

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN
EAST PAKISTAN AND WEST PAKISTAN

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Faculty of the Institute of Education and
Research, The University of Dacca

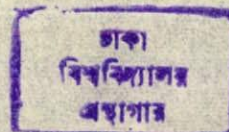
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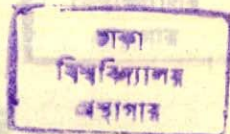
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EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN

The writer expresses his profound sense of indebtedness and gratitude to his major advisor, Dr. Serajul Haque Khan, but for whose prodigious, persistent and patient advisement this study would not have seen the light of the day.

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN
EAST PAKISTAN AND WEST PAKISTAN

by

Said Rasul

An Abstract of a Dissertation
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of the Institute of Education and Research
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ABSTRACT

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The Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the available relevant sources and make a comparison of the patterns of development of educational administration in East Pakistan with those in West Pakistan since independence. Besides this, the study also serves some other purposes: (1) it serves as a central source of information about educational administration in the two wings of Pakistan; (2) it presents a true picture of similarities and dissimilarities in the patterns of educational administration in East Pakistan and West Pakistan; (3) it attempts to identify the causes of successes and failures of and problems involved in the efforts to reorient educational administration against the background of the socio-economic and political aspects of life in the two wings; and (4) it is expected to provide an impetus for further inquiries into the field.

Procedures

A thorough survey was made of the available sources of information related to the study. The sources which

provided materials for writing this dissertation include: (1) books on social, economic and political aspects of life of the people in both the wings of the country by native as well as foreign writers; (2) books on the history of education in British India by Nurullah and Naik, and others; (3) the Cambridge History of India; and (4) Government publications related to the development of education in British India and Pakistan.

The topical approach of historical style was followed in writing this dissertation. It begins with a short history of the social, economic and political aspects of life of the people in East Pakistan and West Pakistan. The next chapter presents a brief account of the development of administration of secondary education in those regions of British India which now form Pakistan. Chapters IV and V give details of the development of administration of secondary education in East Pakistan and West Pakistan respectively since independence. The last chapter contains a summary of the entire study, findings, conclusions and recommendations.

Findings

The findings of the study indicate the following significant trends and information:

1. During the period 1947-68, the control and administration of secondary education in East

Pakistan was the joint responsibility of the Government, managing committees and boards while in West Pakistan the Government, local bodies and universities were entrusted with such responsibility till 1955, and thereafter the boards replaced the universities.

2. Although education was a provincial subject, the Government of Pakistan always took a keen interest in the development of education. Soon after independence, it convened an educational conference in November, 1947 to review the system of education in the country for the purpose of gearing it to the needs, aspirations and traditions of the independent society of Pakistan.
3. As education was a provincial subject, the Government of East Pakistan (East Bengal at that time) appointed in 1949 a committee called "the East Bengal Educational System Reconstruction Committee" to devise ways and means to reform the system of education as envisaged by the Educational Conference of 1947. The recommendations of the Committee were not fully implemented because of unfavourable political and economic conditions. However, some changes

were effected, such as (a) class five was shifted from the secondary to the primary stage; (b) some middle schools were upgraded; (c) Urdu was made a compulsory subject upto class eight; and (d) English was dropped from classes three and four of high and middle schools.

In 1957, another attempt was made to introduce reform in the educational system and a commission styled as "the East Pakistan Educational Reforms Commission" was appointed for this purpose. Its recommendations excepting only a few about primary education could not be implemented due to mainly political instability and economic stringency too.

4. In 1955, the Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, Sind and the states and agencies were merged into one province called West Pakistan. With the merger of the old provinces into a single unit the posts of directors of public instruction in those provinces were automatically abolished.

An education secretariate headed by a secretary for education and a directorate of public instruction were established for the control and administration of education in the

new province of West Pakistan . The entire province was divided into four regions and a directorate of education headed by a director of education was established in each region for the administration of education. The directorate of public instruction set up for the new province of West Pakistan was, however, abolished in 1962-63.

5. In October 1958, when the military authority took over the administration of the country, it appointed a commission called "The Commission on National Education" to reorient the educational system of the country in line with the new demands and aspirations of the developing society of Pakistan. The Commission made a close and critical survey of secondary education and recommended some basic changes in it. The focal point of the recommendations of the Commission was that secondary education should be treated as an independent stage complete in itself and should be separated from university education. The Commission suggested that the curriculum of secondary schools should make adequate provision for the different aptitudes

and interests of the students. The Commission also recommended that educational administration should be decentralised upto the lower units of administration.

6. In 1962-63, in the process of decentralisation of educational administration, the Government of East Pakistan appointed four deputy directors of public instruction, one in each of the four divisions of the province. Sufficient power and authority were delegated to them for the efficient administration of education at the divisional level. The post of the director of public instruction and that of the secretary for education were not disturbed at the provincial level.

On the other hand, in West Pakistan, the post of the director of public instruction was abolished and the regional directorates of education were increased from four to six in number during the same period. These directorates were made self-sufficient units of educational administration and were provided with adequate inspecting staff at the divisional level for the supervision and administration of secondary education.

7. Educational planning was integrated with the general development programme of the country. Secondary education was organized as a stage complete in itself and for this purpose diversified courses were introduced in the new model schools as well as in the old ones which were developed to facilitate the introduction of such courses.
8. The new curriculum was introduced in both the provinces of Pakistan in 1961. In East Pakistan, crafts courses were introduced in five hundred junior high schools and in 833 high schools diversified courses were introduced. In addition to this, twenty-one pilot schools were established for the introduction of such courses. Besides, fifteen new government high schools were set up in the province. In West Pakistan, thirty-eight pilot schools and twenty-nine comprehensive schools were established to facilitate the introduction of diversified curriculum. However, efforts were being made in both the wings of Pakistan to convert a large number of unilateral schools

into multilateral or comprehensive ones by making adequate provision for a wide range of subjects and courses suitable to the varying interests and aptitudes of the students.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Preliminary Statement

Educational Administration, as a discipline, is related to the more general discipline of administrative science which basically deals with human activities directed towards the attainment of goals and for that matter is determined and designed by the theory of the state and the theory of education that prevail at the time. Totalitarian states differ from democratic states in theories and practices. These differences are reflected in the structures of their educational administration as well. While totalitarian states tend to have educational administration that is highly centralised, democratic states believe in decentralisation of educational administration.

Pakistan came into existence in 1947 as an independent democratic state with the Islamic ideology as the base for all her administrative processes. Naturally, the educational administration of Pakistan must be structured in such a manner as suits the ideology, genius, values and aspirations of her people. But the administrative structure of education in Pakistan is a continuation of the system of educational administration developed by the British colonial rulers during about two hundred years of their rule in India. The British

Government exercised control over education for political and administrative purposes rather than for the dissemination of knowledge among the natives. Evolutionary changes in the general administration of the British East India Company influenced the tone and pattern of educational administration in British India.

With the emergence of Pakistan as a sovereign state, education received a great impetus. The Government of Pakistan appointed a number of commissions and committees to make a critical appraisal of the progress of education in the country and to suggest ways and means for further improvement. The first Educational Conference held in Karachi on November 27, 1947 emphasised the need for the reorientation of Pakistan's educational policy. It said: "We have now before us the opportunity to reorient our entire educational policy to correspond closely with time and to reflect the ideas for which Pakistan as an Islamic state stands." (39, p. 5.)

It has been widely accepted that education plays a preponderant role in the economic development of a nation. Therefore, to make human resources capable of meeting the new calls made upon them under the impact of technological and ideological changes, Pakistan had to reorient and expand her curriculum. The administration of the newly designed curriculum needed appropriate reorganisation and reorientation of educational administration.

Methods, including administrative aspects of accomplishing certain tasks are more important than the very tasks

themselves. It is rightly said that how a thing is done is often more important than the thing done. The practicability of any plan must be tested against the background of administrative policies and measures proposed for its execution. The Second Five Year Plan says:

An unchanging administrative machinery will not be effective for all times under all conditions. With the developing complexity and multiplicity of government activities, new means must be found to adjust the administration to new needs. (41, p. 119.)

This principle is equally reflected in the structure of educational administration as recommended by the Commission on National Education and the Provincial Administration Commission in 1959 and 1960 respectively. The need for the reorganisation and reorientation of the administrative machinery of education has been aptly expressed by an educational administrator. He said:

If the set-up of educational administration is not reorganised, it is futile to expect the other reforms suggested by the Commission on National Education to be implemented with success We need reorganisation and decentralisation to a reasonable degree and a change of attitude at all levels in educational administration. (13, p. 22.)

Pakistan, with the peculiar phenomenon of her far-flung provinces -- separated from each other by more than one thousand miles of an alien territory -- needs uniformity as far as possible in all spheres of human endeavour in the larger interest of national integration and cohesion. This uniformity is desirable in educational administration all the more.

An account of the development of educational administration in both the provinces of Pakistan will help the people in the understanding of mutual problems in the advancement of the nation through education.

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to investigate the available pertinent sources and make a comparison of the patterns of development of educational administration in East Pakistan and West Pakistan since independence. Prior to this study, school administrators, educationists, teachers, students and people interested in education in Pakistan did not have such a central source of information about the structure and working of educational administration in both the regions of the country. This study will meet the need of having such a central source of information.

In addition to meeting the above needs, this study was designed to serve the following other purposes: (1) It presents a true picture of similarities and dissimilarities in the patterns of educational administration in East Pakistan and West Pakistan; (2) it identifies the causes of successes and failures and problems involved in the attempts to reorient educational administration in tune with the needs of the time and society against the background of the social, political and economic conditions of the people in either wing; (3) it serves as background information and an impetus for further studies in the field of educational

administration in both the wings of Pakistan.

DELIMITATIONS

This study was limited to the development of educational administration at the secondary level (classes six to ten) in East Pakistan and West Pakistan from 1947 to 1968. Administration of secondary education of centrally administered institutions was not within the purview of this study.

THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The topics which were considered in preparing this study include a short account of the social, economic and political aspects of the people of East Pakistan and West Pakistan as a background for understanding the trends of development in educational administration in each wing of the country. This study considered in details the following aspects of educational administration in East Pakistan and West Pakistan:

1. Administration
2. Educational Financing
3. Educational Planning
4. Curriculum

NEED FOR THE STUDY

The essence of life is change. Changes have taken place in every sphere of national life with the emergence of

Pakistan as a sovereign democratic state after about two hundred years of British colonial rule. The changes have been necessitated by the new needs and aspirations of a free, democratic state.

Educational administration inherited at independence as a legacy from the British was found inadequate for the new nation. It, therefore, had to be changed and rationalised to meet the needs and ambitions of the new Pakistani nation. The need for such reforms in educational administration has been stressed by the Commission on National Education. It says:

We have been hampered in the past by a failure to delegate authority and responsibility effectively and as a result those at high educational posts have been buried under an unnecessary load of administrative details. As a consequence they have seldom had the time to concern themselves with long range planning or to provide the kind of leadership in education that is needed. (43, p. 324.)

Pakistan, as has been stated earlier, is divided into two wings separated by a foreign territory of more than one thousand miles. Climatic, cultural, economic and social conditions in one wing widely differ from those in the other. Moreover, education in Pakistan was a provincial subject. Each province has reorganised its educational administration to suit its peculiar environments and the needs of its people as recommended by the commissions and committees appointed by the central and provincial governments at different times.

It is highly desirable in the largest interest of the country that educational administrators, teachers and parents should know the nature and function of the machinery of educational administration in both the wings of Pakistan. The Advisory Board of Education expressed the need for having such knowledge in its meeting in 1950. It says:

Pakistan comprises provinces and states with different languages, local traditions and climatic conditions. East and West Pakistan are hundreds of miles apart. It is necessary and desirable to foster and develop a keen sense of Pakistani citizenship based on Islamic ideology ... this can be effectively and expeditiously evolved only by free and unfettered exchange of teachers, educational administrators and students. ... Educational officers of both the provinces should be given ample facilities for first-hand study of conditions in the other part.... they may set up a co-ordinated Information Bureau to keep each unit in constant touch with others and with the Central Government. (45, p. 71.)

The physical distance of more than one thousand miles of a foreign territory between the two wings has made it difficult for the educational administrators, teachers, students and parents in one wing to know and understand the nature of educational activities in the other. But people throughout Pakistan have to move from one wing to the other in connection with trade, business, employment and other social and economic activities involving inter-wing relations.

As the terms, conditions and time of admission and the beginning and length of the academic sessions of the educational institutions in East Pakistan are largely different from those in West Pakistan, the students who

have to accompany their parents from one wing to the other suffer a great deal in getting themselves adjusted to the educational institutions over there. Likewise teachers and school administrators of one wing are unable to guide and provide adequate information to the students, intending to seek admission in the educational institutions in the other wing, about the procedures and nature of administration of education there.

Besides, there is dearth of proper coverage of news and information of one wing in the papers and periodicals of the other wing. These, inter alia, have contributed to the problems of national integration and ill-served the causes of national interest at large. (48, pp. 20-21.)

The Commission on National Education has rightly remarked:

Education is a complex and highly specialized field and its efficient administration requires technical competence, administrative ability and understanding educational developments in different countries of the world. (43, p. 321.)

If the educational administrator's understanding of educational administration in different parts of the world is so much necessary for efficient administration of education, a detailed knowledge of the patterns of organisation and administration of education in East Pakistan and West Pakistan which are two integral parts of the same country is all the more so for all Pakistani educational administrators.

There is, therefore, a great need of having a central source of information relating to the nature and structure

of educational administration in both the regions of Pakistan. This study is expected to meet this need.

PROCEDURES

A survey of the available source of information was made for collecting relevant data for this study. Both primary and secondary sources were used to gather information for the study. The data for the socio-economic and political aspects of life of the people in East Pakistan and West Pakistan were collected from such sources as:

1. The Social History of East Pakistan by Kamaruddin Ahmad.
2. Sociology of Pakistan by F. R. Khan.
3. A Geography of Pakistan by Kazi S. Ahmad.
4. Government and Politics in Pakistan by Muzaffar Ahmad Chaudhury.
5. The Cambridge History of India.
6. The Development of Secondary Education in East Pakistan, an unpublished Doctoral Dissertation by Dr. Serajul Haque Khan.
7. Economics of Pakistan by S. M. Akhtar.
8. Economic Survey of Pakistan.

The materials for writing the historical background of development in educational administration during the British period were gathered from sources like the following:

1. The Cambridge History of India.

2. History of Education in India by Nurullah and Naik.
3. Selected Documents on the History of India and Pakistan by C. H. Philips.
4. India Since 1526 by Mohajan.
5. Quinquennial Reviews of the Progress of Education in India by the Government of India.

The following were some of the sources from which data for the developments in educational administration in East Pakistan after partition were collected:

1. Quinquennial and Annual Reports on the Progress of Education in East Pakistan prepared by the Director of Public Instruction, East Pakistan.
2. Reports of the East Bengal Educational System Reconstruction Committee and East Pakistan Educational Reforms Commission.

To collect data for the developments in educational administration in West Pakistan after independence, the following sources were consulted:

1. Annual Reports on the Progress of Education in West Pakistan prepared by the Director of Public Instruction, West Pakistan.
2. Year-Books, Educational Statistics in West Pakistan and other related documents available in the offices of the regional directors of education, Bureau of Education, West Pakistan,

boards of intermediate and secondary education, and the Text-Book Board, West Pakistan.

The documents of the Central Bureau of Education and the Report of the Commission on National Education and Five Year Plans of Pakistan were utilised in appropriate cases.

The topical approach of historical style was followed in writing the study. It begins with a historical background of the socio-economic and political aspects of life of the people in East Pakistan and West Pakistan, of course, indicating similarities and dissimilarities in the two wings. The next chapter gives a brief history of the developments in educational administration in the Indo-Pak Sub-continent during the British period.

Chapter IV deals with the developments in some already specified important features of educational administration viz., administration, educational financing, educational planning and curriculum in East Pakistan after partition. Chapter V presents the developments in the same components of educational administration, such as administration, educational financing, educational planning and curriculum in West Pakistan since independence.

The last chapter presents a summary of the entire study bringing into focus the similarities and dissimilarities in the patterns of development of educational administration in East Pakistan and West Pakistan since independence.

CHAPTER II

A SHORT HISTORY OF SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL ASPECTS OF PAKISTAN

Education is undoubtedly an inseparable part of the entire life of a nation. It is an integral part of the whole social, economic and political fabric and as such the administration of education is greatly influenced by the socio-economic and political conditions of a country. So, a study of the development of educational administration of any nation should start with a description of these factors operating in the whole national life of a country. Hence follows a short account of the social, economic and political aspects of East Pakistan and West Pakistan.

I. SOCIAL ASPECTS

The Influence of Religion

Pakistan came into being on August 14, 1947 as an independent Muslim state. It comprises two provinces - East Pakistan and West Pakistan - physically separated from each other by about one thousand miles of Indian territory. The two differ widely from each other in many respects. In spite of all differences the Muslims of the two provinces are bound together by the common faith of Islam which led to the creation of Pakistan.

After the advent of Islam and the growth of Muslim Khilafat, commercial activities increased and Islam reached the Pak-Bharat Sub-continent through missionary activities. In 712 A.D. Mohammad Bin Qasim established Muslim rule in Sind, which later spread to the Punjab, Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. In the eighth and ninth centuries the Arab traders came by sea to Bengal and settled in Chittagong. (22, p. x.) Following a long period of Arab rule, the Turks, the Pathans, the Mughals and the British ruled over the sub-continent for different periods of history.

India has been the meeting place of different civilisations in the past. The Muslims of the different parts of this sub-continent came into contact with the diverse cultural groups that came to India at different times and developed cultural patterns different from one another. Transcending these cultural differences Islam bound them all together into a single nationality.

From the above discussion it is evident that religion is the most important factor in the national life of Pakistan. An overwhelming majority of the population of Pakistan are Muslims, but then there are people of other religions; they constitute only a small minority. On the basis of religion, Pakistan's population can, therefore, be classified into two broad categories--the Muslims and the non-Muslims. The non-Muslim category includes Hindus,

Buddhists, Christians and Parsees and others.

The Muslim Society. The Muslims believe in the Islamic principle of equality of all believers. But social stratification developed among the Muslims of the Indo-Pak Sub-continent probably under the influence of Hinduism on Islam. The Muslims are divided into four main groups: the Syeds, the Mughals, the Shaikhs, and the Pathans. All of them trace their origin to the foreign invaders or traders who established their contacts with the sub-continent in different periods of history. The Syed claims descent from Hazrat Ali, the son-in-law of Prophet Mohammed; the Mughals and the Pathans relate themselves with the Turks and Afghans as their ancestors. The Shaikhs claim themselves to be descendants of the quraish of Mecca, which is the tribe of Prophet Mohammed; converts from other religions are also called Shaikhs. (99, pp. 12-13.)

But, this division of the Muslim society does by no means correspond to the Hindu caste structure which is absolutely incompatible with the tenets of Islam.

The Religious Guides. Islam is a complete code of life as laid down in the Quran and the Hadith (the traditions of the Prophet) for the Muslims all over the world. The language of the Quran and the Hadith is Arabic, which is not understood by ordinary Pakistani Muslims. Hence, to help them to understand the Islamic principles and laws, a class

of Arabic scholars has emerged. These scholars are called the ulema. They are the religious leaders of the Muslim society.

The ulema in East Pakistan are the product of madrasahs which are organised educational institutions imparting education with a religious bias. In West Pakistan no such organised system of madrasah education exists and the ulema either acquire religious education independently or in darul-uleems which are established voluntarily by the people for such purposes. These religious leaders have some social and political influence on the masses in both the wings of Pakistan.

The Hindu Society. The Hindus are the largest minority group in Pakistan. Almost all of them are settled in East Pakistan and cause problems in the political life of the country specially in her eastern wing.

The Hindu society is characterised by the caste system, which according to Profeseor Ahmad "permeates the whole Hindu life and is concerned with food and marriage taboos." (9, p. 23.) The various castes do not mix with one another; they do not inter-marry; neither do they dine together at one table. The Hindu society is divided into four castes: The Brahmins, the Kshatriyas, the Vaisyas, and the Sudras. (9, p. 23.) The Brahmins are priests and teachers who act as custodians of national traditions. The Kshatriyas are merchants while the Vaisyas are farmers and the Sudras are considered to be the menials who are now called the Scheduled

Caste Hindus.

Hinduism and Islam are basically different from each other. The fundamental differences between the Hindus and the Muslims made them maintain their distinct social as well as religious identities ultimately leading to the division of India into two separate states -- Pakistan and Bharat.

The Buddhists. The Buddhists are concentrated in the Chittagong Hill Tracts in East Pakistan and constitute the majority of the population over there. They have a number of monasteries for their religious performances in the villages of the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Some of these monasteries received maintenance grants from the Government of East Pakistan. They had a school called 'Kyong' in each village where monks taught Buddhist scripture in Pali and Burmese languages. (99, p. 21.)

Many of the Buddhists are highly educated and hold responsible posts under the Government of East Pakistan. One of them, Mr. Maung Shwe Prue, was a minister in the provincial cabinet in East Pakistan. They have their cultural organisation, such as "the Pakistan Buddha Kristi Pro-char Sangha" to promote their own interests. (99, p. 22.)

The Christians. They are mostly settled in Karachi in West Pakistan. In East Pakistan they have some influence over the Khasi and Garo tribal people in the districts of Sylhet and Mymensingh. Their activities in West Pakistan are mainly confined to the educational and medical fields.

