, the opening of new colleges, creating job opportunities, and other issues could be effectively used to build public opinion and counter pressure dynamics. Usually, the Vice-Chancellor was too pre-occupied with different matters to devote much attention to the development of colleges. The position of the Director of the College Development Council needed to be strengthened if the Council was to be an effective agent of change.

**Autonomous Colleges**

Autonomous colleges were introduced to facilitate the decentralization of planning in higher education at the institutional level. A project was undertaken, using case studies in institutions of higher learning to identify the problems of managing autonomy. The findings of the study highlighted the differential structure of autonomous colleges and the ensuing active participation of teachers in management.

The relationship between academic institutions and the political and social orders within which they had to operate was often a vexed one and was not satisfactory even in the most democratic of societies. In India for example, while the universities enjoyed academic freedom in principle, in practice this freedom was sharply qualified by the exigencies of governmental monetary controls. They could devise courses of their choice, but their ability to run them depended mainly on the government’s funding of faculty appointments, teacher training and infrastructural facilities and finally, on the ability of the university to meet the government-endorsed criteria. Autonomous colleges were no exception as they also had to abide by the norms of university approvals to give the degree and State government approvals, where finances were involved were in tune with the norms of the UGC.

The overlapping issues and tensions between the UGC, the University and State levels created unwanted restrictions both on the autonomous colleges and on those run by the government. Consequently, the role of the college remained where it was with only
the added responsibility of conducting examinations and announcing results. This was found in the government autonomous colleges in Rajasthan.

However, autonomous colleges had been able to implement some long overdue examination reforms and this had very positive outcomes. The reforms facilitated the teaching-learning processes, conducting examinations and declaring results, and they had positive impact on other activities such as teaching administration and student learning. They introduced the semester system, continuous internal assessment, changes in question papers and question items in some autonomous colleges although others continued with the annual system of examinations. But even with the annual system, tests were conducted frequently during the academic session and performance in these tests was taken into consideration in the final result. Several autonomous colleges introduced the semester system with continuous internal assessment. The pattern of the question paper varied in its content and the types of questions asked in comparison to that of the affiliated colleges. There were short answer, essay type, and objective type questions and also the combination of them all. Some colleges developed their own question banks. Because of autonomy the colleges were able to adhere to the planned time schedule in conducting examinations and in the announcement of results. This benefited the students immensely. The teachers and students unanimously agreed that the semester system and continuous internal assessment ensured student discipline, promoted regular study habits and inculcated a positive attitude towards examinations. It also promoted better understanding of the subject both in theory and its application.

**Efficient Utilization of Resources in Higher Education**

The Planning Commission sponsored a study on how to bring about greater efficiency in the utilization of the existing facilities and resources in Higher Education. Resources for all areas were covered - financial, physical, human and time. The aim was to study the lack of proper planning that prevented strategic components from working in synergy. It was found that there was no monitoring or coordination in the system. Also there were in-built constraints which prevented the efficient utilization of resources.
Problems were analysed with the help of a number of indicators such as the size of the institution, the index of working days; utilization of human resources and physical and infrastructural facilities; efficiency of administration, library and laboratory staff; and efficiency in the allocation and administration of financial resources.

**Distance Education**

Distance education was expected to play a vital role and NIEPA undertook several studies on its different aspects. For example, it did a study on the cost incurred by distance education institutes with different class sizes. Out of all 33 institutions of distance education at that time, nine institutes were examined on the basis of enrolment. It was found that the cost for one student in a regular college was equivalent to the cost of 6.5 students in distance education. State support for distance education was much less than that for formal education. For example, State support per student in 1987-88 in the Delhi colleges was Rs. 4,744 per student as against Rs. 328 in distance education. Since the cost of undergraduate education was much lower than that of postgraduate education and the number of undergraduate students was larger, it was suggested that undergraduate courses could be used to subsidize the postgraduate ones. It was therefore desirable for distance learning institutions to have a judicious blend of undergraduate and postgraduate institutions.

The study highlighted several points. Institutes of distance education generated surpluses and used them either to create infrastructures or to augment the general revenues of the universities, which were contrary to what the UGC had stipulated. They had little or no core faculty in the subject when a course was introduced, but the preparation of reading materials required maturity, accurate expression and academic acumen. Therefore, it was desirable to have senior faculty positions in the directorates. Distance education also required support staff specifically trained for a variety of jobs not generally performed in formal education, for instance, the preparation of reading materials, editors for manuscript correction, proof readers and designers. Similarly, staff was required for audio and video cassette preparation. Hence, norms had to be developed
to appoint non-academic or support staff commensurate to the needs of distance education.

A Study was done in the University of Bombay of the organizational and faculty structure of the distance education system within the formal university framework so that appropriate and adequate organizational and faculty structure could be evolved for the more efficient functioning of the distance education system. The primary question was whether it was possible to evolve an organizational structure that would permit learner variants in formal education; general non-formal education; specific non-formal education; work experience; and educational technology.

Distance education in India relied mainly on the print medium. However, in many other countries, where distance education was successful in covering far more potential learners to give them the benefits of higher education, there was a much wider use of technology in instructional media such as radio, television and computers. These had a larger potential to deal with widespread illiteracy. Teaching in distance education required greater skills because the process was carried out in absentia.

Critical evaluation was done of the systems adopted for managing teaching and learning in the correspondence institutes in India. The aim was to study the current practices of developing learning materials, their distribution; feedback from students; the assignments and their evaluation; personal contact programmes; different aspects of tutorials, guidance, and counselling, if any; the functioning of study centres and the evaluation and assessment of students. All the practices in these areas were compared with international practices.

It was found that the systems adopted in the existing correspondence institutes in India were stereotyped. The course materials that had mostly been written by individual teachers and experts in the field, generally lacked innovation. Media was not combined with the written course materials. An evaluation of the materials showed the absence of didactic quality suitable for distance study. The students however, seemed satisfied with
the dispatch system and the quality of reading material. Assignments had been appended to the course reading materials but they lacked a two-way process of communication in the evaluation of the assignments. In many institutions, submitting assignments was voluntary. The system of correspondence education in India therefore, relied more on face-to-face sessions during personal contact programmes than on non-contiguous two-way communication or assignments with the feedback from tutors. Further, there was hardly any support or backing given to the students by the study centres. While continuous evaluation was done in many institutions, only 11 per cent of them gave weightage to the marks of continuous assessment in the final examination.

**NIEPA’s Active Contribution to Some Pivotal Policy Issues**

The Minister of HRD in his capacity as Chairman of CABE appointed a committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Veerappa Moily, Chief Minister of Karnataka to formulate guidelines on the decentralized management of education in the context of the 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments. A core group was set up at the Institute to help the committee in its various activities. The faculty members of the Institute advised and assisted the committee as permanent invitees; they prepared background documents for the committee; and put together draft reports. The Institute was present at the meetings of the core group on open education constituted by the Planning Commission. The Institute was also represented at the meetings of the Planning Commission on the formulation of the Eighth Five Year Plan.

Faculty members of NIEPA provided professional support and consultancy to the UGC through the review of working at academic staff colleges, autonomous colleges, and in setting up of universities. This helped in operationalizing concepts of autonomy and accountability.

**National Policy on Education**
The revised National Policy on Education, Programme of Action (1992) provided a unique opportunity to the Institute to share its accumulated experiences with the experts and various agencies. It prepared guidelines for establishing State Advisory Boards of Education; District Boards of Education; Village Education Committees; Macro-level Planning, School Mapping, and School Complexes. It provided professional services to the States in the preparation of plans to implement the National Policy on Education. It also provided professional support to the DoE, the Planning Commission, the UGC and to the universities for implementing various schemes in priority areas. Members the faculty of the Institute gave academic inputs in the training and research activities of other academic and professional bodies. They served on academic and official committees and delegations and published research data and books in their areas of specialization.

**Summing Up**

1990s was an important decade in the history of NIEPA. It contributed substantially in the preparation of the guidelines with respect to the Revised National Policy of Education and Programme of Action, 1992. this was natural as it was eminently equipped to do so and had made very significant contributions to the framing of the National Policy of Education, 1986.

As a National Centre for excellence in educational planning and administration it was expected to improve the quality of planning and administration in education by means of study, and generation of new ideas on the other it had to respond to the new challenges brought by the opening of economy. With the onset of liberalization of the economy, the focus shifted to strategic, indicative rather than comprehensive planning in the conventional sense. Besides the Universalization of Elementary Education, Social Safety Network emerged as the new approach to the theory and practice of planning.

The new economic conditions put considerable stress on education budgets. Resource requirements of education were increasing rapidly while the availability of resources was limited, leading to an ever widening gap between the two. Educational
administrative machinery needed to be modernized and efficient management of resources became vital. This made it all the more necessary to further emphasize what had always been a concern of the Institute – the planning and management of education in remote areas, educational development of the minorities and decentralized planning with community participation. It provided as part of its mandate, consultancy to State, National and International organizations and institutions to help them meet these emerging challenges.
Chapter VII

EARLY YEARS OF THE NEW DECADE

With the turn of the century, NIEPA increased its activities in training and research. The Institute completed the second and third phase of the 20th diploma programme during 2000, the first phase of which had commenced from November 1, 1999.

As it evolved, the programme had three components. One, there was three months of intensive curricular work at NIEPA, from November 1, 2000 to Jan 31, 2001. Second, it was followed by three months of project work undertaken by the trainees usually in the districts of their postings from February 1 - April 30, 2001. Third, a five-day workshop based on the project work reports held at NIEPA from July 23-27, 2001.

The programme was based on lecture discussions and panel discussions, case studies, syndicate methods, simulation exercises, role plays in basket methods and group discussions on identified themes. Sufficient time was devoted to practical exercises, library-based assignments and visits to some important educational institutions, both in and around Delhi and outside Delhi. Beside these, each participant had to train an officer for a period of three months at the place of work. The training included supervised project work on which a report had to be submitted.

A study visit to Andhra Pradesh organized by NIEPA was part of the curricular work of the participants. The idea was to familiarize them with the educational innovations and activities being done in the State. The participants visited many educational institutions in the State such as Osmania University, SCERT, Aga Khan Education Services, several schools including residential ones, DIETs, Dr. Reddy’s Foundation, and the M.V. Foundation. This was a rich experience for both the team conducting the course and the participants. They were exposed to meaningful and innovative educational activities that could be replicated in other States as well.
International Diploma in Educational Planning and Administration (IDEPA)

Apart from training Indian personnel, NIEPA had also been organizing a six-month programme for an International Diploma in Educational Planning and Administration (IDEPA) for educational planners of developing countries every year since 1985. The course structure consisted of two major components: three-months of intensive curricular work at NIEPA followed by three months of a field research project in the home country by the participants. The objective was to strike a balance between theory and practice. Broadly, this included lecture discussions, simulation and practical exercises, role plays, case discussions, management games, search conferences, demonstrations and group discussions. Panel discussions and seminars were special features of the course. The programme also emphasized academic exercises at the micro-level, educational and cultural field visits and educational attachments and enrichment lectures. The educational field attachments involved visits and attachments to institutions in various Indian States. For example, in the 16th and 17th diploma programmes, Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh respectively, were selected.

The usual training programmes continued in different significant areas such as for the heads of Ashram Schools in Andhra Pradesh; workshops on Administrative Reforms for Improving School Efficiency and on School Improvement Planning. Such programmes were attended by heads of institutions and other State-level officers. Then there were issues taken up like the Planning and Management of Secondary Education and Higher Education; Methodology and Techniques at District Planning in Education under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and others; and Planning and Management of DIETs and SCERTs.

Research

The research activities of the Institute continued to increase. The second All India Survey of Educational Administration sponsored by the MHRD, which had been started
in 1989-90, was completed. The aim was to comprehensively survey and report on the educational administration prevalent in all the States, Union Territories and the Centre. First, the existing educational system, processes and structures were detailed and then suitable recommendations were made so that the system could be changed to enable planning and management as envisaged under the National Policy on Education 1986. The Survey, which was primarily concerned with school education, covered the organizational set-up, functions and activities of the education departments of the State at the secretariat, directorate, and inspectorate levels; educational institutions under different managements; and departments other than the education department.

Apart from the general information about the States together with the legal basis of education, the Survey briefly described the educational policies and programmes, the organization and administration of education, the role of non-government agencies and local bodies, personnel and financial management, information systems, processes of educational planning, inspection and supervision, academic support system and other related areas. There was also a discussion on the current issues and problems faced in the management of education as well as an indication for future development. After the survey and the reports of States and Union Territories, a thematic synthesis of these was completed and published as the National Level Study on Education Administration: Governance of School Education in India.

**Education for All**

The study “Education for All - 2000” continued at NIEPA. It was divided into two parts. In the first part, three main studies were done. There were on the eighteen core indicators developed for Education for All; learner achievement; and learner conditions.

The second part consisted of twenty-one thematic reviews and four case studies in which the following aspects of education were examined: gender; out-of-school children; the role and contribution of NGO’s on the education of the urban disadvantaged; the role
and status of primary school teachers; education of children with special needs; post-literacy goals; planning; social mobilization, resources, teacher training, textbooks, financing, and centralization of education.

Consequent to the study, NIEPA brought out the *EFA-2000 Report – India* from which some policy directions emerged. It was felt that the goal of universal elementary education in the years to come had to measure up to the magnitude and complexity of the incomplete task. This would have to be guided by three broad concerns: free and compulsory education of satisfactory quality to all children up to the age of 14 years; political commitment to make elementary education a fundamental right; and enforce it through the necessary statutory measures. Greater decentralization and a significantly enhanced role was required for local bodies, community organizations and voluntary agencies in efforts towards the universalization of elementary education. This had become possible by the enactment of the 73rd and 74th amendments of the Constitution.

