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A PROPOSED RURAL EDUCATION PROGRAM  
FOR THE RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS  
OF WEST PAKISTAN

BY

NISAR AHMAD

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RURAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

PAKISTAN

N. Ahmad

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Nisar

## ABSTRACT

After the independence in 1947, Pakistan dedicated herself to democracy. Democracy demands the provision of adequate education opportunities for all people according to their abilities and aptitudes. Such a provision is not only a matter of obligation; it is far more the privilege of the society. It cuts across the economic barriers, the family pattern, a particular community or an area. It demands also the development of all the areas of human learning, maybe the approach would differ according to the needs and resources available in a given environment. Since the rural and urban population form limbs of a body - the Pakistani nationhood -, it is essential that both the environments are sufficiently developed. The schools, then, being the most important agencies in building character, can serve a very useful purpose.

In keeping with this democratic spirit the present study suggests a program for the rural primary schools of West Pakistan. Since the education of the young in any society takes its purposes, objectives and means from the culture, its morals, values and customs, it is imperative to adapt the rural educational practices so as to find roots in the rural needs and problems. In West Pakistan such needs and problems are numerous. The low standard of living, sanitary and health problems, lack of transportation facilities, and above all insufficient educational opportunities are some of them.

Tracing at length the major reasons of neglect of rural areas in the past, the development of primary education in both rural and urban sections has been described, pointing out vividly the disparity in educational provisions in both cases. The present primary school

curriculum has been analysed in view of the criticism and reports of the teachers and parents. Well conceived and rich in useful activities as it is, it needs, however, to be based on the home interests and farm activities. It is proposed that elementary agriculture, domestic science and manual training form the core or foundation, whereas other subjects may be duly ruralized. It is advised that the unit and projects methods of teaching and community welfare projects be taken into account. The teachers need adequate training, both pre-service and in-service, and they need to study more the rural subjects and conduct practical projects of community development.

To bring the rural school close to the society, suggestions for adult education, library and games service and community welfare projects by the schools are recommended. Constant evaluation through periodical meetings of the educators, the experts and parents is another essential of the program.

In conclusion, it is hoped that the implementation of the said projects will be of help to the rural children and the general public towards a richer and more prosperous life.

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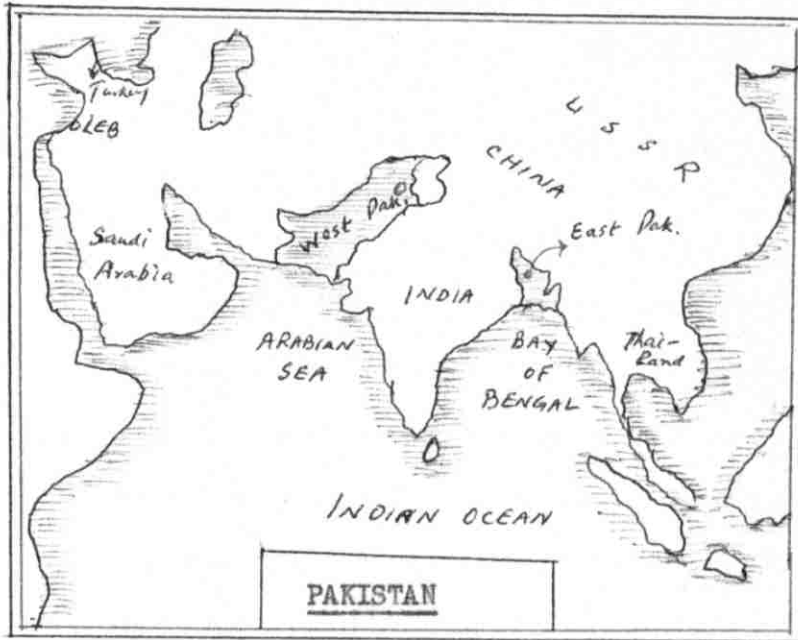
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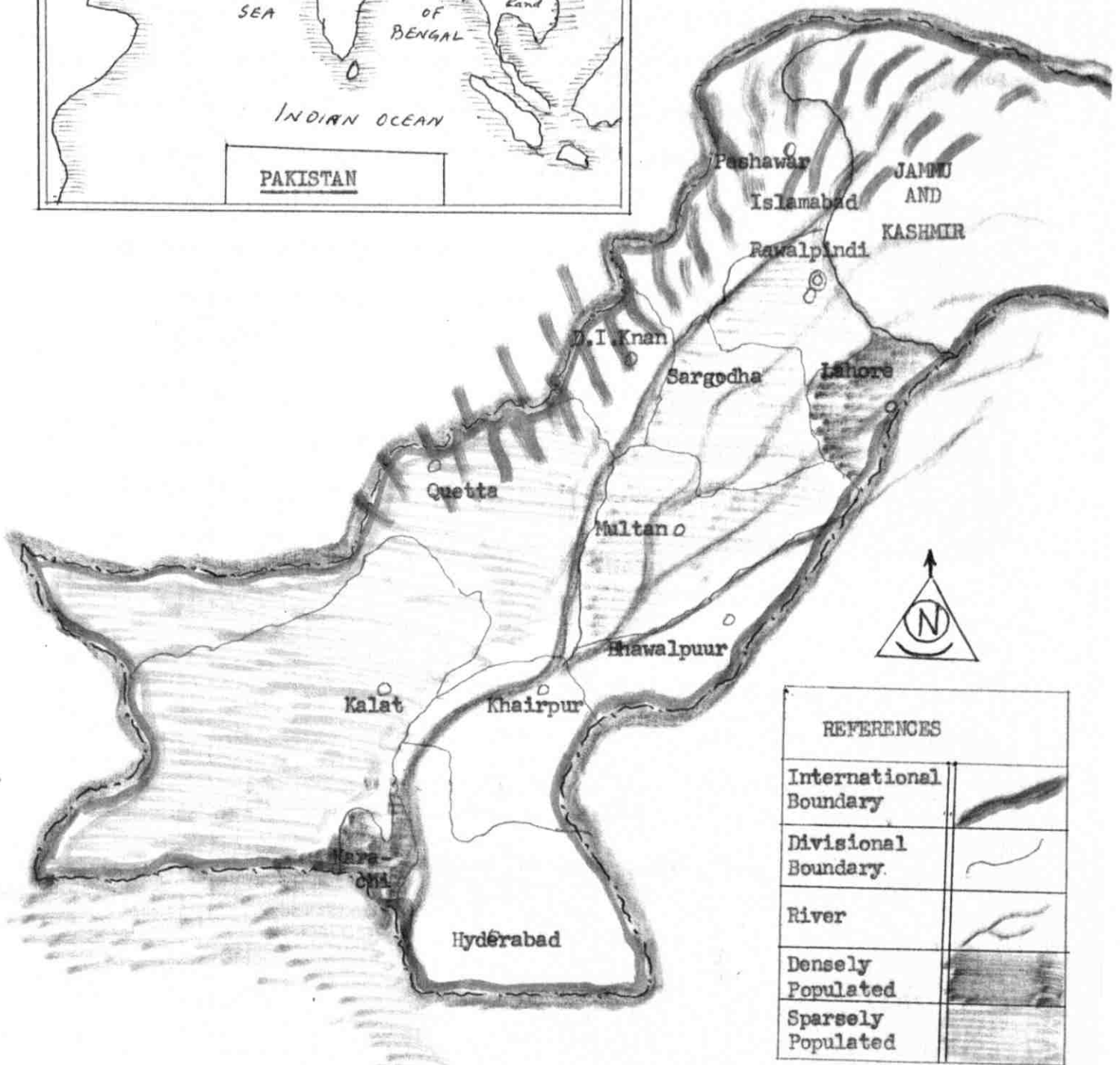
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WEST PAKISTAN



## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Pakistan came into being as an independent State on 14th August, 1947, as a result of persistent demand and a long struggle of the Indian Muslims towards achieving a separate homeland. Pakistan, at the time of independence, was an underdeveloped area even relative to some other Asian countries. The people were living merely on subsistence economy. Agricultural methods were for the most part primitive. Industry was almost non-existent. The social services, education, health, housing and welfare were limited in quality and quantity. The conditions prevailing in the villages presented a still more gloomy picture. Despite various obstacles and upheavals after the independence, this new nation started building the pyramid towards progress. As a result of that the Government of Pakistan created a special organization - the Village Agricultural and Industrial Development (Village AID) - which could work effectively for rural welfare by bringing together the services of various departments like education, health, food, agriculture, public works and animal husbandry.<sup>1</sup>

The stated spirit of national solidarity, unfortunately slowed down till the peaceful revolution of 1958 took place. The speed of progress in all spheres of life again got accelerated. The rural areas were paid

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<sup>1</sup>The First Five Year Plan - 1955-60, Karachi, Government of Pakistan, National Planning Board, 1957, p. 4.

special attention in order to place them on equal rights with other parts of the country. This time, the attack was through a series of reforms. The system of Basic Democracies which incorporated the Village AID Organization was the first step to provide a basis for the political and economic pyramid which could find roots among the people at the village level.<sup>2</sup> The other reforms included Land Reforms, Education Reforms and Land Consolidations which also had a very direct bearing on the development of rural life.

Those reforms have already taken roots. Educational statistics reveal an increase of nearly 141 per cent in primary schools in 1961 as compared to the figures in 1949,<sup>3</sup> whereas less than half of these schools are meant for the rural people,<sup>4</sup> who in fact form 77.5 per cent of the whole population.<sup>5</sup> One important reason for this is the lack of coordinated efforts on the part of the national building departments which keep the villages in this condition. Again, the primary school has several problems that call for the reform. The new curriculum and courses of study for the primary schools,<sup>6</sup> although well conceived, do not provide

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<sup>2</sup>Dawn of a New Era: Basic Democracies in Pakistan, Karachi, The Bureau of National Reconstruction, n.d., p. 61.

<sup>3</sup>Educational Statistics for West Pakistan - 1960-61, Lahore, West Pakistan Bureau of Education, 1962, pp. 4-5.

<sup>4</sup>Out of a total number of 48,084 primary schools only 23,164 were in rural areas. (Vide advance statistics taken personally by the writer from the Bureau of Education, Lahore on 21 September, 1963).

<sup>5</sup>Pakistan Census Bulletin No. 2, Karachi, Census Commissioner, Government of Pakistan, 1961, p. 14.

<sup>6</sup>Curriculum and Courses of Study for Primary Schools in West Pakistan, Karachi, Ministry of Education, 1960.

ample chances for the teachers to adapt instruction according to the rural needs and interests. The uniformity of the text books in the whole of West Pakistan, the departmentalization and the undemocratic techniques of school inspection, are some of the evidences of the low level of primary schooling in the rural areas. The provision of well trained teachers, the modern equipment and a flexible school organization are at a very low ebb.

In this study endeavors have been made to evolve rural education program for the rural primary schools in West Pakistan. The present characteristics of the rural areas and the present system of rural education in West Pakistan have been analysed. This is deemed fit because the school forms part of the community and reflects its values and characteristics. It has been shown that the rural areas are much lacking even in the basic amenities. Their problems are of long standing and need to be eradicated. The sanitary and health problems, the communication difficulties, low standard of living, high birth rates and lack of sufficient educational opportunities are some of them. The parents are mostly illiterate, especially the women,<sup>7</sup> and they care little about their children.

To bring the school close to the society and involve the rural people in the school affairs, it is suggested that the curriculum be founded round home and farm activities. Undertaking the community welfare projects in the form of community health projects, cleaning and plantation schemes are some of the useful activities which both teachers and

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<sup>7</sup>Literacy percentage of females in rural West Pakistan is only 3.2 (See Pakistan Census Bulletin No. 4, Karachi, Census Commissioner, Government of Pakistan, 1961, p. vii.)

the children can perform. Similarly cooperation of the parents, welfare organizations and the research bureaus of the teachers' associations are suggested to be sought for enriching the curriculum and adapting it to the persistent needs and problems of the community. Through cooperation and coordination, it is hoped, the constant evaluation of the programs will also be carried out.

In the same manner provision of out of school services like the library service, community welfare league, young farmers' club, Chand Tara or 4-H clubs were proposed in order that the schools truly assume the central place in the communities they are placed in. Some modern teaching techniques such as unit method, the project method, group work and dramatic play have been suggested. It is shown that the method and the curriculum are not separate, rather they go along for the development of the child's personality.

The teachers' place in the execution of the proposed program of rural education has specifically been emphasized. It is suggested that the rural teachers must be carefully selected. They must get pre-service and in-service training. Pre-service training must also include at least two projects of community development. The study of Basic Democracies, rural sociology, rural crafts have been proposed for inclusion in the teachers' training curriculum. In-service training is aimed at to keep abreast the trained teachers with the latest rural education practices and to give chance to untrained teachers to be aware of the methods and principles. In a number of places in this thesis the importance of the suggested projects are supported by more or less similar examples from other countries, especially from the United States and Denmark.



The methods used in this study are mainly analytical and critical. Comparative studies of various rural school practices in other countries have also been made. Similarly some historical facts leading to development of education in the Indo Pakistan subcontinent have been utilized.

In order to ascertain the philosophies of education of the rural teachers and their practices with regard to the curriculum, informal interviews were held in Pakistan during summer of 1963. The questions were so designed as to elicit from them the true picture in the rural schools. It came to light that the teachers are aware of their role in the development of the nation, but since the courses of study are believed to be overcrowded and the inspectors demand covering them in time, the teachers are obliged to obey that. They also believe in new teaching techniques, but due to lack of resources they cannot adopt them. Similarly some rural parents were interviewed. It was revealed from their responses that the good teachers work hard (in this sense, preparing the child for academic battle in the examination), whereas some others do not realize their responsibilities. On the whole, the literate parents seem to be more interested in school affairs than the illiterates. Most of them, however, were willing to help in the development of the school programs.

Besides, extensive survey of official reports, documents, pamphlets and government publications on education and rural development in Pakistan, particularly in the western wing, has been conducted. The function of the former Village AID Organization and the present functions of the Basic Democracies in the rural areas were studied. It was known that the various departments working for rural welfare employ their efforts quite in an

individual capacity. There is as such sufficient lack of coordination in the programs. Relevant statistics pertaining to primary education were also obtained from the West Pakistan Bureau of Education, Lahore. These statistics reveal the disparity in educational facilities between the rural and urban areas.