Population, Literacy and Language

The social structure of any country is greatly influenced by the size and density of her population, the percentage of literacy and the number of languages spoken by the people. Hence the discussion of these aspects.

Population. According to the 1961 Census of Pakistan, the total population of the country was 93,720,613 out of which 42,880,378 lived in West Pakistan and 50,840,235 in East Pakistan. The density of population was 256 per square mile in the whole of Pakistan, and that of East Pakistan was nearly seven times the density of population in the other wing.

Literacy. Compared with the developed countries Pakistan is still educationally the most backward. In 1961, she had a literacy rate of 15.9 per cent -- 17.6 in East Pakistan and 13.6 in West Pakistan. (60, p. vii.) Over the past years this position has not improved much.

Language. Several languages are spoken in Pakistan. The most important among them are Bengali, Punjabi, Urdu, Sindhi, Pushto and English. (9, p. 184.) In addition to this there are many local dialects in various regions of West Pakistan. Linguistically East Pakistan is of course more homogeneous than West Pakistan.

II. ECONOMIC ASPECTS

The physical environment of a country, such as climate, land, soil condition, etc. affects people's economic activities and their mode of living. This section, therefore, begins with a short description of the geographical aspects and living conditions of the people of Pakistan, indicating similarities and dissimilarities between the two wings wherever necessary.

Land and Climate

The whole of West Pakistan and almost entire East Pakistan lie in the warm temperate zone; only the south-eastern part of East Pakistan is situated within the tropics. West Pakistan lies between 21°N and 27°N latitude. (2, p. 29.) East Pakistan can be physically divided into two regions:

1. The Ganges-Brahmaputra Plain, and
2. The Chittagong Hill Tracts. (2, p. 26.)

The Ganges-Brahmaputra Plain. The alluvial plain of the Ganges - Brahmaputra delta is by far the larger of the two regions of East Pakistan. The most important characteristic of this plain is the large net-work of rivers. Most of them flow towards the south, but the three main rivers, the Ganges, the Brahmaputra and the Meghna flow from the west, north and north-east respectively. They form the largest delta in the world. During the rainy season these rivers flood several miles of land and when the water recedes it leaves rich silt deposits, which make the soil

fertile and productive. In the south along the coast of the Bay of Bengal, are spread vast jungles known as the Sundarbans.

The Chittagong Hill Tracts. A small hilly area spread in the south-east of the province is known as the Chittagong Hill Tracts. These hills are thickly forested. The river Karnaphuli flows across the hills and falls into the Bay of Bengal.

West Pakistan can be divided into the following six physical regions:

1. The Northern Mountains
2. The Western Bordering Mountains
3. The Salt Range and the Potwar Plateau
4. The Upper Indus Plain
5. The Lower Indus Plain
6. The Baluchistan Plateau. (2, p. 14.)

The Northern Mountains. It consists of two main ranges:

1. The Himalayas
2. The Trans-Himalayan Ranges.

The Himalayas and the Trans-Himalayan Ranges constitute a great barrier between Central Asia and the plains of West Pakistan. They also cause rains by obstructing the winds from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. Their summits covered with snow feed the rivers in summer seasons. The rivers like the Sutlej and the Indus flow across these ranges

which are a source of irrigation in West Pakistan. Moreover, there are a few passes, such as

1. The Babusar Pass which connects Abbottabad with Gilgit.
2. The Lawarai Pass connecting Peshawar with Chitral.
3. The Shaudhur Pass that connects Chitral and Gilgit with each other.
4. The Muztogh Pass connecting Gilgit with Yarkand.
5. The Zaji Pass which connects Srinagar and Leh.
6. The Karakoram Pass connecting Leh with Yarkand.

The Western Bordering Mountains. Three small ranges of mountains on the west of the Indus Plain are stretched from the Hindukush to the Kabul river. Three rivers, the Swat, the Panjkora and the Chitral Kunar flow between these ranges. There are several passes which connect Pakistan's border with Afghanistan. These passes are the Khyber Pass, the Kurram Pass, the Tochi Pass and the Gomal Pass.

The Western Mountains consist of many ranges which run parallel to each other and are much lower than the Himalayas and almost dry and barren. Sometimes heavy rainfall in these mountains cause devastating floods.

The Salt Range and the Potwar Plateau. The Salt Range starts from Jhelum and crossing the Indus near Kalabagh runs west upto the districts of Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan in the south. Large quantities of rock salt and other

minerals like coal and gypsum are found in this range.

The Potwar Plateau lies north of the Salt Range. The valleys of the Haro and the Soan rivers cut across the Potwar Plateau east to west. The Kalachitta Range stretches across the plateau towards Rawalpindi in the east.

The Upper Indus Plain. It is a vast plain stretching in the south of Himalayas and the Salt Range upto the Arabian Sea. It is called the Indus Plain because the Indus and its tributaries drain it. The northern part of it is called the Punjab where the five rivers, the Sutlej, the Beas, the Ravi, the Chenab, and the Jhelum flow south-west. It is a level plain rich with fertile alluvium which is deposited by the rivers. It is irrigated by the net-work of canals dug out from the rivers which meander over a vast area of West Pakistan. But, due to these canals the Punjab is facing a great problem of water-logging these days.

The Lower Indus Plain. It is formed by the changing course of the Indus in Sind. The Indus carrying the water of its five tributaries along with its own flows through this plain and overflows many a mile during the flood seasons causing great loss of life and property in the villages and towns near its banks. The Upper Sind Plain in the north-west of the river is under water-logging and salinity.

In the south, the Ghulam Mohammad Barrage has been constructed and large areas of land are being reclaimed by

the canals of this barrage. The Lower Sind Plain is irrigated by the canals of the Sukkur, the Ghulam Mohammad and the Gudu Barrages.

The Baluchistan Plateau. It lies to the west of the Sulaiman and Kirthar Mountains. Dry hills run across the plateau from the north-east to the south-west and contain valuable minerals, such as coal, iron and chromite. A large area in the north-west is desert. The Zheb, the Porali, the Hingal and the Dasht are the important rivers of the plateau which fall into the Arabian Sea in the south.

In spite of the fact that the two wings are situated in the same zone, the climates of the two differ widely. The climate of West Pakistan is arid and extreme while that of the eastern wing is wet and mild. In West Pakistan the rainfall is generally low, summers are very hot and winters extreme. In East Pakistan the rainfall is heavy and summers are hot and humid but winters are moderate.

The crops of the two wings also differ due to different climates. Wheat, millet, cotton, barley and other such crops as do not need plenty of water are cultivated in West Pakistan while East Pakistan grows rice, tea, jute, etc., to which sufficient rainfall is suitable. Besides, there are some common crops, such as tobacco, sugar-cane and rice which are produced more or less in both the wings.

People

The differences in climate and crops have led to

differences in food, clothing and mode of living of the people between the two wings. Stephens says:

The two wings themselves, besides being startlingly far apart physically, differ much in character; on such important matters as their size, and their respective population density, their climate, their kind of landscape, the things their agriculture produces; a good deal of their history; their more pressing strategic hazards; and their inhabitants' language, dress, diet, and (to some extent) physique and temperament too. (24, p. 33.)

The East Pakistanis generally eat rice, fish and vegetables, while the West Pakistanis' staple food is wheat and meat. The people of East Pakistan are more appreciative of music and art than their brethren in the other wing. They love their language, traditions and country very much. They resist any move to change their values of life. "The Bengalis as a race never believed in completely shaking off past traditions and the values of life" says Ahmad. (1, p. xxviii.) Love of philosophy, poetry, music, dance, and art could be seen all over in East Pakistan. This artistic taste is depicted and displayed in their poetry, songs and even in the designs of their dress; the artistic mind of the Bengali brings forth such designs of the sari for girls as match each season of the year.

East Pakistanis, except in Sylhet and Chittagong Hill Tracts, are ethnically, linguistically and culturally one. There is no special problem of regional languages or regional cultures. On the other hand, in West Pakistan, there is a fundamental unity in the apparent diversity of the various regional cultures; the ancient civilisation of the Indus

Valley is an important bond of this unity of the western wing. (47, p. 10.)

There are four main languages in addition to several dialects in West Pakistan. These are Urdu, Pushto, Punjabi and Sindhi. The Provincial Administration Commission observed, "In short, whether we take language or race or any other features of what goes to make up a 'culture' we would not know where to begin and where to end in West Pakistan." (47, p. 11.) There are very few big towns in East Pakistan and a little less than 95 per cent of the population live in villages. (61, p. 11-16.) In West Pakistan, although the overwhelming majority of the population live in villages, there are more big towns connected with one another by the net-work of railways and roads.

Agriculture

Pakistan, at independence, was primarily an agrarian country. Agriculture, including the allied occupations of animal husbandry, forestry and fisheries, constituted the principal section of her economy. Agriculture contributed more than 50 per cent of the total national income and employed about 75 per cent of the working force of the country. (3, p. 16.) But, despite its significant role in the national economy, agriculture still lacks modern techniques of farming. The per acre yields in Pakistan in 1966 were amongst the lowest in the world: about 11.40, 8.00, and 1.75 maunds of rice, wheat and cotton per acre respectively

against 33.40, 16.00, 2.40 in Japan. (3, p. 111.) The area under cultivation in East Pakistan is limited and has no possibility of extension, while large tracts of arable land are lying waste in West Pakistan.

The peculiar geographical situation of Pakistan with her two wings separated physically from each other by about one thousand miles of Indian territory created difficulties in the way of economic development of the country. Men and materials cannot move so easily and cheaply from one wing to the other. The land-route passes through India with which the relation of Pakistan has been, unfortunately, strained since long. The sea-route is lengthy and Pakistan has got inadequate shipping facilities to transport goods from one wing to the other. It is said that it is cheaper for East Pakistan to import certain articles from Great Britain than from West Pakistan because "sea freights from Karachi to Chittagong are higher than from United Kingdom." (3, p. 15.) Because of such factors the prices of commodities and factors of production in one wing varied from those in the other.

Industry

Besides other economic problems at the time of independence, the most outstanding one was almost complete lack of modern industries which led Hindu leaders to think that Pakistan would collapse because of lack of industries. But the Pakistanis proved them mistaken by making tremendous progress in the field of industry within a short span of time after partition.

At the time of independence, Pakistan got only forty-nine factories out of the total of twelve hundred and nineteen factories of cotton, jute, iron, paper, glass, cement and sugar. (15, p. 130.) Over the past years, Pakistan has established many industries in both the wings. She has set up fourteen jute mills dealing with over a quarter of her million ten annual crop while the rest was sent abroad for processing. In 1947, out of a total of fifteen lac bales of cotton produced, only one lac sixty thousand were used in Pakistani mills. By 1956, Pakistan has become not only self-sufficient in coarser type of cloth but she also began to export. (24, p. 273.) Remarkable progress has been made in the manufacture of wool, tobacco, sugar, cement, rubber goods, fertilizer and other industries in Pakistan. West Pakistan is in a better position than East Pakistan in respect of industrialisation.

With comparatively much slower progress in factory industry, cottage industries play a vital role in the economy of East Pakistan. The cottage industries in East Pakistan were handloom spinning, weaving of cotton and wool, jute goods, making of leather goods, metal ware, pottery, sports goods, cutlery, cane work, and musical instruments. With the exception of cane work and jute goods, almost all other cottage industries in addition to carpet making and shoe making are found in West Pakistan. Pakistan can be proud of reaching the stage of cottage

industries where she can earn a good amount of foreign exchange by exporting the products of these industries.

Development Planning

Pakistan, as a nation, is committed to planned economy and her Five Year Plans represent the programme of overall national development in the country. The approach to economic development in Pakistan has all along been pragmatic. It has been the constant desire and attempt of the Government "to mobilise the creative energies of the nation and to give all possible incentive for the stimulation of private initiative." (42, p. iii.) By this approach, Pakistan has increased the rate of economic growth and has attained 60 per cent increase in her national income and will achieve a further increase of 200 per cent in the next twenty years. (42, p. iii.)

But, private enterprise has contributed little to the well-being of the common man. On the other hand, it has resulted in the excessive concentration of wealth in a few hands and exploitation of labour. In spite of massive progress in economic development, Pakistan is still counted as one of the poorest countries of the world. Her per capita income of 506 rupees in 1967-68 was still quite insufficient to keep her common man at the subsistence level. (23, p. 18.)

The extent of concentration of wealth in Pakistan has been pointed out by the State Bank of Pakistan, which conducted a survey and revealed that over three-fourths of

the total advances made by the banks go to the members of two hundred families. (9, p. 8.) This has been the result of the Government's 'most favoured' policy in economic matters. The four small communities - the Memons, the Chiniotis, the Bohras and the Khojas control over 50 per cent of the country's total industrial wealth, though they constitute about half per cent of the total population of Pakistan. (9, p. 8.) This state of affairs hampers the smooth overall economic development by creating class conflicts, labour unrest, exploitation and the discontentment among the people of working and middle classes.

In order to prevent more concentration of wealth in the hands of a few and to distribute economic opportunities widely, the Government of Pakistan adopted a policy of regulating private enterprise. The ultimate aim of Government efforts in economic and social spheres is to move speedily towards converting Pakistan into a welfare state which will ensure equal opportunities for all rather than equal distribution of wealth. (42, p. v.)

The rate of population growth is very high in Pakistan. It needs to be checked. The country's economy must be improved by introducing new techniques of farming, better communication and marketing facilities and by providing adequate skilled labour. Unless these be accomplished, the standard of living in Pakistan will remain low, nay, it may even deteriorate further.

III. POLITICAL ASPECTS

The political system of Pakistan cannot be properly understood unless one is familiar with the foundations of the Pakistan Movement in British India. The fundamental idea behind the Pakistan Movement was a demand of the overwhelming majority of the Indian Muslims for a separate homeland where they could live according to the principles of their religion. The history of this Movement is long and complicated.

The Muslims in British India

Fifty years after the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, the representative of the British East India Company defeated Nawab Serajud-Doula, the Muslim ruler of Bengal, at the fateful battle of Plassey in 1757. In 1799 the defeat of Tipu Sultan at Seringapatam ended the Muslim power in the south and the failure of the struggle of the Indians for freedom from British domination in 1857 dealt a fatal blow to the Mughal Empire. (9, p. 33.) This was a marked change in the political status of the Muslims of Pak-Bharat. They lost their prominence in the politics of the country and were reduced to the position of a subject people and that too under a vindictive colonial rule.

British rule brought battalions of misfortunes to the Muslims of India. The Britishers laid the blame for the Mutiny of 1857 mainly at the door of the Muslims and made

it a plea to single them out for repression. They were humiliated and even ousted from the posts of honour in the government while the Hindus were exalted and elevated to high positions. The condition of the Muslims was deplorable. In this respect Hunter says:

All sorts of employment ... are being gradually snatched away from the Mohammadans, and bestowed on men of other races, particularly the Hindus. ... The truth is, that our system of public instruction, which has awakened the Hindus from the sleep of centuries, is opposed ... and hateful to the religion, of the Mussalmans. (12, pp. 131-32.)

The British introduced the English system of education primarily to prepare the natives for petty jobs under the Government. The Muslims did not accept western education while the Hindus took to it readily. As a result, in respect of preparation for government service, the Muslims fell far behind the Hindus. Their ouster from the country's politics and administration gradually led to their economic distress as well. Many Muslim leaders, the most prominent among them being Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, began to think seriously how their state of affairs could be remedied in order to regain their lost position.

The Aligarh Movement. The renaissance of the Muslims in India owes much to the Aligarh Movement. Sir Syed Ahmad Khan came to the rescue of the hapless Indian Mussalmans at this very deplorable period of their history and gave them a sense of direction.

Sir Syed Ahmad Khan convinced the Muslims of India that western education and thoughts were the true foundation of real progress. On the other hand, he removed the misunderstanding of the British rulers about their Indian subjects, specially the Muslims. He told them that the lack of opportunities for participation by the Indians in the administration was the main cause of all disturbances, and also that for the stability of the government people's participation in administration was essential.

Towards Pakistan. In December 1886, Sir Syed Ahmad Khan called the Muhammadan Educational Conference to promote education and social reforms among the Muslims. This was a very significant event in the history of the Muslims in India. It was in fact the beginning of a new trend which ultimately culminated through the course of history in the solidification of the Indian Muslims into a distinct political entity.

The chain of political and administrative events convinced the Indian Muslims that their interests and ambitions were different from those of the Hindus and that an honourable compromise with the latter would be pretty difficult. In the circumstances, they strongly felt the need for strong concerted efforts to safeguard their legitimate rights. To devise ways and means the Muslim leaders met at Dacca and eventually formed the All-India Muslim League on December 30, 1906, which in the long run was successful in

establishing Pakistan. (35, p. xiv.)

On March 22, 1940, a session of the All-India Muslim League was held in Lahore which worked out concrete measures for the solution of the problems of the Indian Muslims.

Mohammad Ali Jinnah, in his presidential address, said:

The Mussalmans are a nation by any definition ... the only course open to all is to allow the major nations separate homelands by dividing India into 'autonomous national states'. ... The Muslims are a nation and as such they must have their homeland, their territory and their state. (9, pp. 128-30.)

On the following day the Muslim League in its historic Lahore session adopted a most important resolution which is popularly known as the 'Lahore Resolution'. It reads as follows:

Resolved that it is the considered view of this session of the All-India Muslim League that no constitutional plan would be workable in this country or acceptable to the Muslims unless it is designed on the following basic principles viz., that geographically contiguous units are demarcated into regions which should be so constituted, with such territorial adjustments as may be necessary, that the areas in which the Muslims are numerically in a majority as in the North-Western and Eastern Zones of India should be grouped to constitute 'Independent States' in which constituent units shall be autonomous and sovereign. (16, pp. 47-48.)

Birth of Pakistan. Following the adoption of the famous 'Lahore Resolution' in 1940 the movement of the Indian Muslims for a separate homeland gained such momentum that under its effective impact the British Government and the Indian National Congress had to accede to their demand. Accordingly the Indian Independence Act of 1947 was passed and the Dominion of Pakistan was created on August 14, 1947. Quaid-

e-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah became her first Governor-General. The Indian Independence Act of 1947 and the Government of India Act, 1935 as adopted provided parliamentary forms of government both at the centre and in the provinces.

Politics and Political Parties in Pakistan

Political parties manifest the needs and interests of their respective diverse groups, which in their turn constitute the electorates. The role of the political parties in Pakistan needs to be carefully studied in relation to the class structure of the society which the various parties represent. Although the social structure of Pakistan has already been dealt with in the preceding section, a short reference to it will not be improper here in the context of politics of the country.

The social structure of East Pakistan is more or less egalitarian while that of West Pakistan consists of tribes and sub-tribes with feudal and spiritual lords. Pakistan as a whole is predominantly rural and agricultural. The peasantry that constitute an overwhelming majority of her total population are steeped in abject poverty and illiteracy. As these people form major 'blocks of votes' Pakistan is plagued by the problem of a poor and illiterate electorate.

In East Pakistan, the Zamindari System was abolished after independence. In West Pakistan, there were over six thousand landlords in 1963 who controlled these 'blocks of votes' in their areas. (9, p. 371.) There were also big

industrialists in West Pakistan who constituted a small class but were very influential in social and political spheres. The electorate in West Pakistan was divided into blocks of labourers, capitalists, landlords and tenants.

Apart from these, there is another class consisting of pirs or spiritual guides and ulema. The ulema are traditionalists and resist any move to secularisation of the country; they want Pakistan to be an Islamic state. Moreover, the largest number of refugees from India poured into Pakistan and now form an important block in the electorate.

Over the past years bureaucracy, as a class has also been manipulating the politics of the country. For example, Ghulam Mohammad, Choudhury Mohammad Ali, Iskander Mirza, Abdur Rashid Khan, Kazi Anwarul Haque, S. M. Doha, Mohammad Shoalb and Ghulam Faruque, who held important positions in the political administration of the country, all belonged to the civil and other services of Pakistan. (9, p. 14.)

In East Pakistan, the educated class which includes the lawyers, the medical practitioners and the teachers is active in politics. In West Pakistan, where an effective middle class is still to take any form, big zamindars, pirs, nawabs and industrial magnates control political activities. They do not have their counterparts in the other wing.

Pakistan started her independent life under a leader of extra-ordinary political influence - Quaid-e-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah - who was the first Governor-General of Pakistan

and at the same time President of her Constituent Assembly and President of the Muslim League. Unfortunately he died after about thirteen months on September 11, 1948. (24, p. 279.)

After the death of Mohammad Ali Jinnah, Nazimuddin the then Chief Minister in East Bengal, was appointed the second Governor-General of Pakistan on the advice of Prime Minister Liaquat Ali Khan. He remained in this office till 1951 as the real constitutional Governor-General while Liaquat Ali Khan wielded the full and effective powers of the Prime Minister in the administration of the country. Liaquat Ali Khan was assassinated on October 16, 1951, and thereafter the country plunged into a quagmire of political instability. (9, pp. 162-165.)

Nazimuddin next took over the charge of prime ministership while Finance Minister Ghulam Mohammad was made the Governor-General of Pakistan. (9, p. 165.) In the meantime, the country was faced with a host of very crucial problems, such as the Anti-Qadiani Movement in the Punjab, food shortage, rivalry inside the cabinet and the most sensitive question of state language. Nazimuddin failed to control the situation. Governor-General Ghulam Mohammad who was expected, nay required, to be impartial and above party politics began to meddle in politics. On April 17, 1953, he dismissed Nazimuddin from prime ministership and, later on, the entire cabinet was dissolved. This action of the Governor-General threw the country into a political crisis

that ultimately culminated in the dissolution of the Constituent Assembly by the Governor-General on October 24, 1954. (27, p. 80.)