**Elementary Education in India: Access, Participation, and Equity**

NIEPA joined the Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE) funded by the Department for International Development of the Government of U.K. It was coordinated and managed by the Centre for International Education (CIE) at the University of Sussex. Institutions in the Consortium included the Centre for International Education; School of Education; Sussex Institute; Institute of Development Studies, Sussex; University of Sussex; Institute of Education and Development, BRAC University, Dhaka; University of Education at Winneba, Ghana; NIEPA, New Delhi; Education Policy Consortium, Johannesburg; and the Institute of Education, University of London. The aim of CREATE was to generate knowledge and insights to improve access to basic education and reduce poverty through a programme of research, capacity building, communication and dissemination with partners in the U.K., Bangladesh, Ghana, India, South Africa, and other developing countries. Its activities were designed to support education for all and influence national and international development in relation to access to basic education.
As part of this research programme, NIEPA initiated a comprehensive review study on the subject of Access and Equity in Elementary Education in India. It was to consist of a number of analytical papers on different sub-themes of the topic. Papers on various themes were prepared by the NIEPA faculty and other external experts. Apart from the review, NIEPA also prepared a number of empirical research projects to be taken up in the subsequent phase of the programme.

The Role of NGOs and Inclusive Education

A study was undertaken on the Government initiatives and the role and contribution of Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) to inclusive education in India. The main objectives were to review the current status and role of different NGOs in the field of inclusive education in India; assess the overall contribution towards realizing the goals of inclusive education; study the strategies and processes adopted by a few selected NGOs consistently working in inclusive education; study the networking between the government departments facilitating inclusive education; finally, make recommendations for enhanced government and NGO partnership.

The study identified NGOs that had consistently implemented inclusive education with the assistance of the Integrated Education of Disabled Children or from funds from elsewhere and others that had initiated the activity but had later dropped it. Apart from getting information from government records, there were field visits to understand the situation and experiences in three States – Karnataka, Gujarat and Tamil Nadu -- which had implemented the programme with the assistance of NGOs. On the other hand there were states like Madhya Pradesh that had implemented it without much support from NGOs. At least five NGOs were identified for in-depth case studies based on the study of documents, on-site observations, and discussions with implementers and beneficiaries.

A comprehensive report was prepared on the current status of the involvement of NGOs in inclusive education and their overall contribution. Case profiles of some of the
leading NGOs working in the field of inclusive education were done. The study generated information for the Planning Commission, the MHRD and NIEPA for policy formulation to generate programmes for capacity building and to reflect on the strategies for networking.

NGOs had played a significant role in the developmental sectors in India during the pre-independence period. Many of the developments in national education were the result of such efforts. The education of children with disabilities was primarily supported by voluntary agencies, started by parents or others connected to persons with impairments. Comparatively, the role of the government had been less prominent and restricted. At the policy level, the government accepted that children with disabilities were equally entitled to education. It also acknowledged that the majority of such children either did not get any education or what they received was generally inferior to that imparted to their peers. Besides the few educational facilities provided by NGOs or private individuals, other needs such as accommodation, transport and equipment, all of which created favourable conditions for education remained unattended.

However, it was noted that in recent years a number of private-sector schools and volunteer organizations had moved beyond segregated education. They had opted for inclusive education and were more comprehensive in their approach. In many cases, however, special schools run by registered NGOs were not recognized by the education and welfare departments of State governments and this created major problems for the schools, parents and children. The scheme of assistance to voluntary organizations for establishing special schools was introduced in 1993-94 to cover districts where no facilities existed, but 240 districts as identified by the Ministry of Welfare were still not covered under the scheme.

There was urgent need to ensure that children with disabilities got educational opportunities. Several factors influenced the right to equality which included the developing of a national conscience; political will; government, local, and legal support; effective implementation of educational programmes; effective administrative and
bureaucratic set-up; necessary changes in staff training for all educators; parental support and community involvement; and inter-agency cooperation. To achieve the ambitious goal of universalization of education, educational opportunities for differently-abled children had to be expanded and alternatives such as non-formal education, distance learning and open schools had to be included.

As per the report, a vast number of NGOs remained starved of resources. They were staffed with poorly paid personnel who had to work in extremely unsatisfactory service conditions. The output of some such organizations therefore tended to be haphazard and un-coordinated and depended on the services and goodwill of a few founding members. Despite the serious challenges, the demand for contributions from the voluntary sector was continuously increasing. This sector was expected to accomplish rather difficult professional tasks. According to a recent count there were over 1600 voluntary organizations in India engaged in the service of persons with disabilities. These ranged from the very professional, well-managed, high-profile national and immensely successful organizations to the well-meaning, small neighbourhood groups, with a lot of goodwill but limited resources.

Nevertheless, it was also true that many NGOs got financial support from more than one source. The Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment funded NGOs for community-based rehabilitation, managing special schools, providing assistive devices and many other such activities, which were required for persons with disabilities. The Labour Ministry also gave support for rehabilitation programmes. The Rehabilitation Council of India helped organizations working in the field of disabilities in various developmental programmes and HRD. The MHRD too, had a specific scheme of Integrated Education for Disabled Children since 1983 to provide a range of facilities to children with disabilities under the general school system so that they could become its part. Under the scheme, 100 per cent financial assistance was available to States and NGOs. However, until recently, this had remained a fringe scheme. The study found that it was being implemented in 27 States and five Union Territories at that time through over 22,000 schools and benefited more than 95,000 children. Further, efforts were being
made by the government to generate general awareness of the need to send children with
disabilities to regular schools.

In recent years an interesting partnership had emerged between the government
and NGOs for implementing integrated education for disabled children. This was more
visible in Gujarat and Tamil Nadu and to some extent in Madhya Pradesh. The NGOs had
been involved as a planned measure by the government departments to help implement
inclusive education activities.

**Tharu Children**

A study on, “Some Psychological Dimensions of Education of the Tharu
Children” was taken up. The study was relevant to an important domain about which the
government was concerned. This was the designing and implementation of educational
programmes rooted in the life of people that they were intended to serve. If education was
a means of contributing to the development of children, it had to begin with the present
state of affairs and work towards some future state perceived as more ‘desirable’ by the
concerned community. Education systems that were imposed on people from outside
without any recognition of their eco-cultural needs and traditionally developed
behavioural repertoires, often made faulty assumptions about skills, abilities and
capacities of children, and therefore failed to fulfill the needs of their life. Knowledge of
the eco-cultural features of the Tharus, their needs and aspirations including the skills and
abilities of children, would provide an appropriate point from where the education
programme could take off.

The main objectives were to analyse the educational needs of children of the
Tharu Tribal Group; assess the dominant motivations and aspirations of the members of
the community; assess the effectiveness of the existing educational programme in relation
to children’s needs and their psychological make up, analyse the barriers of education of
the Tharu children with a focus on interpersonal relations, enculturation and socialization
practices, division of labour; and the overall ecological setting in which they were placed,
and comprehend psychologically how their educational needs could be fulfilled in the existing setup.

Since Independence, the development of STs was a major concern of the government. Their economic activities, linguistic features, religious practices, belief systems and life not only led to the tribes being recognized as distinct “cultural groups”, but also resulted in their being isolated from mainstream society. Education through schooling was proposed as an important integrating strategy but this was fraught with many constraints. The majority of the tribal population did not want education. Even those who had sought school education for a few years felt that it was not as attractive and powerful as they thought.

It was difficult to understand the reasons for their apathy. Poverty and day-to-day pressures of livelihood were possibly the major causes for their indifference as was the perceived futility of education in meeting demands of their eco-cultural setting. From the day-to-day behaviour of the tribal children it was evident that although they were intellectually and behaviourally fairly competent, they had a very high dropout rate even at the primary school level. All efforts to check this trend had virtually failed. How to attract the children to schools and how to hold them there were still the big questions pertaining to the education of the tribals.

**Education of the Urban Poor**

It was realized that educational facilities and opportunities did not only vary between urban and rural areas but also within the same city. Hence a pilot study was done on “Education of Urban Poor – a Case Study on Slum Dwellers of Delhi”. Most people had lived in the slum selected since 1980 when they came into being that is for more than 15-20 years. Poor farmers and landless labourers from Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh had migrated and formed the nucleus. They had been joined by more people from the same areas.
The main objectives of the study were to see what were the various educational facilities available in the slums in terms of schools and non-formal centres; the various schemes of incentives; the extent of participation by the slum children; the perceptions and expectations of the parents from the education of their children; and the socio-economic and educational constraints the parents faced in educating their children.

A study was also done to find out the effectiveness of the Corporation Schools keeping in view their location; infrastructural and physical facilities; mobilization of resources; teacher and pupil strength; time-table and class size; organization of activities, both curricular and co-curricular; enrolment, dropout and retention.

The implementation and strategies for achieving universal elementary education were studied in Nagpur and Indore. They were to examine the context of providing education; the status of the universalization of elementary education; the problems faced in achieving the goal; and the perceptions of educational functionaries in the context of the 74th Constitutional Amendment and the then proposed 83rd Constitutional Amendment. Similar case studies were done of Pune, Kanpur, Lucknow, Jaipur, Surat, Kochi, Vadodara and Coimbatore.

UNESCO sponsored a study at the Institute on “Primary Education for All in Mumbai”, India. Two factors were examined – challenges posed by the city and the effect of poverty. The roles of governmental organizations such as the Municipal Corporation and of the NGOs in making primary education a reality in the city were analysed. It was observed that the contexts of the lives of the poor and the conditions in which their children lived and studied, made it extremely difficult for them to get even primary education. The conditions of life in the slums and the lack of adequate support whether from home or from school stacked the cards so heavily against them that they were not able to get education even up to class four, let alone complete the higher levels of schooling.
The Municipal Corporation of Greater Mumbai and its education department had a huge administrative machinery to provide free primary schooling with eight languages that could be used as media of instruction. Yet, the goal remained distant. The drifting population and the lack of home environment made a daunting task even more challenging. Besides, resources were a problem as 96 per cent of the allocated budget went into teachers’ salaries. The Corporation had its own limitations in reaching out to each and every child. Therefore it had tried to build partnerships with voluntary organizations.

**Expenditure on Education**

Another study was on the patterns and determinants of household expenditure on education. The aim was to examine how much a household spent on education; estimate its relationship with the government spending on education; and see the factors that influenced family expenditure on this activity. It was found that households spent a sizeable amount on education be it elementary, secondary, or higher education. Government and household expenditures were not substitutes for each other but were complementary. This was an interesting finding because it showed that if the government wanted to mobilize household finances for education, it had to increase its own allocation. Conversely, if government budgets were reduced, household expenditures on education also declined resulting in severe resource constraints.

It was pointed out that free primary and upper primary education would considerably reduce the financial burden on the households making education more attractive and potentially push up the demand for it. Apart from tuition fees, the government could also abolish all kinds of other fees in primary and upper primary schools. It could be useful to provide mid-day meals, textbooks, uniforms and other necessary expenses to most of the children in elementary education as that would further reduce the household expenditure on it considerably. In effect, efforts had to be made to make truly free education available to those who could not afford it if it had to be universalized.
District Primary Education Programme (DPEP)

In the Phase I of DPEP, a centrally-sponsored externally-funded project had been launched in 1992-93 with the largest financial contributions by the World Bank. The objectives were universal enrolment; reduction of dropout rates to less than 10 per cent; improvement in learner achievement; and reduction of inequalities. The project targeted the educationally backward locations keeping the districts as the unit for planning and management of education. Two main criteria were used to select districts under DPEP: low female literacy where the rate was less than the national average; and where total literacy campaigns had been successfully completed. The attempt was to develop local specific plans through a participatory process.

NIEPA provided consultancy to the MHRD on the programmes and activities of the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) between 2000 and 2001. This involved various academic activities including training programmes. For example, a week’s training on “School Mapping and Micro-Planning” helped to introduce the participants to these concepts, train them in methodology and equip them to organize a school-mapping exercise. Several other academic activities were done to understand the various issues to be taken care of in order to make DPEP a success. A two-day meeting focused on State Institutes of Educational Management and Training (SIEMATs) and their activities. NIEPA shared its experiences of developing and organizing research and training programmes and discussed the future activities of its faculty. There was a two-week training programme on Quantitative Educational Research Methods for Planning the Quality of Education in collaboration with IIEP in Paris. The aim was to discuss issues pertaining to educational research, provide skills in sampling and research methodology and the use of educational data for policy and decision making.

Since the Institute had to undertake research, provide documentation and information support services and share information with the National and State level institutions, it became urgent to modernize the Institute’s Library and Documentation
The Institute provided a computerized database of DPEP documents and developed reports to provide timely information services wherever required. The library also planned to make DPEP available on the Developing Library Network (DELNET) enabling 102 member libraries in Delhi and other parts of the country to access it.

The relationship between education and poverty has been much debated. Did lack of education cause poverty or did poverty lead to a lack of education? It was accepted that the equation varied from situation to situation but it was undisputable that the under-educated were disproportionately represented in the ranks of the poor. Earlier analyses of educational deprivation in India often used a demand-supply framework to explain the slow progress of basic education. But this framework was not found appropriate because education was not a homogenous product and quality was crucial; education had no single supply-demand equilibrium and there was no well-defined price to bring the demand in line with supply. Government schools for instance, charged fixed and negligible fees and normally did not refuse new admissions; the demand for education had an important social dimension which could be easily overlooked in the standard demand-supply framework; and educational decisions were often made by others, like parents on behalf of the children, particularly in the case of the girl child.

The study therefore focused on the household educational decisions for children and the factors that went into the decision making. DPEP did not try to change the economic status of the household but it was expected that various intervention strategies introduced by DPEP could alter the household demand for education. The study tried to assess the extent that these interventions had succeeded.

In India, all studies showed that poverty played a vital role in low schooling levels. In general, poor countries or poorer sections of the population in the same country or same region were more likely to have poorer educational records. The National Sample Survey Organization (NSSO) data in India revealed that the more the people below the poverty line, the lesser the number of children sent to school from poor
households. However, there were notable exceptions among countries and within India between States, districts and sub-district levels. These exceptions pointed to the fact that poverty constraints could be alleviated or defeated by appropriate interventions to improve the quality of basic education.

The Institute was required to identify and develop indicators for the improvement of schools and the facilities needed for better teaching-learning processes and levels; grade and stage transition; and school management and community participation. The impact of DPEP interventions on the demand for education was studied by using households in Orissa as an indicator. The objective was to compare the level of demand for education in households below the poverty line in a DPEP and non-DPEP district to assess the effect of DPEP intervention.