The writer's personal experiences as student in a model school<sup>8</sup> were of immense help in this study. The provision of school gardening, elementary agriculture, rural crafts, co-curricular activities such as dramas, debates, school magazines/<sup>and</sup> scouting were some of the activities which would go hand in hand with the book learnings. The experiences gained in book-binding, calico printing, ink making and elementary gardening are still the part of the writer's life. In the same manner the useful practical experiences gained for the first time in the form of unit method of teaching in another situation were of a very great help. It was last year when during a course on Elementary Education given by Professor J. Soghikian of A.U.B. our class practically participated in all sorts of activities in the unit named "The Phoenicians" for children of 5th elementary at the International College, A.U.B. Under the expert guidance of the said Professor we went with children to various historical places in Lebanon. We watched the children actively participating in the execution of the unit in the form of creative writings for the school magazine, making Phoenician ships and also culminating the activities in

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<sup>8</sup>D.B. Model Middle School, Bhagowal, District Gujrab, West Pakistan.

the unit with a dramatic play. Such an activity program is badly needed in the rural primary schools of West Pakistan.

The writer is well aware of the vastness of the field under investigation. However, the study is restricted to the rural primary schools of West Pakistan only. Regional varifications have specially been considered while proposing the rural education program for such schools. The proposals are designed to entail maximum results with minimum economic resources. The problem of East Pakistan is not touched specifically unless it is quite imperative to do so for comparing the educational opportunities in both wings of Pakistan or showing the difference of literacy percentage. It is hoped that the study will serve as a useful guide for similar studies in rural education programs in the rural schools of East Pakistan.

## CHAPTER II

### DESCRIPTION OF CHARACTERISTICS AND NEEDS OF THE RURAL AREAS OF WEST PAKISTAN

The educational system of a country is an agent for the transmission of culture. The culture includes all those ideas, ideals, and institutions that are a concrete embodiment of the life of society. It includes the beliefs, folkways, mores and manners, as well as the social and economical institutions. This cultural pattern of a people is, however, modifiable as environmental conditions create a ferment of new ideas and new modes of behavior and thoughts.

Rural education, its goals and problems can be fully understood in the light of the principal social and economic conditions of the society of which it is a part. Hence special attention is paid to some of the major trends in rural life of west Pakistan that are associated with changes in rural education.

#### Physical Features of West Pakistan.

Area and Population: Sprawling over 310,403 square miles - 85 per cent of the total area of Pakistan - West Pakistan lies between 60° to 75° east and 20° to 37° north. West Pakistan nearly trebled its population from 16.6 millions in 1901 to 42.9 millions in 1961 (See Table I).

The annual increase of population is estimated to be 2.4 per cent as compared to 1.7<sup>1</sup> per cent world total increase.<sup>2</sup> The population

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<sup>1</sup>Agriculture in West Pakistan - Some Facts and Figures, Lahore, West Pakistan Agriculture Department, 1962, p. i.

<sup>2</sup>Economic Survey of Pakistan 1962-63, Rawalpindi, Ministry of Finance, 1963, p. 2.

TABLE I  
POPULATION ANALYSIS OF PAKISTAN FROM 1901 TO 1961

Year	Total Population (In Million)		Rural Population (Percentage Distribution)			Density per Sq. Mile in West Pakistan	
	Pakistan	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Pakistan	East Pakistan		West Pakistan
1901	45.5	28.9	16.6	94.9	n.a.	n.a.	53 persons
1911	50.9	31.5	19.4	95.1	n.a.	n.a.	62 "
1921	54.4	33.3	21.1	94.6	n.a.	n.a.	68 "
1931	59.2	35.6	23.6	93.5	n.a.	n.a.	76 "
1941	70.3	42.0	28.3	92.1	n.a.	n.a.	91 "
1951	75.8	42.1	33.7	89.6	95.6	82.2	108 "
1961	93.8	50.9	42.9	86.9	94.8	77.5	138 "

Compiled from "Census Bulletin No. 2"  
"Pakistan Census 1961," Karachi, Census Commission, 1962,  
pp. 7-14.

per square mile varies with natural and other conditions and ranges between 7 per square mile in the arid Kalat Division to 724 in fertile Lahore Division. The urban population in the whole of West Pakistan, according to 1961 census, is about 23.5 per cent. Muslims form 97% of the total population. The remaining 3 per cent comprise of the Christians, Hindus and some Parsees. They and their families had lived there for hundreds of years. In Pakistan they hold their land and carry on their daily work. They are treated as equals and fellow country men.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup>Rafiq M. Khan and Herbert S. Stark, Young Pakistan, London, Oxford University Press, 1951, p. 25.

Landscape and Irrigation: The landscape of the Province of West Pakistan varies from the snow covered peaks of the Himalyas in the north to the arid deserts in the south and southwest. The valleys of the foothills are, however, full of orchards while the ravineplains of the former Punjab area are wide expanse of golden wheat.

The naturally well-spaced five rivers (Indus, Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi and Sutlej), which almost all flow through the disputed State of Jammu and Kashmir, have been harnessed to give the World's largest system of artificial irrigation in the form of a network of canals. These canals mainly irrigate the former Panjab, Bahawalpur and Sind areas.

Rainfall and Climate: Unlike East Pakistan which has an average of 70" to 400" monsoon rains, in West Pakistan the annual rainfall ranges from 4" in the south to about 40" in the north. The climate in the north western parts is mild whereas it is extreme in the plains. There are four well defined seasons: Summer, Autumn, Winter and Spring. Rainfall occurs mostly in the later half of Summer.

#### People of Pakistan.

Origin: The majority of the people inhabiting West Pakistan are Aryans by race and origin. Lying at the eastern foot of the Irano-Afghan plateau, the province has been described as the 'ancient meeting ground of cultures and commerce'. The Greeks, the Arabs, the Turks, the Mughols and others were attracted by its fertile lands, beautiful green valleys and its prospering trade and commerce. They invaded the sub-continent through Khyber Pass and settled there. Today all of them live peacefully and happily. Since 14th October 1955, when the various provincial and

State units were integrated to form the Province of West Pakistan into "One Unit", they all became administratively and politically one, and at present are unitedly making concerted efforts to bring social and economic prosperity to the whole of West Pakistan.

Life and Work: Life and work in West Pakistan is as varied as could be found. Some West Pakistanis live under conditions of great hardship where the struggle for existence wears out the years. A few others live as nomads. Some live as do most of the middle class people of the West, while others live in luxury, irrespective of whether it is the lingering glory of a feudal past created by the colonial powers, or opulence made possible by the recent industrialization of West Pakistan. The majority of West Pakistanis, however, live on "in between" standard.

West Pakistanis have a strong sense of nationalism and have a virile pride in Pakistan. They are patriotic, self-reliant and hard-working. They place God and Pakistan above every thing else and are devout Muslims who eschew loose thinking and narrow minded bigotry. Some of them are fond of idleness when circumstances permit, especially when the harvesting season is over. But they are neither lazy nor lethargic. There is a growing sense of community development among the people on a limited basis. This sense is visibly extending itself in a practical as well as in an ideological manner.

The Family: The family is also of great importance and is taken as including marriage relatives to whom individuals feel very closely bound. Love of children is another general characteristic.

The West Pakistanis like to keep their traditions alive. On festive occasions decorative costumes are generally worn by the people

especially the females. The educated males and middle class workers generally wear western style clothes but no Pakistani women, no matter how educated she might be, ever wears European dress. It is considered that female dresses in West Pakistan (Shalwar, Kameez and D'opatta) are ideally suited to enhance the feminine charm.

Languages, Art and Literature: Urdu, one of the national languages of Pakistan,<sup>4</sup> is widely used and spoken in West Pakistan. Other regional languages and dialects used in West Pakistan are Baluchi, Punjabi, Pushto and Sindhi which are also written in substantially the same script like Arabic. Since Sufis<sup>5</sup> had a dominating influence in the area, the regional languages show remarkable unity of thought, ideology and atmosphere in the form of poetry and prose. Mohammad Iqbal, Hali and Shah Latif's writings are a source of inspiration for the Pakistanis.

The roots of West Pakistan's culture can be traced into Indus Valley civilization of 2500-1500 B.C. The literature, art, architecture and painting of old excavated cities of Mohanjo Daro and Harappa display an underlying unity born out of a common cultural heritage. In poetry there is an international basis and essential continuity of Muslim cultural tradition. Allama Dr. Sir Muhammad Iqbal is universally recognized as the

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<sup>4</sup>The other official language of Pakistan is Bengali.

<sup>5</sup>Sufis constitute the spiritual element in Islam who base their idea on -

"He prayeth best who loveth best  
All things both great and small."

The Sufi influence came in Indo Pakistan Sub-Continent with the advent of Islam. The mystic, Mansoor al -Hallaj (309 AH), suffered martyrdom for declaring "I am the reality." Inspired by Maulana Rumi and other mystic poets, the allegories of the Sufi poetry are extensively found in West Pakistan in the form of love tales. See The Inoo Asian Culture, Vol. VII, No. 2, October 1958, Delhi, pp. 140-145.



great poet and prophet of the nation who appeared to foresee the idea of Pakistan. The word "Pakistan" was coined by a young Muslim, Choudhri Rahmat Ali, in 1933 at Cambridge. It means the land of the Paks, the spiritually pure and clean.<sup>6</sup>

#### Main Characteristics and Needs of Rural West Pakistan.

Prior to the independence of Pakistan in 1947 a series of reforms were introduced with the purpose of training the natives to manage their own affairs. But the pattern of administration continued to be basically colonial with an emphasis on law and order, and revenue. With a view to fulfilling an urgent need of making administration indigenous in character and responsive to the aspirations of the people and the environments, the idea of Basic Democracies was introduced in October 1959, by the present Revolutionary Government.<sup>7</sup> This idea provides the base on which a pyramid of a sound political and socio-economic system is to develop by stretching deep roots into rural communities at the village levels and the mohallah levels in the towns. The major functions of the Basic Democracies are: (1) fostering leadership in people; (2) developing local areas utilizing local efforts and resources; (3) serving as check on arbitrary exercise of authorities; (4) decentralizing the administration and coordinating it; (5) providing municipal services to the people through responsible local Government Institutions.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>6</sup>The pamphlet containing Pakistan's name was entitled "Now or Never". See Ian Stephens, Pakistan, London, Ernest Benn Limited, 1963, p. 75 & f.m.

<sup>7</sup>Annual Report on Basic Democracies in West Pakistan, Lahore, Government Press, 1960, p. 1.

<sup>8</sup>West Pakistan Year Book, 1962, Lahore, West Pakistan Government Press, 1962, p. 15.

The province of West Pakistan is divided into 12 divisions.

Each division consists of several districts and each district has three to five tehsils (a part of the district) or sub-tehsils. Each tehsil comprises a number of union councils and each union council has a handful of villages. This division is based on geographical but more on political and administrative convenience, and for speedy rural development programs. (See Chart II).

#### The Village.

An average village consists of nearly a hundred houses, more than half of which are headed by peasant farmers, having an average holdings of 9.8 acres of total area and 6.8 acres cultivated area.<sup>9</sup> In the majority of cases a village community can be divided broadly into six functional groups: (1) Owners of land and those who have a heritable occupancy interest in it; (2) tenants at will; (3) village servants and labourers, sometimes called kammis; (4) village artisans; (5) money-lenders and shopkeepers; (6) those who depend on religion.<sup>10</sup>

The above distribution which was common prior to Land Reforms in West Pakistan is not altogether rigid and the categories are not mutually exclusive. Thus caste, tradition and economy necessity have brought about a vast amount of interdependence in village life, because the land-owners, artisans and village servants are indispensable to one another.

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<sup>9</sup> Agriculture in West Pakistan, op.cit., p. 3.

<sup>10</sup> Tarlok Suigh, Poverty and Social Change, Calcutta, Longmans, Greene and Co., 1945, p. 22.

Chart II

A STRUCTURAL CHART OF  
BASIC DEMOCRACIES  
(WEST PAKISTAN)

PROVINCIAL  
DEVELOPMENT ADVISORY COUNCIL

CHAIRMAN: GOVERNOR (EX-OFFICIO)

This Council consists of 24 official and 24 non-official members. The former category includes Chairmen of Divisional Councils and Representatives of National Building Departments.

DIVISIONAL COUNCILS

CHAIRMAN: COMMISSIONER (EX-OFFICIO)

This Council consists of chairmen of all District Councils and representatives of National Building Departments.

DISTRICT COUNCILS

CHAIRMAN: CONTROLLER (EX-OFFICIO)

This Council is composed of chairmen of Tehsil Councils and representatives of National Building Departments.

TEHSIL COUNCILS

CHAIRMAN: TEHSIL OFFICER (EX-OFFICIO)

This Council consists of all chairmen of Union Councils and Town Committees plus a number of officials of National Building Departments.

UNION COUNCILS  
UNION/TOWN COMMITTEES

CHAIRMAN: ELECTED BY COUNCILS AMONG ITS MEMBERS

This body consists of representatives of the people elected on basis of adult franchise and non-official appointed members.

The villagers are closely tied together in economic and social aspects and they are quite dependent on one another. They form domestic groups and are mostly left to manage their village affairs by themselves. Their disputes, which are often about field boundaries, water damage to crops, cattle lifting or thefts are settled by union councils formerly known as Panchayats. There is generally a headman in each village who holds his 'court' or Pindal to settle the disputes. He is always an influential person. In rare cases, and that too with very illiterate and stubborn people, the cases go to the district courts and the parties suffer a lot both mentally and economically and often this circle of 'attacking through courts and police' goes on. The educated persons and old headmen, however, come in for rescue and there is permanent reconciliation.

The peculiar feature of this type of community is that it has lasted many hundred years in some form or other. The indigenous socio-economic organization in the village has, therefore, three important characteristics. They are:

a) Mutual dependence among all groups. This inter-dependence gives rise to a closed type of economy and the closedness is associated with a great amount of instability in economy.

b) Forces of customs in regulating the social and economic activities of the people. This situation helps in the continuation of barter and subsistence economy.

c) The prevalence of low standard of living.

#### Agricultural Problems.

Around the turn of the century Pakistan was mainly a rural country. Although by 1961 she had emerged as semi-industrial country especially in the western wing, still Pakistan is a long way in becoming a country of

manufacture.<sup>11</sup> Most people in the rural areas are much more dependent on agriculture and on some rural crafts and small industries. This is evident from the fact that about 75% of the people get their livelihood from agriculture<sup>12</sup> as against 4 per cent in Great Britain (1933), 13.1 per cent in U.S.A. (1956), 15 per cent in Western Germany (1950) and 25 per cent in France.<sup>13</sup>

The agricultural economy of West Pakistan, nevertheless, is cherished by a low level of production. The total sown area in 1955 was 14 per cent of the whole area of West Pakistan.<sup>14</sup> It has gone up to only 15.8 per cent in 1962.<sup>15</sup> 13.2% of the total cultivable area is not cultivated. (See Chart III).