The second Constituent Assembly was convened in 1955. Choudhury Mohammad Ali was elected leader of the Muslim League Parliamentary Party. In the meantime, Major General Iskander Mirza succeeded Ghulam Mohammad as the fourth Governor-General of Pakistan. Under the leadership of Fazlul Haq, the United Front forged a coalition with the Muslim League, and Choudhury Mohammad Ali was made the leader of the League United Front Coalition. (9, p. 176.) It was during this period that the Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, 1956, was framed by the Coalition Ministry under the leadership of Choudhury Mohammad Ali. (9, p. 177.) After Mohammad Ali, Suhrawardy became the Prime Minister of Pakistan in September, 1956. (27, p. 119.) He wanted to have a 'clean administration and clean politics' but failed to do anything different from what his predecessors did; his cabinet was also a coalition of the Republican Party and the Awami League.

After Suhrawardy's resignation, two successive coalition parties came into power. The first was a coalition of the Republicans, the Krishak Sramik Party, the Nizam-e-Islam Party and the Muslim League headed by I. I. Chundrigar; the second was that of the Republicans, the Awami League and the National Awami Party under the leadership of Malik Feroze Hayat Khan Noon. During the time of Noon Ministry, martial law was proclaimed on October 7, 1958 by President Iskander

Mirza. (25, pp. 119-123.) Before giving an account of the functions and form of the military regime, it will be in the fitness of things to give an overview of the various political parties in Pakistan before martial law.

Pakistan is a democratic country and the existence of political parties is vital to the operation of her democratic form of government. But the role of political parties in Pakistan bears little relationship with that of such parties in other democratic countries of the world. In Pakistan, political parties did not emerge, they were formed, merged and then separated largely to promote personal and selfish interests. When Pakistan came into existence, in fact there was one party, the Muslim League, which was formed in 1906. Unfortunately the government that it formed failed to win the confidence of the people for long and its decline began just after a few years of Pakistan's birth.

In due course, new parties sprang up in opposition to the ruling party, the Muslim League. Suhrawardy formed the Awami League in 1949-50. In 1953 the Krishak Sramik (peasants and workers') Party was formed by Fazlul Haq. The National Awami Party was formed in 1957 by Maulana Abdul Hamid Khan Bhashani who was formerly in the Awami League.

Besides, there were other political parties. It is considered unnecessary to give details of all of them here. However, a brief account of some will be helpful in understanding the nature and trend of politics in Pakistan.

The Muslim League was utterly routed in East Pakistan in the provincial election in 1954 by the United Front of the Awami Muslim League, Krishak Sramik Party and the Nizam-e-Islam Party. (9, p. 17.) The United Front's twenty-one point manifesto, which was prepared under the leadership of Suhrawardy, included the abolition of land-lordism without compensation, nationalisation of jute industries, recognition of Bengali as one of the state languages, and greater autonomy for the province. (9, p. 17.)

In West Pakistan, the Republican Party led by Dr. Khan Sahib came into prominence and gave a hard time to the Muslim League. (27, p. 125.) The nomenclature of the Awami Muslim League was changed to Awami League. A strong link between the students and the Awami Leaguers was established during the Language Movement in East Pakistan. It demanded joint electorate and was very strong in East Pakistan under the dynamic leadership of Suharwardy. In 1957, Maulana Bhashani deserted the Awami League and formed his own party called the National Awami Party. Maulana Bhashani's Party received support from such leaders in West Pakistan as Abdul Ghaffar Khan (Bacha Khan), Abdus Samad Achakzai and G. M. Syed. (27, pp. 126-128.)

The Jamaat-e-Islami led by Maulana Abul Ala Maudoodi wanted to base the constitution of the country on Islamic ideology. The publicity of the Jamaat and the preaching of Islam were carried on through the literature published by the Jamaat itself. The Azad Pakistan Party and the Ganatantri

Dal were leftist parties. The former was operating in West Pakistan under the leadership of Mian Iftekhhar Uddin while the latter was functioning in East Pakistan. The Nizam-e-Islam Party advocated separate electorates over which it had differences with the Awami League. (27, pp. 129-130.)

The Pakistan National Congress was the political party of the Caste Hindus but a good number of Scheduled Caste-Hindus too were its members. The role of the party was limited to safeguarding the rights of the minorities. Most of its members were opposed to the birth of Pakistan, the idea of an Islamic state and separate electorates. (9, p. 338.)

The Scheduled Caste Federation was the successor in Pakistan of an all-India organisation. It demanded special seats in the legislature and special quotas of jobs in the administration of the country.

Military Revolution

As stated earlier, on October 7, 1958, martial law was imposed in the country and General Mohammad Ayub Khan was made the Chief Martial Law Administrator. Eventually, on October 27, 1958, General Ayub Khan ousted Major General Iskander Mirza, captured full power and declared himself President of Pakistan. (24, p. 301.)

The military regime banned all the political parties and sent many political leaders to jail. On September 2, 1959, President Ayub Khan brought in an innovation in the political system by introducing a scheme of basic democracies

in Pakistan. (27, p. 150.) The scheme was soon promulgated by an ordinance, which served as a base for the future constitution of the country.

The institutions of basic democracies were given the form and functions of previous local self-governments in the country. In addition these institutions were made to serve as electoral colleges for the election of members to the national and provincial legislatures. This role of the basic democracies was not acceptable to the intelligentsia, specially of East Pakistan. In 1959-60, Field Marshal Ayub Khan was confirmed in office, by 95.6 per cent of votes cast by the eighty thousand elected members of the union councils who constituted an ad-hoc electoral college for that very purpose. He was sworn in on February 17, 1960. (24, p. 315.) Soon after that a commission was appointed to work out the details of the new constitution.

The country got her new constitution in March, 1962 and the elections to the national and the two provincial assemblies were held on April 28, and May 6, respectively. On June 8, 1962, when the National Assembly met, martial law was lifted and the new constitution came into force. (24, p. 318.) There were no political parties when the first election was held but the members of the National Assembly started forming different groups among them. On June 30, 1962, when the Political Parties Bill was introduced, these groups turned into full-fledged political parties.

Soon after the political parties had been legalised by the Political Parties Act of 1962, Suhrawardy, who was then released from detention collected the people of opposition groups and formed the National Democratic Front. Maulana Maudoodi, Sardar Bahadur Khan, Daulatana, Khuroo and Z. H. Lari supported the Front. The National Democratic Front compelled the supporters of the Government to organise themselves against the emerging opposition. In September, 1962, the Muslim League Convention was called to organise the Muslim Leaguers in support of the Government. In December, 1963, Ayub Khan became the leader of the 'Convention Muslim League and Nazimuddin led the 'Council Muslim League (Pakistan Muslim League was divided into Convention Muslim League and Council Muslim League). (9, pp. 391, 392.)

In July, 1964, the combined opposition party, which was a coalition of many groups, nominated Miss Fatima Jinnah as the presidential candidate on behalf of the opposition parties for the first general election which was held 1964-65 under the 1962 constitution. The presidential candidate of the opposition was defeated and Ayub Khan elected the President of Pakistan.

In 1966, the old politicians were freed from the restrictions imposed on them. Most of these politicians joined a new organisation called the Pakistan Democratic Movement, which revitalised the political activities in country. Opposition to the dictatorial regime of Ayub

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began to grow in strength day by day. At last in March, 1969 it crumbled like a house of cards in the face of a nationwide general outburst of pent-up popular feelings against the hated regime - Ayub and his stooges were gone. But to arrest the ebb tide in the law and order situation of the country, martial law had to be clamped on the nation for the second time on March 25, 1969. (102)

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN BRITISH INDIA

The preceding chapter has presented a brief account of the socio-economic and political aspects of East Pakistan and West Pakistan. This chapter will deal with the development of educational administration during the British period in the regions now forming Pakistan.

Pakistan has been carved out of British India on August 14, 1947. Since 1956 she consists of two provinces - East Pakistan and West Pakistan. The Muslim majority areas of Bengal and Assam form the province of East Pakistan and those of the former provinces of the Punjab, Sind, the North-West Frontier Province and the states and tribal agencies, constitute the province of West Pakistan. This study is concerned, as already stated, with the development of educational administration in both the provinces - East Pakistan and West Pakistan.

As these regions of Pakistan were integral parts of British India before partition, their educational administration cannot be studied in strict isolation from that of British India.

I. ADMINISTRATION

The academic and administrative structure of the present system of education in Pakistan is more or less a

legacy from the British rulers in India of that time. Education in India was neglected in the beginning of the British period. The British East India Company had no interest in the education of the Indians. It was not until the two decisive battles of Plassey and Buxar in 1757 and 1765 respectively when the British emerged as a political power in Bengal that they began to take any interest in the education of the Indians.

The educational policy of the Britishers in the beginning was one of non-intervention. The indigenous system of education in India was allowed to continue undisturbed. The missionaries, who were busy with the educational activities for the main purpose of proselytization, did not like this policy of the British East India Company. As a result, a conflict started between the missionaries and their oppositionists which ultimately led to the adoption of a resolution by the British Parliament at the time of renewal of the Company's Charter in 1813.

This resolution, which became the 43rd Section of this Charter, was the "first legislative admission of the right of education in India to participate in the public revenue." (28, p. 18.) This empowered the Governor-General-in-Council to 'set apart' a sum of rupees one lac for the improvement of education in India. The Charter Act of 1813 was thus a turning point in the history of education in India under British rule. (28, p. 18.)

The General Committee of Public Instruction

The history of administrative organisation of education in British India can be traced back to 1823. The Governor-General-in-Council constituted a committee called the General Committee of Public Instruction in 1823 when the charter of the Company came for renewal. Mr. Harington was appointed as the first President of this Committee. (28, p. 54.) The function of the General Committee of Public Instruction was to advise and 'superintend' public instruction in India; this was not responsible for the direct maintenance and management of the institutions. (28, pp. 55-57.)

Lord Macaulay's Minute

In 1834, Lord Macaulay came to India to act as the Law Member in the Executive Council of the Governor-General. He also became the President of the General Committee of Public Instruction. He took a keen interest in the education of the Indians and wrote his famous Minute regarding the medium of instruction and the diffusion of western literature among the natives. This was a step to finish the controversy which was already going on between the Anglicists and the Orientalists over the issue of medium of instruction in India. He gave full support to and upheld the views of the Anglicists but, by doing so, he could not stop the controversy.

Lord William Bentinck concurred in the views as expressed by Macaulay in his Minute and resolved that:

The great object of the British Government should be the promotion of European literature and science

among the natives of India and that all the funds appropriated for the purpose of education would best be employed on English education alone. (28, p. 130.)

The resolution proved a landmark in the educational policy of the British in India. Since then curriculum and the objectives of education in India were designed to spread and promote western thoughts and culture among the Indians.

Council of Education

The General Committee of Public Instruction was abolished and in its place a new body called the Council of Education was constituted on January 12, 1842. It consisted of the former members of the General Committee and other officers as from time to time joined with them. Mr. W. W. Bird was appointed the first President of the Council. (29, p. 97.) This was a step toward the centralisation of administration of education in India as is enunciated in the resolution of the Government of India. It says:

The Governor-General-in-Council having been pleased to resolve that the institutions founded and supported by the Government for the diffusion of education shall be brought more directly under the control of the Government itself. ... The General and Financial business of the Department of Education will be assumed by the Government, and the Council of Education will be maintained for purposes of references and advice upon all matters of important administration and correspondence. ... (29, pp. 96-97.)

It was decided that all the business in education would be conducted by a deputy secretary in the General Department of the Government of India, who would also function as ex-officio Secretary to the Council of Education. On January 10, 1842, Mr. H. V. Bayley was appointed as the

Deputy Secretary to the Government of India in the General Department who also acted as the ex-officio Secretary to the Council of Education. (29, p. 87.)

Wood's Despatch

During the period 1844-1854, it was observed that the state of education in India was far from satisfactory; a change was desirable for its systematic administration. A protracted discussion had gone on before the Court of Directors at the time of renewal of the Company's Charter in 1853. The outcome of this discussion was the Educational Despatch, commonly known as the Wood's Despatch of 1854.

The Court of Directors considered it a most appropriate time for educational reforms, and conforming to the views of the British Parliament, prepared a comprehensive plan for the system of education in India; this was incorporated in the Educational Despatch of 1854 and was issued in the name of Sir Charles Wood, who was the Chairman of the Court of Directors at that time. (29, pp. 64, 93.)

This was an epoch-making scheme in the history of education which set the directions for educational policy in India with far-reaching effects. Along with the suggestions for the establishment of the universities, the Despatch also sponsored an overall reorganisation of education in India. The major changes proposed in the system of education were as follows:

1. Establishment of the Department of Education,

- including the institution of the Inspectorates.
2. Establishment of universities.
 3. Development of a system of grant-in-aid.

The proposal for the constitution of a department of education in each presidency of India, under the supervision of an officer responsible to the government, eventually abolished the Council of Education. (29, p. 369.)

Department of Education

The Department of Education, as it is known today, came into existence with the adoption of Wood's Despatch in 1854. It was created to "place the superintendence and direction of education upon a more systematic footing." (29, p. 369.) It was organised as a department of the government headed by the director of public instruction. The British rulers deemed it advisable to appoint the first head of the department of education and inspectors from the civil service to demonstrate the importance they attached to education in India. (29, p. 370.)

As the provincial administration in India expanded in the nineteenth century, each province was permitted to establish its own department of education headed by a director of public instruction as its chief executive; whereas the general control of the imperial policy was retained by the Government of India in the Home Department. (32, p. 15.) W. Gordon Young, a civilian was appointed as the Director of Public Instruction in Bengal on January 26, 1855. At the

same time, Claudius James Erskine of the civil service was appointed as the Director of Public Instruction in Bombay.¹ Lieutenant William D. Arnold was the first Director of Public Instruction in the Panjab. His appointment was made in January, 1856. (29, pp. 70, 173, 282.)

The North-West Frontier Province was created on November 11, 1901, and in July, 1903, an inspector general of education was appointed for this province by the Secretary of State for India. Before that time the Director of Public Instruction, Punjab exercised control over that area. (30, p. 16.) When Sind became a separate province in April, 1936, a post of director of public instruction was sanctioned for it. (36, p. 28.)

In 1902, the Government of India, by creating a new post, appointed the Director General of Education to advise the Government on matters of educational policy and to coordinate as far as possible the activities of the various provinces in the country. (33, p. 15.) The director of public instruction as the chief executive of the department of education was required to carry out the policy of the government under its direction. In the Punjab, the Director of Public Instruction was also the Under-Secretary to the Government; hence the authority for formulating and executing the policy of education was vested in one person. The practice in other provinces was to have different persons

¹Sind was a part of Bombay upto April, 1936.

for each of the two positions. The secretary to the government was usually a person drawn from the Indian Civil Service. (32, p. 16.)

In addition to the director of public instruction, the department of education comprised the 'managing and tuitional' staff of the government institutions and the inspecting staff. The former consisted of the principles and professors of government colleges and the latter included circle or divisional inspectors, district inspectors and others of still lower rank.

In 1910, another change was introduced in educational administration. A new department of education was set up as an independent unit of administration and the post of the director-general of education was abolished. A member responsible for education was included in the Executive Council of the Viceroy. Sir Harcourt Butler was the first Member who joined the Viceroy's Executive Council to represent educational matters there. (35, p. 38.) The Department, attached to the Member consisted, in the first instance, of two secretaries, one of whom was the joint secretary and was in special charge of educational cases, while the other assisted by an assistant secretary, was in charge of the remaining branches. (35, p. 38.)

In 1915, the above arrangement was altered by the creation of a new post of an educational commissioner who was later designated as educational advisor. (46, p. 228.) This post was created on the plea that there should be an

officer attached to the Government of India who would tour and keep himself in touch with the provincial governments. He would not interrupt the process of decentralisation of educational administration.

The number of secretaries was reduced to one with the duty to submit all cases to the Member of the Viceroy's Council. (35, p. 38.) It was practically a revival of the post of the Director General of Education which was abolished in 1910. The Educational Commissioner toured extensively and advised the Government on educational matters. This measure was taken to free education from the control of the Home Department which had a host of other subjects to handle. The actual administration of education, so far as it rested with the state, was in the hands of the provincial governments each having its own department of education.

A provincial department of public instruction ordinarily consisted of a director of public instruction aided by an assistant director of public instruction and a central staff. This was the organisation found in the larger provinces of India under British rule. In Bengal, because of its heavy work, there was, besides the usual assistant director, an assistant director of Mohammadan education. (35, p. 39.) In the wake of the reorganisation in 1915, there was a notable move to delegate powers from the provincial government to the director of public instruction and from the director of public instruction to the inspectors and the

institutions. The delegation of powers concerned mostly with the signing of bills, granting of leave, extended powers in respect of grant-in-aid, travelling allowances, sanction of pension and purchase of equipment, etc.

The Director of Public Instruction, Bengal was given more powers, which deserve special mention. He could appoint, transfer and dismiss the members of the Subordinate Educational Service and officers of similar pay outside the graded service. This power previously belonged to the Government. Inspectors of schools could appoint to posts carrying initial salaries of one hundred rupees or less per month outside the graded service. Governing bodies and heads of government colleges were also given similar powers. (35, p. 39.)

The Dyarchy

Constitutional reforms were introduced in January, 1921, and subsequently, education became a 'provincial transferred' subject in India. But, the Government of India remained directly responsible for education of the North-West Frontier Province and other small provinces. This change made the provinces almost autonomous in matters of policy, control, administration and finance of education. The Government of India ceased to exercise much control except in small provinces and depended upon educational information provided by the Bureau of Education which was established for this purpose in 1915 under the charge of the Commissioner of Education. (36, pp. 26, 28.)

The transfer of education to the provinces in 1921, brought about a significant change in the educational administration in India. The Government of India Act, 1919, entrusted education in the provinces to Indian ministers who were elected members of legislative councils but were appointed by provincial governors to whom also they were supposed to be responsible. The tenure of the ministers was determined by the provincial governor who was an official representative of the British Crown. (36, p. 29.)

The dual responsibility of the minister put him in a very unhappy situation. He was responsible to the public and at the same time he was obliged to carry on the policy of the government to their satisfaction. But, anyhow, it was acclaimed as a happy sign of recognition of the popular control of education in India.

But the position of Bengal was vulnerable because of inadequate funds for education. As a result, austere measures of economy were adopted and retrenchment was effected in the teaching and inspecting staff. The financial stringency ultimately led to the dissolution of the Education Ministry in Bengal. In spite of the provision of the Government of India Act, 1919, education was made a 'reserved' subject in Bengal and administered by a Member of the Governor's Executive Council. This state of affairs existed for about five years when in 1925 it was changed for the better and liberal allotments and grants were made for education from the provincial

revenues. (99, p. 92.)

The introduction of reforms of 1921, inter alia, transformed the structure of educational administration in the provinces and at the centre as well. It was realised that a central body should be established to keep the centre in constant contact with the educational activities in the provinces without interfering with their autonomy. As a result, the Central Advisory Board of Education was established at the centre. The office of the Central Secretary of Education was abolished but the Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council continued to represent education as before. (38, pp. 25, 26.)

In the provinces, a number of new posts were added to the provincial directorates from time to time to assist the director of public instruction to carry out the official policy in the field of education. The director of public instruction became only an executive head of the department of education and a technical advisor to the minister in the province. In the Punjab, as mentioned previously, the Director of Public Instruction was vested with the powers and duties of the Secretary for Education to the Government of the Punjab. (36, p. 31.)

The staff of the head offices controlling the activities of the department of education in the provinces varied considerably in type and in strength due to differences in the size of the provinces and in their individual needs. In Bengal, posts of an additional assistant director and a personal

assistant were added to the provincial Directorate of Education. Between 1921 and 1922 the Director of Public Instruction in Bengal was also the Deputy Secretary for Education to the Government, but this arrangement did not work well. In 1923 the Legislative Council of Bengal passed a resolution to the effect that the post of the Director of Public Instruction should not be filled. But the Government did not accept it and in 1926, a post of assistant director of public instruction was created on a temporary basis. (37, p. 37.) In Bombay, till March 1926, the staff at the headquarters office consisted of only the Director of Public Instruction and one deputy director of public instruction. But in 1926, the post of an assistant director of public instruction was created to deal with the enormous work of the Department of Education. (37, p. 33.)

In the Punjab, the posts of the inspector of training schools, the inspector of vernacular education and the registrar of departmental education were added to the directorate. The assistant director of public instruction continued to function as inspector of European schools in addition to his other duties. (37, p. 33.) The designation of the assistant director of public instruction was changed to deputy director of public instruction in 1938. (5, p. 171.) In the North-West Frontier Province, there were the Director of Public Instruction, a personal assistant and an inspector of vernacular education. The office of the inspector of vernacular education was located in the office of the Director

of Public Instruction. (37, p. 32.)

The universities played a significant role in the control of secondary education by granting affiliation, prescribing courses and conducting examinations. The department of education was kept in touch with the universities by the presence of the director of public instruction as an ex-officio member of their executive bodies. Besides universities, there were a number of standing committees, boards of education and text-book committees which were rendering advisory service to the department of education in related spheres. (35, p. 43.) The Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Dacca was established in 1921. Originally, the Dacca Board was set up as a provisional measure as it was intended to create a provincial board of secondary education for the whole of Bengal. The Board advised the Government on matters relating to intermediate and secondary education within its territorial limits in addition to conducting examinations and performing other allied duties. (37, pp. 27-28.)