Analysis of data and information collected from the sample primary schools and households in the two selected districts suggested improving enrolment and retaining students including girls and SC and ST children. The extent of improvement depended on the manner of implementing DPEP. Among the interventions that contributed to the demand for primary education were the opening of primary schools in the areas or in nearby places; appointment teachers in the primary schools; construction of separate toilets for girls; free textbooks and uniform for the SC/ST and girls students; scholarships for girls, SC/ST and OBCs; mid-day meal; setting up of Village Education Committees (VEC); and organizing Parent Teacher Association (PTA) meetings. The VECs substantially improved the functioning of the schools, the school community linkage, and increased awareness of parents about the education of their children. The District and sub-section management structures under DPEP were examined to see their role and functions in order to analyse the working of District Project Officers, Block Resource Centres and Cluster Resource Centres and their linkages with other academic and administrative institutions. Recommendations were sought for their future capacity building.

**Improvement of Quality**
Another study focused on building national capacities for quality improvement of primary schools. In this context NIEPA entered into a contract with UNESCO to write the Handbook on Building National Capacity for Quality Improvement of Primary Education. The field testing involved identifying the site as suggested by the Indian team in the Yogjakarta meeting; translating and adapting the Pack or Handbook in the regional language; testing it by organizing workshops; visiting primary schools; holding discussions with the managements; and reporting the outcomes.

**Operation Blackboard**

At the instance of the MHRD, NIEPA undertook a National Evaluation on the Implementation and Impact of the Operation Blackboard Scheme. The specific objectives were to critically assess the progress of the Operation Blackboard Scheme in the light of the National Policy on Education – 1986 and the subsequent guidelines of the Eighth Plan; study the overall impact of the scheme on enrolment and retention of children; and observe the qualitative impact of two-teacher and three-teacher schools together with the effect of women teachers on the functioning of primary schools.

The achievement level of the two-teacher schools which had two classrooms and a minimum teaching learning equipment was assessed in the light of specific targets. The quality and suitability of the school building constructed as part of the scheme was seen in the context of the local conditions together with the availability and utilization of teaching-learning equipment by teachers trained to link it with the use of Operation Blackboard materials. State-level practices for monitoring the implementing the scheme had to be examined to find out the extent of the involvement of the village community and teachers in procuring teaching-learning materials and how this equipment impacted the upper primary schools. Finally, the utilization of grants under the scheme by each State was analysed.
The findings suggested that different components of the Operation Blackboard scheme had been given to schools under various other programmes in the 1990s and so there was no need to duplicate them. What was needed was to suitably integrate the scheme with other ongoing school improvement programmes. Community involvement in the managing and supervising schooling activities required serious attention and follow-up action. The curriculum relevant to the environment of the learners and their cultural ethos together with its transaction in the ‘home language’ for at least the first two years of primary schooling could help to improve quality in primary education. Implementation and mass applications of half-baked pedagogical practices in primary schools, however, had to be avoided because the need was to nurture the potentialities of the learners and not to overemphasize the scholastic learning achievements.

Some specific observations needed serious attention. About one-fourth of the rural primary schools in the country, with 1993 as the base, had not been covered under the Operation Blackboard scheme. There was no proper and systematic coordination within and between departments responsible for the implementation of the scheme and this had diffused the achievement in the various regions of the State making it almost invisible. Further, providing a standardized one-time package of Operation Blackboard to the primary schools made only a limited contribution in improving the essential school facilities in real terms. An over-emphasis on numbers diluted the quality of inputs provided. Indiscriminate increase in classrooms and teachers under pressure from local groups had decreased the number of single-teacher and single-classroom schools by almost 10 to 13 per cent. Teaching practices followed by the teachers only contributed to rote learning.

The absence of regular, planned and concurrent monitoring of implementation by the Central and the State governments caused serious distortions in the way the norms and procedures were applied and followed. Irregular school inspections had created teacher apathy toward their expected duties and responsibilities. The local community was not genuinely involved in giving any financial support to the schools for their improvement.
**District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETS)**

DIETS had been a constant subject of study by NIEPA. A national evaluation was conducted to critically evaluate their performance in terms of their original job description and the changing scenario in elementary education. A directory of DIETs was prepared and recommendations were made for the immediate and long-term actions to strengthen their capacity. Information was collected in two parts. The first part collected comprehensive information from all DIETs concerning their physical infrastructure and details of programmes and activities available through records and reports. The second part dealt with the qualitative aspects and included their functioning.

It was found that DIETs had not been established across States in a uniform time frame. Some States, such as West Bengal, had begun very late. In many States new districts had been carved out and this also posed problems. Further, the already existing elementary teacher training institutions had to be carefully reconciled with the DIETs so as not to duplicate the work or cause friction.

There were also other challenges. For example, there were no hostel facilities for trainees in three States -- Delhi, Pondicherry and Meghalaya. The equipment available in the DIETs was either not in working condition or was not used as in U.P., Tripura, Orissa, Manipur and Nagaland. Standard programmes were implemented with very little innovation. The linkages with sub-district level structures was very limited. The recruitment policy of the DIETs was not uniform. Appointments were made either directly or through transfer and promotion. In some cases there was over specialization, which restricted the functioning of the DIETs. In-service programmes were not coordinated with the Block Resource Centre and Cluster Resource Centre activities in many DPEP districts. Some States like Gujarat had tried to tackle this issue but on the whole, most of the in-service programmes were conducted without any long-term plan. Even when it was done, it was generally centralized and done in collaboration with the SCERTs leaving no room for district specific programmes.
Hence it was felt that it was necessary to take a holistic view of the place and role of the DIETs. Staff had to be appointed and restructuring of staff positions done according to the requirements of the district or State. Alternative Funds Flow Mechanism to DIETs had to be explored together with the feasibility of setting up State level professional resource groups which could give technical support and implement a changed package in a time bound manner.

**Secondary Education**

Apart from primary education, NIEPA began to pay greater attention to secondary education as the demand for it had increased because of improvement in primary education and the growing awareness of the benefits of secondary education. More children wanted to continue their studies after completing primary education. While it was difficult to accommodate the growing number of students in the secondary education system many countries had managed to do so by using different strategies. These included revising the curriculum, putting lower secondary and primary schools together, shortening the length of upper secondary education, reducing options streams and teaching costs, recruiting untrained teachers, diversifying the types of schools offering secondary schooling and changing the financing pattern.

These ideas led to several studies dealing with secondary education including the Constitutional Provisions on the Management of Secondary Education in India; Issues of Equity and Effective Management Practices and a collaborative study on Secondary Education in Developing Countries with International Institute of Educational Planning, Paris.

In pursuance to the National Policy on Education of 1968 and 1986, India adopted a common structure of education throughout the country that required 10 years of primary and secondary schooling plus two years of senior secondary schooling. It was popularly known as the 10+2+3 education system. Efforts were continuously made to
bring uniformity in the first ten years of schooling. The primary stage covered classes I-V, for the 6 to 11 years age group. The upper primary stage was of classes VI-VIII, for the 11 to 14 years age group. The secondary stage was of classes IX-X for the 14 to 16 year old group. The +2 stage was of classes XI and XII, which constituted the higher or senior secondary stage in all States and Union Territories.

In some States, the +2 stage was part of college education, called junior college or intermediate. Similarly, in the first 10 years of schooling, the organizational pattern differed between the States and Union Territories. In most States and Union Territories, primary education consisted of classes I-V. In a few it was classes I-IV only. Similarly, the upper primary stage varied among different States, being either classes VI-VIII, V-VIII or VII-VIII. The secondary stage in 19 States and Union Territories consisted of classes IX-X and in the remaining States it was classes VIII-X. Within the broad framework of the national policy, each State independently determined its education structure. However, there was complete uniformity within a State. Gradually a broad consensus emerged to adopt a uniform pattern in all the States and Union Territories.

In any given State, secondary schools were integrated with the upper primary schools and often with higher secondary schools as well. This was understandable as every upper primary school could have a secondary section because of the low number of children transiting from classes VIII to IX or from classes VII to VIII as the case might be. The issue of the viability of a secondary school became important in this context. Adopting the 10+2+3 pattern of education had significant implications on secondary education. Under this pattern, the first ten years of schooling were visualized as general education courses. The senior secondary stage provided diversification into different courses.

Secondary schools in India increased from 7.4 thousand in 1950-51 to 79.8 thousand in 1990-91 and further to 116.7 thousand by the year 1999-2000. According to the Sixth All India Educational Survey in 1993 nearly 70 per cent residential areas had a secondary school within a radius of 4 km and about 10 per cent had secondary school
facilities at a distance of more than 8 km. However, an analysis of the enrolment showed that such widespread access had not actually led to a corresponding increase in the number of students enrolling in secondary schools. The surveys revealed that many secondary schools did not have adequate facilities in terms of buildings, teachers and teaching-learning aids.

At the beginning of 1950-51 India had an enrolment of 1.5 million students at the secondary level. In the five decades ending in 1999-2000, enrolment at the secondary level had increased eighteen times to nearly 28.21 million. The enrolment of boys had increased 13 times and that of girls 54 times. This was because the initial base in the case of girls was very small to begin with. In 1950-51, boys accounted for 87 per cent of the total enrolment and girls constituted only 13 per cent at the secondary level. In comparison, boys accounted for 61 per cent of the total enrolment and girls for the remaining 39 per cent in 1999-2000. In spite of the considerable progress made, a large number of children in the age group of 14-18 years were still outside the education system.

The number of secondary teachers increased from 127 thousand in 1950-51 to 1720 thousand in 1999-2000. Correspondingly, the proportion of female teachers increased from 15 to 44 per cent of the total teachers at the secondary level. The expansion of enrolment of secondary education was clearly reflected in the teacher-pupil ratio, which increased from 1:21 in 1950-51 to 1:32 by 1999-2000 despite an increase in the number of teachers.

Enrolment at the secondary level depended upon the transition from the upper primary level. In 1950-51, the ratio of secondary enrolment to upper primary enrolment was 48 per cent, being 50 per cent for boys and 40 per cent for girls. In 1999-2000 this ratio increased to around 67 per cent, being 68 per cent for boys and 64 per cent for girls. The girls were catching up with the boys. However, the numbers enrolling had put tremendous pressure on the secondary education system which had to increase because the government was making concerted efforts to expand access to primary and upper
primary education and improve retention. The question was whether the provisions for the secondary level were sufficient to accommodate this expansion and whether schools were equitably distributed in different localities. These factors had to be taken into account.

Also, the management structure varied at the secondary level of education. Elementary education was almost entirely in the domain of the government and public sector initiatives. The private sector played a very marginal role although the involvement of the private sector at the secondary level was considerable and much larger than at the upper primary level. While at the upper primary level 79 per cent schools were under the government sector and 21 per cent under private management, at the secondary level only 47 per cent schools were under the government and 53 per cent schools were managed by the private sector of which 15 per cent were completely unaided.

Given all the studies done at the national and international levels, it was natural for NIEPA to make policy interventions in this area. It prepared a paper, “Secondary Education: Conceptualization for the Future”, which was circulated in a meeting of the Secretaries of Education. It highlighted the need for concerted efforts to increase access to secondary education and to rethink its financing. It proposed that while 65 per cent Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) could be considered in a long-term perspective but for the 10th Plan 35 per cent NER would be more realistic for the quantitative and qualitative expansion of secondary education. Its quality and relevance also needed to improve.

**Higher Education**

Education has always been seen as a means of social transformation. It is instrumental in the long-term for individual growth and for nurturing human values and the cultural heritage of the society. It is also considered a means to ensure long-term economic gains. Therefore, it is imperative for the system of education to maintain its quality and accountability in a way that it can accommodate the legitimate concerns of
the interest groups outside the system and use their expertise and commitment to preserve the integrity of the educational service itself. To capture the essence of the Indian Constitution, which has always kept in mind the needs of the disadvantaged, several policies and provisions have been made in Education.

Hence several important studies were done in the field of higher education on vital issues like the financing higher education, private initiatives, foreign universities and human rights education with obvious implications for access and equity. At the instance of the MHRD, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Government of India, a study was done on “Human Rights in Higher Education System”, in January 2000. The main objectives of the study were to collect and collate information and data with regard to policies and programmes; provide and protect measures on Human Rights in Higher Education from different sources; understand these in the context of different States and Union Territories; analyse the actual policies and programmes envisaged by the Centre, State and the Institutional levels to provide and protect Human Rights; assess their status of implementation in the different types of institutions; share the findings with subject experts, planners, policy and decision makers at different levels to facilitate greater insights in area of human rights in higher education; and develop a report for the MHRD as an input into decision making at all levels.

A number of parameters for which the data was collected and analysed. Most higher education institutions had policies and provisions for the disadvantaged sections in respect of reduction in entry requirement. Also, financial and other provisions existed not only to facilitate their entry into higher education but also to pursue further studies. Proper implementation was nevertheless needed.

Higher percentage of colleges and universities did provide for remedial teaching but not much data was available on its organization and utilization in the activities of the institutions. There was need to expand it further and even pre-examination coaching was useful.
More than half of the universities and about half of colleges did not specifically provide for the representation of the disadvantaged in the various decision-making bodies. No strict policy had been followed on including all categories of the disadvantaged in the decision-making bodies. A large percentage of universities had set up SC/ST cells as compared to colleges but the situation in respect of human rights cell was the reverse. More colleges had set up such cells compared to the universities.

The response of both college and university students regarding the representation of disadvantaged in various decision-making bodies clearly pointed out that either there was no clear-cut policy in this regard or the students were totally ignorant of it or not even concerned about it. While a very small percentage of students reported discrimination, ideally educational institutions would attempt to make their environments discrimination free.

The study report attempted to clearly enunciate the status and implementation of human rights policies and programmes in higher education. These were meant to remove prejudices and complexes transmitted through the social and related environment. Therefore, it was important in the context of the Indian reality that all education programmes were carried out with the sincere mandate of Human Rights.