The production of food and cash crops in the province is very low as compared to some other countries (See Table II). The statistics also show a downward trend in agricultural productivity as compared to previous years. The cause of alarm here is not the result of low agricultural yields, but the little progress made in this respect. Added to it, the upward trend in growth of population, the position reflects still more gloomy picture. The main causes of this low productivity may be attributed

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<sup>11</sup>Pakistan Census Bulletin No. 2, Karachi, Census Commissioner, 1962, p. 13.

<sup>12</sup>West Pakistan Year Book 1962, op.cit., p. 56.

<sup>13</sup>Economic Almanac 1958, New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1958, p. 4. See also F.A.O. Production Year Book 1958, United Nations, F.A.O. 1958, p. 16.

<sup>14</sup>First Five Year Plan 1955-60, Karachi, Planning Commission, Pakistan, 1957, pp.195-213.

<sup>15</sup>Pakistan Statistical Year Book 1962, Karachi, Central Statistical Office, 1962, p. 72.

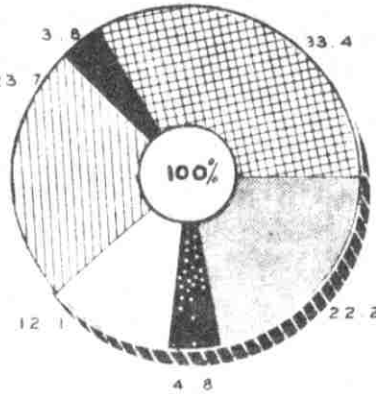
# LAND UTILIZATION

Chart III

AREA NOT REPORTED

NOT AVAILABLE FOR CULTIVATION

CURRENT FALLOW



FOREST AREA

CULTURABLE WASTE

NET AREA SOWN

MILLION ACRES

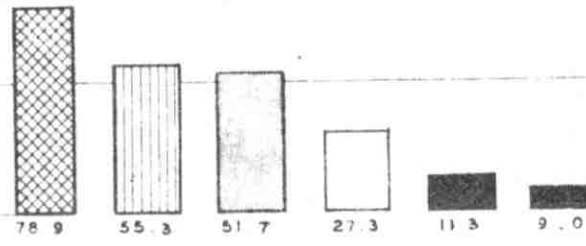
MILLION ACRES



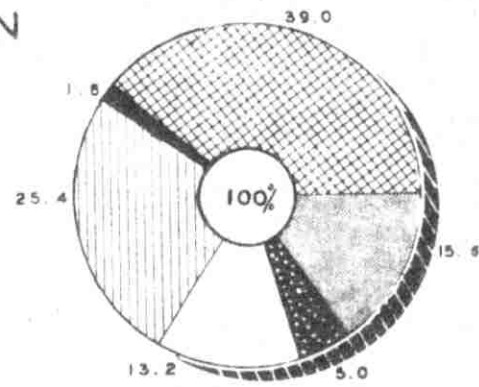
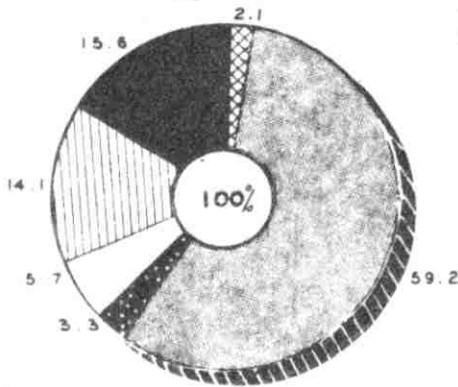
TOTAL AREA 233.8

1958-59

1958-59



PAKISTAN



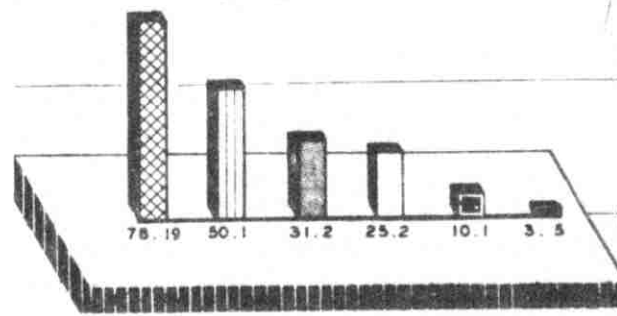
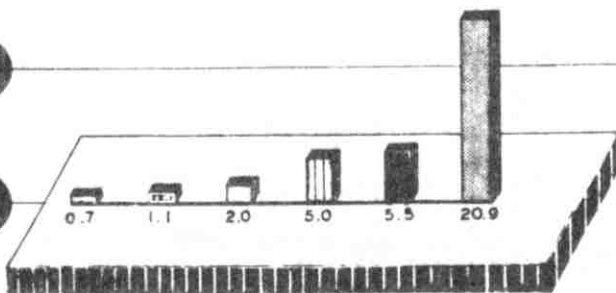
MILLION ACRES

MILLION ACRES



TOTAL AREA 35.4

TOTAL AREA 198.4



EAST PAKISTAN

WEST PAKISTAN

Source: Pakistan Statistical Year Book 1962, Karachi, Central Statistical Office, 1962, p. 68.

TABLE II

PER ACRE OF PRINCIPAL AGRICULTURAL CROPS IN WEST PAKISTAN AND SOME SELECTED COUNTRIES (IN LBS)

Country	Year	Wheat	Ginned Cotton	Paddy Rice	Maize	Remarks
Egypt	1953-55	1,968	475	3,486	1,977	
Japan	"	1,926	-	3,889	1,428	
U.S.A.	"	1,106	327	2,643	3,186	
Pakistan	1947-48	756	140	740*	880	*Cleaned Rice
"	1953-54	764	197	805*	848	
"	1960-61	732	205	780*	816	
India	1953-55	690	107	1,154	669	

Sources: 1. For West Pakistan:

Pakistan Statistical Year Book 1962, Karachi, Central Statistical Office, 1962, p. 86.

2. For Other Countries:

W.N. Peache, M. Uzair and G.N. Rucker, Basic Data of Economy of Pakistan 1959, Quoted by B.A. Azhar in Agricultural Education, Vol. I, No. I, Lyallpur, Agricultural University 1963, p. 76.

to outmoded agriculture, law of inheritance, natural climate, floods and locusts.

The floods are almost yearly routine in West Pakistan. It is estimated that during the years 1947-1962 there was a loss of 4779 lives, and property worth 1,170 million Rupees.<sup>16</sup> Also the constantly growing

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<sup>16</sup>M.A. Khan, "Flood Damage" reported in Pakistan Times, Lahore dated 7 October 1963.

menace of water logging and salinity is posing a great threat to the agricultural economy of West Pakistan so much so that 70 per cent of the total cultivated land has been affected by water logging and salinity in one way or the other. Nearly 100,000 acres of fertile land is going out of cultivation every year.<sup>17</sup> WAPDA (Water and Power Development Authority), with the help of the United States AID Program is fighting hard with this "Number One Enemy" by digging tube wells, constructing drainage channels and supplementary drains. Still the position is very much precarious. Also the Indus Basin dispute with India has affected the agricultural economy of West Pakistan.

#### Impact of Land Reforms in West Pakistan.

In 1958 Land Reform Commission was set up for the purpose of stopping exploitation of tenants by the landlords in political affairs and their frequent ejections, for combating food shortage in the country and also for giving the tenants proprietary rights on the lands. It recommended that no one should be permitted to own more than 500 acres of irrigated and 1,000 acres of unirrigated land. Also that the holdings should not be subdivided beyond  $12\frac{1}{2}$  acres. As a result 2.38 million acres of land has been acquired from the landlords in West Pakistan, out of which 1.75 million acres is found unsuitable for cultivation.<sup>18</sup>

According to a study<sup>19</sup> on the impact of Law Reforms in West Pakistan

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<sup>17</sup>West Pakistan Year Book 1962, op.cit., p. 43.

<sup>18</sup>M.T. Ahmad, "Social Implication of Law Reforms," reported in Agricultural Education, Vol. I, No. 1, March 1963, Yallpar, Agricultural University, p. 94.

<sup>19</sup>Ibid., pp. 95-99.



the annual income for the produce has not increased sufficiently because (a) the land given to the tenants is of inferior quality and (b) some farmers put in less efforts because they think that there is no longer any landlord who would take away half of their produce. They also continue relying on the landlords and many voted for them in the elections.<sup>20</sup> Some of them also confessed that they missed the landlord as a protector and leader.

The above impressions are specifically true to the remote villages formerly falling under the feudal system. On the whole, however, the impact of Land Reforms has been quite significant. Over 70,000 tenant families have benefited from them and the new cultivating land owners are deciding things for themselves.<sup>21</sup>

#### Small Industries.

In a primarily agricultural economy, burdened with seasonal surplus population, industry has significant role to play. During the past fifteen years self sufficiency has been achieved in a large number of industrial products, so much so that there are 10,379 well established small industrial establishments in urban areas, but little progress is made in the rural areas. The villagers still use conservative methods in rural crafts like weaving, pottery, tannery, etc. They are not exposed to new techniques and designs. Furthermore these works are considered to be meant for the lower classes. The farmer has nothing to do after sowing

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<sup>20</sup>Ibid., p. 100.

<sup>21</sup>West Pakistan Year Book 1962, op.cit., p. 95.

the crop or when the harvesting season is over. This causes wastages in human resources.

### Forests and Animal Husbandry.

But the glory of trees is more than their gifts,  
'Tis a beautiful wonder of line that lifts,  
From a wrinkled seed in an earthbound clod,  
A column, an arch in the temple of God.....<sup>22</sup>

The forests play an important role in national economy of a country. Unfortunately West Pakistan, situated mostly in arid area, is not rich in forest land. This is quite insufficient to cater for the needs of the present population, much less satisfy the requirements of increasing population.

Livestock as well plays significant role in agricultural development. There is, however, serious shortage of good animals for draught, milk, wool, hides and skins and even poultry and poultry products are scarce. For example, the West Pakistan Government has estimated that against the current requirements of the Province, there is a deficiency of about one and a half million work animals; this figure is likely to raise to some three million when the newly irrigated areas come under cultivation.<sup>23</sup> Animal diseases are common and due to the limited facilities of veterinary hospitals in the village areas, there is considerable loss of animal life. It is estimated that a contagious disease such as rinderpest causes a mortality of around 60 per cent of the cattle population.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>West Pakistan Year Book 1962, op.cit., p. 84.

<sup>23</sup>Second Five Year Plan 1960-65, Karachi, Planning Commission 1959, p. 153.

<sup>24</sup>Ibid., p. 154.

Health Conditions.

Effects of Race and Climate on Health Conditions: Nature has blessed the average Pakistanis with a strong body. It is because they are descended from vigorous races like Aryans and Mughals, who belonged to cold Central Asiatic Highlands where the climate hardens men's frames. The peasants of West Pakistan can work untiringly in the hottest or coldest of weather and the labourers have great powers of endurance - so long as they are able to obtain sufficient food and so long as simple precautions are taken to protect their health.

Pointing out briefly the racial and climatic effects in East and West Pakistan, Dr. Qureshi adds:

Generally speaking the people of Western Pakistan have a good physique and make excellent agriculturists and soldiers. They are capable of sustained hard work and possess great courage combined with a sense of discipline. The bulk of the so-called Indian armies under the British was drawn from Western Pakistan and those soldiers had been admired wheresoever they have fought. The Bengali or East Pakistani, living in a damp and waterlogged warm climate, not subjected to same extremes of heat and cold, does not possess such a good physique, nor is he so workable. He is<sup>25</sup> peaceloving and dislikes a quarrel involving violence.

Causes Harming the Health of West Pakistanis: Unfortunately, however, in the last few generations many causes have arisen to harm the health of West Pakistani population and weaken their vitality. The health conditions especially in the rural areas are far from being satisfactory. There is a strong need of improvement. Although the villagers keep their bodies clean and their houses are generally spotless, they have not been taught sufficiently in the past how to prevent outbreaks of epidemic diseases.

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<sup>25</sup>Qureshi, Ishtiaq Husain; The Pakistani Way of Life, Idonon, Heinemann, 1956, p. 1.

Diseases: In West Pakistan plague kills ~~hundreds~~ annually because the villagers still have the custom of storing their grain inside their houses. When the harvesting is done and there is no food left in the fields, the rats follow the grain into the homes of the people. If those rats are infected with plague-carrying fleas, an epidemic of this dangerous disease can easily break out and cause many deaths. Apart from the loss of life caused through plague, the rats eat the food grain and damage the property.

Cholera also plays havoc in many parts of the province. The cholera germ is carried far and wide by flies. The villagers are in habit of piling rubbish in the open; some people are also accustomed to sleep in the same room where animals and cattle are kept in the night. Furthermore, in some areas where sufficient palatable water is not found easily, people are forced to drink pond water which often causes such disease.

Next comes Malaria. It is estimated that thousands of people all over rural Pakistan are chronic sufferers from Malaria which saps their energies and robs them of both the will and the strength to work. Many of those sufferers do not know what afflicts them and are part of a culture complex that neither recognizes the sources of this disease nor possesses enough medical men to provide relief. The victims are not well up economically to command the services of doctors practising in the urban areas. The malaria menace is generally intense in the plains where floods are yearly misfortunes. It is estimated that malaria is responsible for nearly 100,000 deaths a year beside wide spread delibity.<sup>26</sup>

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<sup>26</sup>Second Five Year Plan, op.cit., p. 361.

A study conducted in Jarga, a village of Peshawar Division shows that as much as 97.8 per cent of the total families were having this ailment. As regards control of malaria in the said village, it came to light that a majority of the villagers did not pay sufficient attention for its eradication.<sup>27</sup> This is anyhow characteristic of the people who have been subjected to colonial rule for long to look to government for the satisfaction of their basic needs of education, health and shelter, etc. Some change is taking place regarding this attitude but it is not very pronounced. There is need to practically educate the people in this regard.

There are other serious diseases which also need to be examined. Not least among these is tuberculosis. It poses another public health problem with a mortality of about 150,000 a year, in the whole of Pakistan. The disease, however, is much common in big cities and overcrowded areas, as against rural open areas.

Smallpox also causes thousands of deaths in the country annually, predominately in East Pakistan where the disease is epidemic. Besides, various intestinal troubles like diarrrhea, dysentery and typhoid are prevalent among rural people.