In the Punjab, a school board conducted the Matriculation and School Leaving Certificate Examinations. In 1904 the Government of India introduced School Leaving Certificate Examination other than the Matriculation Examination to make the examination system subservient to the courses of studies instead of adapting the courses to the examination. The school board recommended courses of study for its examinees and submitted reports to the syndicate of the university.

The Director of Public Instruction was the ex-officio chairman of this board. (37, p. 29.)

In Bombay, prior to 1924, there was a joint examination board on which both the university and the Government were represented and it conducted the School Final Examination. In 1924, a School Leaving Examination Board was constituted by the university. Through this agency the University of Bombay granted affiliation to the schools for School Final Examination. (37, p. 27.) From 1939 to 1947 conditions in India were not favourable for the development of educational administration. The administrative organisation as it stood in 1938 remained the same until the country got independence in 1947. (5, p. 171.)

Supervision

The inspectorate was introduced under the provision made in Wood's Despatch of 1854. It was supposed to assist the director of public instruction in his educational duties as the chief educational executive. The appointment of inspectors and the nature of their duties were all based on the same pattern as was in vogue in respect of His Majesty's Inspector in contemporary England. The conditions in India were also favourable for the development of the inspectorate on the British model. The inspector, in his official capacity, was responsible to the director of public instruction, but owed his appointment to the Secretary of State for India. This process of appointment in which the physical presence of

the candidate in England was necessary had almost limited the chance of any Indian being appointed as inspector of schools in India. (30, p. 16.)

The organisation of the inspectorate varied from province to province but its function was similar everywhere. The inspectorate was normally coterminous with the civil administrative division of the province. In most provinces there were divisional inspectors with jurisdiction over entire divisions while in others district inspectors were in charge of each district in matters of secondary education. Sind was one of the four divisions of Bombay and was under an inspector of schools. In Bengal, there were nine divisions comprising four circles, each division was under an inspector of schools. In the Punjab, there were five circles including Lahore, Multan and Rawalpindi (now in West Pakistan) and each had an inspector of schools for the supervision of education. The North-West Frontier Province was supervised by the assistant inspector of schools transferred from the Punjab, but later on, it was also split into divisions and posts of inspectors for each division were sanctioned. (30, pp. 21-23.)

Educational Services

Following the recommendations of the Public Service Commission of 1886, the Government of India passed a resolution on July 23, 1896 to organise educational services in the country. Educational services were practically divided

into two cadres -- 'Superior and Inferior' -- superior service was further divided into Indian Educational Service and Provincial Educational Service. Principals and professors of the government colleges and inspectors of schools were drawn from the Indian Educational Service whereas assistant professors, assistant or joint inspectors and headmasters of collegiate schools were taken from the Provincial Educational Service. (31, pp. 53-58.)

The Commission of 1886 recommended that the members of the Indian Educational Service should be recruited in England only and that all other positions should be filled up by recruitment in India. As a result of this recommendation of the Commission, few Indians could enter into the cadre of the Indian Educational Service to which belonged the principals, inspectors of schools and professors of those subjects in which the Indians were not considered adequately proficient according to the European standard of advancement. Although the Indian Educational Service and the Provincial Educational Service were originally intended to be collateral and equal in status, the pay of the Europeans was higher by almost 50 per cent than that of their Indian counterparts, and the number of native officers in Indian Educational Service in various provinces was alarmingly small as compared with that of the Europeans till 1917. (37, pp. 30, 40.)

In the case of Provincial Educational Service, the provincial governments would select or nominate people for appointment, which, of course, needed to be finally approved

by the Secretary of State for India. Later on as a result of the recommendations of the Islington Commission of 1912-16 the Indian Educational Service was treated as a service cadre superior in status to the Provincial Educational Service and recruitment to it would be made in India as well. (36, pp. 31-32.)

In 1924, the Royal Commission on Superior Civil Services in India suggested fundamental changes in the recruitment and status of Educational Services. It recommended:

For the purposes of Local Governments no further recruitment should be made to the all-India Services which operate in transferred fields. ... The Indian Education Service is being abolished and with the gradual retirements of its existing members, the history of the service will be brought to an end. The Provincial Education Services ... will eventually function under the provincial control. (37, p. 39.)

In pursuance of the recommendations made by the Royal Commission all further recruitments to Indian Educational Service were stopped in 1924.

II. EDUCATIONAL FINANCING

Education had been neglected all along in respect of financial allocation in the budget of the British East India Company. In 1698, at the time of the renewal of the Company's Charter, "the Company was directed to maintain schools, wherever necessary, in all their garrisons and bigger factories." (20, pp. 30-31.) At the first instance, these schools were maintained by donations, subscriptions and occasional grants from the Company. Missionaries were running 'charity schools' on subscriptions and donations. In 1813, education was, for the first time, included in the

duties of the Company under the Charter Act of 1813. The Act says:

It shall be lawful for the Governor-General-in-Council to direct that out of any surplus which may remain of the rents, revenue and profits arising from the said territorial acquisitions, after defraying expenses of the Company ... a sum of not less than one lac of rupees in each year shall be set apart and applied to the revival of ... knowledge of science ... in India. (28, p. 22.)

But, even after the allotment of one lac rupees the Directors of the Company were most uncertain as to how that amount of money should be spent on education. In 1823, at the time of renewal of the Company's Charter, the General Committee of Public Instruction was appointed to deal with the educational matters and spend that grant as appropriated for education under Section 43 of the Charter Act of 1813.

The financial control was centralised in the office of the Governor-General-in-Council and provincial authorities had no powers to incur financial expenditures of any kind. In 1872, in order to decentralise the financial control, finance was reclassified as Central and Provincial instead of 'Imperial', 'Divided' and 'Provincial', as was done previously. Lord Mayo assigned certain services to the provincial government in which education was included, and the provincial authorities were made competent to appoint persons against posts carrying pay upto 250 rupees per month. (22, pp. 570-81.)

Prior to 1872, education was financed partly from public and partly from private funds. Public funds included

income from taxes--provincial, local and municipal--while private funds comprised fees, endowments and subscriptions. The Government of India and the provinces appropriated separately the produce of certain taxes. The revenue of some of the taxes was divided between the central and provincial governments. The grants of the central government made to provincial governments were treated as provincial revenue. (35, p. 4.)

After 1873, the delegation of financial powers and generous grants from the centre to the provinces created a happy relationship between the central and provincial governments. The central grant to the provinces was not only according to the needs of the provinces but also without interference in the provincial autonomy in education. Central funds were used to supplement provincial funds and provincial funds, in turn, were allotted to local bodies. The local bodies after adding some amount out of their own sources, spent the money for educational purposes in their respective territories.

The system of grant-in-aid was introduced to encourage private agencies who were interested in the progress of Indian education to take initiative in establishing educational institutions. The Government of India observed:

We look forward to the time when any general system of education entirely provided by government may be discontinued, with the gradual advance of the system of grant-in-aid. (29, p. 381.)

When the Government of India Act, 1935, conferred autonomy on

the provinces of British India, finance was again reclassified into 'Federal', 'Provincial' and 'Concurrent' in order to give financial autonomy to the provinces. But this division of finance was not considered to be contributing to the desired financial autonomy of the provinces.

The contribution of the Government towards secondary education had all along been far less than that of other supporting agencies because of the following factors:

1. Financial stringency
2. Defective financial administration
3. Regressive taxation system
4. Absence of agreed-upon goals of education in India
5. Policy of encouragement to the other agencies to shoulder the responsibility for education.

The total expenditure on secondary education went on increasing from year to year, the highest expenditure being incurred in Bengal. It was 35.5 per cent of the total expenditure on education in the years from 1912 to 1917. The highest proportional increase was made during the same years in the North-West Frontier Province where expenditure had grown by 111 per cent and next comes the Punjab with a 62.2 per cent increase. (33, p. 86.) In 1935, the contribution of the Government to the total budget of education was 22.9 per cent in Bombay, 14.0 per cent in Bengal and 68.3 per cent in the Punjab. (5, p. 46.)

III. EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

Educational Planning is essentially a twentieth-century concept. One need not, therefore, be surprised to learn that the people dealing with education in India in the nineteenth century did not develop such an idea. Most British officials lived and worked for the immediate present without having any basis for long range objectives of educational planning except perpetuating their domination over the sub-continent. (20, p. 365.) This fact can be substantiated by making reference to the lack of decision and interest on the part of the Directors of the British East India Company in spending the grant of one lac of rupees made for education in the Company's Charter of 1813.

Prior to 1854, most of the questions relating to the education of the Indians were referred Home (England) to the Court of Directors who decided the destinies of the people of India and despatched their decisions from Whitehall (London) to the British officers in India for compliance. (20, p. 128.) It was after about a century of British occupation of India that the Court of Directors tended to show a keen interest in the educational progress of the Indians. In 1854, Lord Dalhousie and Charles Wood formulated an 'articulated' plan of educational development keeping in mind the various objectives and methods for implementing it in India.

The Despatch of 1854 gave momentum to the educational planning activities in India. As mentioned earlier, the

department of education was established in each province with the director of public instruction as its executive head. In 1910, the Education Department was transferred from the Home Department of the Government of India to a new department called the Department of Education, Health and Lands. (34, p. 13.) In 1921, a board called the Central Advisory Board of Education was set up, as stated earlier, to maintain relations among the provinces and the Central Government relating to educational activities. In 1937, provinces were granted more autonomy. Education, which was partly transferred to the provinces under the Government of India Act, 1919 now became a fully transferred subject. With this change in the status of education the work of development received a great impetus.

Prior to 1937, educational planning activities were confined to the discussion of the following conflicting issues:

1. Medium of instruction--mother tongue, oriental languages, English.
2. The theory of gradual withdrawal of the State from education of the Indians.
3. Application of the 'theory of Downward Filtration'.
4. Improvement of literature--western or oriental.

It was the policy of the Government of India to leave the extension of secondary education mainly to private

agencies, but to maintain only one government high school in each district in British India to serve as model for private enterprise in education. The latter part of the policy was not fully carried out. There were 267 districts in British India in 1917 but only 237 high schools for boys and twenty for girls were maintained by the Government. (35, p. 83.) The British Government placed greater emphasis on higher education upto 1882, even sometimes, at the cost of the lower levels of education in India. Later on, following the recommendations of the various commissions and committees at different times under the British Government, the improvement of primary and secondary education was also considered to be an essential basis for planning the development programme of education at higher stages.

IV. CURRICULUM

The curriculum of educational institutions in any country reflects the need and aspirations of the people at large. As a corollary, the curriculum in the secondary schools in British India should have been formulated to meet the socio-economic needs of the people of the sub-continent. After making an analytical survey of the curriculum in the educational institutions of the Indo-Pak Sub-continent, it can be stated without any fear of contradiction that curriculum was designed by the foreign rulers to disseminate western culture and literature among the Indians through the English medium, and produce officers for the Company's job.

The Calcutta Madrassah and the Sanskrit College at Benaras were established in 1781 and 1792 respectively for the obvious purpose of conciliating the upper class Muslims and Hindus to the Company's Government and also to 'produce officers for the courts of law'. (28, p. 30.) Warren Hastings, who was the first Governor-General of British territories in India was himself a scholar of Persian and had a working knowledge of both Bengali and Urdu. He pioneered the efforts of retaining and promoting oriental learning in the educational institutions in India. It was due to the peculiar needs of the Company that it extended its patronage to the cultivation of knowledge of Persian and Urdu.

There was no opposition to the introduction of English as the language of government or as the medium of instruction in the educational institutions, but it was deferred to an opportune time. In 1792, Charles Grant raised his voice to make English the supreme language of administration to develop better understanding between the rulers and the ruled. Side by side with the British East India Company another group, the Christian missionaries, was active in the field of education. The missionaries carried on educational activities for proselytisation of the Indians. Charles Grant was the staunchest supporter of the motives of the missionaries. He held the views that the natives should be taught natural sciences and the use of mechanical inventions, which would prove a useful knowledge for them. But, he strongly favoured the instruction of Christian religion and morals too.

In Bengal, the British East India Company, for political reasons, did not like the activities of Christian missionaries which eventually led to rivalry between the Company and the missionaries. This difference of views between the supporters of the Company and those of the missionaries, later on, turned into a long controversy between the Orientalists and the Anglicists. Against such a background, when the Company's Charter came up for renewal in 1813, both the groups asserted their influence to win the favour of the British Parliament. A resolution was adopted by the Parliament which became the 43rd Section in the Charter. The two purposes clearly stated in the section were

1. the revival and improvement of literature, and
2. the introduction and promotion of knowledge of science among the inhabitants of the British territories in India. (28, p. 22.)

The Charter Act of 1813 was not specific on the adoption of English as medium of instruction. On the other hand, the Orientalists, who supported the 43rd Section of the Charter Act of 1813, thought of promoting oriental literature and science, although, they wanted at the same time to teach western science to the people of India. The controversy did not end there, rather one more issue of oriental literature or western literature had lengthened and heated up the dispute.

In 1824, the General Committee of Public Instruction failed to introduce any useful knowledge to bring about a

- change in the curriculum. It did not even pay any attention to the above two objectives of the 43rd Section of the Charter of 1813. The reason for negligence was obvious from the members of the Committee, the majority of whom were civil administrators and not professional educators.

On February 2, 1835, Lord Macaulay, who was appointed as the President of the General Committee of Public Instruction wrote his famous Minute as an attempt to finish the controversy between the Anglicists and the Orientalists. He tried but without success to hush up the conflict between them and at last gave his own verdict in favour of the Anglicists. He wrote that "a single shelf of a good European library was worth the whole native literature of India and Arabia." (28, p. 109.)

After having a background of curriculum planning, it is now proper to examine the actual situation as it prevailed in India at that time. The victory of the Anglicists over the Orientalists drew a sharp dividing line between the schools employing English as the medium of instruction and those using the modern India languages. In addition to classifying schools for administrative purposes into government, local and others, they were further categorised according to the medium of instruction used and the curriculum taught. There were

1. the English schools,
2. the Anglo vernacular schools,

3. the middle English schools, and
4. the middle vernacular schools. (31, pp. 140-45.)

In the first and the third category, English was not only taught as a compulsory subject it was also the medium of instruction, in the second category English was taught as one of the compulsory areas of study, while the fourth category emphasised the teaching of vernacular for all instructional purposes.

The vernacular and English middle schools had courses which were not very much different from one another. The compulsory courses for middle vernacular schools in different provinces of India were vernacular languages, geography, arithmetic, Euclid, algebra, sanitary reader, agriculture reader and physics primer. The optional courses for the same schools consisted of drawing, mercantile arithmetic, the history of India and mensuration. (32, p. 122.)

The middle schools were lower stage secondary schools and their curriculum was not diversified. These schools were meant for preparing students for high schools which in their turn prepared students for college and university education. These schools were maintained generally by the local boards as separate independent institutions. Middle schools comprised classes one through six in most cases. Classes five and six, however, constituted the middle stage. Schools having classes upto eight beginning from any class from one to three, four or five also were not rare.

The Despatch of 1854 was not very specific about the subjects to be taught in secondary schools. It was rather left to the discretion of the administrative authorities to frame the curriculum. As mentioned earlier, secondary education was subject to the control and supervision of the universities of the presidencies as provided in the Despatch of 1854. As a result of this policy, secondary curriculum was limited to academic disciplines, which were college preparatory.

In 1882, the Indian Education Commission found the curriculum of schools "too academic, narrow, college preparatory, and examination ridden." It recommended the introduction of vocational education but the universities turned down these proposals. The courses of study at that time included English, classical language, elementary mathematics, history and geography and elementary science. (32, p. 6.)

In 1892, the University of the Punjab agreed to institute Clerical and Commercial Examinations and Entrance Examination in Science. The General Matriculation Examination was re-designated as Matriculation Examination in Arts. The Entrance Examination in Science included compulsory courses, such as English, mathematics, history and geography and physics and chemistry along with the elementary principles of mechanics and hydro-statistics. The optional subjects for the same examination were botany and zoology, agriculture,

and mechanical and free-hand drawing. (30, p. 123.)

The compulsory courses for the Clerical and Commercial Examination comprised English, dictation, calligraphy, precis-writing, official and commercial correspondence, general and commercial geography and book-keeping and commercial arithmetic. The optional subjects for the same examination consisted of Urdu, native accountancy and short-hand writing. (30, p. 123.)

There were only modifications in the nomenclatures of examinations with the additions of a few subjects which did not change the pattern of the curriculum. The curriculum remained as rigid and college preparatory as it was before the recommendations of the Commission on Indian Education.

Lord Curzon expressed his concern about the curriculum at a conference held at Simla on June 6, 1901. He remarked:

Education was narrow in range, spasmodic and exclusive in application. It was religious rather than secular. It was theoretical rather than utilitarian in character. Above all, it wholly lacked scientific organisation. (21, p. 742.)

Following the Indian Resolution on Educational policy in 1904, the University of the Punjab once again reorganised the Matriculation Examination. The compulsory subjects for examination in arts included English, classical language, mathematics, history and geography while languages, science and drawing were the optional subjects. The examination in science included the subjects like English, physics and

• viz., modern English, mathematics, drawing and practical geometry, mensuration, elementary engineering and surveying and manual training. The courses for the commercial and industrial group included modern English, mathematics, history and geography, drawing and practical geometry, elementary chemistry and physics, mensuration and physics. (33, p. 119.)

The University of Calcutta also abolished the teaching of English history in 1906 and replaced it with the study of Indian history. The University of Bombay, (including Sind) had the same pattern of courses and examination as existed in other universities of India. (33, pp. 71, 73.) The Government of India's Resolution of 1913 and the Calcutta University Commission, 1919 stressed the need for the re-orientation of the curriculum of secondary schools in India and some reforms were suggested to make it suitable to the needs of the Indians of that time. But, due to the First World War in 1914 and the constitutional reforms of 1919 in India, implementation of the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission were not taken up as earnestly as these should have been in normal time.

At the same time there was an increasing demand for the introduction of more vocational courses in high schools of India. Attempts were made to render the curriculum more realistic and practical. After 1919, the Senate of the Calcutta University adopted a resolution passed by a conference

of headmasters under the chairmanship of the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Calcutta. The resolution made additions of courses for the Matriculation Examination. The courses for this examination included agriculture and gardening, carpentry, smithy, typewriting, book-keeping, spinning, weaving, tailoring, music, sewing, domestic economy, telegraphy, motor engineering, and drawing. (36, pp. 84-89.)

But, there were criticisms against these additions. One remarked against these subjects that "what is wanted is not primarily education but employment. There is no royal road to increased opportunities of employment but the increased production of wealth." (36, p. 90.) It was maintained that the main defect of most experiments in vocational education in Indian high schools was that "sufficient account was not taken of the future careers open to the youths and actually adopted by the scholars." (36, p. 90.) The selections and combinations of subjects were made on the consideration of passing the final examination and not for the future career in the practical life.

There was another marked tendency towards substituting vernacular for English as the medium of instruction in secondary schools. The Punjab adopted vernacular as the medium of instruction in middle schools in 1917 and sub-committees were set up by the Punjab Text-Book Committee to "standardise the vernacular substitution for English by transliteration of English technical terms and geographical names." (36, p. 92.)

The Department of Education in Bombay allowed the use of vernacular throughout school courses in all subjects except English. The Calcutta University adopted a resolution that instruction and examination in all subjects of high schools other than English shall be conducted in vernacular. (36, p. 92.)

In Bombay, in 1925, a conference of educational officers recommended that vocational training might be given in a more systematic and proper way in some special institutions after the completion of the school course. But, at the same time, they added that some subjects which "train the hand and eye and give scope for the 'creative joy' of the artists should be introduced in the schools." (37, p. 99.) In 1925, only twenty-two schools were giving manual training of some kind in Bengal. (37, p. 99.)

In the Punjab, the manual training centres, which were connected with a number of high schools, were set up and special training classes were held for the training of manual training instructors. A scheme of agricultural training could not succeed very much because of high price of land in urban areas and the nature of the courses which were rather academic. This scheme, however, proved a success in middle schools in the Punjab while in other provinces attempts were made to follow this scheme with partial success. In 1920, the Government of Bengal sent a committee to the Punjab to study the problem of rural agricultural schools there. (37, pp. 99-100.)

It will be proper to conclude with an observation that during the British rule continuous and systematic efforts were not made to reorient the curriculum to suit the needs of the Indians and, as a result, curriculum reforms remained a live issue in India. The Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission, 1929, the Zakir Hussain Committee, 1938-40, and the Central Advisory Board of Education's Plan of 1944 all discussed in detail the curriculum reforms to be introduced in Indian schools. But nothing definite came out of all these deliberations and the "controversy over the academic and non-academic subjects to be included in a common core of curriculum remained unresolved." (5, p. 196.)

In 1944, the Central Advisory Board of Education took up the question of reforming the secondary curriculum in India, perhaps, for the last time in British India and gave certain suggestions which, if reiterated briefly, might prove to be of some help in understanding the trend of curriculum development in Pakistan in a proper perspective.

The Board suggested two types of schools, viz., academic high schools and technical high schools. The former type of schools was meant for those who were expected to carry on their study through college or university while the latter one was for such students as might drop out or stop after completing the courses of the academic high schools.

The Board recommended a number of subjects for both types of schools. The subjects proposed for academic high schools were the mother tongue of the pupil, one classical

- language, English, modern languages, history, geography (India and world), mathematics, science (physics chemistry, physiology, biology and hygiene), economics, agriculture, civics, arts, music and physical training. For technical high schools the subjects included mother tongue, one classical language, English, modern language, history (India and world), mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, economics, wood and metal work, book-keeping, short-hand, typing, accounting, etc., agriculture, art and designing, music, and physical training. (5, p. 202.)