The response to various questionnaires indicated that it was necessary to create a better awareness of the policy measures intended to benefit students. The media could be tapped for the purpose. Orientation programmes could help students to take advantage of the various policy measures and programmes meant for them. Students at the college level were more aware of the availability of special programmes for the deprived than in the university but that did not necessarily mean that implementation was better in colleges than in universities.

*Women’s Studies*
The women’s studies programme, emerged out of the civil rights movements in the USA and the student movement in the 1960s, which demanded fundamental changes in the academic curricula. It had led to the formation of Black Studies and Ethnic Studies thus creating a foothold for women’s studies. In India its genesis was found in the social reform movement and the national moment.

On the directives of the Plan of Action in 1986 and then in 1992, a mandate was given to ensure women’s equality and empowerment through revised curricula and orientation of educational personnel. A study was undertaken to understand, analyse and comprehensively report on the efforts of the different Women’s Study Centres in the country and make suggestions for their better planning and management. The objectives of the study were to explore the underlying assumptions and actual implementation with regard to teaching, research and extension activities of the centres; analyse the repetition and duplication of efforts made by the women activist groups, NGOs, adult and continuing education and extension departments; identify the gaps in the policy planners and programmes that required the attention of the centres; and finally, based on the findings, suggest planning and management strategies for their effective management.

It was increasingly felt that the women’s study centres seemed to be treated very lightly with regard to infrastructural facilities. They needed to be given the status of full-fledged departments and treated accordingly. However, in spite of the limitation, the centres seemed to have made their mark and found a place in the university system. Some had taken such pro-women steps as reservation of seats for women and active steps to ensure ordinances against ragging and sexual harassment.

Despite resistances from certain groups, extension and gender-sensitive programmes conducted by the centres in collaboration with internal departments and outside organizations such a NGOs had proved successful. The majority of the centres actively facilitated women-related schemes run by the government and NGOs. They organized awareness programmes, workshops, seminars, campaigns and income-generating activities. They also mobilized funds and resources from national and
international agencies such as UGC, ICSSR, Department for International Development (DFID), UNICEF, World Health Organization (WHO) and the Ford Foundation. Therefore, there was need for a support structure and evaluation system for the existing women’s study centres.

The study pointed out that there was a need for gender-sensitive policies. Women had to be represented in policy-making bodies to ensure gender sensitive curricula, teaching and administrative reforms, initiate gender-sensitive laws and advocate for the passing of a women’s reservation bill. The community had to be involved in the activities of the centres and greater activism rather than mere academics would be helpful.

*Financing of Higher Education*

Higher education in India as also in other countries, was facing an inexplicable ambivalence on the part of government and society. There were at least two contradictory perceptions. One was reflected in the 1986 National Policy on Education according to which higher education was crucial as it provided people with, “an opportunity to reflect on the critical, social, economic, cultural, moral, and spiritual issues facing humanity.” It was also a potent instrument for producing scientific and technical human resource of the highest calibre. It provided excellent opportunities for vertical and horizontal mobility particularly to the deprived sections of the society.

According to the second perception, higher education did not provide education that was relevant to the needs and aspirations of the increasing numbers belonging to elite groups, who were generally alienated from the socio-cultural mores of the country. In-built with its processes was enormous wastage of human and financial resources as a large number of students studying in university institutions were thrown by the wayside, so to say. The ever-escalating unemployment and under-employment of educated youth in the developing countries had eroded the credibility of the system. The institutions of higher education were almost submerged by never-ending streams of young men and
women aspiring to get university degrees without necessarily having the requisite capabilities. This unregulated expansion along with an unprecedented financial squeeze, had, since the 1970s, afflicted the systems in most countries with varying intensity.

Because of resource constraint in many countries there was a need to critically study the financing of higher education including issues pertaining to the role of the Central and local governments, student fees, loans and scholarships and community participation in financing higher education. The system of financial and academic management together with the changing policies of the government and specialized bodies created by it to finance higher education also needed to be examined.

The study had three broad objectives. One was to analyse the behaviour of higher education finance in India during the preceding decade or so including the overall magnitudes, inter-institutional priorities, sources of finance, resource mobilization and other related issues. The second was to closely scrutinize the system of financial management, with particular reference to trends towards globalization and privatization of higher education; study the roles of the main funding body the University Grants Commission in financing and management of higher education. The third was to suggest the future policies of financing of higher education with particular reference to the role of the Government both Central and State; policy about student fees as means of augmenting university resources; the impact of globalization and the role of private bodies in higher education.

The overall budgetary resources for education had declined during the 1990s, in general, but particularly for higher education as priority was given to primary education. This could be partly due to economic reforms which were quantitatively and qualitatively affecting the progress of educational development.

There were inter-State variations that followed at least four broad patterns. One, there were states that allocated a higher share of investment for education although their economic position as reflected in the State Domestic Product (SDP) was not very strong.
For example, Kerala and Himachal Pradesh spent more than 6 per cent of their SDP on education. Second, there were states with almost the reverse position, that is, higher income or economic growth but lower allocation to education; for example, Punjab, Haryana, Gujarat and Maharashtra. Third, there were educationally medium-developed States that had made serious efforts to expand the reach of education, for example, Karnataka, Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, and Madhya Pradesh. And fourth, there were educationally and economically backward States that did not seem to display any serious commitment to developing or improving education.

Overall too, there had been considerable decline in financial allocations for higher education. In the First Plan, about 9 per cent of the total allocation was for higher education. This figure rose to 25 per cent in the Fourth Plan; it declined to 10 per cent with the Ninth and Tenth Plans. The corresponding figures for school education were 69 per cent in the First Plan, 48 per cent in the Fourth and 76 and 78 per cent respectively in the Ninth and Tenth Plans.

There was a sharp decline in the contribution from non-government sources for higher education. The contribution from tuition fees, which accounted for about 36.8 per cent of the income in 1950-51, decreased to an abysmally low figure of 12.6 per cent in 1986-87. Correspondingly, contribution from ‘other sources’ consisting of private donations, was 13 per cent in 1950-51 but had fallen to and 1.5 per cent in 1986-87.

Financing of 29 universities was analysed in terms of income and expenditure. Sources of income were classified as government and non-government and the pattern of expenditure as recurring and non-recurring. The government channeled its funding through the UGC, State governments, Central governments, All India Council for Technical Education (AICTE), other government agencies and local bodies. The UGC provided the bulk of assistance to the Central universities while the State governments provided financial support to State universities. While the UGC grants had increased in absolute terms, State grants had declined. Other grants given by the Central government through AICTE, other governmental agencies and local bodies, which were already
meagre, had further declined over a period of five years in many universities. There were large disparities in funding from government sources as some universities received more liberal grants than others. The total funding from the local bodies had declined. Income from the university and other sources that included endowments and donations from trusts; contribution from alumni, general public, industries, and corporate houses; sale of publications; project grants; fellowships; and others had came down over the years. Moreover, there was no relationship between the income of universities and the year of their establishment. Generally, universities established before the 1950s, received less financial support than those established later.

It was found that the deemed-to-be-universities and State universities were increasingly becoming self-reliant, since their income from non-government sources was growing relatively faster than from government sources. This was arguably not an ideal situation because it did not reflect their inherent strength. In fact, it indicated inadequacy of grants. To garner resources they had used measures such as market-oriented high-fee-paying short-duration courses and substantially increased the charges for student services.

In view of the sharp decline in government sources of income, non-government sources of financing such as student fees, private endowments and donations needed to be mobilized. Many universities generated surplus income through examination fees but income from hostel fees had generally declined.

Income statements from university sources showed that besides the on-going activities, some undertook, from time-to-time, specific time-bound projects. Despite the wide variations these were essential to mobilize additional resources. They also provided various departments and their faculty members opportunities for undertaking research and other activities which improved the quality of education. The project grants came mainly from the UGC and other agencies such as, Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR), Department of Atomic Energy (DAE), Department of Science and Technology (DST), and ICSSR.
The pattern of expenditure in selected universities showed that recurring expenditure particularly of salaries, constituted the major proportion of overall expenditure. Although student welfare services such as hostels, scholarships and stipends and other support services such as games, sports and cultural activities were important, universities spent a very small proportion of their budget on them. Also non-recurring expenditure constituted a very small percentage of the total budget and showed a further declining trend.

The UGC was the main Central agency for the maintenance and development of university education. For this purpose it provided both development and maintenance grants to central universities. But in other cases it provided only development grants, generally on a matching basis.

There had been a substantial increase in the overall grants given by the UGC: from Rs. 430 crores in 1991-92 to Rs. 1467 crores in 2001-02. In 2001-02 the non-plan grants accounted for about 67 per cent of the total. The bulk was for universities, although the percentage of assistance to colleges had shown an increasing trend. Most of the funds went to the Central universities although there had been a general increase to State universities. The funds flowing to different regions were distributed as follows: to the State universities in the northern region (33.4%); and to these the southern region (31.4%). The northeastern region got a very meagre share (3.35%) in 2001-02. These variations did not reflect discrimination but could be due to the number of institutions in each region.

Out of the Plan grant, 51 per cent was for the development of the universities; 13 per cent for the promotion of excellence and quality; 10.33 per cent for the promotion of relevance; 6.37 per cent for interuniversity resources; and 9.96 per cent for scholarships and fellowships, teachers awards and other such activities.

Sixty per cent of non-plan grants were given to central universities; 27 per cent for the colleges of central universities; and 6 per cent for scholarships and fellowships,
teachers awards, and other such activities. Although they catered to the bulk of the enrolment in institutions of higher education, the financial support of the UGC to colleges was not large except when the colleges were constituent units of the central universities. In such cases, the UGC provided both maintenance and development grants.

**Impact of Globalization on Higher Education**

Apart from university finances, some of the important issues with significant implications for higher education had emerged in recent years. These included the quantum of investment that should be made in the university system to enable it to deal effectively with the challenges of global developments and accordingly design more relevant higher education systems.

India embarked on the de-regulation and liberalization of its economy from the 1980s. The process received a thrust from the early 1990s when significant changes were made in the Indian economic system. This had far-reaching influence on the volume, quality and spread of knowledge with the increased interaction among various countries. Education assumed a significant role in the process. It could no longer afford to be conventional, rigid or impervious to the changes taking place in a globalized world.

Higher education was one of the six sub-sectors mentioned in the service sector classification of the World Trade Organization (WTO). This had implications as it could lead to the internationalization of education with all its beneficial and baneful effects; greater emphasis on market-oriented courses to the relative neglect of humanities and social sciences as also research in basic sciences; accent on privatization of education, with the government reducing its financial support to secondary and university institutions and encouraging private universities, self-financing institutions, courses and facilities; low priority to research in basic sciences and humanities because of their seemingly unrelatedness to the immediate needs of the economy.

**Privatization of Higher Education**
Apart from the impact of globalization, another closely related subject that was studied was the implications of the privatization of higher education. Private bodies in India had always been actively associated with the financing and management of education. During the struggle for Independence and till some time later, voluntary organizations and NGOs participated in education but gradually their contribution declined. Gradually, the Government largely took charge of education, particularly higher education. However, liberalization and globalization had brought about a paradigm shift in government policy from a cautious approach towards the private sector, particularly in higher education, to encouraging its greater participation even to the extent of relieving the government of managing and financing higher education. The Eighth Plan recommended active involvement of private agencies in the opening and conduct of higher education institutions with proper checks to ensure the maintenance of facilities. The Ninth Plan also suggested that universities but to make efforts to supplement resources given from the government. The Birla-Ambani Report (2001) recommended full cost recovery from students even in public higher education and facilitating the establishment of private universities.

The move towards privatization was also emphasized by international agencies, particularly the World Bank. It recommended the expansion of secondary and higher education through increased privatization. The onset of structural reforms as an important component of globalization further accentuated the move towards the privatization of higher education. The idea was that if secondary and higher education could be privatized, the government resources could be diverted to basic primary education.

The conclusions were that while private participation in education was by itself not harmful, it should not be proposed merely because the government was unable to provide adequate funds for higher education. While institutions of higher education established by the private sector could improve the efficiency and relevance of the system
they could also lead to short-sighted and undesirable approaches to providing higher education. Education could become only a commercial activity.

*Foreign Universities in India*

A study was undertaken on the foreign universities operating in India. This had linkages with the operation of the private sector in higher education as from the 1990s, it provided an opportunity of giving foreign degrees in India for which there was a huge demand. Students who could not enter into the few good public institutions and had money, opted for the private sector. Within this section too, there were some students who were interested in getting a foreign degree but could not afford to go abroad. When the private sector came out with the idea of providing foreign degrees in India at a much lower cost, such students got an opportunity to fulfill their dreams. There were a number of foreign institutions collaborating with Indian institutions. The largest number, at least 131, were in Tamil Nadu followed by Maharashtra and Delhi.

Recognition of the education sector as a tradable service sector under the GATS (General Agreement on Trades in Services) – WTO regime made it imperative for all countries to understand the duality in education, as a social and tradable service. In the absence of any policy to regulate the foreign education service providers, India witnessed enormous liberalization of the sector intensifying the duality of education. A large number of foreign universities, colleges and institutions started imparting education services to Indian students through various arrangements.

The key drivers of foreign education from home to the host country were the recent upsurge in the demand for transnational higher education in developing countries. This could lead to increase in capacity in developing countries and enable to foreign universities to retain viability because the demographic structure in developed countries was changing with more ageing population. Hence, it would be to the advantage of the developed countries to enter developing countries in the higher education sector.
For a host country like India, one of the most important rationales presented for the commercial presence of foreign educational institutions was to help develop curricula, fill the gap due to shortage of the expertise and jointly run educational programmes in partnership with the public or private institutions. This would help to bridge the relevance gap in Indian institutions between the prevailing content and the style of curricula and what were the learner expectations due to the changing employment structure. Further, this would also attract foreign direct investment in India. This move found favour with the Commerce Ministry but not within academic circles. The latter apprehended that the liberal approach towards foreign capital might have adverse consequences of imposing foreign curricula on Indian students which would not be very relevant from the national point of view. Another concern was that higher education would be limited to the select few as it would be expensive. Commercialization would promote privatization which would also enhance the cost of higher education. It could affect the public higher educational facilities and the government might slowly withdraw from its commitments to it. There was also the fear that developing countries might be flooded with foreign and private providers delivering essentially profitable subjects.