As a result, there is high mortality rate in the province. No separate figures are available for West Pakistan, yet the trends discernable in earlier studies approximate the mortality situation in Indo Pakistan subcontinent. The death rates in European countries ranged between 8.6 and 18.9 per thousand during 1937-39 according to U.N. Reports,<sup>28</sup> whereas

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<sup>27</sup>S.M. Haider, Experimental Foundations of Health Education, Peshawar, West Pakistan Academy for Rural Development, 1963, p. 20.

<sup>28</sup>United Nations, Preliminary Report on World Social Situation, New York, U.N. Publications, 2nd ed., p. 12.

it was about 31.3 in Indo Pakistan subcontinent. Infant mortality rate is also high. Although it has dropped from 204.2 in 1911-15 to 161.0 in 1941-45,<sup>29</sup> it remains much above the infant mortality rate in Europe which ranged between 21.0 to 108.0 during 1950-51.<sup>30</sup>

Major Factors Accounting for Ill-Health: In addition to some causes mentioned above, many of the important factors that account for the ill health of the rural people are the unhygienic environment, low resistance due to malnutrition, sub-standard housing, unsuitable drinking water, indiscriminate use of water, lack of ventilation, muddy roads, lack of ample medical facilities in the rural areas, ignorance of the people and, above all, their economic depression. The last two factors are perhaps at the root of others. To the rural illiterate people, especially in remote areas, sickness is as much a moral as a physical crisis. In their conception the roots of illness extend into the realm of human conduct and cosmic purpose by nature. As a consequence, they look for relief to various pirs, sacred religious people for Ta'weez,<sup>31</sup> and unscientific village medicines.

The people of rural West Pakistan, therefore, require health knowledge. Beside learning about hygiene and sanitation, they should also develop good health practices, so that they may live in healthy life and be physically able to tackle the problems that face them. This, however, is possible by taking these villagers in confidence to carry out the health education program through the schools.

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<sup>29</sup>Davis Kingsley, The Population of India and Pakistan, Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1951, p. 35.

<sup>30</sup>United Nations Report, op.cit., p14.

<sup>31</sup>Ta'weez comprises writings of some verses from the Holy Quran on a piece of paper.

The economic problem also poses a very serious cause. How is it possible to compare the intake of Pakistani whose average annual income is Rs. 243.- only<sup>32</sup> with the intake of protective food by an average English or American citizen with annual income of Rs. 10,185 and Rs. 4,522.- respectively.<sup>33</sup>

It is fortunate, however, that the villagers in the former Punjab, which forms the major part of West Pakistan population, usually keep at least one buffalo or a cow. But the recent trend shows that some people are obliged to sell their milk and butter for their food and clothing. The only thing they often keep is the skimmed milk. Still this practice is limited to those large families that have very small holdings or whose lands have gone into salinity, water logging or the floods. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that the use of milk, butter and ghee is still on the highest in Western Wing of Pakistan than in any other part of Indo Pakistan subcontinent. That is why the world renowned Pehlwans or wrestlers like Gama, Aslam and Bholoo are seen in the heart of the Pak Punjab.

It is in order to mention here the progress made in West Pakistan for improving standards of health. At the time of Independence in 1947 there were only 800 doctors for a population of nearly 39 millions with only one medical college. Now there are 6 medical colleges and 2 medical schools which are producing 1,000 doctors a year.<sup>34</sup> It is believed that, progressing with the same speed, West Pakistan will soon catch up at the rate of one doctor per 750 inhabitants as found in the United States.<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>32</sup>"The Chaupal" Quarterly - A Magazine of Community Development, vol. 1, No. 1, Karachi, National Development Organization, April, 1961, p. 101 (Rupee 1 = \$0.21 - See Pakistan Statistical Year Book, 1962, op.cit., p. 5A.

<sup>33</sup>Ibid.

<sup>34</sup>West Pakistan Year Book 1962, op.cit., p. 192.

<sup>35</sup>Second Five Year Plan 1960-65, op.cit., p. 358.

The Means of Communications.

Importance of Transport and Communications: One of the ways in which man proves himself to be superior to any other living creature is his ability to invent methods of carrying himself and his belongings quicker and farther than his mere body would allow. True, man cannot compare with mighty animals, but he has a mind and by using his intelligence and reason he can be well above other creatures.

The country cannot be safe, nor can trade flourish without quick movement. In time of war, or in some disasters like floods, cyclones and earth-quakes, carrying products from one place to another must be done smoothly and at great speed. Also for better social contacts between the people and to carry out development programs the communication methods play a vital role. Thus good roads and other means of transport are one of the basic necessities for economic development. They are like the arteries of a body through which circulates the life blood of the country - from the great business centers to the remotest corners of the villages. Especially the type and the extent of the road net work is indicative of the degree of economic development of a country. Aerial and water transport can reduce the pressure, but cannot replace the road transport which acts as a feeder for both railways and air transport.

Conditions Prevailing in West Pakistan: Pakistan began its life as an independent country with a full knowledge of the scientific wonders of our present age. Despite various problems facing the country, it was sufficiently recognized that one of the first requirements of a modern country is that it should have an efficient system of transport and



communications.

The transport patterns of East and West Pakistan differ greatly. West Pakistan has fairly well developed railway system supplemented increasingly by road transport while in East Pakistan the principal carriers are railways and inland water ways. The road transport is particularly suited to the conditions of West Pakistan, is supported by the fact that it is predominately agricultural country with small production units scattered over wide areas.

The country inherited at the time of Independence, in proportion to its territory, a small part of the transport facilities: only 16 per cent of the total railway track mileage and 10 per cent of the surfaced roads in the subcontinent fell within Pakistan, and these were in poor shape because of strains of the World War period, which were particularly severe in the strategic north-western and eastern areas now comprising Pakistan.<sup>36</sup> In all, Pakistan inherited 16,425 miles of roads; in 1962 the number rose to 22,797 miles. At present there are sixteen miles of high type all weather roads to every 100,000 persons<sup>37</sup> which is extremely low as compared to developed countries. The position in the rural areas is still worse. The improvement done in transport is mainly visible in the urban areas. To cite an example, Chart IV shows the comparative construction of village roads under District Councils and metalled roads under the provincial authorities.

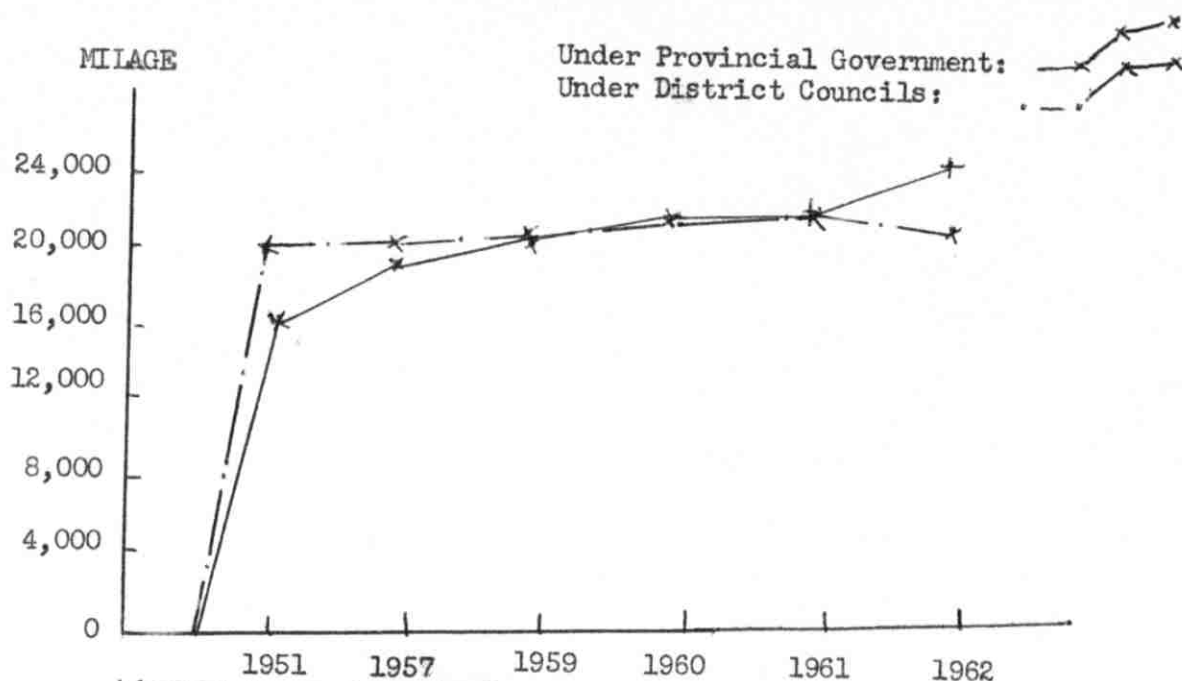
Effects of Poor Transportations: The effects of poor transport arrangements in the villages are manifold. Of course in the past villages

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<sup>36</sup>Second Five Year Plan, op.cit., p. 277.

<sup>37</sup>Economic Survey of Pakistan 1962-63, op.cit., p. 108.

Road Milage in West Pakistan



Adapted from: Economic Survey of Pakistan 1962-63,  
Rawalpindi, Ministry of Finance 1963, pp. 108A & 109.

had established self-sufficiency in almost all walks of life in a limited sphere. But with various developments in the country including industrialization and also exposition of educated villagers to outer life, through army employment, trade and mobility to urban areas, the position is changed. Now the villagers feel ashamed of low conditions prevailing in the country-side. Some actually participate in "Self-Help Programs" and improve their lot; others who happen to look to top for help are mainly devoid of relevant facilities.

Owing to poor transport arrangements especially in vast mountaneous and plateau areas in the north western parts, many children do not attend the schools. If some do, they have to walk up to five miles or more a day. In the event of sickness, the rural people cannot go to the hospitals,

that are mostly located in the cities, for treatment and as such most of them resort to medicines of village quacks or Sianas.<sup>38</sup> This results in heavy toll of deaths. Besides, the villagers are not able to carry their produce to the market places for sale. They, therefore, often grow as much it is required for their immediate family use. The cottage industries do not also develop for the same reason. Above all, the government officials of National Building Departments do not frequently visit the areas for carrying out the programs according to rural needs. Sometimes their tours are carried 'on papers' only.

The Writer, although coming from a comparatively densely populated area of Rawalpindi Division, had the experience of walking about six miles a day to attend the village school in pre-Independence days. There is as such a great need for improving communication systems in the country. In the meantime ways and means for transporting of the village children to the schools especially in the sparsely populated areas, have to be evolved.

#### Educational Problems.

##### Brief Historical Background of Primary Education in Pakistan:

The system of education which Pakistan inherited at the time of Independence in 1947 had been set up by the alien rulers to meet the requirements of a colonial administration. It was designed to provide employment opportunities mainly at the clerical and subordinate levels in an administration manned at the top. If such a system pursuit of knowledge was no longer an end in itself, but merely a passport for employment.

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<sup>38</sup>The lay village doctors are called Sianas in the rural areas.

Primary education had particularly been the most neglected part of the present educational system. Due to its artificial improvization, the present system did not grow out of primary schools. During the British Period in the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent which runs roughly from 1857 to 1947, start was rather made by building a super structure of higher education first and then extending it slowly downward.<sup>39</sup>

Some Factors Minimizing Importance of Primary Education Before Independence: It will not be out of place to mention some factors governing the educational policies that have minimized the importance of primary education and checked its progress in the past. Some of the basic factors are: (1) a belief in Downward Filtration Theory; (2) Introduction of English as medium of instruction; (3) indifferent attitude toward the local community schools; (4) rigid centralized control and inadequate financial support; (5) delaying the introduction of free and compulsory education and above all (6) the neglect of rural areas.

Believing in the so-called "Downward Filtration Theory" the attempts of the government had been restricted to the extension of higher education to the upper classes of society who had leisure for study and whose culture would filter down to the masses. In accordance with this basic policy, the official support had mainly been given to the higher form of education. This position practically continued up to 1944, shortly before the establishment of Pakistan, when the Central Advisory Board of

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<sup>39</sup>Dr. N.A. Baloch, Historical Background of Primary Education in Pakistan, Hyderabad Sind, Sind University Press, 1959, p. 1.

<sup>40</sup>Lord Aukland's view point, confirming the new educational policies reported by N.A. Baloch in Sind University Educational Journal, No. 3, Hyderabad, 1959, p. 1.

Education remarked that the primary education was devised as the terminal education for the masses while the "chief purpose of higher education (inclusive of high schools) is to form an elite."<sup>41</sup>

A considerable indifference in attitude towards local community schools like Maktabas and Madrissas was shown in the past. These institutions formed the backbone of Indo Pakistani educational system during the Muslim Period prior to the take over by the English. The first hit came upon them from Macaulay who, besides arguing for introduction of English in the primary schools, frankly remarked that "it is proved by unanswerable evidence that we (the British) are not at present seeking the cooperation of the natives." Likewise, rigid centralization and control of educational matters was observed. Although in 1921 the primary education was shifted to the provinces,<sup>42</sup> still it remained highly centralized. Also the funds so provided were so meagre that the educational projects could not be carried out efficiently.

As regards the Free and Compulsory Education, the national government of Pakistan inherited an educational legacy that is already full of promising 'resolutions' for its instruction. Another was added in the First All Pakistan Educational Conference, 1947. This was followed by the recommendations of the Education Commission, 1959. It is hoped that the target for five years Free and Compulsory Education be achieved within a period of 10 years and for eight years compulsory schooling within a total period of 15 years starting from 1959.<sup>43</sup>

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<sup>41</sup>Central Advisory Board of Education, Report on Postwar Educational Development, Delhi, Government of India, 1944, p. 15.

<sup>42</sup>The names of the provinces constituting West Pakistan were: (1) The Punjab, (2) North western Frontier Province, (3) Sind, and (4) Baluchistan. They were merged into one unit on 16 October 1955.

<sup>43</sup>Report of the Commission on National Education, Karachi, Ministry of Education, Pakistan, 1959, p. 183.

Neglect of Rural Areas: Next comes the neglect of rural areas.

During the British days the official efforts to extend the new educational system were mainly confined to urban areas, for it was far more easy to spread education in the towns and cities than in the rural areas which presented innumerable difficulties. However, in a country where eighty seven per cent of the people happen to reside in the villages, at least a major part of financial and administrative efforts ought to be devoted to rural education. But under the basic educational policies (expressed before) which persisted up to the present, comparatively far more efforts have been devoted to the spread of education in the urban areas than in the rural areas. The amount of efforts expended on rural education is almost insignificant as compared to the educational needs of the rural population.