Secondary education, as stated previously was under the dual control of the department of education and the examining authorities, such as universities and boards. The courses of study for examinations for the classes from nine onward were prescribed by the universities and boards of intermediate and secondary education while inspection was carried on by the department of education. The University of Calcutta exercised such control over the schools in Bengal (except Dacca) including that part which now constitutes East Pakistan and the Universities of the Punjab and Bombay held the control of schools in their respective areas including Sind and West Punjab which after partition formed parts of West Pakistan.

CHAPTER IV

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN EAST PAKISTAN SINCE INDEPENDENCE¹

The previous chapter has presented a short history of the development of educational administration under British rule in the regions now consisting in Pakistan. This chapter will deal with the development of educational administration of secondary education in East Pakistan since independence.

Pakistan was established on August 14, 1947, as an independent sovereign state. Immediately after independence, she was confronted with many urgent problems, such as the rehabilitation of refugees, drafting a new constitution and formulating plans for educational, economic and social developments. The pre-independence system of education was found unsuitable for the Pakistani nation. A need was felt to reorient it in accordance with the aspirations and traditions of the independent society of Pakistan. Impelled by this sense of need the then Central Minister of Education called the First Educational Conference in Karachi in 1947. Qaid-e-Azam Mohammad Ali Jinnah sent to this Conference a

¹In 1956, the province of East Bengal was named as East Pakistan. However, the term East Bengal has been used in the first section, that is, 1947-55.

- message in which he outlined the principles for a new philosophy of education in Pakistan. The message reads:

The importance of education and the right type of education cannot be over emphasized. ... We must bring out our educational policies and programmes on the lines suited to the genius of the people, consonant with our history and culture and having regard to the modern conditions and developments that have taken place all over the world. (39, p. 5.)

This message had an important bearing on the subsequent educational plans and policies in Pakistan. The Government of Pakistan, under the Government of India Act, 1935, as adopted for Pakistan, and under the constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, 1956, did not have any direct statutory control over education in the provinces.

As education in Pakistan has all along been a provincial responsibility, each province started the work of reorganising and developing its own system of education according to the principles and objectives laid down by the Educational Conference of 1947. The mass exodus of Hindus from East Bengal and a large influx of refugees from West Bengal after partition put the province of East Bengal into an anomalous situation. The system of education was shaken to its foundations and, for a time, it seemed that it would collapse altogether.

As already mentioned, the Government of East Bengal started the work of reorganising its system of education in the light of the recommendations of the Educational Conference of 1947. But the success of the educational

- efforts of a nation depends upon the administrative procedures and arrangements which are always meant to facilitate the achievements of the defined objectives. Educational administration in East Bengal had to be reformed in such a way that the contemplated changes could be introduced effectively and with the least disturbance to the development programmes of other sectors of national economy.

East Bengal took up the work of reorganising its educational administration in right earnest. The present structure of educational administration in East Pakistan is the outcome of evolutionary changes, which have been divided into three sections for the convenience of this study.

I. DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION DURING THE PERIOD, 1947-55

Administration

The present system of education in East Pakistan, of course, with some modifications and reforms, is the same as existed at partition. There were four stages of education during the period under review: primary, middle, secondary and higher. The primary stage comprised classes one to four in the beginning but later on in January, 1952, class five was taken away from the middle stage and added to the primary.

The middle schools were of two types, middle English and middle vernacular. As stated previously, their curricula

- were almost similar except that English was taught as a compulsory subject only in the former. Education in the secondary stage was imparted in classes seven to ten of high schools and the upper two forms of junior schools.

The Government of East Bengal controlled education at the middle stage and also upto class eight through her executive officers of the other departments, the Department of Education and the managing committees. The Department of Education prescribed curriculum, granted recognition and sanctioned grants-in-aid. Local bodies exercised maximum administrative control over schools managed directly or aided by such bodies. The Department of Education would give recognition to schools under private management on the recommendation of district magistrates. (70, p. 25.)

The administration and control of high school education was under a system of dyarchy - the officers of the Department of Education and the East Bengal Secondary Education Board. (70, p. 34.) The Department of Education exercised control over high schools through grant-in-aid on certain conditions, enforced rules regarding admission, transfer of students from one school to another and established criteria for the award of scholarships. The East Bengal Secondary Education Board, on the other hand, exercised control mainly on the academic activities of the high schools. As the Board had no inspecting staff of its own, it affiliated or disaffiliated secondary schools on

- the recommendation of the inspector of schools. (70, p. 34.)

After independence, the Minister for Education, assisted by the Secretary for Education was responsible to control the educational activities in the province of East Bengal. The Director of Public Instruction in East Bengal was the executive head of the Department of Education. His duty was to carry out the education policy of the Government in the whole province. (57, p. 181.)

The Director of Public Instruction was assisted by an assistant director of public instruction, an assistant director of public instruction for primary education, an assistant director of public instruction for Muslim education, and a planning officer. In the year 1952-53, a new post of an assistant planning advisor was created to assist the Directorate of Education in educational developments in the province of East Bengal. (71, p. 7.)

Supervision. The inspectorate was the chief instrument in the hands of the Director of Public Instruction for controlling and directing all educational institutions operating within its jurisdiction. The inspector of schools was responsible to the Director of Public Instruction for his official functions, but his appointment and transfer were made by the Government of East Bengal.

The middle schools for boys were directly under the supervision of the district inspectors of schools. They

- were assisted by sub-divisional inspectors of schools and sub-inspectors of schools. In the district of Sylhet Deputy Inspectors of Schools were in-charge of middle schools. The middle schools for girls were under the assistant inspectresses of schools. (70, p. 25.)

The divisional inspecting agencies were transformed into range inspectorates during the period under study. Each range inspectorate was headed by an inspector of schools who was assisted by second-inspectors of schools and assistant inspector of schools. There were six ranges in East Bengal viz., Dacca Range, Bakerganj Range, Chittagong Range, Rajshahi Range, Jessore Range, and Jalalabad Range. (66, p. 5.)

The supervision of high schools was the responsibility of the range inspectors of schools assisted by second inspectors of schools and assistant inspectors of schools for Muslim education. District inspectors of schools (deputy inspectors of schools in Sylhet) and sub-divisional inspectors of schools also were frequently entrusted with the responsibility of inspecting high schools. The high schools for girls were under the supervision of the inspectress of schools, sometimes assisted by the assistant inspectresses of schools. There was only one inspectress of schools in the whole of East Bengal during the period under review. (70, p. 12.)

Educational Services. There were in the Education Department the following categories of services during the years under report:

1. East Bengal Senior Educational Service
2. East Bengal Educational Service
3. East Bengal Junior Educational Service
4. East Bengal Subordinate Educational Service
5. Assam Educational Service, Class I
6. Assam Educational Service, Class II. (66, p. 3.)

East Bengal Educational Service included the following posts in the school cadres:

1. Second Inspector of Schools
2. Assistant Inspector of Schools for Muslim Education
3. District Inspector of Schools
4. Headmaster of the Government High School and Superintendent of the Training School for Boys
5. Headmistress of the Government High School and Superintendent of the Training School for Girls
6. Assistant Inspectress of Schools
7. Second Mistress, Eden High School for Girls, Dacca. (63, pp. 448-50.)

East Bengal Subordinate Educational Service included such posts as the following:

1. Assistant Headmaster/Assistant Headmistress
2. Assistant Master
3. Assistant Mistress

4. Second Maulvi, Pandit and Vernacular Teacher
5. Sub-Divisional Inspector
6. District Organiser of Physical Education
7. Sub-Inspector of Schools
8. Assistant Sub-Inspector of Schools. (63, pp. 448-50.)

The posts of inspectors and inspectresses of schools for boys and girls respectively were included in the East Bengal Senior Educational Service. The post of the Director of Public Instruction fell under a special cadre. The appointments and transfers of teachers in the Subordinate Educational Service were in the hands of the Directorate of Education while those of the Provincial Educational Service were dealt with by the Government of East Bengal. Appointments to all non-gazetted posts were made by the Director of Public Instruction, inspectors of schools, and principals of government colleges. The local managing committees of the non-government schools were the employers of the teachers in their respective institutions but their final appointments and dismissals were to be approved by the inspector of schools. (71, p. 21.)

Educational Financing

Finance is the fulcrum of the educational machinery. All educational plans and schemes will have to be based on the existing and prospective funds and finance. The attempt to understand the pattern of educational finance must begin

. by forming an idea about some of the key magnitudes related to the allocation of resources for education from which educational expenditures can be made. The sources of finance were, during the period under review, the Central Government, the Provincial Government, local bodies and private funds including fees, endowments and subscriptions.

Constitutionally education was a provincial subject. The responsibility for financing education, therefore, directly devolved on the provincial governments. But the province of East Bengal did not have enough means to finance education adequately. In this respect the Central Government would, of course, come forward with liberal grants to the province. The provincial allocation for education augmented by the central grant would cumulatively form the fund for educational finance. Out of this fund the Provincial Government would make grants to local bodies and to individual private institutions.

After partition, the financing of secondary education was a great problem - the middle schools under the direct management of the Government were financed entirely by the Government while private schools depended upon tuition fees, grants-in-aid and private subscriptions. It was observed that the expenditure from private sources far exceeded the expenditure out of the government fund. During the period under review, in high schools the percentage of government expenditure and private expenditure to total

expenditure was 21.3 and 75.9 respectively and in middle schools 27.4 and 60.6 respectively. (75, p. 9.)

Educational Planning

Educational planning is a process of decision making for future actions relating to the field of education. An educational plan must be capable of being translated into action. It should cover the whole system of education and be related to the economic and social needs and objectives of the nation. Sound planning should take into consideration both the quantitative and the qualitative aspects of the programme of development.

Unfortunately, classical economists did not consider education as a productive concern and gave it low priority while allocating resources for the economic development programme in Pakistan. As a result, education along with similar other subjects was provided with only such resources as were left over after the then recognised productive sectors of national economy had been adequately provided with. (10, p. 42.)

The colonial rulers designed the educational system in British India mainly to suit their own interests. They exercised power instead of foresight to execute the educational plans which were hatched in, and despatched from Whitehall without having any regard for the economic, social and political needs and conditions of the Indians.

After partition, Pakistan continued to follow the same pattern of educational planning as was followed by the British rulers in India. The first attempt towards a systematic educational planning on a national basis was made in 1952, when a Six Year National Plan of Educational Development was formulated. This plan 'translated in terms of money, people and buildings the recommendations of the various advisory groups and to this extent it was a useful exercise.' (10, p. 50.) But it was unrelated to the economic and social development plans and consequently failed to be treated as a concrete plan of action for the development of education in future.

In East Bengal there was wide public dissatisfaction over the existing educational system inherited from the British rulers. In response to a strong popular demand for reorientation, the Government of East Bengal set up 'the East Bengal Educational System Reconstruction Committee' on March 16, 1949, to suggest measures for reorienting the whole system of education in consonance with the needs and conditions of the country. The Committee, headed by Maulana Mohammad Akram Khan, submitted its report on June 29, 1951.

The recommendations of this Committee provided a basis for the educational planners to work on the educational development programme in the province. As these recommendations have a close bearing upon educational

• planning for secondary education in East Bengal, it is, therefore, desirable to know the broad guidelines contained in them. These were as follows:

1. Secondary education must be organised into a stage complete in itself. It must aim at providing three essential elements - vocational, social and spiritual.
2. Secondary schools should comprise six classes of one year's duration each, from classes six through eleven. Class five, which is a part of secondary education, should be given over to primary schools.
3. The medium of instruction in all secondary schools should be the mother tongue of the students.
4. There may be three classes of secondary schools namely, (1) separate junior schools, (2) separate senior schools, and (3) combined junior and senior schools. Primary classes may also remain combined with the high schools.
5. The unilateral schools should be converted into multilateral or comprehensive schools by making provision for a wide range of subjects and courses according to local needs and opportunities open to students.
6. The existing government schools should be run

as full-fledged secondary (junior and senior) schools. They should serve as models of which there should be one in each district.

7. The Government should adopt a scheme of developing at least one secondary school on modern lines in each sub-division. These schools need not be under Government's direct management. The Government should bear at least fifty per cent of the expenditures of these schools.
8. The salary scales of teachers of private schools should not be less than those of the government schools.
9. The Department and Directorate of Education should be merged into one and placed under one officer designated as the director of education who shall be the ex-officio secretary for education.
10. The posts of range inspectors of schools should be abolished.
11. The district inspecting staff should be given the charge of the high schools and the strength thereof should be increased. (64, pp. 106-08.)

These recommendations were implemented with some modifications during the period under report. In January 1952, a scheme for upgrading the middle schools was taken

. up. Because of upgrading of some schools to junior high schools and downgrading of others to primary schools, the number of middle schools showed a gradual decrease. However, there were 1306 high schools and 2175 middle/junior high schools in 1947-48 while in 1954-55 the number of high schools was 1535 and that of middle/junior high schools 1544. (25, pp. 35, 39.)

Additional grants were made available from the development fund for the reorganisation of secondary education. Some of the middle vernacular schools were converted into middle English schools. Middle English schools were either reduced to primary schools or upgraded as junior schools by adding classes seven and eight. Junior schools which taught English as a compulsory subject were called middle English schools and those which offered English as an optional subject were called middle vernacular schools.

A high school with Urdu as the medium of instruction was started in Dacca and Urdu sections were opened in government high schools in Jessore, Khulna and Chittagong, in order to provide facilities of education to the children of Urdu speaking refugees in East Bengal. The school section of the Eden Girls' Intermediate College was separated and given the status of a full-fledged secondary school. Another middle English school for girls in Faridpur was raised to the status of a high school. (67, p. 2.)

Curriculum

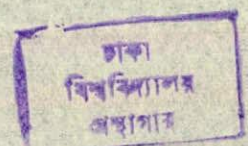
Curriculum includes, in a wider sense, all the experiences of the students for which the school accepts responsibility. Since education is predominantly a preparation for life, the contents of the educational process must take full cognizance of the progressive nature of life. It must make full use of the knowledge so far gained and also take into account the possibilities of knowledge that will be gained in the future.

The future of a nation is tied up with the educational system of the country. The success of any educational programme largely depends upon the efforts made to define its aims and purposes and the contents and the character of the curricula must guarantee that the proposed targets in education are in conformity with the needs and ambitions of the society.

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Growth of knowledge in all directions brings about social changes and a progressive system of education must adjust itself to meet these changes. A continuous evaluation of the curriculum is, therefore, necessary to keep it in line with the latest developments in knowledge and educational techniques so that the younger generation may keep itself abreast of the changes and demands put forth by the social and technological influences.

It is not possible to frame a curriculum fit and suitable for all time to come. No curriculum can be



considered as final in any sense. Continuous evaluation and revision of the curriculum are necessary as the frontiers of knowledge expand and the needs of the society and the individual evolve. In this rapidly changing world of today only the dynamic spirit is likely to survive. In order to keep pace with the change, the development of curriculum will always remain in a state of flux.

At independence, Pakistan got a system of education that was purposely designed to serve the cause of imperialism. With the achievement of Pakistan, the new attitude of the people towards government demanded revolutionary changes in the old educational pattern. Independence concomitantly brought a challenge for the nation. A new dimension in the socio-economic and political fields was in sight and it necessitated, a dynamic change in the educational objectives.

Although realisation of the necessity for change in curricula according to the emerging needs of the Pakistani nation was making itself felt in the very early years of independence, a systematic approach with the national outlook towards this end was not attempted until 1960. In East Bengal, curriculum was discussed as the specific number of subjects taught in schools. Curriculum making was not generally guided by any systematic methods. Experts in various subjects got together in committee meetings and prescribed courses to be taught in secondary

- schools without following any principles of curriculum making. (23, p. 33.)

The construction of curriculum remained authoritarian. The Department of Education formulated curriculum for primary schools and the middle stage of secondary schools while the Secondary Education Board prepared the same for classes nine and ten. It had never been developed through the consultation or discussion with the groups who were actually involved in teaching. (23, p. 33.)

In 1952, East Bengal Educational System Reconstruction Committee recommended some notable changes in the syllabi and courses of studies in secondary schools. These recommendations, if recapitulated here, will be helpful in understanding the trend in the improvement of curriculum development of secondary schools in East Bengal. The Committee recommended that the curriculum should be re-organised as follows:

1. In the junior stage, a pupil will have to learn as compulsory subjects two languages - his mother tongue and the language which will be adopted as the state language of Pakistan. Pending decision about the state language Arabic or Urdu will be a compulsory subject for those whose mother tongue is not either of the two languages; similarly Bengali will be taught as a compulsory subject to those whose mother

tongue is not Bengali. They will be required to study one or two other languages as optional subjects.

2. The secondary school course should comprise the subjects, viz., mathematics, elementary science, social studies including history, geography and civics, physical and health education, arts and handicrafts at the junior stage as compulsory subjects.

3. English should be compulsory for those who take up technical and scientific subjects and are expected to continue their studies beyond the secondary stage.

4. Religious instruction should be compulsory for all Muslim students. A separate paper in ethics or morals will be set for those non-Muslims who do not learn religion in schools.

5. Military training should be provided to students in as many high schools as possible. (64, pp. 75-95, 267-69.)

The curriculum of secondary schools in East Bengal was mainly in line with that introduced in January, 1931, with alterations deemed necessary in the context of the new political set-up in the province. During the years under report, some improvements were effected in the curriculum of secondary schools. English was totally

- dropped from the syllabus of classes three and four of high and middle schools and Urdu was introduced as a compulsory subject at the middle stage from class six. Needle work and cookery were compulsory subjects for girls in the middle schools. In addition, missionary schools taught tailoring, cane work and carpentry. (99, p. 114.)

Besides these courses, the subjects, such as nature study and science, music, civics, cooking, hygiene, agriculture and manual work found a prominent place in the syllabus. The history of England was replaced by Islamic history during the years under review. (75, p. 42.) No arrangement could be made for vocational subjects excepting the government sponsored manual classes in some of the government high schools. Financial stringency and the lack of large scale industrialisation contributed much to the failure to introduce vocational subjects in the schools.

The scheme of imparting agricultural education, as formulated in undivided Bengal, was operating in some of the middle and high schools in East Bengal. The Government used to advance grant to these schools for this scheme. But the scheme could not make notable progress for want of suitable conditions. (75, pp. 43-44.)

The departmental curriculum was followed in all the middle schools with variations, permitted by the inspector of schools, to suit the local circumstances. Classes nine and ten of the secondary schools followed the syllabuses

and courses of studies set by the East Bengal Secondary Education Board. In 1953, the courses prescribed for the Matriculation Examination included English, Bengali, Urdu, history of Pakistan and India, geography, mathematics, arithmetic, geometry, domestic science and hygiene (for girls). There were classical languages, such as Sanskrit, Pali, Arabic, Persian, Latin, Bengali, Assamese. Besides, there were optional subjects viz., elementary scientific knowledge, additional English, additional Urdu, elementary hygiene, elements of physics and chemistry, mensuration and surveying, elementary mechanics, elementary biology, business methods and correspondence, elements of public administration in India and Pakistan, sewing, needle work, commercial geography, music, drawing, painting, appreciation of fine arts. Effect on the subsequent development of educational Courses for School Final Examination (science side) consisted of English, Bengali, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, mensuration, trigonometry, mechanics, elementary science, geography, drawing, practical geometry and wood work.

II. DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

a. A specialised staff of high competence should be created.

DURING THE PERIOD, 1955-60

The period under study is marked with significant changes of far-reaching nature in social, economic and political spheres of Pakistan. These changes, inter alia,

4. The possibility of constituting local school management committees and district advisory committees should be taken into consideration. (40, p. 553.)

The Government of East Pakistan was already busy with implementing the recommendations of the East Bengal Educational System Reconstruction Committee as explained in the previous section. Besides, East Pakistan Educational Reforms Commission was constituted in January, 1957 with the Provincial Chief Minister Aftab Rahman Khan as its chairman and seven other members. But, the recommendations of this Commission could not be implemented because of political instability in the province. In spite of that, the Government of East Pakistan, however, introduced some improvements in the administration of secondary education.

Administration

The control over the secondary schools was, as before, exercised by the Directorate of Education, the East Pakistan Secondary Education Board, managing committees and East Pakistan School Text-book Board. The Department of Education exercised control over education through the Director of Public Instruction who was responsible to execute its policies. The Directorate of Education prescribed curriculum for classes upto eight, granted recognition, and provided grant-in-aid to educational institutions.

District boards and municipalities also managed some of the middle schools. But district boards were abolished by the East Pakistan (Rural) Primary Education (supplementary provision) Act, 1957. (83, p. 26.)

Supervision. The function and the structure of the inspectorate did not undergo any significant change during these years. The middle schools for boys were, as previously, directly under the supervision of the district inspector of schools assisted by sub-divisional inspectors of schools, except in the case of Sylhet where such schools were under the supervisory control of deputy inspectors of schools. The middle schools for girls were supervised by the inspectress of schools.

The supervision of the secondary schools, especially of the high stage, was under the jurisdiction of the range inspectors, of whom there were six in East Pakistan as mentioned in an earlier section. The range inspectors were assisted in their work by second-inspectors of schools and assistant inspectors for Muslim education. The high schools for girls were under the supervision of the Inspectress of Schools, East Pakistan. The East Pakistan Secondary Education Board had no inspecting officers of its own, so it had to depend upon the reports of the range inspectors of schools in matters of granting or refusing affiliation to secondary schools.