The study concluded that the only way that internationalization of education could succeed was if domestic efforts to reform higher education were taken up simultaneously. The government needed to determine the priority areas and the manner in which the foreign investment had to be promoted. Effective regulation was necessary for the commercial presence of foreign institutions so that they adhered to the priorities set by the government.

The presence of foreign education providers could be viewed from both the supply and demand aspects of nations. On the supply side were the developed exporter nations such as, the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, with strong domestic capacity. On the demand side were intermediate nations such as Malaysia, Singapore and Hong Kong which were active as exporters and importers of transnational education; and China, India, Indonesia and the Philippines among others, which were active as importers but relatively undeveloped as exporters.
Currently, it was found that only the USA and the UK had shown interest in collaborating with Indian partners. Australia, New Zealand and Canada were watching the developments and the government stand on regulations regarding Foreign Education Providers. These countries were hitherto only organizing educational fairs and had representatives to attract Indian students to their respective countries but did not show interest in educational collaboration in India, as they did not find any enabling laws to operate legally.

**Summing Up**

National Policy on Education 1986 was a watershed in the sense that it marked the beginning of a new era in the way India was to look towards its Educational Goals. Formulated after a comprehensive appraisal of the existing educational scene, the concern was clearly reflected in the document title ‘Challenge of Education- a Policy Perspective.’ It still provides a broad policy framework for total eradication of illiteracy and a commitment to make primary education free and compulsory up to V standard, besides ensuring higher government and non government expenditure on education that should constitute 6 per cent of GDP. Either ways the need for modernizing and strengthening the administration of education had been emphasized by several committees and commissions earlier. It was felt that to cope with the expanding needs of the education system and for streamlining the machinery of educational administration at various levels, detailed data on the size, efficiency and performance of educational administration in the States and Union Territories was required which was not readily available.

Globalization required the production of high quality science and technical manpower to enable India to compete successfully in the world market. This implied selecting the best available in human resources and providing it the highest quality education and training. In the new Millennium NIEPA dedicated itself with a new vigour towards educational organization and administration including institutional planning and
management; personnel and financial administration in order to make it more inclusive. Access, Participation, and Equity was to be the mainstay of its work.
Chapter VIII

REVIEW OF NIEPA (2003)

The Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), Government of India, constituted a review committee on January 23, 2003 which was reconstituted on May, 2003, to review the activities of the Institute since 1989. It was time to take stock after 14 years and the tremendous growth in the activities of the Institute. The Committee had to make a critical assessment of NIEPA’s achievements and identify its role and functions in relation to the various educational concerns and global developments. It was necessary to examine whether NIEPA should continue its existing programmes in view of the fact that similar functions were no longer confined to the Institute being performed by other institutions and organizations. It was felt that it might also be possible to outsource some of the tasks to other institutions and organizations. This could be together with NIEPA or the latter could mobilize additional resources by charging fees for its services.

The Committee was chaired by Dr. Subhash Kashyap, Former Secretary General, Lok Sabha. The other members were Ms. Achala Maulik, Secretary, Development of Elementary Education; Prof. S. Rajendran, Head of the Department of Philosophy, Annamalai University; Prof. R.J. Singh, Head of the Faculty of Education, University of Lucknow; and Prof. K.S. Mishra, Head, DoE, Allahabad University. Dr. Trilok N. Dhar, former Consultant for UNESCO and Dr. R.S. Tyagi, Associate Fellow in the Education Administration Unit of NIEPA, assisted the Committee.

The Committee deliberated upon all aspects with a full sense of responsibility and objectivity. The question of the important role that autonomous organizations played and whether these roles could not be performed as effectively by other organizations functioning under the government or those that were non-governmental in character was a pivotal issue because most of the autonomous organizations under the government
depended almost exclusively on it for financial support. Linked to the question of resources was the need to determine the optimal staff structure as often these organizations were loaded with staff which was not required by the institution and had been recruited earlier.

Officers of NIEPA, when requested to explain the role of NIEPA indicated that the Institute was handicapped by inadequate faculty positions; and deficiencies of infrastructure, particularly lecture halls, faculty rooms and hostel facilities. The actions that had been taken based on the recommendations of the 1989 Review Committee were also discussed.

The other issues that formed part of the discussion included training programmes conducted by the Institute, the autonomy and mobilization of resources. Over the years, it was found that the faculty strength had depleted. This had adversely affected the Institute’s ability to take up a larger number of training, research and developmental activities. These activities were further hampered because of inadequate infrastructure. The Institute needed a perspective for its role and functions so that it could undertake activities that had some coherence and utility from a long-term point of view. It was felt that the Institute did not enjoy sufficient freedom in its functioning because it was dependent on the Ministry for budgetary allocations and it had to also undertake activities on behalf of the Ministry which at times deflected the focus from higher priority tasks.

It was stressed that NIEPA needed a perspective plan. As far as its training activities went, considering the different levels and the numbers of people that the Institute was required to train, it was difficult for it to undertake the training and orientation of even a sizeable portion of educational personnel in the planning and management of education without adopting alternate strategies. Among the major points that emerged from the review and deserve special mention were that the Institute had steadily moved towards becoming an apex institution in the field of training. While this
had been useful and there was considerable continuing pressure to organize more training activities, the Committee felt that the Institute needed to assume more research responsibilities. At the time of the Review, about 75 per cent of faculty time was being consumed by training activities. On the negative side, the Review Committee highlighted NIEPA’s failure to arrange any training programmes for legislators despite this having found a clear mention in the objectives. Also pointed out was the Institute’s inability to develop a scheme of honorary fellowships. It was accepted nevertheless that whatever may have been the difficulties and struggles, NIEPA had succeeded in becoming a clearing house of ideas and information on research, training, and extensions.

It had been reported that most of the recommendations of the 1989 Review Committee were being implemented but the 2003 Review Committee found that several significant ones had been left out. For example, the Empowered Committee had recommended that the NIEPA Council should set up a task force, “for implementation on a time bound basis of the recommendations of the Committee which are found to be acceptable by the MHRD.” This had not been done though almost fourteen years had elapsed. The plan to develop NIEPA as a centre of excellence had also not been worked out in specific details with careful delineation of the tasks required to be accomplished, the modalities of doing so and the time frame for their implementation. Further, no long-term perspective plan had been given any meaningful shape that would develop NIEPA as a centre of excellence. No reorganization of the structure had been done by reducing the number of units and although training effort was expected to be confined to experimental programmes and to training to trainers, the Institute had continued to train personnel at district levels, in District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) and in educational institutions.

The Committee generally accepted the assessment of NIEPA articulated by the earlier (1989) Review Committee and felt that its recommendations remained as relevant in 2003 as they had been in 1989. It was, therefore, regrettable felt the Review Committee of 2003, that many of the accepted recommendations had not been
implemented or acted upon in the interim period of 14 years between the reviews of two committees.

Training

Since capacity building of educational institutions and personnel was a major function of NIEPA, training and orientation remained a pre-occupation for it. The 1989 Review Committee had specifically noted that NIEPA had been under great pressure to expand its training activities. This had made inroads into the time available for research and consultancy. The Committee had then recommended the reduction of faculty time devoted to training from 75 to 25 per cent. However, training had continued to remain a high priority for NIEPA.

Training proposals generally emanated from the faculty and were examined and approved by the Faculty Council. Training by NIEPA took many forms. There were two six-month diploma courses in educational planning and administration – one each for Indian and foreign nationals, one to three weeks of training was imparted to principals of schools and colleges; and short orientation courses were conducted for heads of field level resource institutions such as SCERTs, DIETs and others.

Between 1991 and 2001 573 training programmes were held entailing 9587 programme days and involving 16,641 participants. On an average NIEPA had been organizing 50 training and orientation programmes each year with 30 participants in each programme.

The training programmes could only be assessed quantitatively, that is, by the numbers covered but not by their relevance and effectiveness in actual work conditions. A major difficulty in evaluation was the lack of carefully conducted impact studies.
undertaken either by NIEPA or with its support. The usual practice at the Institute was to get feedback from the participants at the end of the training or orientation and ask them to rate its usefulness on a three-to-five-point scale. This was not a very valid measure of the usefulness or relevance of training. The effectiveness of training depended on the environment in which a person was placed and this had not been systematically evaluated. It would have been a valuable input as NIEPA had no control over the context and processes of management available in the government departments and yet had to train its personnel at different levels.

In purely quantitative terms, while NIEPA had overstretched itself, its training effort could be said to be grossly inadequate as about 1.8 million people needed to upgrade their capacities for educational planning and management. Therefore, it was obvious that NIEPA could not hope to train even a small percentage of this number even if all its relevant resources were increased manifold. It needed to design a well thought out strategy to ensure that an appropriate programme was made available to all those who needed to be trained. This strategy needed many components. NIEPA could, for instance, confine its effort to the training of key personnel at State-level institutions who could in turn train different categories of personnel. Moreover it was not just the quantity of training programmes that was important, it was also necessary to assess the actual use of the competencies being promoted. That would be very helpful in designing the contents of the training to make it relevant.

For the purpose of training and orientation the normal pattern at NIEPA was that it had presentations by experts. Time permitting, these were followed by interaction and group work. This was useful to people who were too engrossed in administrative work to find the time to do meaningful and independent reading. However, this model had its limitations. Many of the experts had very little knowledge of the grass-root and field level situation. This often resulted in very theoretical presentations of management issues and practices. On the other hand, many participants lacked the background of management. Thus they were unable to appreciate the presentations and have any
meaningful interaction. There was insufficient time and opportunity for any in-depth exploration of the issues and often, too many subjects were included. The situation became worse because of the heterogeneity of participants.

Only a few participants responded to the questionnaire circulated by the Committee with regard to the training programmes at the Institute but they made certain suggestions. One was to provide better study materials. Written presentations by experts could be circulated before the training so that the participants had time to understand and reflect on the various issues and could interact better. The duration could be increased to allow for project designing, monitoring and evaluation. Intensive training skills, which were important requirements, needed to be imparted. The Committee agreed with all these suggestions.

NIEPA needed a strategy for its short-duration training programmes. It should concentrate on training key resource persons from States and other institutions who could thereafter train others. It could thus build the capacities of State-level institutions so as to enable them to undertake the training of district level personnel such as District Education Officers, Principals of DIETs, Principals of secondary schools and others. Further training could be left to institutions with the requisite capacity and a network of such institutions could be created from regional and local grids. Also, it should train only those who were expected to stay in the system for some years and thus contribute tangibly from their newly acquired competence.

Besides this, NIEPA could provide self-instructional packages to personnel employed for planning and managerial tasks. Extensive use had to be made of information technology together with distance learning modes. To impart effective training, the faculty itself had to be first exposed to better models of training by attaching its members to appropriate institutions in policy planning and managerial positions for sufficiently long duration at the Union, State and district levels so that they get
acquainted with the existing ground situation and its requirements. More field studies had to be ensured to explore the requirements of training and its impact so that content and modalities could be improved.

NIEPA’s efforts in training were severely constrained because there were few or no counterpart institutions that could do the same job. Only a couple of States had established institutes of educational management and training. The solution, however, did not lie in expanding the structure and functions of NIEPA in New Delhi but to decentralize and create State-level institutions of educational planning and management and establish strong units in the SCERTs and the Boards.

**Research**

The research efforts of NIEPA consisted of what the faculty members undertook in their areas of specialization and interests. Many had implications for capacity building. Further, there were studies commissioned by the MHRD and other national and international agencies. Collaborative research was undertaken with other organizations within an overall framework designed by NIEPA. Between 1991 and 2001 NIEPA claimed to have undertaken 119 research projects, many of them being in the nature of analysis and interpretation of data available from sources such as the Registrar General of India, selected statistics of the MHRD and others. These provided substantial inputs to understand the educational system, its deficiencies and requirements. Quite a few studies were really surveys concerned with the state of educational administration in different States.

The largest number of reported studies seemed to have been in the areas of specialization or interest of individual faculty members. The Committee got the feeling that there was no comprehensive perspective on the kind of research that should be undertaken. Faculty also seemed to have paid inadequate attention to mega studies where
collaborative work was involved between different units. Usually a faculty member of a unit undertook only a particular research project confined to his or her area and the unit to which he or she was attached to. Further, it was felt that enough attention had not been paid to some vital issues such as the processes of decentralized planning, administration and monitoring mechanisms as envisaged in the 73rd and 74th amendments to the Constitution. There were also almost no comparative studies of different educational systems. The general impression was that faculty members devoted more than necessary time to research in their areas of interest and specialization rather than what was required in larger interests.

In 1989, the Review Committee had suggested that the topics of research needed to be chosen on the basis of three major criteria. One was what were the priority issues likely to emerge in or confronted by the education system. The second was the capacity to undertake research within a manageable time frame. The third was what was the particular advantage that NIEPA had to undertake research in some specific areas that was not there with universities and other research institutions.

Although these suggestions had only been illustrative of the type of research that NIEPA should undertake, most of the subjects remained unexplored. The Committee of 2003 said that NIEPA should have undertaken a mega study of educational planning experience in a democratic federal framework where there were few controls over the choices that systems and individuals made. It also said that NIEPA should give priority to researching and evaluating the effectiveness of training and its modalities, the objective being to constantly improve training content and the modes of delivery at all levels. This would benefit all the institutions engaged in educational training anywhere in the country.

Publication
Between 1991 and 2001 NIEPA undertook or supported 119 research studies. All of them, however, were not published. Between 1990 and 2003 NIEPA had done 173 studies and made reports on various issues and themes of educational planning and management, but not many were printed. Quite a few of them were only reports of conferences and seminars. A major series consisted of surveys of educational administration in States and the Centre that provided valuable information on the prevailing structures and processes of educational management.