Reasons for Neglecting Rural Areas: For many reasons, the education of the huge bulk of the rural population has remained neglected. The main obstacle was implicit in the basic policy of educating the higher classes first; this resulted in a general lack of interest in the education of the masses. Also there had been an unequal distribution of funds between the rural and the urban areas. No doubt, in every country there are difficulties in spreading education in the rural areas, since there exists comparatively greater difficulties in the rural areas as compared to urban sectors. This is specifically true to Pakistan. But the authorities concerned, instead of making any concentrated efforts to solve these difficulties, cited them as a solid excuse. The rural children were debarred also from basic education/<sup>on</sup> the assumption that the village child can adjust in the agricultural or other occupational job even if he is illiterate, whereas the urban child, when uneducated, becomes a problem.

As a result, the benefit of primary education mostly remained withheld from the village population.

Impact of Change after the Independence: It was, however, not until the take over by the present revolutionary government in Pakistan in 1958 that the deep felt need for re-orientation of national education was taken up practically. The suggested improvements by the Commission on National Education (1959) are highly appreciable and well conceived. There is a lot of improvement in all spheres of education especially the primary education.<sup>44</sup> Besides, the Village AID (Village Agricultural and Industrial Development) movement now replaced by Basic Democracies, and other National Building Departments are working hard for the rural uplift especially through education. Still there is a great room for improvement.

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<sup>44</sup>A detailed discussion of such improvements follows in Chapter III.

## CHAPTER III

### THE PRESENT STATE OF RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND PROVISION OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES BOTH IN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS OF WEST PAKISTAN

#### The Administrative Pattern of Education in West Pakistan.

With this background of rural problems and needs of West Pakistan stated above, we now shift to the present school set up.

The nature of the present school organization, the educational programs, and the facilities provided therein are important to be studied before considering the ways in which the school may contribute to the improvement of education in the rural communities.

Tracing at length the major historical events leading to the administration of primary education in the Indo Pakistan sub-continent the Education Act of 1870<sup>1</sup> is first taken into account. The act recognized mass education for the first time and the municipalities were required to establish and maintain the schools. Under the resolution of 1904<sup>2</sup> the provision, extension and improvement of the primary education of the masses

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<sup>1</sup>Words of the Moral and Material Progress Report, 1881-1882, p. 145, under the heading "Elementary Education for the Masses, 1870":

"The (Indian) Home Government ordered in 1870, that Government expenditure should be mainly directed to the provision of elementary education for the mass of the people." Reported in Select Documents on the History of India and Pakistan - IV; The Evolution of India and Pakistan 1858-1947, by C.H. Philips, H.L. Singh and B.N. Pandey, London, Oxford University Press, 1962, pp. 731-732.

<sup>2</sup>The Resolution of the Government of India on Educational Policy, 11 March 1904, pointed out five major defects to be eradicated: (1) that the higher education is pursued with too excessive a view to entering government service; (2) that excessive prominence is purely literary in character; (4) that the schools and colleges train the intelligence of the students too little, and their memory too much; (5) that in the pursuit of English education the cultivation of the vernaculars is neglected. It also recommended to improve the condition of primary education and that of rural life. See Ibid., p. 754.



was considered one of the most important duties of the government. But no practical measures were adopted to spread primary education among the masses. It was only after 1921,<sup>3</sup> when the control of education was transferred to the 'Indian Ministers in each Province,' and according to subsequent Acts greater powers of control and management of primary education were given to the local-self bodies.

The conservative officials, however, failed to appreciate the significance of the local bodies and their growing desire to share in the control and management of mass education. In 1929 therefore attempts were made to reverse the previous policy on the plea of traditional attitude of apathy and indifference among the officials towards the educational efforts of local bodies. Hence it was proposed to curtail the powers of control and management given to local bodies.<sup>4</sup> Furthermore, since 1929 a new trend of depriving the local bodies of control and management of primary education got under way in government circles. The local bodies were charged as being weak, corrupt, and inefficient and therefore the control of primary education was taken over by the Provincial Governments, except in the former Punjab.

With the creation of Pakistan in 1947 renewed efforts were made to reorient the entire educational system especially on the primary level. There was sensed a feeling to give more and more powers to the local authorities. But the political intrigues and maladministration of such local boards compelled the educational sectors to consider the issue. It

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<sup>3</sup>Shamasul Haq, Compulsory Education in Pakistan, Paris, UNESCO Publication, 1954, p. 26; and Nurullah and Naik, A History of Education in India, Bombay, Macmillan and Company Ltd., 1951, p. 680.

<sup>4</sup>The Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission, Interim Report: Review of Growth of Education in India, London, HM Stationery Office, Sept. 1929, p. 41.

is in order to note here the remarks of the Commission on National Education (1959):

So long as the District Boards had official Chairmen, administration was reasonably good. On their replacement by elected chairmen, there was a set back in the administrative machinery. The deliberation of the local Boards were more often influenced by personal and party considerations than by the merit on the case being discussed.<sup>5</sup>

Thus the primary education remained in the hands of the provincial governments except in the former Punjab, where District Boards (later on called District Councils) controlled it. Nevertheless in view of better education standard and especially better salary scales and conditions of service in other parts of West Pakistan, the teachers of the former Punjab constantly petitioned the government year after year to take primary education in its own hands.<sup>6</sup> The demand became insistent after the integration of all the provinces of West Pakistan into One Unit in 1955, that the government began to pay some attention to meet the teachers' demands. Consequently in line with the recommendations of the Education Commission and to avoid the anomalies in the educational administration in various parts of West Pakistan, the primary education was also taken away from the former Punjab and was entrusted to District Committees under government control. These committees comprise of the district inspectors of boys and girls schools and two non official

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<sup>5</sup>Report of the Commission on National Education, Karachi, Government of Pakistan, 1959, pp. 181-182.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., p. 182.

members.<sup>7</sup>

The Reorganized Pattern of Education Department: Over-centralization, lack of supervision and proper control in administration which was in vogue proved to be harmful. This type of administration was not helpful in stimulating a sense of public service at the local level. With a view to effecting general reduction in administration procedures, the Reorganization Committee in 1961 put forth various proposals for reorganizing the various departments including that of the Education Department.

It was recommended to create certain attached departments for independent work. It was further suggested that all other activities be decentralized and entrusted to the Regional Directors of Education. As a result the abolition of the Provincial Directorate of Public Instruction was proposed. Recommendations for the complete re-organization of the Education Secretariat were also made, and assistance of two advisors for Technical and General Education was required by the Education Secretary.<sup>8</sup> The Chart number V shows the reorganized pattern of the Education Secretariat and attached offices in West Pakistan.

The Financing of Primary Education: As pointed out, during the period of British rule primary education was administered by the local bodies. The schools were financed partly by contributions from local bodies, but largely by grants from provincial revenues. Rules determining the contribution of the government and local bodies were framed by each

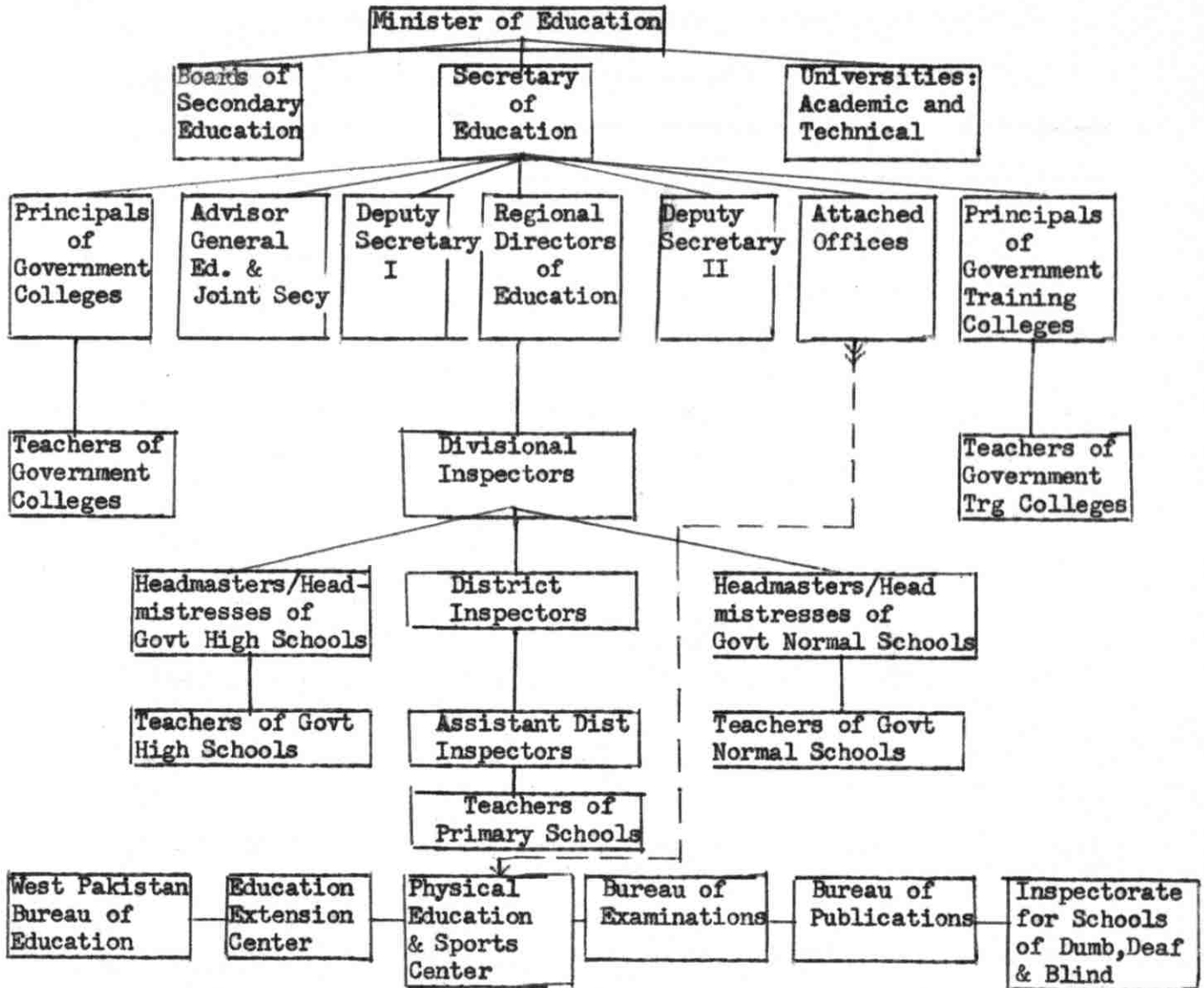
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<sup>7</sup>Daily Dawn, Karachi, Dated 26 July 1962, p. 4.

<sup>8</sup>The Reorganized Pattern of Educational Administration in West Pakistan, Lahore, West Pakistan Bureau of Education, 1962, pp. 1-7.

CHART V

West Pakistan Educational Set Up  
Reorganization Year, 1961



- Adapted and compiled from:
1. The Reorganized Pattern of Education Administration in West Pakistan, Lahore, West Pakistan Bureau of Education, 1962, pp. 5-8.
  2. World Survey of Education: Handbook of Educational Organization and Statistics, Paris, UNESCO, 1955, p. 495.
  3. World Survey of Education - II: Primary Education, Paris, UNESCO, 1958, p. 813.

provincial government in accordance with its economic resources. In consequence there was considerable variation not only from province to province, but even from district to district within the same province. In particular, the variation was considerable between rural areas and urban areas. As the latter possessed better financial resources, their contribution was naturally fixed at a much higher figure. Under this scheme, however, education expanded rapidly and the period following 1921 (the year of provincializing education), saw a great increase in the number of schools involving considerable expenditure both from local bodies and from the government itself. As the administrative powers further developed, certain difficulties began to arise. The members of the local bodies, some of whom were also members of the legislatures and therefore depended for their popularity on the votes of their constituencies, became more and more reluctant to increase local taxation.

The relationship of the schools to the community also came in the way of executing local taxation formulae. The general public had developed an apathetic attitude towards government authorities, an attitude inherited from the colonial times. With independence this attitude was not completely uprooted. Thus it was generally regarded that the schools belonged to the government and they (the public) had nothing to do with them. This led to the creation of a wide gap between the school and the local community especially in the rural areas where a great majority of parents were illiterate and would not or could not take the 'initiative' to concern themselves with schools. The result was evident; the contribution of the local bodies towards further expansion became negligible and the government had to meet almost entirely the new expenditure. The

net contribution made annually by local bodies amounted to about 25 per cent of the total expenditure. As a result the administration of primary education was taken over, during the last few years, by the government in most of the regions. As in the case of former Punjab, the schools would receive grants covering total costs of operation.<sup>9</sup> Thus the taking over of primary education from the former Punjab in 1962 was also justified.

The Educational Ladder: Children are admitted to the primary level in both East and West Pakistan at 5+. This age limit is determined by the following reasons:

a) There is a temptation, for economic reasons, to withdraw children early from school by parents when they reach the age of ten plus. So calculating backwards, the age is set at a limit whereby children could be held in a five year course.

b) In the more advanced countries the school entering age is rather late in comparison to Pakistan; and in such conditions extensive facilities for pre-primary education are often provided. Such facilities are almost non-existent in Pakistan.<sup>10</sup>

c) The climate of the country adds other reasons. The climate in West Pakistan is not as severe as it is in some other countries. In

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<sup>9</sup> Report of the Commission on National Education, 1959, *op.cit.*, p. 180. See also Tables IV and V for a comparative statement on expenditure pages 46 and 47 respectively.

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 183.

a comparative survey of compulsory attendance age of various countries, it is noted that northern countries start compulsory attendance one or two years later than southern countries. This is explained by the fact that the severity of climate in the north leads to unsuitable conditions for children under seven to remain out of doors in winter time.

TABLE III

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE AGE IN SOME NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN COUNTRIES

Northern Countries			Southern Countries			
Name of Country	Age Limits of Compulsory Attendance	Percentage of 3-7 Ages in School	Name of Country	Age Limits of Compulsory Attendance	Percentage of 3-6 & 3-7 ages in School	
					3-6	3-7
Denmark	7-14	2	France	6-14	55	70
Estonia	8-14	2	Greece	6-12	8	30
Finland	7-14	3	Italy	6-14	30	45
Norway	7½-14	1	Spain	6-12	24	38
Sweden	7-14	2	Swit'ld	6-14	50	65

Source: Nicholas Hans, Comparative Education, London Rountledge & K.P. Ltd., 1950, p. 65.