Educational Services. During the period under study, the categories of educational service remained the same as before. There was change only in the nomenclature and a few new additions were made to the Directorate to increase its strength. The name of East Bengal Senior Educational Service was changed to East Pakistan Senior Educational Service. Likewise, East Bengal Educational Service was renamed as East Pakistan Educational Service. Two new gazetted positions were created to help the Director of Public Instruction. One of them was for a personal assistant to the Director of Public Instruction and the other for a special officer for women's education. The personal assistant's duty was to help the Director in office routine. In the physical education side again two new posts were created for the development of physical education. One of these was the post of an assistant director of physical education and the other was of an inspector of physical training.

Educational Financing

The general pattern of financing secondary education remained almost the same as before. Unlike primary education, which was predominantly supported by the Government, secondary education was financed chiefly from private sources, such as tuition fees, local contribution, donations, endowments, etc.

There were three kinds of schools according to management and financing, such as government, aided and unaided. Government schools were financed entirely by the Government. Aided schools so called because they received grants-in-aid from the Government were under private management and others called unaided schools were entirely run by the private agencies without any aid from the Government.

The policy of the Government of Pakistan in financing secondary education was to encourage private agencies to take up financial responsibility for secondary education. It was explicitly indicated in the First Five Year Plan as follows:

The plan also assumes that a large part of the burden of financing secondary education will continue to be shouldered by non-Government agencies. The Government's role is to encourage and assist private undertakings, to provide leadership concerning school standards, to assure the more adequate geographical distribution of secondary schools and to give positive support to the curriculum changes considered desirable or necessary from the national and provincial points of view. (40, p. 551.)

The financing of secondary education in East Pakistan was primarily the responsibility of private agencies during the years under review. The Central Government and the Provincial Government, however, assisted and encouraged the private bodies by giving liberal grants for buildings, teaching materials and expansion of educational facilities. In spite of such a policy of the Government, the expenditure on secondary education from the provincial

- exchequer increased almost two-fold. It increased from 55.5 lac rupees in 1954-55 to 122.2 lac rupees in 1959-60. (49, p. 6.)

Educational Planning

The period under review opened a new vista for educational development programme in Pakistan. The appointment of the Commission on National Education and the formulation of the First Five Year Plan during these years bear testimony to the above statement. This was for the first time that educational development was considered as an integral part of the national development programme in the First Five Year Plan, 1955-60. The Government of Pakistan admitted in the First Plan that "a programme for the improvement and expansion of education is a vital part of the national development plan." (40, p. 539.)

The Plan set a few objectives of secondary education to be achieved during the plan period. Those were

1. the selective improvement of secondary and higher education with emphasis on the skills and leadership required to implement our plans of development;
2. additions to the traditional liberal arts curricula of technical and scientific subjects;
3. the provision of specialised staff and laboratory equipment;
4. the strengthening and extension of professional

- and technical courses;
- 5. balanced geographical distribution of schools;
- 6. greater equality of opportunity for education regardless of economic status. (40, pp. 544, 549.)

The development of physical facilities of secondary schools and the reconstruction of secondary education as a whole were accelerated in East Pakistan with the implementation of the First Five Year Plan. It proposed to develop one thousand junior high schools (middle schools with classes one to eight), by upgrading some primary schools, downgrading some weak high schools and improving some existing middle schools. (40, p. 551.) The Plan proposed that "the curricula and facilities of eighty of these schools were to be enriched with sciences and arts and crafts in a balanced programme." (40, p. 551.)

The Plan also suggested to strengthen five hundred private high schools by providing grants-in-aid, increase in teachers' salaries, curriculum diversification, additional building and equipment. (40, p. 551.) Thirty-five private high schools for boys and ten for girls were selected for overall development. During the year, 1955-56, these schools were given a lump grant of 381,500 rupees under the social uplift-scheme for the construction of additional buildings, furniture, equipment and library books. (99, p. 144.) The government high schools - one

• each for boys and girls - were established in Dacca in the year, 1957-58. Two girls' high schools - one each at Khulna and Rajshahi - were provincialised on December 19, 1959. The East Pakistan Education Extension Centre, Dacca started functioning in 1959. This Centre imparts short term training in different courses to the teachers of secondary schools. (83, p. 29.)

Because of upgrading of middle schools to high schools and downgrading of some middle schools to primary schools, the number of middle and junior high schools was reduced from 1544 in 1955 to 1324 in 1960. As a result of this, on the other hand, the number of high schools was increased from 1535 in 1955 to 1729 in 1960. (25, pp. 35, 37.)

Curriculum

The urgency of making a series of changes in the curricula of secondary schools in Pakistan had been frequently pointed out by the educational leaders on the basis of the principle that education at the secondary level has its own objectives in terms of the needs of the youth. In East Pakistan, a trend towards diversified courses in secondary schools was already there.

During the period under review, some changes in the curricula of secondary schools in East Pakistan were introduced according to the recommendations of the East Bengal Educational System Reconstruction Committee, 1949, the

• First Five Year Plan, 1955-60, and the East Pakistan Educational Reforms Commission, 1957. These bodies stressed that the secondary school programme must offer more diversified and enriched courses to prepare rounded citizens in terms of their own capabilities and the social and economic needs of the nation. In other words, secondary schools, both middle and high, were to be converted into multipurpose schools providing a general education with a practical bias adapted to the interests of children and their life in the community. (40, pp. 550-51.)

The East Pakistan Educational Reforms Commission made certain recommendations in respect of curriculum of secondary schools. It recommended that the junior school curriculum should consist of languages, social studies, general science, mathematics, religion for Muslim students and ethics or morals for non-Muslim students, art and music, physical education including health care. The Commission also suggested that a number of diversified courses should be included in addition to the core courses of languages, general science, social studies, and craft in the curriculum of senior schools. (99, p. 143.)

During the period under review, games, sports, scouting and cubbing were introduced with great enthusiasm in the secondary schools, and preliminary military training was also started in the high schools. A junior cadet corps with one hundred boys selected from the top classes was

- formed in the Chittagong Collegiate School as a pilot project. This scheme proved a success and was later on extended to a number of high schools in the province. (99, p. 143.)

III. DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION DURING THE PERIOD, 1960-68

The period under review commenced with new hopes and enthusiasm "to plan and promote gigantic programmes of development to keep pace with the galloping rate of all-round human progress in the country." (46, p. 8.) The Government of Pakistan launched a nation-wide programme of reforms in various fields of national activities. As a concomitant of these reforms, certain remarkable improvements were introduced in the administration of secondary education during these years.

The system of education in the country was incapable of meeting the emerging needs and aspirations of the new Pakistani nation. It was the legacy of the British system in India of pre-independence period. Even about two decades after her independence, Pakistan could not transform her educational system to suit the socio-economic conditions and traditions of her people. There was an imperative need to do away with the old system of education and evolve in its place a new one commensurate with the growing needs of the nation.

In response to such feelings, the Government of Pakistan appointed the Commission on National Education on December 30, 1958 under the chairmanship of S. M. Sharif. The task of the Commission was to suggest reforms in the then existing system of education to make it consonant with the changing needs of a developing nation like Pakistan. The Commission, after critically examining the three stages of education -- higher, secondary and primary -- submitted its report on August 26, 1959 embodying proposals for radical changes in the system of education of Pakistan. (41, p. 1.) The Commission dealt in detail with almost all the aspects of higher education, secondary education and primary education and based its recommendations on the following objectives:

1. The educational system of a country should meet the individual and collective needs and aspirations of the people of that country.
2. It must give scope for training in leadership and at the same time provide for the development of all vocational abilities needed for the creation of a progressive and democratic society.
3. The system of education must preserve the Islamic way of life. The spiritual values of Islam blended with the freedom, integrity and strength of Pakistan should form the ideology as a base for the educational system.

4. The educational system must create a sense of unity and nationhood among the different sections of the people of Pakistan.
5. The concept of education as a public investment in economic development of a nation should be emphasised in Pakistan.
6. Manpower should be enriched with the skills and training necessary in a complex modern society.
7. It must be recognised that only vigorous actions in training the people needed for the technological and agricultural progress can increase the sources of national wealth.
8. Character building of students should be stressed.
9. The educational system should create dignity of labour in the minds of students by the use of hands and the realisation of benefits and pleasure of manual skill.
10. The system should be guided and motivated by the concept of spiritual and moral values of nation-building, of scientific development, of enlightened citizenship, and of public service. (41, pp. 10-12.)

In dealing with secondary education the Commission remarked:

Reforms have been suggested time and again, but few have been carried out. The tradition of the literary type secondary schools has been so strong among the public as well as educators that resistance to change

has frustrated the intention of nearly all reformers. The result is that in many respects these schools retain many unwelcome characteristics dating from the last century. (43, p. 113.)

The Commission, before making recommendations, pointed out some defects in the secondary education system. These are enumerated as under:

1. The secondary school system has mainly served the purpose of training civil servants and office workers, with the completion of the school course as the passport to government service.
2. The curriculum of these schools was over-loaded with literary subjects.
3. There were no opportunities for training in technical and vocational subjects.
4. Matriculation Examination has been regarded as the qualification for university admission and not as a terminal one.
5. Too much stress is laid on memorisation and far too little on initiative, independence of thought, habits of industry, imaginative use of knowledge, and self-reliance.
6. The teachers follow the prescribed courses in over-crowded classrooms; they are poorly paid, poorly trained and have little standing in the community. As a result, the best talent is not attracted to teaching. (43, p. 113.)

Being conscious of these weaknesses, the Commission laid down the following principles which served as a basis for the process of reshaping the secondary education system of the country:

1. The first and basic principle is the recognition of secondary education as a stage in itself and the need to demarcate it clearly from university education in respect of objectives, purposes, methods of teaching, curricula and equipment.
2. It must be recognised that secondary education caters for pupils who will enter a variety of careers, who have a variety of talents and interests and who are able to remain at schools for varying periods.
3. Secondary education must be designed to prepare young people for careers, and equip them intellectually, physically, morally and vocationally for a full life as individuals and citizens.
4. In addition to diversified courses, a new conception of teaching is also necessary.
5. Secondary schools have a major role to play in fostering among students a love for their country and a desire to serve it, based on a deep appreciation of its history, aspirations and cultural and social patterns, and a determination to correct its weaknesses and social injustices

and contribute to its development as a free, progressive and prosperous nation.

6. Teaching of international understanding and a realisation of our membership in the comity of nations is necessary for Pakistani youngsters.
7. Activities in and outside the school, teaching methods and the standards set by the teachers themselves should be conducive to the development of self-reliance, self discipline, helpfulness, a sense of justice, habits of industry, honesty, courage and self-confidence in the minds of students. (43, pp. 115-16.)

Keeping in view these objectives, the Commission made its recommendations regarding various aspects of secondary education. Relevant recommendations about some of the aspects, such as administration, finance, planning and curriculum are discussed here.

Administration. Regarding educational administration the Commission recommends: (1) As education is a specialised field, it must be administered by persons having a high degree of technical competence as well as administrative ability and experience; (2) the Commission has recognised two major divisions within the educational system, general education and technical education. These should form the basic administrative divisions; (3) at the provincial level each of the stages of education should be administered

- through separate divisions in the administrative hierarchy, each with its own head, staff and budget, and with a certain amount of autonomy in executing policies; (4) the provincial head of the department should be free to involve himself effectively in policy matters and problems of coordination; (5) operational decisions should be made in the appropriate divisions where authority and responsibility should be further delegated; (6) principals and headmasters should be given full and effective control over the operation of their schools and colleges; (7) an inspector of schools should not be a combination of a clerk and a policeman but an educationist bringing in new ideas, encouraging initiative and raising the quality of classroom work; (8) the designation of the Inspector of Schools should be changed to suit the professional rather than authoritarian nature of his job; (9) the Central Ministry of Education should provide the leadership and the expert advice that are needed for the realisation of national aims and objectives; and (10) the highest educational service should be organised in the same manner, with the same financial benefits and the same proportionate professional opportunities, as the civil service. (43, pp. 321-25.)

Financing. About financing secondary education the Commission emphasises: (1) The income of the schools should be raised from three sources: (a) fees, (b) the contribution of the management, and (c) the grant from the Government.

. Fee should provide 60 per cent, management 20 per cent and Government 20 per cent of the recurring expenditure of secondary schools. The contribution of the management should come from donations and subscriptions by the members of the managing committee and the public as well. (2) Government grant should be paid on the condition that the schools maintain the minimum standard. (3) Special schools, which have good reputation in respect of standard of education, should be given larger grants than ordinary aided high schools. (4) Residential schools should be given financial support to enable them to curtail the rates of fees. These schools should be treated as 'special schools' for the purpose of grants. (5) The management of non-government secondary schools should be able to provide an annual income of fifteen thousand rupees to twenty thousand rupees to guarantee efficiency in maintaining the school. (6) It should be made obligatory for the development authority to provide land for schools and construct school buildings. Special taxes may be levied for the improvement of existing schools or setting up new ones in congested areas. (7) Seven per cent of the revenue of the Central Government should be earmarked for education. (8) A reasonable share of funds and of foreign aid should be assigned to education. (9) A system of long-term, low-interest loans for providing educational facilities was recommended. (43, pp. 138-39, 341-44.)

Planning. In respect of educational planning the Commission suggests: (1) the board of secondary education should rigidly enforce the rules for recognition of schools; (2) a set proportion of schools should be converted into high quality and multi-purpose institutions having fully trained and qualified staff, adequate buildings, laboratories, workshops and other teaching materials; (3) there should be a fair geographical distribution of schools selected for improvement into high quality and multi-lateral schools; (4) the existing schools should be turned and improved into residential ones and new ones should be established; (5) private schools should be registered and be required to provide adequate facilities in terms of teachers, buildings and equipments; (6) education extension centres should reorient the teachers through short-term in-service training and refresher courses; (7) all efforts should be made to extend participation of the larger number of people in the school activities; and (8) the heads of institutions should have sufficient authority to handle effectively the internal administration of the schools to carry through the programme of development planned for the institutions. (43, pp. 139-43.)

Curriculum. As regards curriculum the Commission recommends: (1) curriculum at the post-primary level must relate what is taught in secondary schools more closely to the actual needs of our society and to the talents and

and interests of our young people; (2) a permanent section should be created to carry out a continuous study and research into curriculum matters; (3) the teaching of national languages, mathematics and science should be stressed more than that of other subjects; (4) social studies comprising history, geography, and civics should be studied by all pupils from classes six to ten, and provision should be made for the teaching of other modern languages of Europe, the Middle East and Asia; (5) general science should be compulsory for all students who would choose areas other than elective science; (6) the use of hand tools should be made compulsory in classes six through eight; (7) practical arts courses comprising metal work, wood work, agricultural gardening, type writing, home economics (for girls) and courses in the artistic ornamental crafts should be introduced in secondary schools; (8) religious education should be compulsory in classes six through eight and optional thereafter; and (9) within the time span of ten years, as far as possible secondary schools should be transformed into multipurpose schools offering a wide range of diversified courses. (43, pp. 120-24.)

After having this background of the recommendations of the Commission on National Education, it is now appropriate to examine the actual developments made in the educational administration in East Pakistan during the period under review.

Administration

The control and administration of secondary education remained, as in the previous years, a joint responsibility of the Department of Education, executive officers of the other departments, managing committees and boards. But, the implementation of the recommendations of the Commission on National Education and the largely expanded programme of educational development through the Second Five Year Plan called for strengthening and expansion of the administrative set-up by creating new posts and limiting the territorial jurisdiction of units of administration of education.

As suggested by the Provincial Reorganisation Committee, East Pakistan, range offices were merged into the four divisions of Dacca, Chittagong, Khulna and Rajshahi in the process of decentralisation of administration of education. In each division was appointed as officer designated as deputy director of public instruction with powers of decision making in respect of the administration, and control of secondary education in his jurisdiction. (83, p. 30.) For the better and efficient administration, technical education was separated from general education and a separate directorate called the Directorate of Technical Education was set up in February 1961 for the control, administration and development of technical education.

The same year East Pakistan Secondary Education Board was replaced by the newly created Board of

- Intermediate and Secondary Education, East Pakistan. This change was the outcome of the separation of the intermediate classes from the degree colleges in respect of academic control and administration as recommended by the Commission on National Education. (83, p. 30.)

Supervision. Supervision of the secondary schools in East Pakistan during the period under review was the same as in the previous years. Only some positions have been added or reduced and designations were changed as already stated. The inspectors of schools were responsible for the inspection and supervision of secondary schools in their respective divisions. They were assisted by assistant inspectors of schools, district inspectors of schools, district education officers and other subordinate officers in the inspectorate. The inspector of schools visited the secondary schools in his division and recommended the cases of grants and recognition to the appropriate authorities. District education officers were responsible for looking after the implementation of development projects. They would also inspect high schools under private management. (100, p. 22.)

Educational Services. The categories of educational services, as described in the previous section, remained the same. Some new posts were created and some of the old posts were upgraded. The posts of deputy director of public

instruction, deputy assistant director of public instruction and district education officer were created in July 1961. The nomenclatures of the sub-divisional inspector of schools and sub-inspector of schools were changed to sub-divisional education officer and thana education officer respectively. Sub-divisional education officers were given gazetted status in the same year. (83, p. 30.)

Educational Financing

The general pattern of financing education at the secondary level, both under private and government management remained almost the same except that under the development scheme introduced by the Government generous grants were given to selected schools for development purposes. The expenditure of the Government of East Pakistan on the development of secondary education was ninety-six lac rupees out of a total of two hundred and twenty-nine lac rupees in 1960-61 while it rose to 349 lac rupees out of a total of 606 lac rupees in 1967-68. (24, p. 21.)

The overall expenditure on secondary education from both government and private sources increased in the years under review. As discussed above the expenditure of the Provincial Government rose from 299 lac rupees in 1960-61 to 606 lac rupees in 1967-68. (24, p. 21.) But, an increasing reliance was placed on private effort rather than on government sources to provide necessary funds for educational

- facilities. Local committees through the institutions of basic democracies were expected to participate more actively in financing educational needs. (41, p. 341.)

Educational Planning

The Report of the Commission on National Education, stressed the need for the development of a functional system of education in Pakistan. The Second Five Year Plan, which followed, brought some decisive and desirable changes in all segments of the educational system and in the Third Five Year Plan it continued to be the key-note in the process of further improvement in secondary education.

The Second and Third Five Year Plans laid more stress on quality and producing skilled labour than on expanding secondary education in physical terms. The Second Five Year Plan set the base for quality and priority had, therefore, to be assigned to technical and vocational education and the qualitative standards of secondary schools. It has been proposed in the Third Five Year Plan that "quality education will be the key-note of the Third Plan. Vigorous efforts will be made to improve the quality of education at all stages." (42, p. 157.)

In East Pakistan the number of existing secondary schools during the Second Plan period was considered sufficient to accommodate the new students seeking admission in them, but their quality, it was felt, must be improved considerably. One thousand junior high schools were

proposed to be developed by upgrading primary and middle schools. It was planned to provide qualified teachers and better teaching facilities to a number of secondary schools in East Pakistan. Of the sixteen hundred senior high schools, twelve hundred were to be provided with qualified teachers, adequate buildings, better laboratories, materials and equipment. Crafts courses were to be introduced in one hundred junior high schools, agriculture in fifty high schools, and home economics in a number of high schools for girls. (41, pp. 342-43.)

After the publication of the Report of the Commission on National Education and the presentation of the programme of education in the Second Five Year Plan, the Government of East Pakistan undertook a ground survey of all the educational institutions from the primary to the college level to collect relevant data for the implementation of the recommendations of the Commission. Seventy survey teams were organised on district basis except in the case of primary schools, where, because of the large number of schools involved, the teams were composed on sub-divisional basis. Members of the survey teams, in consultation with district magistrates and sub-divisional officers prepared a comprehensive report showing the order of priority for the development of educational institutions.

(81, p. 1.)

During this period, crafts courses were introduced in five hundred junior high schools out of which seventy-five

schools were for girls. Diversified courses were introduced in 833 high schools while fifteen new Government high schools were established. For the effective and smooth introduction of diversified courses, the Government of East Pakistan, with the help of the Central Government, established twenty-one pilot schools. Besides these schools, six non-government high schools were also developed. (83, pp. 2-3.)

Three technical high schools were set up and technical sections were added to two government high schools for boys for the teaching of technical courses. In order to bring the teaching of science up to the mark, a number of schools was improved during the period under review. According to the recommendations of the Commission on National Education, residential schools were established in the province. Six residential schools were still in the process of completion at Barisal, Mymensingh, Comilla, Sylhet, Rangpur and Pabna. (84, pp. 3-5.)

The scheme of provincialisation of high schools was introduced by the Government to improve the standard of education which was fast deteriorating in the hands of non-government agencies. Sixty-six high schools were to be provincialised during the period while ten high schools for girls had already been provincialised. The continuance of private schools without registration was prohibited by the East Pakistan Registration of Private Schools Ordinance,

1962. As a result, the number of high schools under government management increased from forty-one in 1960 to fifty-nine in 1965. (25, p. 41.) The total number of high schools rose from 1788 in 1960 to 3170 in 1968 while that of middle schools increased from 1352 to 1730 during the same period. (25, pp. 33, 39.)

Curriculum

The curriculum of secondary schools, during the years under report was not consistent with the needs and ambitions of the people in East Pakistan. It was still too literary, examination-ridden and without adequate provision of vocational courses. The Government of East Pakistan followed the recommendations of the Curriculum Committee in introducing the curriculum in its secondary schools. It is, therefore, necessary to discuss the curriculum as recommended by the Curriculum Committee.