NIEPA also brought out the “Indian Journal of Educational Planning and Administration”. It was creditable that the Institute had succeeded in bringing out the journal regularly and maintaining the quality of its contributions. The publications, journal and newsletter were the principal means of disseminating information on NIEPA’s experiences in educational planning and administration. Because both the printing and sale had generally been entrusted to private publishers, there was also no accumulation of unsold publications. This often happened in the case of printed materials brought out by government and semi-government agencies as there was a general lack of interest in promoting them and among individuals in buying them. The publications and the journal were not a major source of additional revenue of NIEPA.

The returns from the publication were a very small percentage of the budgetary allocations because of the small print order which also pushed the pricing up. The lack of adequate promotion and the reciprocal exchange of the Journal among institutions increased the incidence of free distribution of copies. The high price adversely affected the sales to institutions and individuals. The Committee said that every effort had to be made to make the publications self-financing, though the main objective was not to generate revenue.

The prime job of NIEPA was capacity building of institutions and individuals and so it needed to send its publications to appropriate institutions. Therefore, the publication
activity of NIEPA, as of other autonomous institutions, had to be judged by criteria other than those of either recovering the cost from publications or generating revenues for additional tasks.

**Pro-active Role**

NIEPA was expected to play a pro-active role in advising the government on policy and programme interventions. At the time of the formulation of the National Policy of Education, 1986, NIEPA had provided critically significant information for identifying problems that the policy needed to address. The significant challenge was to extend the reach of education to the hitherto un-reached segments and to ensure its relevance and quality. It also provided assistance in the discussion of the draft policies, both regional and national.

The faculty of NIEPA had, through their research and critical studies identified some of the major thrust areas in educational development for which well-designed preparatory steps needed to be initiated. Some of these were secondary education and the challenges ahead; world trade in services and its implications for the provision of education in India; value orientation of education and its managerial challenges; and globalization and privatization of higher education.

However two significant issues required some consideration in relation to the Institute's pro-active role: inadequate participation of central and State level policy and decision maker with the deliberations; and the lack of systematic follow-up of the recommendations.

An important area for the pro-active role of NIEPA would be to market its services to neighbouring countries and to countries in South East Asia and Africa where
institutional capabilities in educational planning and management were not available to the desired extent. Although NIEPA had taken the initiative to examine the implications of world trade in services under the WTO regime for education, the exercise had not been suitably followed up. According to the Committee, this lack of initiative to carry the exercise further reflected the general constraints of autonomous institutions under the government to initiate action without governmental clearance.

NIEPA had undertaken only a few policy-related studies. For some time, said the Committee, the policy and programme formulation had tended to become a preserve of the bureaucracy. Institutions created to advise the government had tended to play a somewhat peripheral if not entirely a subservient role. Unlike the western countries where various think tanks influenced governmental and private sector policies, the recommendations of professional institutions in India did not get enough attention and importance. For this, the governmental policy makers alone were not to blame. The think tanks and other institutions were also responsible as they did not provide relevant or implementable advice.

In sum, the Committee said the limited faculty resources, the personal priorities of faculty members, inadequate teamwork and cross-collaborative research effort, all seemed to hinder the Institute from undertaking field studies, which had the potential of making a policy impact.

Networking

Educational research required that institutions such as NIEPA and others established by the government should network among themselves. This would enable the pooling of expertise and educational effort to be viewed in its totality. It would enable curriculum change to be followed in the programmes of training teachers and managerial
personnel; sharing of the resources of infrastructure, including faculty, as these were always in short supply; and realizing the significance of sharing experiences.

In spite of its known advantages, networking of even the locally available autonomous institutions of the MHRD such as NCERT, NIEPA, National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS), Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) and others left much to be desired. In the context of uplinking facilities that were likely to be available soon and a dedicated satellite channel for education which was already available, the networking of institutions at every level – Union and State, government and non-governmental had become crucial.

**Staff Development and Structure**

The Committee felt that NIEPA had not paid adequate attention to the professional upgrading of staff competencies. It needed to design a systematic programme of staff development such as participation in training programmes organized by institutions in India and abroad, paid sabbaticals and specific training sessions for junior faculty.

Considering that the professional staff strength of NIEPA was likely to remain small, even if the full complement of faculty recommended by the Review Committee became available, administrative matters pertaining to establishment were neither likely to be large nor complicated; so a large contingent of personnel for administrative and financial functions might not be necessary. Without resorting to any retrenchment, there was need to drastically reduce the number of assistants, upper and lower division clerks and class IV personnel. With the availability of computers and other gadgets, much of the academic writing could be handled by the faculty itself or on the basis of establishing a pool of computer processors.
The surest way to destroy an institution was to overstaff it, the Committee asserted. NIEPA seemed to have a large contingent of supporting staff which did not contribute much to the achievement of its mandate. This ratio of faculty to support staff was 1:4. Of course, the Committee realized that support staff could only be reduced gradually through diverse means such as voluntary retirement incentives; re-training of surplus staff; examining the possibility of getting the excess staff absorbed in other institutions or government departments; and not filling up posts as they fell vacant.

**Expenditure**

Every year the expenditure on establishment and administration far exceeded that on the academic, research and training objectives of NIEPA. The bulk of the non-plan expenditure went into staff salaries and other allowances. A large portion of the expenditure was on the training of educational personnel from States and other Institutions, Seminars, Workshops, Conferences, Research and Publications and other related activities. Many programmes, such as the assessment of DPEP, were done to support the government and they required a fair amount of expenditure. Stock taking conferences on initiatives like Education for All, Conferences and Seminars on globalization and implications for education were done of the World Trade in Services and others. For some of these, the MHRD had provided extra-budgetary support.

Unlike other autonomous institutions of the Ministry such as NCERT, National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) and NIOS, NIEPA did not incur any expenditure on the travel and allowances of participants deputed by the States for short duration training or orientation. The assumption underlying this seemed to be that it was desirable for States to fund an activity intended to build the capacity of their personnel and institutions, a task in which they should have a vital interest and stake. This, however, left NIEPA with little choice in selecting the persons who would participate in the training programme. Ideally, only those participants should be included who were most likely to
benefit from the programme or who had the capacity to contribute to the effective functioning of the system.

Critical assessment of the work of the Institute indicated that it had, by and large, achieved the objectives that were listed in its Memorandum of Association. Such was also the view of the 1989 Review Committee. The 2003 Committee felt that the tasks entrusted to NIEPA were important for improving planning and management of education, particularly when global developments and emerging concerns required reshaping of the education systems.

The Committee also felt that the functions entrusted to NIEPA in its MoA continued to be significant and required a variety of modalities – institutional and others – so that they could be accomplished. The principal responsibilities of NIEPA were the development of educational perspectives in relation to socio-economic concerns, the conduct of empirical studies on the educational system, and the training of the personnel engaged at various levels in planning and managerial tasks. A large number of administrative and managerial personnel were engaged in the education system and even a modest percentage of this had not been covered under NIEPA’s trainings and orientation programmes, despite the high priority accorded to it. In fact, training and orientation activities were often at the cost of other significant programmes and this required considerable improvement, review and fresh inputs.

There were several tasks that NIEPA needed to perform. It had to conduct in-depth empirical studies of the performance of the education system and the extent to which it met the present and projected needs of socio-economic development; provide long- and short-term perspectives of educational development in relation to emerging challenges and concerns; and critically monitor and evaluate policy and programme interventions designed by governments. This was particularly essential from the point of view of their relevance and feasibility. NIEPA also had to build up the capacities of
institutions charged with the responsibility of planning and managing of the education system, make objective advice available based on research and study of educational responses of other systems; and constantly help in defining the goals, objectives and strategies of educational development.

An institution NIEPA had to predominantly function like a think tank. Education, because of its long gestation period, had always to be forward looking and futuristic. Studies of future scenarios were very significant in designing education which met future challenges and emerging societal requirements. Such studies could only be undertaken in an environment which allowed substantial freedom to think and reflect on what education should consist of how it needed to be re-fashioned and what was required for its management.

The autonomy of an institution depended on how it was perceived by the establishing agency. For NIEPA, the MHRD was important since it was established by it but that did not take away the need for institutional freedom and flexibility. Without that an institution could not perform its role effectively. Often, the role of academic institutions was at best peripheral and supportive rather than crucial and proactive. Policy and programme initiatives in these circumstances necessarily tended to be intuitive rather than based on a critical evaluation of the ground realities, systems requirements and their feasibility. In such an environment professional institutions, including NIEPA, tended to perform a subservient rather than a proactive role and critical evaluation of government policies and programmes often became difficult, if not entirely impossible.

At the same time, the autonomy of an institution created by the government to fulfill specific objectives also could not be absolute. The Institute and its staff had to accept tasks which were considered important in the national interest and development objectives. Such tasks might not have been visualized and fully provided for in the MoA but might have subsequently become important in the context of developments, the
implications of which could not be foreseen. In recent years some developments had taken place that had significant implications for educational programming and the competencies of personnel engaged in its planning and management. It was also incumbent on the government to ensure that the Institute had the necessary freedom to reflect on the educational situation and its needs, and plan and implement its programmes with the requisite resources to do so. So as not to deflect the energies of the regular faculty, contractual appointments could be worked out for guest faculty for tasks that were seen as important in emerging situations and could not be undertaken by the faculty due to its other academic preoccupations. Such contractual appointments could also be offered to the erstwhile faculty of the Institute as they would not need special orientation or extra time to familiarize themselves with the nature of the task and method of work.

An important facet of autonomy was accountability. The Institute and its staff had to be responsible for the effective and timely completion of assigned tasks. It was not unusual for professional staff of autonomous institutions to spend considerable portion of institutional time on private research, consultancy and in the pursuit of their personal academic interests. The motivation for this came from a variety of factors such as remunerative gains, recognition by peers, increased avenues of consultancy and a high degree of visibility.

While there had to be sufficient scope for the pursuit of individual academic and professional interests, the interests of the Institute had to receive precedence. The individual pursuits also needed to be significant for the institution and should not be undertaken at the cost of the Institute’s needs. NIEPA would need a procedure to determine how much time members of the faculty could spend on pursuing personal interests that might have only a tangential benefits for the institution. It was suggested that faculty could spend about 30 per cent of its time to pursue of individual professional interests and, considering that institutional resources were being spent on such projects, it could contribute a certain percentage of the remuneration to the institution.
At the same time, the faculty had to be given the fullest freedom and autonomy so that it could render politically and ideologically neutral, free and objective advice without fear or favour. Only then would the faculty have the space to make the necessary impact and the Institute function as a relevant meaningful, independent think-tank with special expertise in educational planning and administration. Academic freedom can not be confused, however, either with financial irresponsibility in the use of public funds or with the absence of any institutional transparency and accountability in the matter of working to achieve the laid down basic objectives.

Resources

To the question whether NIEPA could raise some resources on its own so as not to be completely dependent on the government, the Committee suggested that it could outsource some of its activities, levy user charges for such services and take up institutional constancy work in the field of educational planning and administration, as also research and training not only within the country but in other interested countries too. With its reputation and high credentials in the area of its expertise and operation, there was no reason why NIEPA would not attract a large number of paid consultancy assignments from within the country from other Asian–African and western countries and from international organizations such as the UNESCO and the World Bank.

If some tasks were outsourced, it would reduce the need to hire faculty and support staff on a permanent basis. While keeping its permanent faculty small, NIEPA should develop a large guest faculty of honorary professors, fellows and the like in different disciplines and sub-disciplines according to its need. This would also reduce infrastructural costs. The Committee realized that while outsourcing could be useful in accomplishing certain tasks, there were some limitations, especially in the field of education. Very few institutions had in-depth knowledge and understanding of the education system. Indiscriminate outsourcing could lead to a fragmented consideration
of educational development. This was especially because educational planning and management were tasks that involved diverse authorities with different mandates. Hence, NIEPA could outsource in the sense of commissioned studies. Similarly, a great deal of research was needed to generate information from different educational and socio-cultural contexts across the country and these involved large samples. This could be done by outside agencies with support from NIEPA.

The Committee came to certain conclusions and made some salient recommendations. It acknowledged that a lot had been done. However, much more remained to be done, particularly in designing efficient and effective structures for planning and management of education at different levels – national, State, regional, district and community. The major requirement was to build capacities of personnel and institutions, particularly at State levels where institutional infrastructure for planning and management with competent faculty, had either not been created or required to be substantially strengthened.

It was recommended that NIEPA should institute a number of diploma level courses other than the two it was already running. It should increase its scope beyond school education, which had been its primary concern. A diploma in planning and administration of university education could be instituted for promoting planning and managerial competencies of such functionaries as Registrars, Finance Officers, Controllers of Examinations of universities, and Principals and Vice- Principals of colleges.

Given that education faced continuous challenges, NIEPA needed to constantly evaluate the efficacy of its policy and programme initiatives and reflect on how education could be reshaped to serve individual, community and national needs. NIEPA also had to develop the willingness and capacity to continuously introspect so that its programming effort remained both relevant and of high quality.
To be able to provide dispassionate and useful policy and programme advice, NIEPA needed autonomy and adequate resources. The Institute had to be respected and its advice acted upon by those who were responsible for policy making and taking educational decisions. It had to be understood that the milieu had changed from the way decisions were previously made. Participation of stakeholders at various levels was now required in decision making. NIEPA could provide a forum for consultation and meaningful dialogue. At the same time it was important that its voice was heard and given adequate weightage in forums where policy and programme interventions were deliberated and decided upon.