Primary schooling extends from 5+ to 10+ in both rural and urban schools of West Pakistan. There are in various parts legislations which regulate compulsory age, but these are not regularly executed owing to paucity of funds and school buildings. However, in places where illiteracy is felt to be extremely on the increase such legislations are strictly observed.<sup>11</sup> As regards introducing completely free and compulsory

<sup>11</sup>Special Compulsory Education Officers are appointed in such areas by the education department.

education, it is aimed to introduce five years schooling within a period of 10 years, and eight years schooling within a total period of 15 years starting from 1959.

Development of Primary Education in Both Rural and Urban Area:

It is well in place to mention the amount and rate of growth of both rural and urban primary education in West Pakistan. No separate statistics were available for the rural schools except for the year 1961-62 which have been shown in the later part of this chapter.<sup>12</sup> The statistics shown in Table IV, Table V and Appendix A, however represent the position of the primary schools which are almost located in the rural areas and form 83% of the total enrolment in the case of boys and 79.3% in case of girls.<sup>13</sup> The primary departments attached to the Middle, High or English Medium Schools are not included.

Increase in Number of Primary Schools for Boys and Girls: Taking 1948-49 as the base year, the number of boys' schools in 1953-54 increased 49% or  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times. In the year 1958-59 this rate doubled whereas in 1960-61 it rose to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times. In girls' schools the increase was 59% or approximately  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times the number of schools in 1948-49. In the year 1958-59 the growth was 96% or approximately double that number. In the year 1960-61 the trend was increasingly augmented and the growth was recorded at 159% or  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times.

Increase in Enrolment of Boys and Girls: Also the enrolment of boys was 125% or  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times in 1953-54; in 1958-59 the increase amounted to

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<sup>12</sup>See infera, p. 49.

<sup>13</sup>Primary Schools in West Pakistan - 1948-49 to 1960-61, Lahore, West Pakistan Bureau of Education, 1962, p. 10 and p. 12.



162% or a little more than  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times, whereas in 1960-61 the increase amounted to 201% or three times more. The enrolment of girls increased by 71% or approximately  $1\frac{3}{4}$  times in 1953-54. The recorded growth in 1958-59 was 168% or about  $2\frac{3}{4}$  times more than the base year and in 1960-61 it was approximately three times or 210% more.

Increase in Primary School Teachers: Male teachers employed in the primary schools in 1953-54 were 79% or approximately  $1\frac{3}{4}$  times more than the base year. In 1958-59 the increase in strength of teaching staff was 135% or a little less than  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times of the strength in 1948-49. Total number of male teachers was  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times or 156% more in 1960-61. The strength of female teachers was doubled in 1953-54, that is, the increase was 102%. It rose to approximately  $2\frac{1}{4}$  times or 165% and in 1960-61 hit at 280% or approximately  $3\frac{3}{4}$  times more than the base year.

Increase in Expenditure on Boys' and Girls' Primary Schools: The expenditure on primary schools for boys in 1953-54 was 113% or approximately  $2\frac{1}{2}$  times more than in 1948-49. In the year 1958-59 the expenditure increased approximately  $3\frac{1}{2}$  times or 243%. The growth of expenditure was  $4\frac{1}{4}$  times or 337% more than the expenditure in 1948-49. In 1958-59 the increase in expenditure was approximately  $9\frac{1}{2}$  times more than the base year. Growth of expenditure in 1960-61 was 12 times more than that of base year.

The average number of pupils per school and per teacher are also evident from the said tables. Taking the overall position, it is clear that the rate of growth of girls' education is much higher than boys'.<sup>14</sup>

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<sup>14</sup>Primary Schools in West Pakistan - 1948-49 to 1960-61, Lahore, West Pakistan Bureau of Education, 1962, p.32.



TABLE V

GROWTH OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN WEST PAKISTAN

GIRLS

Year	Schools			Pupils			Teachers (Males)			Expenditure		Average Pupils Per School	Average Pupils Per Teacher
	Total Number	Index Value	Period & % Incr.	Total Number	Index Value	Period & % Incr.	Total Number	Index Value	Period & % Incr.	Index Value	Period & % Incr.		
1948-49	1564	100		105605	100		2623	100		1085	100	68	40
1949-50	1586	101		108103	102		2704	103		1539	141	68	40
1950-51	1779	113		125411	119		3328	127		2128	196	71	38
1951-52	2157	138		150346	142		3975	152		3018	278	70	38
1952-53	2329	149		178608	169		4415	168		4481	413	77	40
1953-54	2492	159	59%	180142	171	71%	5311	202	102%	6740	621	72	34
1954-55	2574	165		195629	185		5863	224		7249	668	76	33
1955-56	2693	172		219256	208		6197	236		7816	720	82	36
1956-57	2831	181		261645	248		6518	248		8476	781	92	40
1957-58	2939	188		261998	248		7118	271		9219	850	89	37
1958-59	3099	198	98%	283179	268	168%	7045	268	168%	10205	941	91	40
1959-60	3260	208		297874	283		8036	306		11034	1071	91	37
1960-61	4057	259	159%	326877	310	210%	9966	380	280%	13044	1204	82	33

Adapted and Compiled from:

1. Primary Schools in West Pakistan 1948-49 to 1960-61, Lahore, West Pakistan Education Bureau, 1962, pp. 5-6.
2. Educational Statistics for West Pakistan for 1960-61, Lahore, West Pakistan Education Bureau, 1962, pp.

Proportion of School Going Children and General Literacy

Percentage: If the total number of school-age children is taken to be 12½% of the total population,<sup>15</sup> (for five age groups 5+ to 10+), it appears that out of a population of 43 million, some 5.4 million children should have been in primary grades. The actual enrolment, however, was 2.08 millions in 1960-61.<sup>16</sup> This means that less than 50% of children are actually enrolled in the schools. This is a much better picture than that of 1947 when two thirds of all school-age children were actually out of schools.<sup>17</sup> On the other hand, the position of East Pakistan, which although more rural than West Pakistan (89% rural),<sup>18</sup> is much better. Being very densely populated the schools in East Pakistan are closely located and the children can easily attend them. To illustrate, 63.5% of literates in 1961 in East Pakistan had primary school education of five years as compared to only 47.1 per cent in West Pakistan.<sup>19</sup> Beyond primary education, however, the position is almost reversed, middle and secondary school graduates form 19.3% of the literates in East Pakistan as compared to 38.9% in West Pakistan. The case is similar with regard to higher education.<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>15</sup>Proceedings of Educational Conference held in Karachi in 1951, Karachi, Government of Pakistan, 1951, p. 369.

<sup>16</sup>Primary Schools in West Pakistan, 1948-49 to 1960-61, op.cit., p. 62.

<sup>17</sup>Proceedings of the Educational Conference 1951, op.cit., p. 369.

<sup>18</sup>Pakistan Population Census 1961 Bulletin No. 2, Karachi, Census Commissioner, 1961, p. 14.

<sup>19</sup>Pakistan Population Census 1961, Bulletin No. 4, Karachi, Census Commissioner, 1961, p. xviii.

<sup>20</sup>Ibid.

Comparative Development of Urban and Rural Primary Education in

West Pakistan: The amount of neglect of which the rural areas are suffering has been discussed earlier in Chapter II. Although an appreciable development of primary education has taken place in the country, the fact remains that rural population is still lacking the same educational opportunities as compared to the urban. Table VI gives a comparative picture of rural and urban people: rural population forming 77.5 per cent of the total has less than half of educational facilities.

TABLE VI

NUMBER OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS, STUDENTS AND TEACHERS AND TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN BOTH URBAN AND RURAL SCHOOLS OF WEST PAKISTAN (1961 - 1962)\*

Area	Population (1961 Census) in Millions		Primary Schools (Boys/Girls)		Pupils (Boys/Girls)		Teachers (Male/Female)		Expenditure in Thousand Rs.	
	Total	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Amount	%
West Pakistan	42.9	100	48084	100	3442609	100	99283	100	139030	100
Urban	9.7	22.5	24930	51.8	1907058	55.5	54833	55.2	77365	55.7
Rural	33.2	77.5	24164	48.2	1535551	54.6	44450	54.8	61665	54.3

\*Adapted and compiled from:

1. Pakistan Population Census 1961 Bulletin No. 2, Karachi, Census Commissioner, 1961, p. 14.
2. Bureau of Education, Lahore Extract Statistics Dated 21 September 1963. Taken personally from the said Bureau by the writer. Original not yet printed.

Literacy rates show another dimension of differentiation between urban and rural areas. Literacy was defined in 1961 Pakistan Census as "the ability to read with understanding a short statement on everyday life in any language."<sup>21</sup> This definition differs from that used in the

<sup>21</sup>Pakistan Population Census 1961, Bulletin No. 4, Karachi, Census Commissioner, 1961, p. iii.

first census taken in 1951 when people were classed as literate "if they could read clear print in any language even without understanding." Pakistan, being predominantly a Muslim country, an appreciable segment of its population can read the Holy Quran without understanding. Persons able to read only the Holy Quran without understanding have not been considered as literates in 1961 census."<sup>22</sup> Table VII gives percentage of literacy in urban and rural areas.

The Curriculum and Courses of Study for Primary Schools:<sup>23</sup> The latest curriculum for the rural and urban areas was proposed by the Curriculum Committee for Primary Education under the Central Government orders in 1960. It aims at the implementation of the following broad objectives laid by the Commission on National Education:

a) To provide such education as will develop all aspects of a child's personality-moral, physical, and mental.

b) To equip a child with basic knowledge and skills he will require as an individual and as a citizen and which will permit him to pursue further education with profit.

c) To awaken in a child a sense of citizenship and civic responsibilities as well as feeling of love for his country and willingness to contribute to its development.

d) To lay the foundation of desirable attitudes in the child, including habits of industry, personal integrity and curiosity.

e) To awaken in the child a liking for physical activity and an awareness of the role of sports and games in physical well-being.

f) To develop international understanding, a spirit of universal

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<sup>22</sup>Ibid.

<sup>23</sup>The Curriculum and Courses of Study for Primary Schools in Pakistan, Karachi, Ministry of Education, 1960.

TABLE VII

## NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF LITERATES BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL - PAKISTAN &amp; PROVINCES 1961

Locality	Number of Literates				Percentage of Population 5 Years and Over									
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural		Total					
	Both Sexes	Males	Females	Both Sexes	Males	Females	Both Sexes	Males						
Pakistan	3703021	2670434	1035587	10632788	8456312	2196476	14365809	35.0	45.8	23.3	16.6	25.0	7.2	19.2
East Pakistan	1023006	739010	283996	7932495	6107150	1825345	8955501	45.7	54.8	31.9	20.2	29.9	9.7	21.5
West Pakistan	2680015	1931424	748591	2700293	2319162	371131	5580308	33.0	42.2	21.2	10.9	17.5	3.2	16.3

Adapted and

Compiled from: Census Bulletin No. 4 - Census of Pakistan 1961,  
Karachi, Census Commissioner, 1961, pp. vii to xiii.

brotherhood and inculcating a scientific attitude.

Special considerations have been made to meet the challenge of geographical and cultural variations in the country, of mass school enrolment in view of complete introduction of free education, of unsatisfactory conditions prevailing in the home and the community and of wrong attitude towards manual work. The use of locally made material in lessons and carrying out counseling and guidance programs are also proposed.<sup>24</sup>

Subjects of Study: The following subjects have been recommended for inclusion in the curriculum:

1. Languages:

- a) Mother tongues - Urdu, Sindhi and Pushto
- b) Non mother tongue - Urdu
- c) Foreign Language - English (Optional).

2. Elementary Mathematics

3. General Science

4. Social Studies (including History, Geography and Civics)

5. Physical Education (including Health)

6. Religious Education

7. Arts (including music and rhythmic movements) and Practical Arts (including free and direct activities and Manual Work.

Allocation of Time for each subject and Sample Weekly Schedule:

The time allotted to each subject of study and suggested weekly schedule

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<sup>24</sup>Ibid., pp. 1-2.



are placed in appendices B and C respectively. From Appendix B it appears that a major portion of school time is devoted to teaching of Urdu. It is perhaps due to the fact that Urdu forms central place among all the regional languages and dialects in West Pakistan and also for the reason that it has to become the medium of instruction in higher education.<sup>25</sup>

Duration of School Period and Vacations: The relevant details of school year, number of days and periods per week etc. are evident from Appendix B. The duration of day in the rural primary schools varies according to climatic conditions and the location of the school. Where the children attend the school from a distance of 2 to 4 miles, the school opening time is set somewhat late. Similar is the case in winter season. Except in the former N.F. Frontier Province, the schools close on Sundays and for half day on Fridays. In the NWF Province and the tribal areas Friday is the day on which they close.

Unlike previous years, when seasonal vacation of about 3 to 4 weeks each on Rabi (summer) and Khareef (winter) crops seasons were given, from 1963 onward the system of giving summer vacation for two months (usually June and July) is adopted.<sup>26</sup> This brings the rural schools in line with those in urban areas. It is, however, feared that this practice will present serious problems. The children would not be able to help their parents at the harvesting season, or if they do so, the school attendance will be jeopardized; reversion to former practice is therefore essential.

Survey Reports Based on the Present Conditions in the Rural Primary Schools of West Pakistan: To ascertain the present practice in the rural primary schools the writer conducted a survey of opinions among

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<sup>25</sup>Report of the Commission on National Education, op.cit., pp. 290-291.

<sup>26</sup>The writer came to know of this fact while he was away in Pakistan during summer vacation, 1963.

the teachers and parents. Special permission was obtained from the district inspector of schools, Gujrat for contacting the teachers in the district. An informal type of questionnaire was worked out to elicit from the interviewees the real position in the schools. As to preferring the interview scheme it may be added that with formal questions, first of all the teachers care little to answer. If they do so, they try to put the good points in their answers whether they carry them out or not. Such an absurd situation was faced by a researcher where the frequency of such responses seemed 'fantastic and unbelievable'.<sup>27</sup> As regards the parents, most of them are illiterate in the villages and they had to be approached personally. In a majority of cases the writer had to put supplementary questions in amplification of a set question. In some cases the tone of the responses was also taken into account. On the whole seven rural primary school teachers with varying qualifications and teaching experience were interviewed. A similar number was interviewed among the parents. Herein are placed four sample answers each from teachers and parents. (See Appendix D and Appendix E respectively.)

The original questions were put in Urdu; their English version is reproduced below:

A. Interview Questions Put to the Rural Primary School Teachers:

1. What special considerations make you teach in the rural primary school?
2. How often do you meet and discuss with the parents about the pupils? What is their usual attitude?

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<sup>27</sup>Unpublished thesis by Shahida Husain, A curriculum for the Central Government Junior Model School, Frere Town, Karachi, Beirut, American University of Beirut, 1959, p. 80.