The Government of Pakistan appointed a Curriculum Committee on June 24, 1960 to prepare the curricula and syllabuses of secondary education in conformity with the recommendations of the Commission on National Education. (44, p. 1.) The Curriculum Committee laid down general principles to constitute the basis on which the syllabuses in individual subjects should be framed by the committees of courses. The Committee attempted to prepare a coordinated and integrated scheme of studies for the three stages -

middle, secondary and higher secondary. Diversification of course, which was one of the important suggestions of the Commission, necessitated the introduction of new subjects with the provision of a good number of options to suit the talents and interests of the students.

Forty-one committees of courses were formed to draw up syllabuses for individual subjects. Three groups were constituted to examine the syllabuses for complementary subjects prepared by the committees of courses. These three groups were

1. Mathematics and natural and applied science,
2. Humanities and social studies,
3. Language and Islamic studies.

The Committee recommended a number of compulsory subjects and electives as well for the middle schools and for the high schools. The curriculum for the middle schools included compulsory subjects viz., Bengali/Urdu/Sindhi, English, general mathematics, social studies, general science, religious education, physical education, arts and crafts including art, clay modelling, toy-making, basketry, pottery, fabric printing, leatherwork, puppetry, book-binding, weaving, cane and bamboowork. Elective subjects for the middle schools consisted of practical arts including wood work, metal work, applied electricity, agriculture and gardening, home economics, and Arabic, art, Bengali, dancing, Gujrati, music, Pali, Pushto, Persian, Punjabi, Sanskrit,

• Sindhi and Urdu.

For the middle stage the Committee proposed ten areas of study to form the general core of the curriculum, out of which nine were compulsory and one optional. It was proposed to provide a variety of activities through which the special aptitudes and interests of children may be discovered so that they might adopt appropriate careers or select suitable courses for further study.

The compulsory subjects for the secondary stage included Urdu/Bengali/Sindhi, English, social studies, general mathematics, general science, physical education. The committee has divided the elective subjects into six groups, such as humanities, science, commerce, industrial arts, home economics and agriculture. The elective areas for the humanities group consisted of mathematics or house-hold accounts (for girls), history, geography, Islamic studies, art, geometrical and technical drawing, classical language, such as Arabic, Persian, Greek, Sanskrit, etc., modern languages of the world, physiology and hygiene, health and physical education, civics, elementary economics, music, outline of home economics. Science group had the elective subjects, such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, physiology and hygiene, geometrical and technical drawing, geography.

The elective courses for the commerce group included business method and correspondence, commercial geography,

arithmetic and book-keeping, type-writing. The industrial arts group was to take elective subjects, such as mathematics, physics, chemistry, metalwork, woodwork, applied electricity, pottery and ceramics, leather work, ornamental arts and crafts, weaving, geometrical and technical drawing, building construction, bamboo and cane work, tailoring, confectionary and bakery. The subjects for the home economics group consisted of chemistry, physics, and biology, food and nutrition, clothing and textile, family living, home management.

The elective subjects for the agricultural group were physics and chemistry, general agriculture including soil science, elementary botany, horticulture, gardening, elementary zoology, animal husbandry, and fisheries and mathematics. (44, pp. 65-69, 249-61.)

At the secondary stage, students were required to study five subjects carrying a total of seven hundred marks. This, however, excluded physical education and manual work which were also compulsory but did not form a part of the final examination. In addition to these areas of study, students were also required to select from the six groups of subjects already specified, papers carrying three hundred to four hundred marks so as to keep the total of maximum marks between one thousand and eleven hundred. (44, p. 259.) Since 1961, these courses as recommended by the Committee have been introduced in East Pakistan.

- East Pakistan. (83, pp. 32, 35.)

After the Report of the Commission on National Education, the task of framing the curriculum for secondary schools in East Pakistan was entrusted to the boards of intermediate and secondary education. But, the process of curriculum framing essentially remained the same as it was before, and it will remain the same until the pattern of examinations is altogether changed.

CHAPTER V

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN WEST PAKISTAN SINCE INDEPENDENCE

At independence there were three provinces in West Wing of Pakistan namely, the West Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, and Sind. In addition to these, there were three princely states, such as the states of Bahawalpur, Khairpur, and the Baluchistan States' Union and the Tribal areas of the North-West Frontier Province.

In October, 1955, West Pakistan was constituted as a single province by merging the three former provinces of the Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province, and Sind and other territories mentioned above. (61, p. I--49.) West Pakistan was divided into divisions and regions for the convenience of general administration and educational administration as well. For the purpose of educational administration a directorate of education was established in each region. The directorate of education was headed by a director of education who was responsible for the administration of education in his region.

After independence, the task of a systematic collation and collection of educational information and data could not be undertaken in Pakistan. The Government of Pakistan admits this fact by saying that "during the first

decade of independence the available statistical information will not always be sufficiently adequate to meet the needs of the planners and researchers." (50, p. 1.) Adam Curle faced this problem, which he expressed by saying: "One of the main problems of planning in a developing nation is the conflicting character of the statistics." (10, p. 104.)

Such a state of affairs continued to prevail more glaringly in West Pakistan than in East Pakistan till the integration of the provinces into one unit in 1955. The peculiar geographical conditions of the former provinces in the Western Wing of Pakistan and the diverse needs of the people of the different regions contributed much towards the lack of coordination and communication among them. Against this background the development of educational administration in West Pakistan since partition will be dealt with in the following pages in three sections.

I. DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION DURING THE PERIOD, 1947-55

Administration

During the period under report there was no uniformity in the organisation of middle schools in the Western Wing of Pakistan. Generally, middle schools included classes from one to eight but, as stated earlier, this was not a rule for all the former provinces. In Sind, for example, there were

• classes upto seven in the middle schools while in other regions class eight was included in these schools. (95, p. 62.)

Besides, there were lower middle schools in some areas of the provinces of the Punjab and the North-West Frontier in which classes six and seven were included. In addition to these, middle schools were classified as Anglo-vernacular and vernacular schools in these two provinces. The former ones used to teach English while the latter did not. (95, p. 69.)

The pattern of administration of secondary education in the old provinces of the Western Wing of Pakistan was almost the same till October, 1955 as it existed before partition. Each of the former three provinces had a minister for education, assisted by the education secretariate, responsible for the overall educational activities in his province. The director of public instruction was the executive head of the department of education to carry out the educational policy of the government in the province.

The control and administration of secondary education was the responsibility of the government, local bodies, boards, universities and private management. The government controlled secondary education in the province through direct management of a number of schools and by according recognition and grant-in-aid, while academic control was exercised by universities and boards which prescribed

- syllabuses for and conducted public examinations marking the end of the secondary stage.

Supervision. The inspectorate was the most active agency of the department of education to supervise and look after the working of the secondary schools. The divisions of Lahore, Rawalpindi and Multan of the pre-partition period were not disturbed after independence. Each division was headed by an inspector of schools assisted by deputy inspectors of schools, district inspectors of schools and a number of assistant district inspectors of schools. (5, p. 184.) The universities and boards accorded recognition to the schools on the recommendations of the inspectors of the departments of education, as these examining bodies did not have their own inspecting staff for that purpose.

Educational Services. After independence the educational services in each province were broadly divided into two categories -- the Provincial Educational Service and the Subordinate Educational Service. The Provincial Educational Service was divided into class I and class II. Provincial Educational Service class I was further subdivided into class I (Senior) and class I (Junior) with different pay scales. The appointments in the case of the Provincial Educational Services class I and class II were made by the provincial governments. Appointments and transfers of the subordinate

- educational services were in the hands of the directors of public instruction of the provinces.

Educational Financing

The funds for financing secondary education came from the provincial governments, tuition fees, local bodies, grants from the Central Government and subscriptions, donations and endowments from private sources. The heads of the institutions in each former province or region prepared budgets showing estimated expenditures and incomes for the coming year. The budgets were sent to the directorate of education. Then the directorate of education submitted its consolidated budget, including expenditures and incomes for the whole of the region or province as the case might be, to the ministry of education for its approval and further necessary action.

The expenditure of the provincial government on secondary education included grants-in-aid to the local bodies or private institutions, salaries of the teachers of government schools, scholarships, construction of buildings and supply of equipment, etc. The total expenditures of the Government in West Wing of Pakistan on secondary education in 1947-48 was fifty-one lac rupees while it rose to 138 lac rupees in 1954-55. (24, p. 74.)

Educational Planning

Educational Planning was not taken up as a significant aspect of educational administration in Pakistan during

the period under report. After independence the crucial question was how to save the educational system from total collapse, not to talk of how to improve it. Although development of educational planning on national basis has already been dealt with in chapter IV, a short reference will be in order here.

In spite of many vexing problems, the Government of Pakistan was alive to the situation and determined to reconstruct the educational system of the country in order to adapt it to the needs of the Pakistani nation. It was in response to that feeling that the All Pakistan Educational Conference was convened in Karachi on November 27, 1947. As a result, the Advisory Board of Education came into being to work out development plans for the educational system in the country. (40, p. 542.)

In 1951, the Advisory Board of Education, in cooperation with the Central Ministry of Education, prepared the Six Year National Plan of Educational Development in Pakistan and published its final report in 1952. (5, p. 108.) Unfortunately this plan was found by the general planners and economists as "too ambitious and unrelated to the economic analysis of the resources of the country." (40, p. 542.) It was after the Six Year National Plan of Educational Development that the National Planning Board was established to prepare a consolidated and integrated scheme of development covering all aspects of national life. Consequently,

- the Planning Board took up the responsibility of formulating its own plan of national development commensurate with the economic resources of the country and the recommendations of the Six Year Plan of Education were altogether set aside. (5, p. 107.)

The First Five Year Plan, 1955-60, was the outcome of the deliberations for formulating a comprehensive scheme of development for the nation where education was assigned due and vital participation. During the period under review some developments in secondary education had taken place in West Wing of Pakistan, but these were quantitative rather than qualitative. The total number of middle schools in 1947-48 was 2,190 which in 1955 decreased to 1,517. The number of high schools in 1947-48 was 408 while it rose to 747 in 1955. (24, pp. 35-39.)

Curriculum

In Pakistan, academic control over secondary schools was exercised in some cases by the universities and in others by the boards of secondary education through the formulation of the secondary curriculum and the conducting of public examinations at the end of the secondary school courses. In the Punjab, the University of the Punjab did not like to part with the privilege which it enjoyed during the British rule in India. It continued its control over high schools by conducting examinations and formulating curriculum until 1955. In 1955, the Board of Secondary

Education was established in the Punjab to take over the academic control of secondary education from the University of the Punjab. (5, p. 208.)

The curriculum for classes one to eight was prepared by departments of education while that for classes nine to ten was the responsibility of the universities and boards of secondary education. The task of formulating curriculum had never been taken systematically and continuously. The teachers were never involved or consulted at the time of formulating curriculum for the secondary schools. The curriculum of secondary schools was almost the same as it was in pre-partition period. It did not contain subjects having practical value for the future career of the students. The curriculum was framed with the main object to pass the examination and not for leading a productive public life.

During the period under review, the curriculum of high schools included English, Urdu, Persian, Arabic, general knowledge (history and geography), science (physics and chemistry), mathematics (arithmetic, geometry, algebra), drawing and physical training. The courses of study for classes upto eight consisted of Urdu, English, Persian, Bengali, Arabic, mother tongue, diniyat, mathematics, science, history, geography, civics, practical arts and physical training. (101, pp. 1-3.)

II. DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION DURING THE PERIOD, 1955-60

The period under review saw some far-reaching changes in the administration of the country as a whole. These changes touched on a wide range of points in different aspects of the nation's life, such as economic, social and political.

After the creation of the province of West Pakistan in 1955, the reorganisation of the civil administration became necessary. These changes and reforms in the civil administration of the newly created province necessitated reorganisation of educational administration of West Pakistan. During these reforms the trend towards decentralisation of general as well as educational administration became obvious as stated in chapter IV and it seems unnecessary to repeat it here. The developments which were effected in educational administration during the years under report will be examined closely in the following pages.

Administration

The control and administration of secondary education was in the hands of the Government, local bodies, private management, boards and universities as in the previous years. The Department of Education exercised control over secondary schools by directly granting recognition and

- sanctioning grant-in-aid. Universities and boards exercised control over secondary education by prescribing curriculum and courses of study for the high schools within their territorial jurisdiction.

The pattern of educational administration of the pre-partition period continued to exist in West Pakistan till October, 1955. After the merger of the former provinces into a single unit, educational administration underwent some changes. The directorates of education of the former provinces were not disturbed, rather they were turned into regional directorates of education to carry out the orders of the Director of Public Instruction appointed for the new province of West Pakistan. (5, p. 171.)

There were four regions in 1955 namely, Lahore, Peshawar, Hyderabad and Quetta, each headed by a director of education for the purpose of educational administration. Besides, the whole province of West Pakistan was divided into ten divisions, such as Peshawar, Dera Ismail Khan, Rawalpindi, Lahore, Bahawalpur, Khairpur, Hyderabad, Quetta, and Kalat for civil administration. These divisions, later on, also formed educational divisions for the inspectorate to assist the regional directorates of education in the matters relating to secondary education.

A major change occurred in educational administration in the Punjab after the creation of one unit. The powers and functions of the Director of Public Instruction

and the Secretary for Education were formerly combined in one individual. After the emergence of one unit, the Punjab was treated as one of the four regions for the purpose of educational administration and it was placed under a director of education with his headquarters at Lahore. The responsibility for policy making in educational matters in the new province of West Pakistan was undertaken by the Secretary who was made directly responsible to the Minister for Education, West Pakistan. The Director of Public Instruction was the chief executive for the implementation of educational policy formulated by the Government of West Pakistan. In this task of execution, the Director of Public Instruction would be assisted by the regional directors of education in their respective regions. (92, p. 70.)

To assist the Education Department of West Pakistan in carrying out its educational policies, new positions were created. The Director of Public Instruction would be assisted by the assistant directors of public instruction for primary education, secondary education, college education, training institutes, administration and establishment, and planning and development. (5, p. 172.) The administrative structure of various regional directorates of education in West Pakistan was almost uniform in organisational pattern during these years.

Supervision. The pattern of organisation of the inspectorate of the Lahore Division was adopted by the other divisions in West Pakistan. In 1955, there was an inspector of schools assisted by deputy inspectors and assistant inspectors in each division. (5, p. 185.) The inspectors of schools along with their staff were responsible for the inspection and supervision of secondary schools in their respective divisions while district inspectors of schools assisted by assistant district inspectors of schools supervised the middle schools. District inspectors of schools would also visit or inspect high schools if authorised by the regional director of education or the inspector of schools. The inspectress of schools was responsible for the supervision of secondary schools for girls.

Educational Services. The three regularly constituted cadres, as stated earlier, of the educational services in West Pakistan as existed in the previous years continued through this period. The manner of appointment and transfer of these services were also the same as before. There was no notable change in these services during the period under review.

Educational Financing

The sources of finance for secondary education during these years in West Pakistan were almost the same as in the earlier period. One trend that appeared in financing

secondary education in these years was that more reliance on private sources was being placed than on the Government. It was assumed in the First Five Year Plan that the non-government agencies will bear the larger share of the burden of financing secondary education. The Government's role will be to extend financial as well as academic help whenever necessary. (40, p. 551.) In spite of such a policy to encourage private sources to finance secondary education, the expenditure of the West Pakistan Government showed a tremendous rise from 138.2 lac rupees in 1955 to 384.4 lac rupees in 1969. The percentage of the government expenditure out of the total expenditure on secondary education in the province also increased during this period. It increased from 18 per cent in 1955 to 21 per cent in 1960. (49, p. 6.)

Educational Planning

Educational planning, as stated previously, was recognised for the first time as an integral part of the general development programme during these years. Although educational planning has been discussed in detail in the light of the First Five Year Plan in chapter IV, a short reference is necessary here. The First Five Year Plan admitted that "a programme for the improvement and expansion of education is the vital part of the national development plan." (40, p. 539.) But paradoxically, the Plan did not assign the due share of finance to education while

allocating funds to the various sectors of economic development of the nation. It rather underestimated the importance of education by saying that "education is only one of the many subjects with which the Planning Board is concerned." (40, p. 544.) As a result all the aspects and requirements of education were not taken into consideration earnestly.

The First Plan set the following objectives of secondary education through which educational planning was implemented:

1. The selective improvement of secondary education through (i) introduction and addition of technical and scientific subjects in the traditional curriculum of secondary schools and (ii) the provision of specialised staff and laboratory equipment.
2. The burden of financing secondary education should be shouldered by the non-government agencies.
3. The distribution of secondary schools should be improved so as to serve rural areas more adequately and relieve the congested areas of overcrowding in classes.

In order to achieve these objectives in West Pakistan, the First Five Year Plan proposed to upgrade forty middle schools to high schools and to construct seventy-five new

government schools in the province during the plan period. It also made a programme of sanctioning grant-in-aid to one hundred private high schools in West Pakistan and to improve five hundred middle and one hundred high schools by adding or strengthening science and industrial arts courses. (40, p. 551.)

A review of the First Five Year Plan as contained in the Second Five Year Plan of Pakistan reveals that very little was done to improve the quality of secondary education as envisaged in the First Plan. (41, p. 342.) The First Plan was still in operation when in 1958, Martial Law Administration took over power from civil administration. Soon after the new Government had taken over, the Commission on National Education was appointed in 1959 to recommend changes in the system of education to make it consonant with the new needs of the emerging society of Pakistan. The Commission on National Education submitted its report in 1960 which will be discussed in the next section. (43, p. 1.)

Although very little was accomplished in qualitative aspects, the quantitative aspects of secondary education showed considerable progress during the period under report. There were 1,517 middle schools in 1955 while within the period of about four years the number of these schools reached 1,938 in 1959. Similarly the number of high schools increased from 747 in the year 1955 to 911 in 1959. While the Lahore Region had the largest number of middle and high

schools, Quetta got the least. (95, pp. 73, 88.)

Curriculum

The need for changing the traditional pattern of the curriculum of secondary schools, which was examination-ridden and inadequate to meet the needs of the independent nation of Pakistan, had been felt all the time by persons interested in the educational development of Pakistan. The First Five Year Plan has in fact rightly stated that "secondary education has its own objectives in terms of the needs of the youth." (40, p. 549.)

In order to depart from the defective curriculum of secondary schools, the First Plan emphasised the teaching of humanities and social sciences relating to our culture and history. It was also suggested that Urdu and English should be taught scientifically, and more diversified and enriched courses should be introduced to prepare trained citizens according to the social and economic demands of the nation. (40, pp. 549-50.)

Boards of Secondary Education were established in the province to take over from the universities the responsibility for conducting examinations, preparing curriculum and according recognition to secondary schools. As these agencies had no inspecting staff to supervise the schools, they depended on the reports of the Directorate of Education for granting recognition to schools within their respective jurisdictions.

The preparation of the curriculum for classes one to eight was the responsibility of the Directorate of Education in the region while that of classes nine to ten was entrusted to the board of secondary education in the respective regions. The construction of curriculum, as mentioned in the previous pages, was not done systematically. It was only after the recommendation of the Commission on National Education that the task of preparing curriculum at the national level was taken up. During the period under review, however, no notable change took place in the curriculum of secondary schools in West Pakistan. Major changes made in curricula in the light of the Report of the Commission on National Education fell in the next period and as such elaborate discussion about those will be made in the following sections.

III. DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION DURING THE PERIOD, 1960-68

Many important changes have been introduced in educational administration in West Pakistan during this period which were chiefly based on the Report of the Commission on National Education besides reports of other commissions and committees. The Commission on National Education, as stated earlier, was appointed in December, 1958 for the purpose of reorganising and reorienting the then existing educational system. The Commission made a thorough survey of all fields of education from the primary

to the university stage and submitted its report on August 26, 1959. It suggested fundamental changes in the educational system of Pakistan. (43, p. 1.)

The Report of the Commission on National Education is considered to be a landmark in the history of educational development in Pakistan. It infused a new life and accelerated the activities in the educational sphere to achieve the cherished objectives of a national system of education. As the recommendations of the Commission on National Education with their far-reaching impact on secondary education in both the wings of Pakistan have already been discussed in chapter IV there is no need to repeat them here. However, the developments in educational administration introduced during this period will be closely examined in the following pages.

Administration

The implementation of the recommendations of the Commission on National Education was under way when a notable change occurred in the administration of the country. On March 1, 1962, the new constitution of the country was promulgated which brought about radical changes in the political life of Pakistan. It provided for provincial legislatures in both East Pakistan and West Pakistan and provincial cabinets headed by their respective governors who were appointees of the President of the country. (59, p. 41.)

One of the ministers in the cabinet was responsible for education in the province of West Pakistan. He was assisted by the Secretary for Education and two advisers of the rank of a joint secretary in conducting the business of the Department of Education in the province. (94, p. 7.)

Educational administration in West Pakistan was reorganised in the light of the suggestions of the Provincial Reorganisation Committee, West Pakistan, which submitted its report in December, 1961. The regional directorates of education were reconstituted with the creation of two new regions and two new divisions. The number of regions as educational administrative units became six and that of divisions was raised to twelve. (94, pp. 6-7.)

The Directorate of Education, Karachi was transferred along with the inspectorate from the control of the Central Government to that of the Provincial Government after 1960. (61, p. I--49.) The Lahore Region was spread over a large area and administration could not meet the needs of the people efficiently and easily. For the sake of quick and efficient administration the Lahore Region was split into two -- Lahore and Rawalpindi. Subsequently, Rawalpindi was made regional headquarters with two divisions -- Rawalpindi and Sargodha - while Lahore had three divisions - Lahore, Multan and Bahawalpur.