An important issue which was seldom discussed in respect of centrally-established and centrally-funded institutions was their obligations to different levels of polity. Being ‘national’ institutions supported by public funds, it was incumbent upon them to meet the requirements of States and administrative areas within them, although they might be accountable mainly to the MHRD. This could be done by maintaining close liaison with State governments and State institutions. NIEPA needed to show increasing concern with the educational situations of the States, undertake critical studies of their education systems, policies and programmes and give them professional advice. This was important because many States did not have the capacity to plan and manage their own educational institutions efficiently and effectively. And educational disparities affected economic growth and welfare of individuals and communities. They could also be a source of conflict and instability. Most states had no State-level institutions for educational planning and management that could function as counterpart institutions to NIEPA. The Committee recommended establishing autonomous and independent institutions in States. Alternatively NIEPA could set up strong educational planning and management units as part of the SCERTs. This would also enable NIEPA to confine its training to resource persons rather than attempting to train State and district personnel.
It was recommended that NIEPA should set up a task force consisting of its faculty, outside experts, and Union and State government representatives to prepare a plan of action for itself. This plan of action should indicate a time frame, programme priorities and the faculty and other resources required for NIEPA to become a national centre of excellence. It could also set up a task force of its faculty and outside experts to prepare a twenty-year perspective. The focus to make NIEPA a national centre of excellence could be a part of this perspective.

**Summing Up**

The review of NIEPA was a much needed exercise as it helped to take stock as to what had been done after the 1989 review and also point the way forward. In the 1989 review some specific priorities had been emphasized. These included examination of resources; implications of alternative modes of financing the sub-sectoral level of education; methodology of testing the feasibility of educational plans and projects; comparative study of the planning experiences in India and other countries; and the development of qualitative and quantitative indicators for improving the management of educational services. However, it was thought that it was necessary to undertake the exercise comprehensively yet again as the new Millennium posed significant questions for the educational sector as a whole.

The basic objective of the Review Committee of 2003 was to assess the role and functions that NIEPA had been entrusted with and whether its activities, principally in the areas of training, research, consultancy, extension and dissemination of information, were commensurate with them. The Review Committee understood very clearly that the most significant challenge before NIEPA was to extend the reach of education to the hitherto un-reached segments and to ensure its relevance and quality. At the same time it had to continue with its mandate of capacity building of institutions and individuals as well as advising the government on policy and programme interventions. The Committee agreed
that NIEPA had a multi-dimensional activity mandate which included training for capacity building, research, development and extension, dissemination of information and individual and institutional consultancy.

Much more than anything the Committee agreed that the Institute needed a perspective for its role and functions so that it could undertake activities that had some coherence and utility from a long-term point of view. There was a consensus on the idea that to optimize its efforts NIEPA should make use of the new available information and communication technologies. In the context of globalization and other developments, including world trade in services, NIEPA needed to adopt more proactive strategies. The plan to develop NIEPA as a centre of excellence had to be worked out and as such it was suggested that it needed to design a well thought out strategy to ensure that an appropriate programme was made available to all those who needed to be trained. Further, it had to do research that helped the government, institutions and organizations to assess what had been accomplished and what was the way forward so the quality educational opportunities could be made available to those who had not got access up to now and also the challenges of a globalized world could be met.
CHAPTER IX

ESTABLISHING THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION

The Review of 2003-2004 proved to be a watershed in the life of the NIEPA. The pivotal issue was to make the Institute a world-class organization. It was suggested by the MHRD that perhaps the time had come to give the Institute the status of a “Deemed to be University.” The Director of the Institute consulted the faculty. A meeting took place in February 2006 with the Director in the chair. The chief concern was what would be the implications of this move. The Director confirmed that the existing role and function of the Institute would remain the same and the ‘Deemed to be University’ status would be an add-on. The source of funding would also remain the same. The Institute could offer more research programmes and the proposed change could provide NIEPA the opportunity to prepare qualified and experienced human resource in educational planning and administration.

Some issues were raised by the faculty. What would be the UGC’s role once the Institute acquired the ‘Deemed to be University’ status? Would it involve a major restructuring of its Academic Units’? Would the Institute be able to generate demand for its courses including the Ph.D. programmes to be introduced after acquiring the ‘Deemed to be University’ status? Would the Ministry support the Institute in terms of the additional resources and faculty needed to shoulder the new responsibilities?

It was explained that the role of the UGC was to examine the Institute’s proposal to become a ‘Deemed to be University’ and recommend it to the MHRD. After that a ‘Deemed to be University’ had the autonomy to design its own programmes and award degrees in conformity with the guidelines of the UGC like any other university. The major structuring of academic units was an internal affair. On the question of generating demand for research, it was suggested that wider publicity could be given to the
Institute’s research capacities and activities. The matter of additional resources required for the responsibilities of a ‘Deemed to be University’ would be addressed appropriately with the Ministry.

Some faculty members felt that research could be improved by introducing post-doctoral and visiting fellowships where the award of degrees was not required. Certain number of Ph.D. fellowships could be introduced and the Institute could have collaborative arrangements with some universities for the award of the degree. Other faculty members thought that the Institute could go for a ‘Deemed to be University’ status provided its relationship with the MHRD including funding remained unaltered. They also thought that acquiring a ‘Deemed to be University’ status would enable the Institute to become a research university. In-house research would also get facilitated and enhanced with the induction of research fellows and additional faculty.

The proforma for the ‘Deemed to be University’ status was submitted under Section 3 of the UGC Act. On the question of how the Deemed University status would further the aims and objectives of the Institute, it was specifically stated that specialized human resource in the area of Educational Planning and Administration was scarce in the country as very few universities offered specialized programmes in this area. Therefore, the M.Phil., Ph.D. and post-doctoral programmes proposed to be offered by the Institute would provide, to a large extent, the required human resource to meet the increasing demand on account of educational reforms. Hence, with the ‘Deemed to be University’ status NIEPA could help multiply the number of qualified educational planners and administrators in the country.

Even though the economics of education was a special area of interest in some universities, intensive research in it had not been undertaken. There was need to constantly study the economics of education at all levels across districts, States and nations for ensuring informed investments in education. It would be NIEPA to undertake beneficial for research in comparative education at all levels. It was felt that the proposed
‘Deemed to be University’ status would further facilitate NIEPA’s efforts towards preparing trained human resource and generating new knowledge in these areas.

Similarly, little effort had been made to institutionalize educational policy research. NIEPA proposed to further strengthen policy research in education by undertaking longitudinal studies which could provide necessary feedback for policy formulation. The augmented technical hands would facilitate the formulation, planning, and implementation of educational reform strategies at the national and sub-national levels. In addition, the array of NIEPA’s activities in capacity building, research, networking, and knowledge generation would get further strengthened.

A ‘Deemed to be University’ status was also required if NIEPA wanted to offer Ph.D. programmes of six semesters or of three-year duration for each batch. Initially, it was proposed to take 10 students every year in educational planning, administration, finance, comparative education, school education, higher and technical education, policy research, educational management and information system and other emerging areas such as educational testing services, WTO, GATS, Intellectual Property Rights (IPR) and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). It also proposed to have M.Phil. programmes with ten students per year in these areas together with post-doctoral programmes of four semesters, or of two years for each batch. Initially, five post-doctoral students would be taken every year.

NIEPA could also offer Masters’ level programmes in related areas of study, conduct relevant programmes through distance mode and set up campuses outside Delhi. It proposed to institute five positions of Professors of Eminence who would not only contribute significantly towards generating new knowledge through research but also give guidance and support to build the internal capacity of the Institute so as to popularize and sustain some of important areas of study. A few areas which needed to be researched were the Economics of Education, Comparative Education, Educational Planning and Administration. Further, it was also proposed to invite eminent
educationists, academicians and practitioners in the relevant fields to join NIEPA as Professors of Eminence.

Consequent upon becoming a ‘Deemed to be University’, NIEPA proposed to have eight Departments consisting of Educational Planning and Administration; Educational Policy; Economics of Education; School and Distance Education; Higher and Technical Education; Comparative Education; IC and Operations Research & Systems Management; and Sociology and Psychological Foundation of Education.

The Formation of NUEPA

August 2006 was a landmark date for NIEPA as it became a Deemed University, the only University in the country completely dedicated to education, fully sponsored by the Government of India but autonomous in character. With its changed status there was a paradigm shift in its philosophy, inner functioning, and development. The focus shifted from being primarily a delivery to a resource institution. The emphasis moved from staff training to research and professionalization of capacity building efforts. In effect, the National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) became a research University aimed to support human capacity building through research.

The University celebrates its foundation on August 11, every year. The first Foundation Lecture in 2007 was on “Alternative Perspectives on Higher Education in the Context of Globalization” by Prof. Prabhat Patnaik, Vice Chairman, Kerala State Planning Board. The second in 2008 was on “Designing Architecture for a Learning Revolution Based on a Life Cycle Approach” by Prof. M.S. Swaminathan, Member of Parliament (Rajya Sabha), UNESCO Chair in Ecotechnology, M.S. Swaminathan Research Foundation and the third Lecture in 2009 was on “Universities in the Twenty-First Century by Andre Beteille, National Research Professor and Prof. Emeritus of Sociology, University of Delhi.
According to its charter, the University is expected to carry out five major sets of activities: research, training, consulting, extension and dissemination. Instead of the original eight that were envisaged, the University organized itself into ten academic departments consisting of Educational Planning; Educational Administration; Educational Policy; School & Non-Formal Education; Higher & Professional Education; Educational Finance; Comparative Education and International Cooperation; Inclusive Education; Educational Management Information System; and Foundations of Education.

Academics Departments

The academic programmes of the University are conducted by the following Academic Departments.

1) Department of Educational Planning. With the shift in emphasis from centralized to decentralized planning, the main effort of the Department is to integrate inputs, processes and products of planning at the institutional, district, State and national levels. With the onset of liberalization of the economy, the focus has also shifted to strategic and indicative planning rather than comprehensive planning in the conventional sense. The Department conducts training programmes and undertakes research in these areas and provides consultancy to various bodies.

2) Department of Educational Administration. This department focuses on training and research in educational management. It conducts programmes both for institutional heads and area level officers. It has done a consultancy project on Decentralized Planning in Nepal, drawing expertise from all other departments.

3) Department of Educational Finance. This deals with crucial issues of policy, planning techniques and management of financing of education through the mobilization of governmental and private resources, their allocation and utilization in primary, secondary, higher, and technical education, in formal and non-formal forms of education, and in literacy and adult education. Public financing of education and internal and
external efficiency of investment in education are the other serious concerns for research and training.

4) Department of Educational Policy. This is concerned with the crucial elements of educational policy, planning, implementation, review, monitoring and evaluation at all levels, that is, school, formal, non-formal, higher, adult and distance education at the Centre, State and institution levels. It works as a national support system in policy formulation, its implementation, review and analysis. The Department also engages in activities concerned with the capacity building of policy makers, planners, administrators and implementers through training, research and consultancy. In addition, it conducts seminars, workshops and discussion meets in the crucial areas of doctoral research, rotational headship, self-financing courses, deemed university, human rights, women studies and other concerns.

5) Department of School and Non-formal Education. The prime focus of this department is on crucial issues of school education, non-formal education and adult literacy and inclusive education. It strives to create a strong base so that it is able to contribute more meaningful inputs for developing and improving education. The six-month Diploma Course in Educational Planning and Administration is one of the most prestigious training programmes of the University. The Department maintains close links with the government and the non-government and international agencies to restructure the educational system at the sub-national, national and international levels.

6) Department of Higher and Professional Educational. This department works for the generation and dissemination of knowledge and information in planning and management of higher education. It also helps to develop competencies in these areas among key personnel in higher education through training programmes and workshops for college principals and senior university and State officials. It provides technical and professional consultancy to policy making and planning and implementing organizations together with institutions of higher education.
7) Department of Foundations of Education. This department is focused on strengthening the capabilities of State and District level planners and administrators in decentralized and local level planning and on the capacity building of the faculty of DIETs and of SIEMATs. Research-based interventions in the DPEP programmes and evaluative studies of centrally sponsored schemes are other major areas of research of the Department.

8) Department of Comparative Education and International Cooperation. This department provides the international interface of NUEPA. The six-month IDEPA for senior educational policy makers, planners and administrators is the flagship programme of the University. More that seventy-five developing countries have benefited from it. The department also offers customized country specific programmes on educational planning and management. Comparative research on educational planning and management is another unique feature of this Department. In addition, the department brings out a bi-annual newsletter of ANTRIEP for dissemination of information on research and innovation in educational planning and administration among member institutions.

9) Department of Educational Management Information System. This deals with system level management issues including logistics management, information and control systems, computer applications, operations research in education, project formulation and monitoring implementation decision support systems and others. Special focus is on capacity building in computer applications among the State and district level staff in the design, development and implementation of information systems. The department also provides technical and professional support for Educational Management Information System for the SSA and the erstwhile DPEP. Operations Research and Systems Management Unit (ORSM) also works as a service Department looking after the Local Area Network (LAN), NUEPA Website, and software development for institutional management.
10) **Department of Inclusive Education.** This Department focuses on the Conceptualization of Inclusive Education with specific reference to education of children and youth with disabilities. It also deals with national and international policies and instruments, statements, and Acts formulated in India and other countries for addressing the concerns and issues of persons with disabilities, the role of NGOs, universities, Apex Institutions, Ministries of Health, Labour and Welfare in Planning and Management of Education for children and youth with disabilities.

**Support Department**

*Library and Documentation Centre.* A treasure on educational planning and administration, NUEPA Library and Documentation Centre has a collection of over 34 thousand books and almost 19 thousand volumes, respectively. It receives about 230 Indian and foreign journals and academic periodicals regularly. Totally computerized and networked, the library provides referencing services through Internet, Education Resources Information Center (ERIC)- and DELNET-based virtual library mode. The library is a treasure house on educational planning and administration. The Documentation Centre offers a unique collection of official reports, documents and other publications of the Central and State Governments, such as State gazettes, census reports, world handbooks, educational surveys, five-year plans and others. For current documents on education, there is no better source.

*Publication Department:* As already mentioned, NUEPA has a publishing programme for the dissemination of research and developments in education in the form of occasional papers, journals, newsletters, books and reports. Some of the important periodical publications are: Journal of Educational Planning and Administration, Pariprekshya, the ANTRIEP Newsletter and the NUEPA Newsletter. It publishes research seminars and conference reports in the form of books. The University is bringing out a series of reports of survey on educational administration in various States and Union Territories.
Electronic Data Processing (EDP) Department. This department provides the back up to the information technology needs of the University. NUEPA leads in using information technology in day-to-day activities, both academic and non-academic. Every faculty member, every member of the administrative and finance department as well as the library, has the latest computing facilities. Internet and e-mail services are available for the faculty members. The department contributes to the computer awareness and appreciation module in various training programmes.