3. Are you bound to teach the prescribed course or can you add or delete from it according to the needs of the area and in view of the resources found there.
4. Have you studied the new Primary School Curriculum? Is it overcrowded?
5. What method/methods do you usually use in the teaching of primary school subjects?
6. Do you like the Direct Method in teaching language, especially Urdu teaching?
7. How do you provide for some special attitudes or interests in your class children?
8. How often do you provide opportunities to your students to work in the village fields or in community welfare projects. Relate specific instances.
9. What do the inspectors normally examine in their inspection period?
10. Has any inspector ever inspired you or has he worked towards research in any educational problem? State the nature of such project.
11. What do you think are the main causes of dropouts in the rural primary schools.
12. Have you any suggestions for the improvement of village schools?

B. Interview Questions Put to the Parents:

1. Do you think the primary teachers work sincerely according to their ability? How are they different from the teachers of your times?

2. Does your studying child help you in your work at home, in the field or in business?
3. Is school in your area doing something for the betterment of life in your village?
4. Do you think the teachers can do social work with the collaboration of Basic Democracies or other Government Departments.
5. How often do you go to school and meet the teachers about your child's studies? Do the teachers like it?
6. What do you think are the major causes that many children leave the school before completing their studies?
7. Is the curriculum of primary schools overcrowded? How does it differ from your days?
8. Do you like the idea if pupils work in the fields, or the farm or learn some craft in the school? Can you render some help if needed?
9. Do you have some suggestions to improve the condition of the rural primary schools?

Besides these questions actual classroom observations, meeting with certain headmasters and examining the lesson notes, diary books and time tables in the rural schools were conducted. The courses offered to pupil-teachers or student teachers in the normal school Gujrat and their lesson notes for practice teaching were also examined. Although more detailed aspects could not be traced out due to closure of the schools for summer vacation, yet it was possible to secure enough information to give a sample of what is taking place in the rural primary

schools. The opinions and facts embodied in the following analysis are based on the findings of the above surveys.<sup>28</sup>

The Courses of Study: The responses of the teachers as well as of the parents show that the curriculum, on the whole, is overcrowded.<sup>29</sup> It is specifically mentioned by some teachers that the mathematics course especially in the first three classes of the primary schools has been over simplified, whereas the course for science in the fifth class is very difficult.<sup>30</sup> One teacher regarded the science course equal to middle and matriculation standard.<sup>31</sup> The writer happened to see the fifth class science text books and found that much technical knowledge in science is included therein which cannot be comprehended by the children.

Methods of Instruction: It appears from the responses that the teachers are progressive minded. They believe that modern methods must be used.<sup>32</sup> In actuality, however, when cross questioned as what specific method or methods they usually made use of, it was gathered that they mostly use the recitation method, drill and lecture methods. This fact was further augmented while watching the techniques in some of the classes of these teachers. Some newly trained teachers do use some of these methods employing the audiovisual aids. They are, however, tied up on two sides, general public, and the inspection staff. The general public like the old traditional methods in which they were mostly taught under "strict" teachers in the Madriissas or in Maktabas. The inspection staff demands covering the course which ultimately leads to memorization.

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<sup>28</sup>For detailed answers of the questions, please see Appendices D and E. They have been translated from Urdu.

<sup>29</sup>See Appendices D and E.

<sup>30</sup>See Appendix D3.

<sup>31</sup>See Appendix D3 & 4.

<sup>32</sup>See Appendix D3 & 4, and Appendix E.

On the other hand, some better teachers make the best use of the training they have received in the normal schools. They use the inductive method in arithmetic teaching. For instance, concrete examples precede the formulae.<sup>33</sup> Usually, however, the teachers explain certain problem on the chalk board and the children are required to do similar type of sums on the basis of the first solution. In social studies the lecture or story method is used to impart the facts of history or geography. In case of language teaching all the teachers agree that the direct method of teaching language, as proposed in the language primers, is not useful. They argue that in this way the children commit more spelling mistakes.<sup>34</sup>

As regards meeting the individual needs of the children it was stated by some teachers that they pay special attention towards intelligent children so that they can qualify for the "scholarship examination".<sup>35</sup>

School Inspection: At least all the teachers are of the view that the inspection techniques come in the way of adapting the curriculum content according to rural needs. The inspectors usually examine the courses of study covered by the teachers and their objective receptivity by the children; objective in the sense that usually the factual knowledge of the school children is tested. It was unanimously reported that no inspector had inspired these teachers to conduct any research or a survey which could go a long way in improving the educational system

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<sup>33</sup>This procedure is generally adhered to in the training schools.

<sup>34</sup>See Appendix D and Appendix E, and Appendix F.

<sup>35</sup>The 'Scholarship Examinations' are held yearly and the topmost 50 to 60 male students in a district are examined in various subjects. Those who qualify, are awarded a nominal scholarship or a sum of money for three years till they pass the Middle School examination. See Appendix D also.

in the rural areas.<sup>36</sup> It was pointed out that inspection notes criticising the teachers' work are written on the log books.<sup>37</sup> Some inspectors as such become arbitrate in grading the teachers' work. This method of 'inspecting' - the knowledge of the children and the syllabus covered, - has encouraged a wide trend of verbal learning and memorization in the village schools.

The inspectors seldom meet the local public and discuss with them the affairs of the school and problems of the community. The academic inspectors are 'respected' and 'welcomed' more warmly than the inspectors for physical education.

Evaluation Techniques and Examinations: Mastery of the subject is tested through various examinations and tests. There are usually terminal tests after every three months and one final annual examination. The terminal tests may be conducted by the inspector of schools but the final examination is definitely conducted either by the Assistant District Inspector of Schools or by the District Inspector himself. There is no public examination in any class of the primary schools as such. Instead, students of final class - fifth class - are examined collectively at "Center Schools".<sup>38</sup>

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<sup>36</sup>See Appendic D.

<sup>37</sup>These books are meant for recording inspection reports. The increments, promotion or reversion of the teachers are very much based on the gradings of the inspectors.

<sup>38</sup>Center Schools or سنٹر سارس are the schools located in the center of about 8 to 10 schools. See also Appendix E4.

Some selected students (nearly 4 to 6) in the fifth class are sent to district headquarters for Scholarship Examination. They are tested there mainly in language, arithmetic and social studies. The results are announced there and then and the 'failures' are eliminated. Some top 50 to 40 children in the whole district are awarded the nominal amount of scholarship for three years till they pass middle school examination. The test of a good primary school teacher is often viewed by the number of such scholarships in a school. So the teachers put maximum efforts in preparing the children for this academic battle and thus win the prestige which ultimately counts for their own promotions.

Major Reasons for Dropouts in Primary Schools: A considerable amount of wastage and stagnation takes place in the primary classes of rural schools. First of all, in the absence of promulgation of compulsory education law owing to inadequate educational facilities the parents are free to either send their children to school or not. As mentioned above, the areas where illiteracy is on the increase and majority of the children do not attend the school, compulsory education law comes in action. For a period there are wholesale admissions in the schools but after a year or so everything cools down; the interest of the Education Department as well as of the parents is lost.

On the basis of the surveys conducted by the writer the following are found to be the main reasons for dropouts in the rural primary schools of West Pakistan:

1. The indifference of parents towards education and their poor conditions which compel the children to enter into economic activity or work with them on the fields.



2. Lack of proper interest of teachers in education, heavy curriculum blended with strict school discipline.
3. Lack of adaptation of educational practices according to local needs; mechanical teaching methods.
4. Failures of pupils and fear of repeating the class.
5. The children's association with undesirable peer groups.
6. Location of certain schools at a great distance from pupils' home villages.
7. Frequent diseases among children.<sup>39</sup>

Present Structure of Primary Teacher Education: The primary school teachers are mainly trained in the normal schools. The organization of teacher education in West Pakistan is, however, not unified. A certain amount of divergencies prevail from region to region with regard to the nature of training, duration of training, entrance qualifications and admission procedures.

The two types of courses requiring one year training in each are offered for primary and middle school teachers all over West Pakistan except in Hyderabad region. These courses are named as J.V. (Junior Vernacular) and S.V. (Senior Vernacular). The candidates are required to have passed secondary school and higher secondary school examinations respectively. This restriction of basic qualification is relaxed for tribal areas of Quetta region. Institutes in Hyderabad region, on the other hand, provide training for First Year and Second Year Training Certificates thus extending the period to two years after the secondary

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<sup>39</sup>For detailed reasons given by the teachers and parents, please see Appendix D and Appendix E respectively.

school education. Normally, the courses of study prescribed for such schools are as follows:

A. Professional Subjects

1. Child Psychology
2. General Methods
3. History and Philosophy of Education
4. Special Methods

B. Academic Courses

1. Languages
2. Natural Sciences
3. Social Studies
4. Mathematics
5. Arts
6. Physical Education
7. Religious Education (Islamiat).<sup>40</sup>

In the next chapter the importance of rural education is discussed and the proposals are made in the light of comparative studies done in many countries in this regard.

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<sup>40</sup> Teacher Education in West Pakistan, Lahore, West Pakistan Bureau of Education, 1962, pp. 34-35.

## CHAPTER IV

### PROPOSALS FOR RURAL EDUCATION PROGRAM IN THE RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF WEST PAKISTAN

It was briefly pointed out that, although the rural population make the backbone of Pakistan's economy, they have been badly neglected by the authorities. It was indicated that this deficiency has been lately discovered and steps are underway for future development.

Taking specifically the field of education into account, it is clear enough that a wide gulf exists between the educational facilities provided in big urban centers on the one hand and remote villages on the other. Such a disparity, existed in the past although to a much lesser degree, in most of the developed countries of the world. For example, in the United States before 1947, the number of school-going rural children of five to seventeen years age group was far less in proportion to corresponding age group in the cities.<sup>1</sup> By carrying out various projects in the form of either extension services, through reorganization of the schools or modification of the curricula for rural schools according to rural environment, America now stands in the forefront of the nations working hard for the improvement of the rural people lot.

Denmark's economic process is also a case in point. By 1865, after being brought to the lowest depth of poverty and misery by the

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<sup>1</sup>T.E. Butterworth and H.A. Dawson, The Modern Rural School, New York, McGraw Hill Book Company Inc., 1952, p. 9.

Napoleonic wars, by the rebellion of rich provinces and then war with Germany, Denmark was fortunate enough to have great preacher-philosopher, Bishop Grundtvig, whose greatest contribution was the establishment of folk schools.<sup>2</sup> These institutions gave the masses an eagerness to master the new science of agriculture. The rapid improvement in rural elementary schools in Denmark has largely been due to the influence of these folk schools.<sup>3</sup> The situation of Pureto Rico before 1940 was similar to that of Denmark. There were poverty, misery and vulnerability to illness. There were no places for education of more than 40 per cent of the schoolage children. This ratio rose with progress of educational and social welfare programs and became more than 65 per cent in 1951.<sup>4</sup>

In the light of the above examples, and in the light of the prevailing conditions in West Pakistan, there is need to have some workable program for rural primary schools in West Pakistan. Before proceeding toward a plan and before detailing its essentials, it is important to mention the importance of rural education and the particular function of the rural primary schools.

#### Importance of Rural Education in Developing Pakistan.

The need for rural development had considerably been felt since the very establishment of Pakistan in 1947. The highly centralized system of the foreign rule which was inherited before Independence period used to obstruct the implementations of any development scheme which were prepared at the top without practically involving the local rural

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<sup>2</sup>A term applied to a type of adult school inspired by Nicolaj Grundtvig, founded in Denmark in 1851, and commonly known as the Danish Folk High School; later became popular in all Scandinavian countries. Carter V. Good, Dictionary of Education, New York, McGraw Hill Book Co., 1945, p. 174.

<sup>3</sup>Charles D. Lewis, The Rural Community and its Schools, New York, American Book Company, 1937, pp. 377-78.

<sup>4</sup>Pureto Rico: An educational survey report, Beirut, American University, n.d., p.  
For recent developments see Daily Star, Beirut, dated 26 April 1964.

population. With gradual industrial and technical development, commercialization and urbanization during the last decade, especially in the Western wing of Pakistan,<sup>5</sup> the attention of the authorities for rural development gained great impetus. The Village AID organization, the Basic Democracies system, the Land Reforms, and the Educational Reforms - all are cases in point.<sup>6</sup>

Of all the factors entering into the development of rural areas and dealing with the betterment of rural living, rural education is the most important factor. To understand rural education, however, the broad aims of education have to be taken into consideration.

Education, according to Charles Lewis must be thought of as "the process of changing conduct by means of the acquisition, retention, assimilation, reorganization and utilization of experience, personal and vicarious."<sup>7</sup> Or still, the main aim of education is "to enable the child to adjust to his environment and to reconstruct it."<sup>8</sup> Viewed from this angle, the children, the young and the adults, need education in accordance with the situation they live in plus an ability to adapt it in a better way. Rural education, as such, refers primarily to agricultural communities and is not limited to formal schooling for children and the adults. It comprises, in addition, the informal educational programs which are carried by various public and voluntary associations among rural population.<sup>9</sup>

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<sup>5</sup>Pakistan Census Bulletin No. 2, Karachi, Census Commissioner, 1961, p. 13.

<sup>6</sup> See Chapter I for explanation.

<sup>7</sup> Charles D. Lewis, op.cit., p. 198.

<sup>8</sup> Jebrial Katul, Notes for Educational Administration, Beirut, American University of Beirut, 1961, p. 1.

<sup>9</sup> F.Q. Reeves, Education for Rural America, Chicago, The University Press, 1947, p. 12.

The field of rural education is best delineated in terms of two major aspects:

a) Rural education involves the development of curriculum based upon the experiences, life interests and needs of the taught. It also depends on the education of the teachers, the development of the curriculum, and of carrying it out.

b) It also consists of a number of external aspects, viz: school organization, school buildings, pupil transportation and provision of related services.

#### Functions of the Rural Primary Schools in West Pakistan.

Education is a continuous process. The primary stage of education forms a basis for further education; it is a formative period, the most important in the whole educative process. The role of the rural primary school as the most important part of rural education is not, however, limited to serving the rural children in acquiring the "tools of learning", but it must aim also "to create a desire for continued growth and supply means for making the desire effective in fact."<sup>10</sup> Putting it more concretely the primary schools in the rural areas of West Pakistan must:

a) serve the child in his growth toward citizenship in a free society. The child must have, not only academic literacy, but social, civil, and economic literacy as well.

b) serve the people of all ages in the rural communities for a better life.

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<sup>10</sup> John Dewey, Democracy and Education, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1916, p. 60.

c) serve the nation through the constructive forces towards the individual dignity, group action, and civil liberty; and

d) serve the one-world; the subjects must be given the chance to learn about the world and live in it.<sup>11</sup>

Basic Essentials for the Rural Primary School Program.