It was suggested by the Provincial Reorganisation Committee, West Pakistan that educational administration be

decentralised by delegating greater powers and authority to the regional directorates of education. As a result, the post of the director of public instruction was abolished and the regional directorates were made self-contained in respect of educational activities excepting technical colleges and polytechnics which were under the Directorate of Technical Education. The director of education of each region of West Pakistan was made directly responsible to the Secretary for Education for executing the educational policy in his respective region. A sufficient inspecting and other staff was given to each Directorate of Education for this purpose. (5, pp. 172-73.)

During this period, the Education Secretariate of West Pakistan was reorganised and strengthened with the addition of new offices viz., the Bureau of Education, the Bureau of Audio-Visual Aids, the Planning and Evaluation Cell, the Implementation Cell, the Welfare (Students) Cell, the Bureau of Curriculum Development, the Education Extension Centre, the Inspectorate of the Deaf and Dumb and the Directorate of Physical Education. (95, pp. 20, 21.)

All these offices were located at Lahore and functioned under the Provincial Department of Education. The Bureau of Education collected necessary data for utilising them in preparing programme for the development of education in West Pakistan. The Bureau of Audio-Visual Aids supplied teaching aids to the educational institutions. The Planning

and Evaluation Cell was meant for examining and preparing the development programmes of education in the province.

The Implementation Cell worked on the recommendations regarding the welfare of the students. The Bureau of Curriculum Development formulated curriculum and syllabuses for the secondary schools in West Pakistan, specially, upto middle classes. The Inspectorate of the Deaf and Dumb was responsible for the education of retarded children in various regions of the province.

The Directorate of Physical Education was responsible for the promotion of physical education in schools and colleges in the province. There was also one inspector of physical education in each circle to supervise the physical education activities. There were two such circles -- the northern and the southern. The headquarters of the Northern Circle was in Peshawar while that of the Southern one was in Karachi. In addition, there was an assistant director of physical education in each region to look after physical education in the region.

The general pattern and policy of administration of secondary education was almost the same as it was in the previous years. The administration and control of secondary education remained in the hands of the Government, the boards of intermediate and secondary education and district councils.

The Divisional Selection Board was constituted with the

Commissioner of the division as its chairman. The confirmation of the appointments against the posts in Provincial Educational Services class I and II made by the regional authorities were to be sought from the Government of West Pakistan through Public Service Commission. The transfer of class II education officers from one region to another was to be made very rarely and that also by the Provincial Government. The director of education could make such transfers within the same region. The transfers of officers of the Subordinate Educational Services within the same region were the sole responsibility of the director of education of the region concerned. (92, pp. 21-22.)

After 1962, there was a desirable improvement in the status of the principals/headmasters of high schools, district inspectors of schools and the principals of the training schools. Before 1962, these posts were included in the Subordinate Educational Service, although with a few exceptions, but during this period under study all posts of headmasters and district inspectors were raised to the status of West Pakistan Educational Service class II. (95, p. 24.)

Educational Financing

The sources of finance and the methods of financial administration were almost the same during this period as in the earlier years. The only change that was noticeable was the increase in the quantum of expenditures on secondary

education from the sources of the Government of West Pakistan. As stated earlier, the Government of West Pakistan took over the control of many secondary schools from the district councils, tehsil committees and private managements, which ultimately increased its expenditure.

The Government also launched a policy of generous grants to private schools to enable them to improve their standard of equipments, teaching and buildings. This grant was given on the condition of efficiency and needs of particular schools. (95, p. 87.)

During the years under report, a new scheme of development expenditures was introduced by the Government for providing physical facilities, such as construction of buildings, provision of equipments, and play grounds, etc. to the secondary schools. In 1967-68, the development expenditures of the Government of West Pakistan on secondary education were seventy-seven lac rupees out of a total of seven hundred nineteen lac rupees. (24, p. 74.)

Educational Planning

The years under study cover the whole period of Second Plan and the first three years of the Third Plan. Planning for secondary education during this period was based on the priorities and purposes of education as enunciated by the Second and Third Plans, which were chiefly derived from the recommendations of the Commission on

• National Education. The Development Planning of Education during this period was guided by the objectives already referred to in chapter IV and are recapitulated here:

1. To provide an educational system which would facilitate transition into an era of science and technology.
2. To develop the individual's character and capacity.
3. To raise the quality of education at all levels.

(42, p. 159.)

Secondary education was looked upon mainly as a terminal stage rather than a preparation for the next higher stage. It is secondary education that provides the largest number of people with requisite skills and ability to meet the multifarious needs of the changing society. It is at this stage that various efforts are necessary for the rapid introduction and development of diversified courses.

The Second Five Year Plan provided for the shifting of the intermediate classes to the secondary schools. It was also planned to improve secondary schools by introducing diversified courses and bringing their accommodations, equipments, libraries, laboratories, teachers and managements upto a reasonable standard. Ultimately these institutions will be converted into partially residential and fully comprehensive schools. It was hoped that by 1970, district headquarters would develop their high schools to this level.

For the main purpose of achieving quality education, the Third Plan laid emphasis on consolidation rather than the expansion of secondary education. (42, pp. 164-66.)

In order to achieve the objectives mentioned above, the Second Five Year Plan suggested that 160 new high schools would be opened, 103 middle schools upgraded to high schools and six hundred primary schools raised to the status of middle schools in West Pakistan. Two hundred of the nineteen hundred existing middle schools should be provided with additional accommodation and equipment. A number of government high schools was to be improved by adding eight hundred qualified teachers, six hundred and fifty classrooms and seventy art rooms. It was further planned that seventy science laboratories would be provided with modern equipment. Industrial arts, commerce and agricultural courses would be introduced in 250 middle schools and forty-five high schools were to be provided with the facilities for starting classes in these subjects. The Second Plan also proposed to establish one model school in West Pakistan on the pattern of the best residential schools in other countries. (41, p. 343.)

In the Third Plan it was suggested to open forty new comprehensive high schools in West Pakistan during the plan period with the main purpose of avoiding the problems of introducing diversified courses into the already existing

secondary schools. It was decided that out of these forty comprehensive schools, twenty-five schools would be for boys and fifteen for girls. These comprehensive schools were proposed to have departments, such as the department of languages, the department of social studies, the department of mathematics, the department of science, the department of commerce, the department of industrial arts and the department of home economics.

The chief executive of each comprehensive school was to be called headmaster and placed in the cadre of West Pakistan Educational Service class I. The heads of departments in these schools were to be designated as subject specialists in the cadre of West Pakistan Educational Service class II. Nevertheless, a number of posts in Subordinate Educational Service would be provided for these institutions. In the years under review, because of the system of generous grants started by the Government for development purposes, considerable improvements were noticed in secondary education in the province. There were 1,938 middle schools in the beginning of this period while the number went up to 2894 at the end of this period. The increase in the number of middle schools was greater in the Rawalpindi Region than in all the other regions in West Pakistan. Of all regions, Peshawar showed the least increase in this respect. The number of high schools was increased from 911 in 1959 to 1,741 in 1968. Karachi

showed greater increase in secondary schools while Quetta stood last. (95, pp. 62-63, 75.)

The period under review is marked with the overall development of secondary schools in West Pakistan. Some of the schools, which demonstrated good performances in teaching were upgraded. In this respect 1,367 primary schools were given the status of middle schools while 198 middle schools were upgraded to high schools. In addition, 182 new high schools were opened to meet increasing demands for educational facilities. (95, pp. 72, 84.) A number of secondary schools was provided with facilities necessary for enriching teaching learning activities. Workshop facilities were given to 548 middle and 108 high schools while 749 and 161 high schools were provided with new class rooms and laboratories respectively. Rooms for drawing classes were constructed for seventy three high schools during this period. Besides, new classes of science and agriculture were started in different secondary schools. While Lahore and Rawalpindi regions got the lion's share of these developments, Quetta and Karachi were given the minimum. (95, pp. 72, 84.)

In order to improve the standard of the then existing schools and to achieve the object of quality education by introducing diversified courses, the Government of West Pakistan, with the help of the Central Government, established thirty-eight pilot schools in the province.

- During the Third Plan period, it was proposed to establish comprehensive schools for introducing diversified courses, as previously stated. As a result, twenty-nine comprehensive schools were set up during these years. As compared with other regions of West Pakistan, Lahore topped the list and Hyderabad followed next in the development of such schools. (95, p. 86.)

Curriculum

The period under review, as already mentioned, is outstanding in the history of education in Pakistan. It gave a new direction and momentum to the developments in the educational system of the country. It was realised that the importance of education as a basis for the general welfare of the nation lies in the nature and extent of its curriculum at various stages. But the curriculum of secondary schools, as referred to frequently, was not in keeping with the traditions and ambitions of the people of Pakistan. It required radical improvements to meet the needs of Pakistani society.

According to the recommendation of the Commission on National Education, the Curriculum Committee was appointed on June 25, 1960 to prepare curricula for the different stages of education in Pakistan as recommended by the Commission. The Committee produced detailed syllabi for each grade -- middle, secondary and higher secondary -- which were introduced in 1961 and have since been in vogue

in all the secondary and higher secondary schools in West Pakistan with some modifications made from time to time to suit the local condition in the province. (95, p. 227.) As the curricula for middle and high schools prepared by the Curriculum Committee have already been discussed in detail in chapter IV, its repetition is, therefore, unnecessary here.

The Commission on National Education recommended the establishment of new boards of secondary education for conducting examinations of secondary schools. As a result, boards of secondary education were established, one each at Peshawar and Hyderabad, and the boards of Lahore and Karachi were reorganised. However, the nomenclature of these boards was also changed on August 17, 1961, from the board of secondary education to the board of intermediate and secondary education. (5, p. 210.)

Prior to the Report of the Commission on National Education, universities and boards had the authority to frame curricula for secondary schools in West Pakistan. Afterwards, the boards of intermediate and secondary education were exclusively made responsible for the job of framing curriculum of secondary schools.

After 1960, some desirable changes were noticed in the procedures and policy of curriculum framing in West Pakistan. The Commission on National Education recommended that a specialised body should be formed for reviewing and

reorienting the curriculum from time to time as a continuing process to make it consistent with the changing needs of the nation. The Government of West Pakistan established a separate office known as the Bureau of Curriculum Development for this very purpose, as referred to previously. The Bureau of Curriculum Development conducted a critical survey of the curricula of all classes from the primary to the intermediate and recommended amendments and improvements to the appropriate agencies responsible for the formulation of curriculum. In this way the process of reorienting the curriculum was carried on through the collaboration of different bodies.

The curriculum for classes one through eight was formulated and amended or improved by the Bureau of Curriculum Development, while the same responsibility for classes nine to twelve was shouldered by the boards of intermediate and secondary education of the regions concerned. Every board had its academic committee and subject committees consisting mostly of university and college teachers for constructing new curriculum or making amendments in the old one. (95, p. 228.)

The introduction of the new curriculum in the secondary schools since 1961 has changed the old pattern of middle schools in West Pakistan. Before 1961, there were Anglo-vernacular and vernacular schools in West Pakistan. Since 1961, this classification had disappeared and English

was made a compulsory subject of study in all the middle schools of West Pakistan. (95, p. 69.)

The improvement and reorientation of the curriculum called for revising the old system of preparing books. Before 1960, various publishers used to publish books for different subjects as prescribed by the board of intermediate and secondary education or the Department of Education. These books were costly and a desirable standard was not maintained by the publishers.

In order to do away with such anomaly, the Government of West Pakistan established an autonomous board called the Text-Book Board, West Pakistan in 1963 as contained in the recommendations of the Commission on National Education. The Board published and supplied books on various courses and subjects to the educational institutions working under the regional directorates of education and boards of intermediate and secondary education. The Text-Book Board conducted courses for publishers and researchers pertaining to the preparations of books and other materials for secondary schools. (95, pp. 229-30.)

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the available relevant sources of information and prepare a comprehensive report on the development of educational administration in East Pakistan and West Pakistan since independence.

The pattern of administration is moulded by the social, economic and political forces operating in the life of a nation. This study, therefore, started with a short account of the social, economic and political aspects of East Pakistan and West Pakistan as a necessary background for properly understanding the developments in educational administration in each wing of the country.

Educational administration installed in the Indo-Pak Sub-Continent about a century back by the British rulers came to Pakistan as a legacy from them. The trends of development in educational administration in Pakistan cannot, therefore, be understood properly without having a background knowledge of its development during the British period. Hence, the next chapter began with an account of the development of educational administration in those

- regions of British India which now constitute Pakistan.

Chapters IV and V dealt with the development of the administration of secondary education in East Pakistan and West Pakistan respectively. The account of the development of educational administration was limited to only specific areas, such as administration, educational financing, educational planning and curriculum.

FINDINGS

The following are some of the significant facts and trends indicated by the findings of the study:

1. During the period, 1947-68, the control and administration of secondary education in East Pakistan was the joint responsibility of the Government, managing committees and boards while in West Pakistan the same responsibility was shared by the Government, local bodies and universities till 1955 and thereafter universities were replaced by boards.
2. At independence, the Director of Public Instruction as the executive head of the Department of Education was responsible to the Secretary for Education in the provinces of Pakistan excepting the Punjab, where the Director of Public Instruction was also the ex-officio Secretary to the Government.
3. After independence, it was felt that the then existing system of education as a whole and its administration were incapable of meeting the

social, economic and political needs and traditions of the emerging society of Pakistan. The curriculum of secondary schools was college preparatory and without any practical bias. Reorganisation of the educational system in accordance with the aspirations and needs of the independent people of Pakistan was a popular demand in the country.

4. The first attempt in this regard was made at the national level. The Central Minister for Education convened the first Educational Conference in November, 1947 to review the system of education in the country in the light of the socio-economic and political needs and conditions of the people. The Conference laid stress on the religious as well as on the secular aspects of education. It emphasised the teaching of fundamentals of religion to each and every student along with the teaching of vocational courses.
5. As education was a provincial subject, the Government of East Bengal appointed the "East Bengal Educational System Reconstruction Committee" to suggest measures for the implementation of the recommendations of the Conference of 1947. The Committee dealt with administration, curriculum and other aspects of secondary education and submitted its report to the Government in June, 1951.

Although the recommendations of this Committee could not be implemented fully because of political instability and poor economic conditions of the Government, the following are some of the changes introduced at the secondary stage:

1. Class five was shifted from the secondary to the primary stage.
2. Some of the middle schools were upgraded to junior high schools.
3. English was dropped from classes three and four of high and middle schools.
4. Urdu was made a compulsory subject upto class eight and optional thereafter.
5. The history of Islam replaced that of England in secondary schools.
6. The concept of education as a vital national investment was accepted and educational planning was integrated with the general development programme of the country in the First Five Year Plan, 1955-60.
7. During the period, 1955-60, many remarkable changes took place in all the spheres of national life in the country. In October, 1955, the province of West Pakistan was created by merging the old provinces, states and centrally ruled areas of the people in the province. The

Commission submitted its comprehensive report regarding secondary education in the province. The recommendations could not, however, be implemented owing to unfavourable political and economic conditions in the province.

9. In 1958, martial law was proclaimed in the country. The military regime accorded due priority to the system of education by appointing the "Commission on National Education" in 1959. The Commission was assigned the task of reviewing the educational system in the country and to gear it to the socio-economic and political needs and aspirations of the independent emerging society of Pakistan.
10. The Commission dealt with almost all aspects of education and submitted its historic report in 1960, which was accepted by the Government of Pakistan. The Commission based its recommendation for secondary education on the following principles:
 1. Secondary education should be recognised as a stage complete in itself and should be demarcated from university education in respect of objectives and methods of teaching.

2. Secondary education caters for pupils of diverse talents and interests. It should provide for diversified courses to suit the aptitudes of different students.
 3. It should emphasise preserving the Islamic values and creating love for the country in the minds of pupils.
 4. It should lay emphasis on building up the character of students.
11. During the period, 1960-68, most of the important recommendations of the Commission were implemented in East Pakistan and West Pakistan simultaneously. In the field of secondary education, quality education through the introduction of diversified courses was stressed by taking the following measures:
1. Improving the existing secondary schools.
 2. Opening comprehensive, residential and multipurpose schools.
 3. Provincialisation of some of the high schools at district headquarters.
12. The new curriculum with sufficient provision for diversified courses was introduced in 1961 in all the secondary schools of East Pakistan and West Pakistan and the boards of intermediate and secondary education were established in

both the wings for conducting examinations in these schools under the new curriculum.

13. In East Pakistan, during the period, 1960-68, craft courses were introduced in five hundred junior high schools. Diversified courses were introduced in 833 high schools while fifteen new government high schools were established in addition to the twenty-one pilot schools which were also set up for the introduction of diversified courses. Besides, six residential schools were in the process of completion. Ten girls' high schools were provincialised in those districts where there was no government high school for girls.
14. In West Pakistan, during the same period, 1960-68, a number of secondary schools was provided with facilities essential for better teaching learning activities. Workshop facilities were given to 548 middle and 108 high schools while 749 and 161 high schools were provided with new classrooms and laboratories respectively. Some secondary schools were given the facilities of opening science and agriculture classes. In addition to other new government high schools, thirty-eight pilot schools and twenty-nine comprehensive schools were set up for the rapid introduction of diversified courses.

15. In 1962-63, for the purpose of decentralisation, the overall administration of all the provincial departments in East Pakistan and West Pakistan was reorganised. In the wake of reforms in the general administration, the Department of Education in both the wings was also reorganised in the same year.

East Pakistan was divided into four divisions for civil administration. For educational administration, four deputy directors of public instruction were appointed one in each division. The deputy director of public instruction was delegated more power and authority to deal with secondary education in his respective division. As a consequence, the Director of Public Instruction at the provincial headquarters became free to devote more time to planning and co-ordinating educational programmes throughout the province.

In West Pakistan, a major change was effected in the organisation of the administration of secondary education. The post of the director of public instruction was abolished and the regional directorates of education, which were increased in number from four to six, were made self-sufficient units of educational administration.

These directorates of education were provided with adequate inspecting staff in each division to help the director of education in discharging his official duties. The directors of education were brought directly under the control of the Secretariate, which was also enlarged with the addition of new posts and offices. Two new posts of advisers one each for general and technical education were created. A number of new offices, such as the Bureau of Education, the Directorate of Physical Education, the Inspectorate of the Deaf and Dumb, Planning and Evaluation Cell and Bureau of Curriculum Development, etc. was attached to the Secretariate to help it in different fields of education in the province.

16. During the period, 1947-68, the total expenditure of the two governments on secondary education increased in absolute terms but as a percentage of the total budget it registered a decrease in both the provinces. Moreover, the development expenditure of the Government increased many times during the period, 1956-68. It rose from seven lac rupees in 1956 to 349 lac rupees in 1968 in East Pakistan while in West Pakistan it was forty-six lac rupees in 1956

and increased to seventy-seven lac rupees in 1968.

17. In West Pakistan, a special office called the Bureau of Curriculum Development was set up to evaluate and make necessary amendments of the curriculum of secondary schools.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are drawn from the findings of the study:

1. Administration of secondary education in East Pakistan, excepting the creation of the posts of deputy director of public instruction at divisional level, was almost a continuation of the administrative pattern developed by the British rulers during about two centuries of their rule in India. In West Pakistan, on the other hand, the post of the director of public instruction was abolished and regional directorates of education were established as self-contained units of educational administration. A full-fledged inspectorate, under the directorate of education, was set up in each division to help the director of education in the supervision and administration of secondary education in the division. Thus reorganised the structure of educational administration in West

Pakistan became markedly different from its counterpart in the other wing.

2. Though education was a provincial subject, the Central Government did not abdicate all its educational functions. It helped and coordinated the educational activities in the provinces.
3. In East Pakistan, with the creation of new posts of deputy director of public instruction at the divisional level, the inspector of schools lost most of his administrative powers. In West Pakistan, on the other hand, the inspector of schools enjoyed a better position than his counterpart in the other wing.
4. The provincial governments in both the wings made generous grants to the non-government agencies to encourage them to take initiative in the development of education. At the same time, they also started a scheme of provincialisation of some high schools to raise the standard of education. As a result, the expenditure of the Government on secondary education in East Pakistan and West Pakistan increased considerably. But the development of only physical facilities to the neglect of teachers' welfare did not contribute much to the achievement of the goal of quality in education.

5. The Governments of East Pakistan and West Pakistan had planned to provide education complete in itself at the secondary stage, and for this purpose diversified curriculum was being introduced in the newly established model schools and also in the old ones, which were improved to facilitate the introduction of diversified courses in both the wings of the country.

RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are made for further development of administration of secondary education in the country:

1. Secondary school administration should be decentralised to the district level and representative district school authorities with full autonomy should be set up to administer and control secondary education within their respective jurisdictions. Such authorities should be provided with sufficient staff for the supervision of secondary education in the district.
2. The Department of Education in each province should be placed under a professionally trained educational administrator designated as the director-general of education. The Directorate

of Public Instruction in East Pakistan should be merged with the Department of Education.

3. The artificial distinction of development expenditure and non-development expenditure should go. All expenditures on teachers' salaries or school equipment and building should be drawn from one head of account.
4. For the purpose of achieving quality in education through the rapid and effective introduction of a diversified curriculum more comprehensive and multi-purpose schools should be opened and geographically so distributed that equal educational opportunities are provided to all students according to their aptitudes and interests.
5. This study should be made available to educational administrators, teachers and to all who are interested in the improvement of administration of secondary education in Pakistan.

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