Hindi Cell. This Cell renders in Hindi professional literature on educational planning and management and thus gives academic support to research, training and dissemination in the language. The cell also helps in implementing the official language policy.

Cartography Cell: This Cell provides computerized mapping and other cartographic services for research and dissemination by developing innovative presentations of data and information through maps, graphs, display charts, tables and transparencies.

The academic activities of the University have been grouped into three major categories: (1) capacity building, (2) knowledge generation, application-research and action research; and (3) dissemination of knowledge through publications and other means, consultancy and professional support.

Capacity Building

Programme Thrust

The major thrust has been on promoting research in the area of educational planning and administration as also networking of training facilities in this field and training of trainers so as to develop training capabilities at the regional, State, local and institutional levels.
In the training programmes emphasis has been given to priority areas such as Education for All, Planning at the Micro-level and at the District Level, Institutional Planning and Evaluation, Non-Formal and Adult Education, Planning and Management of DIETs, Tribal Education, Decentralized Administration, Gender Issues and Computer Applications. Together with this, emphasis has been placed on the planning and development of Academic Staff Colleges, Autonomous Colleges and Planning and Management of Quality.

*Training Material*

As part of capability building at the regional, State and National levels, self-learning modules, papers, statistical data, reports on planning and administration are prepared by the University. In every training programme, a set of reading materials pertaining to the themes of the programme prepared by the faculty and culled from various sources, is provided to the participants.

*Training Methodology*

NUEPA is an interdisciplinary institution. Therefore, all its training programmes are also interdisciplinary and programme methodologies are designed accordingly. Without exception, they are informed by state-of-the-art multi-channel learning systems, including lectures and lecture discussions, simulations, role-play, case studies, practical and syndicate work and participant seminars. NUEPA classrooms are well equipped with modern educational technological facilities such as computers with LCD projectors, video and television, overhead projectors, white marker boards and other required equipment. The faculty is well conversant with the use of such aids in classrooms. One of the major interventions in programme methodologies is field visits that encourage participants to explore for themselves the innovative organizational and management methods.
Programme planning is a bottom-up participative approach. It begins with the initiative of the individual faculty members. Their proposals are reviewed at the department level with Heads of Departments and at the faculty level in the Faculty Council. They are then processed through the Academic Council, Finance Committee and the Board of Management that comprise external experts. Before launching, each programme is discussed elaborately by a Task Force Committee specifically constituted for the purpose. It is evaluated by the participants and the feedback is used to modify, change and improve future programmes.

**Generation of Knowledge through Application and Action Research**

NUEPA is primarily a research organization. A very important feature of the organization is that every academic member of staff is a researcher. The research initiatives in the University can be classified as commissioned or self-initiated. The Government of India, particularly the MHRD, Planning Commission and various other governmental agencies such as the UGC, State-level institutions and international agencies active in education in India, often commission NUEPA for research studies. Such researches are invariably funded by the commissioning agency. Also, such commissioned researches are an important source of feedback and monitoring of major government programmes, projects and schemes.

Another type of research is initiated by the concerned faculty, according to areas of specialization. Such studies are funded by the University from its own budgetary resources. The University, according to its slated objectives, also promotes research by sponsoring projects that involve participation of researchers from other research universities.

**Dissemination, Consultancy and Professional Support**

Consultancy and professional support is an integral part of the charter of NUEPA. It offers its professional support at all levels of education including to the State
governments and State level organizations such as SCERTs, State University of Educational Management and Training (SIEMATs), State Councils of Higher Education, and others. Besides the national and State level support, NUEPA provides consultancy and professional support to international organizations such as UNESCO World Bank, Software Development Agencies (SDA) and other agencies.

In recognition of their expertise, a number of the University’s faculty members are consulted by various international agencies in international settings. New ground was broken when NUEPA was called upon to provide professional support to an internationally funded project on decentralized planning in Nepal.

The primary mode of dissemination of NUEPA’s research and conceptual knowledge is through publications. It has generated over the years, a very strong publication programme with several major components. The publications department brings out the NUEPA Newsletter and the Asian Network of Training and Research Institutions in Educational Planning (ANTRIEP) Newsletter. NUEPA functions as the focal point of ANTRIEP. Also, the University brings out a professional periodical in English – *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*. The high quality of the Journal fetches nearly fifty international journals on an exchange basis. *Pariprekshya* is NUEPA’s Hindi journal. The University also publishes occasional papers such as, “Best Practices in Education: A Documentation of Educational Innovations in Practice” and many others. Several monographs have also been brought out. NUEPA publishes research reports, conference proceedings and the scholarly works of its faculty. Some of them are even priced publications in collaboration with private publishers for wider dissemination.

**Administration and Campus Facilities**

The administrative set up of NUEPA includes general, academic and personnel administration. The University has a total sanctioned strength of over 160 staff members, both academic and administrative. It has a four-storeyed office building, a seven-storeyed
hostel comprising 60 fully furnished rooms with attached baths, and a residential complex with sixteen Type I quarters, eight quarters each of Type II to V, and the Director’s residence. Construction of one additional room in the 25 expandable houses acquired by NUEPA in Bindapur, Dwarka has been completed.

Some New Beginnings

In 2007, the University began M.Phil and Ph.D. programmes in educational planning and administration from a broader inter-disciplinary social perspective. These are a full-time Integrated M.Phil Ph.D. Programme; full-time Direct Ph.D. Programme; and a part-time Ph.D. Programme

Under the Full-time Integrated M.Phil.-Ph.D. Programme, the University offers an M.Phil. degree of two-year duration. The two-year M.Phil. programme comprises one year of course work with 30 credits followed by one year for dissertation work with 30 credits. On the successful completion of the M.Phil. programme, scholars are considered for registration to the Ph.D. programme. Such scholars are eligible to submit their Doctoral thesis only after two years of registration for the Ph.D. programme. Scholars admitted to the Direct Ph.D. programme are expected to complete one year of course work before their Ph.D. registration can be confirmed after which they can submit their thesis after two years from the date of confirmation of registration to the Ph.D. programme. A part-time Ph.D. scholar is eligible for the submission of his/her Ph.D. thesis after a minimum period of four years from the date of confirmation for registration to the Ph.D. programme.

The first batch of 21 scholars joined the M.Phil. and Ph.D. Programme in July 2007. NUEPA offers fellowships to all the admitted scholars for the full time programme.

Achievements in Research
NUEPA extended its outreach in research activities covering a wide spectrum in both school and tertiary levels of education. It has undertaken research at four levels. It funds research by faculty and other researchers; Internationally funded Collaborative Research, National level Research Projects and Schemes to sanction researches and seminars on the National Policy of Education.

**NUEPA-funded Research by the Faculty**

Seventeen research studies/projects were initiated during 2007-08. These research studies mainly focused on primary school education, secondary education and higher education. Some important issues taken up were access and equity in school education; small schools; girl’s education; education of the disadvantaged groups; access, participation and learning achievement in the slums of million plus cities; post-enumerative survey of District Information System of Education (DISE) Data 2008-09; financing of elementary education; financing of school; and functioning of Parent Teacher Associations (PTA).

In secondary education, a profile of different secondary schools under the control of the government was taken up. The issues to be studied in higher education were participation of Muslims; revitalization of the humanities programmes; private universities in India; and salaries and mobility of teachers.

Four researches were initiated to provide specific inputs to the Chadha Committee set-up by the UGC for recommending the scales of pay for teachers of universities and colleges to the Sixth Pay Commission.

**International Collaborative Research**

As partner of CREATE with the University of Sussex, UK, NUEPA continued to work on access, participation, and transition at the elementary stage. Review papers on 11 themes were prepared. Four of these, along with a Country Analytical Review of
India and a monograph on small, multi-grade schools was published in ‘Pathways to Access’. In addition, the CREATE team at NUEPA conducted a community and school survey covering 90 schools and 6431 households from 36 villages in two clusters of Madhya Pradesh and one cluster of Chhattisgarh. In addition, NUEPA signed an Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with Stanford University and undertook a collaborative research project on potential economic and social impacts of rapid expansion of higher education in Brazil, Russia, India, and China (BRIC).

**National Level Research Initiatives**

The University undertook a mid-decade assessment for “Education for All” with focus on “Reaching the Unreached” in collaboration with MHRD and with the support from UNICEF and UNESCO. It also conducted a National Evaluation of Mid-day Meal Scheme for MHRD.

In addition, the MHRD had given NUEPA the additional responsibility to promote initiatives to implement the National Policy on Education (1986-1992). Under it, NUEPA provides financial assistance to various governmental, semi-governmental and non-governmental organizations after proper scrutiny of their proposals.

**Other Initiatives**

The University has started an Eminent Scholar Lecture Series wherein it invites senior scholars from different fields to give lectures on contemporary issues. The university has organized several lectures under the series by eminent scholars including Prof. P.M. Bhargava, Prof. Maik Bray, Prof. M.S. Ananth, and Prof. C. Seshadhri. The subjects they covered were, “Our Expectations from School and How May We Meet Them”, “Policies and Tensions in the Financing of Education: Perspectives from UNESCO’s International Institute for Educational Planning”, “The Changing Environment of Higher Education and some India-Centric Concerns”, and “The Philosophy of Education as a Knowledge Field”. 

284
NUEPA and the Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Education for Peace and Sustainable Development

In September 2009, UNESCO decided to set up a Category I Institution initially within the premises of the National University of Educational Planning and Administration called the Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Education for Peace and Sustainable (MGIEP). It is appropriate that the groundwork was done by NUEPA considering that the University had started life as a Regional Centre established by UNESCO for educational planning and administration to meet the challenges of education in Asia and the Pacific region at various levels. Just as the Regional Centre grew into a University, the Mahatma Gandhi Institute has the potential to grow into a significant institution of sustainable development.

The establishment of MGIEP is in keeping with the basic mandate of UNESCO as is evident from the Preamble to its Constitution: “since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed.” Much of the work of UNESCO is centred on the promotion of education for peace, human rights and democracy. Sustainable development is an interrelated challenge and one which has to be met if the existence of the earth itself is not threatened. This again, like solutions of peace, have to begin in the “minds of men.” Human beings have to consider how they view their position and role in the universe. Education in the broadest sense has to necessarily play a vital part in embedding and spreading this awareness.

Summing Up

The journey from the Regional Centre for the Training of Educational Planning, Administrators and Supervisors to the establishment of NUEPA was a long and arduous one. Now that the centre had blossomed into a university, the only University in the country completely dedicated to education; fully sponsored by the Government of India it
was natural that it got the autonomy to design its own programmes and award degrees in conformity with the guidelines of the UGC like any other university. The change in status led to an exemplar shift in its philosophy, functioning and development. The focus shifted from being primarily a delivery mechanism to a resource institution. The emphasis moved from staff training to research and professionalization of capacity building efforts. In effect, the National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) has become a research University aimed to support human capacity building through research. It now had the opportunity to prepare qualified and experienced human resource in educational planning and administration.

Often the planning and implementation of reform programmes at the sectoral and institutional levels has been affected because of the lack of appropriate capacity of educational administrators. Many of the educational administrators in the country have been either untrained or ill-equipped to handle their planning and management responsibilities. Hence NUEPA in its long journey has been holding a large number of training programmes annually gradually moving from individuals to training the trainees. Gradually, research has got strengthened because it has to provide consultancy to the government and other organizations both in India and abroad. This entails not only taking stock of the situation, data collection and sponsored studies but also research oriented towards policy formulation, meeting of new challenges and planning for the future. Strengthening research at NUEPA would help to design even more effective capacity-building programmes for such educational functionaries and for policy formulation and implementation. This would have a strong impact on the functioning of the education system at all levels. The ‘Deemed to be University’ status would facilitate the efforts of the Institute to expand and strengthen the pool of professionally trained human resource.

It could now develop specialized human resource in the area of Educational Planning and Administration which for decades had been scarce in the country as very few universities offered specialized programmes in this area. The M.Phil., Ph.D. and post-doctoral programmes offered by the Institute as a University would provide, to a
large extent, the required human resource to meet the increasing demand on account of educational reforms. Hence, with the ‘Deemed to be University’ status NUEPA will undoubtedly contribute towards multiplying the number of qualified educational planners and administrators in the country. It is now coming closer to fulfilling the vision and achieving objectives for which it had been set up in 1962.

**NUEPA GLOSSARY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>Academic Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACEID</td>
<td>Asian Centre of Educational Innovation for Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AICTE</td>
<td>All India Council for Technical Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIEPA</td>
<td>Asian Institute of Educational Planning and Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APEID</td>
<td>Asian Programme for Educational Innovation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBSE</td>
<td>Central Board of Secondary Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDC</td>
<td>College Development Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIET</td>
<td>Central Institute of Educational Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COSIP</td>
<td>Computer Open Systems Implementation Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CREATE</td>
<td>Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transactions and Equity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSIR</td>
<td>Council of Scientific and Industrial Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAE</td>
<td>Department of Atomic Energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DELNET</td>
<td>Developing Library Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEO</td>
<td>District Education Officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department For International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIET</td>
<td>District Institute of Education &amp; Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISE</td>
<td>District Information System of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPEP</td>
<td>District Primary Education Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DST</td>
<td>Department of Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECAFE</td>
<td>Economic Commission for Asia &amp; the Far East</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECCE</td>
<td>Early Childhood Care and Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDP</td>
<td>Electronic Data Processing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ERIC</td>
<td>Education Resources Information Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCI</td>
<td>Food Corporation of India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDI</td>
<td>Foreign Direct Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FPAI</td>
<td>Family Planning Association of India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GATS</td>
<td>General Agreement on Trade in Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICAR</td>
<td>Indian Council of Agricultural Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICSSR</td>
<td>Indian Council of Social Science Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDEPA</td>
<td>International Diploma in Educational Planning and Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGNOU</td>
<td>Indira Gandhi National Open University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIEP</td>
<td>International Institute for Educational Planning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>