In view of the principles stated above, an effective program for West Pakistani rural primary schools necessitates the following essentials:

1. Provision of educational experiences and activities to meet the needs of every individual.
2. Development of the school and community relations.
3. Close cooperation and coordination of various social and welfare associations and teachers' organizations.
4. Presence of modern methods of instruction.
5. Provision of essential services in and out of the schools.
6. Training of teachers to carry out modern techniques in educational practices.
7. Organization and consolidation of the rural primary schools to ensure better results in provision of educational opportunities.
8. Evaluation of the program through results based on the specific educational practices and awarding suitable guidance at all levels.

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<sup>11</sup>This last principle, aiming at international understanding, is specially stressed in the present primary school curriculum, Karachi, Ministry of Education, 1960, p. 2.

Hereunder are detailed major guide lines to meet these essentials. Efforst have, however, been made to put sufficient weight on first, the provision of rural educational experience in and out of the schools, second, the methods of teaching, third, the teacher training, and fourth, the reorganization of the school units.

#### THE PROPOSED EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCES AND ACTIVITIES

Any consideration of education in rural communities would be incomplete and narrow unless it were interpreted against sociological background from which it stemmed. Rural people and urban people are not alike. They often speak differently, act differently, dress differently and even think differently. This is the result of the different environmental influences thrust upon them by the physical, social and economic characteristics in which they live.<sup>12</sup>

This statement is undoubtedly pertinent to the case of Pakistani life, where both rural and urban environments differ considerably so far as various resources and 'lacks' are concerned. This situation raises many queries as to the nature of educational experiences in the rural primary schools of West Pakistan. What should be taught in such schools? Should the time-honored fundamentals of the three R's be neglected at the cost of professional and vocational subjects even though these three R's are <sup>not</sup> very much related to the rural life? Or should we become so conscious of the new experiences that we forget the old?

Before any specific suggestions are put forth, it is appropriate to set before us some broad but tentative aims for the rural primary schools in West Pakistan. Such aims may help us to anticipate and predispose the projected activities in the rural schools.

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<sup>12</sup>Burton W. Kreitlow, Rural Education: Community Background, New York, Harper and Brothers, 1954, p. 69.



These aims are in essence an amplification of those proposed by the Education Commission of Pakistan for primary schools,<sup>13</sup> but are based mainly on our understanding of rural life in West Pakistan.

Aims of Rural Primary Schools in West Pakistan.

1. The development of basic skills in habits of reading and understanding written and oral mother tongue with special reference to its functional use.
2. The development of understanding and skill in the use of number concepts that may be applied to the problems of home and community.
3. The development of skills in manual arts.
4. An understanding of basic facts and principles of rural science, home-making and domestic science, and farming.
5. An understanding of basic elements of Pakistani rural and urban culture and the place of the individual in them, with an introduction to other related cultures.
6. An appreciation of the family and rural life and working cooperatively with others in all types of life situations.
7. An appreciation of natural phenomena and development.
8. An understanding of the essentials of mental and physical health of the individual as well as of the community.
9. The inculcation of a feeling of respect for work, manual labor, and high achievement.
10. Raising the standard of living of people through better crops, vegetables, cottage industries, rural crafts and trade.

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<sup>13</sup>Report of the Commission on National Education, Karachi, Ministry of Education, 1959, p. 173.

11. An understanding of religion not as a set of dogma but as a way of life so that it assumes the function of a factor for progress.

12. The acquisition of the feeling of international citizenship and acting on democratic principles.

These aims, stated in terms of broad goals, may not be attained by the school single handedly unless helped by various agencies of the community. Harmonizing all the available resources - human and material - is, therefore, of vital importance. To be more realistic in suggesting activities which can lead to the realization of the projected aims, it is important to evaluate and select such activities on the basis of their value to the individual and community needs.<sup>14</sup>

Technique of Reorganizing the Courses of Study to Rural Needs, Environments.

A few years ago, the curriculum content for the rural schools was based mostly on rural conditions. But now, "due to being mixture, it seems neither duck nor fowl."<sup>15</sup> Does this mean that there must be separate courses of study and other activities for rural and urban environments or that there must be common courses for both with desirable modification? Since Pakistan is aiming at the development of capacities of its individuals as citizens in a welfare state,<sup>16</sup> it is essential that both sections of the population be developed.

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<sup>14</sup>For illustration of this nature see Genevieve Bowen's Living and Earning in a Rural School, New York, Macmillan Company, 1947, pp. 176-205.

<sup>15</sup>These views were expressed in an answer to a question put to an experienced teacher by the writer. Please see Appendix F.

<sup>16</sup>Proceedings of the Seminar on Welfare Administration, Karachi, Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, 1960, p. vi.

Referring once again to Chapter III, it is believed that the latest curriculum of the primary schools provides ample provision for local modifications in the teaching of various subjects. But there are some obstacles in the way of carrying out such practices. The stated aim for all primary schools "maintaining the uniform academic standard in the primary schools of Pakistan,"<sup>17</sup> the sameness of textbooks for both rural and urban schools,<sup>18</sup> and the preparation of the students in all parts of the country for various examinations are some of these views. We shall attempt to define a major line of action for ruralization of the existing curriculum. In order to envisage the desired ends it is appropriate to divide the rural curriculum into the following major topics:

1. General Subjects and Activities: The first group is the subject matter necessary to give the child an understanding of, and an appreciation for, the vitally important experiences of the social organization. These experiences are needed of all the primary school children whether in the city or the village. These include, for example, language, arithmetic, social studies, health instruction, art and religion.

2. Basic Subjects and Activities: The second group may be the basic knowledge and skills concerning the present social and natural environments of the child, both immediate and remote. For such knowledge and skills it is necessary that they must find roots in home and community activities, otherwise the interests of the children towards further useful

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<sup>17</sup>Curriculum and Courses of Study for Primary Schools of Pakistan, Karachi, Ministry of Education, 1960, p. 1.

<sup>18</sup>The textbooks are published by the Department of Education through National Textbook Corporations.

learning will not be motivated. These experiences should include agriculture, nature study, home and domestic science, and manual and rural crafts.

Structuring the Curriculum Pyramid Round the Core of Rural Interests.

If we aim at structuring the curriculum on the basis of the interests of rural children as suggested above, we must explore the very nature of such interests. At the center of rural culture is the home and the farm. The needs of rural people are basically related to domestic and agriculture life. Consequently the specific experiences and activities that lie closest to rural life must form the foundation or point of departure for developing the mastery of fundamentals of knowledge - both academic and practical. On such a foundation certain matters of further interest should be added. Such fundamental experiences, in other words, must form the core of the curriculum for the rural primary schools in West Pakistan.<sup>19</sup> It is, therefore, suggested that elementary agriculture, manual training and domestic science must form the core in the new scheme of organization, (For illustration, please see Chart VI on next page). The activities relevant to these programs are discussed below:

1. Elementary Agriculture and School Gardening: Agriculture, as mentioned before, forms the pivot of the village economy in Pakistan. It is, therefore, necessary to produce agriculturally oriented boys and girls who possess love for and the desire to improve the rural economy. Teaching of elementary agriculture and school gardening is necessary to form the basis and for further study of agricultural or rural sciences

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<sup>19</sup>For a detailed discussion on Core Curriculum, the reader is referred to "Developing the Core Curriculum, by R.C. Fauze and N.L. Nossing, New York, Prentice Hall, Inc., 1952.



in the secondary schools. Giving a sound practical agricultural instruction is also desirable for better agricultural workers since a good number of children fail to pursue any form of higher education. Further, since children work with their parents on the farms, it is believed that they will gain more practical and theoretical knowledge on modern lines. This will go a long way in improving agricultural techniques. The teaching of agricultural sciences is also proposed by the Food and Agriculture Commission of Pakistan.<sup>20</sup>

Elementary agriculture and school's gardening are related to one another and the rural schools have excellent opportunities for effective instruction in these subjects. They may include generalized nature study and some practical work in Classes I and II leading to the study of elements of agriculture in Classes III to V with sufficient practical work. The study of the soil, its composition, cultivation, fertilization, drainage, crop producing qualities, the farm and garden plants, tillage, conditions of crop growth, and their common diseases, harvesting, cost of raising, selection and care of the seeds, the insects, birds and animal life can be provided. Similarly principles of poultry industry, bee-keeping, honey industry, fertilizers, grasses, vegetables and milk testing must be stressed. Also the trend to produce improved food and cash crops by employing modern agriculture techniques and machinery need to be emphasized.

2. Hand Work and Manual Training: Scientific knowledge and manual training are of vital importance. This necessity was felt as

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<sup>20</sup> Agriculture Education, vol. I, No. I, March 1963, Lyallpur, West Pakistan Agricultural University, 1963, p. 50.

early as the establishment of Pakistan. In a message to the First Pakistan Educational Conference held on 28 November 1947 at Karachi; the founder of Pakistan, Mr. Muhammad Ali Jinnah, emphasized the need for scientific and technical education in Pakistan.<sup>21</sup>

This belief of promoting scientific and technical education was further supplemented by the National Education Commission in their recommendations.<sup>22</sup> To inculcate, therefore, the dignity of labor among the young generation, the manual training and basic technical instruction in the school must be basically emphasized. By training to work with hands, the children will learn and develop a favorable attitude towards work enabling them to engage in useful jobs instead of seeking "white-collar" jobs.

Hand work and manual training must not be of purely technical aspects. The children could be taught practical care and handling of simple tools; finish and protection, wood work, metal work, leather work, basketry, weaving pottery, calico printing, book binding and ink making. The writer recalls his student days in a model school,<sup>23</sup> where most of these crafts mentioned above were taught practically. These crafts as well as school gardening were very much interest provoking and inspiring that the rigidity of academic courses were almost wiped out when our class was in actual field of manual training. Also it helped a lot in knowing and appreciating rural occupations.

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<sup>21</sup>Quaid e Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah, Words of Wisdom, Karachi, Government of Pakistan, Publications and Films Department, 1961, p. 33.

<sup>22</sup>Report of the Commission on National Education, op.cit., p. 239.

<sup>23</sup>The name of the school is DB (now Government) Model Middle School, Bhagowal, Tehsil and District Gujrat, West Pakistan.

It is further suggested that elements of local industry must be provided for in rural schools, for example, camel skin work (making lamp shades, flower vases and making patterns on them), earthen ware could be provided for in Multar and Bhawalpur Divisions, while in Gujrat and Gujranwala area, metal work, woodwork and pottery must receive special attention. Similarly in Sind, metal work, making glass bangles may be of vital use.

3. Domestic Science: Some may think that the girls should be given training in home activities only. But this is an absurd idea. We cannot afford to waste such human material in this way. This is most important in view of the high percentage of illiteracy among the females in Pakistan.<sup>24</sup> It is especially essential because the burden of bringing up the future citizens of Pakistan will fall on them. So, practical and academic education should, more and more, open its doors to the female sex. Thus, beside acquiring a broad knowledge of school gardening, elementary agriculture and nature study, the girls need to be provided with experiences in home making and domestic science.

They should be given elementary instruction in household arts and management, in clothing and decoration. Ideas and skills such as price of food, proper preparation and serving of food, care of the kitchen, house cleaning, sanitation, laundry work, elementary nursing and proper care of the sick should be emphasized. The village girls are specially fond of knitting, sewing, need and embroidery work,

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<sup>24</sup>The Literacy percentage among rural females of West Pakistan is 3.2% (See Pakistan Census Bulletin No. 4, Karachi, 1961, p. xiii.)



and of making new designs. They also take deep interest in Newar<sup>25</sup> weaving and calico printing. When these girls learn such activities in schools, there will be a general liking for the school and this will help in bringing the school closer to the community. The better products of some upper grade girls can be sold out to compensate for the expenses of some students. Such a practice is being carried out in certain industrial schools in the villages of Haripur District, West Pakistan.

Modifications in the 'General Subjects' According to the Rural Needs and Problems.

Since both sections of the population - rural and urban - are parts of one whole, the nation, and since the general objectives of primary education are the same, school efforts must be geared towards such objectives. However, the subject content must receive necessary modifications in relation to the essential features of rural environment and life. Such a modification is suggested below:

1. Mother Tongue: Since the main aim of reading is to develop a well-refined taste for reading material that will meet the life needs of the individual, the reading material/<sup>for</sup>rural people must comprise folk stories, materials dealing with farming and country life and its problems. Such material must be further adapted to individual needs and the standard of each school class.

It is recommended that the supplementary language books<sup>26</sup> being

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<sup>25</sup> Newar is about three inches wide tape made of indigenous cotton thread and is used to prepare the bedsteads.

<sup>26</sup> For example, in Urdu there are books named:

اُردو کی اضافی کتاب، حصہ اول - دوم - سوم وغیرہ

used at present in Classes III to V must exclusively contain the material pertaining to rural life. It is also suggested that out-of-school language material be utilized extensively in the schools. The children from the third class onward should be trained to read local newspapers, reports, and simple magazines and agricultural directives, etc. This action will bring the school closer to rural society.

The teachers are requested not to put too much ~~such~~ emphasis on teaching of grammar; instead, functional use of grammar must be taken up during the course of reading, speaking, and writing. Similarly, the children must be induced for creative writing. As regards allocation of time for language learning, it is proposed that instead of 15 periods a week,<sup>27</sup> only 12 periods would suffice for such type of learning. This curtailed portion of the time may be given to practical agriculture work and school gardening.

2. Mathematics: Elementary mathematics forms a very important part of the curriculum in the rural primary schools.<sup>28</sup>

Skills in number operations should be motivated through associating the process with the real life situations and the interests of the child. Such situations should largely be the growth of the farm and small town. For example, problems of investment, rural banking and cooperatives, rural taxes and revenues,<sup>29</sup> canal water taxes, tobacco taxes and transaction of business in the village market or mandi must be

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<sup>27</sup>See Appendix B.

<sup>28</sup>See Appendix D1.

<sup>29</sup>Muamla and Abiana, as they are called in the rural areas.

emphasized. Similarly, in measurements ability the matters relating to the fields and the crops like assessing the seed rate and working out total cost per acre, the estimated cost of foodgrains or fibre etc., must be stressed more. In fourth and fifth classes, however, wider range of mathematical problems concerning the rural and urban life must be taken up.

3. Social Studies: As far as is practicable, the social, civic, economic, geographical, and industrial aspects must be utilized in connecting rural environment with teaching of social studies. Topics dealing with problems like, "How agriculture developed in our district or community," "How does agriculture machinery and power help in agriculture," and "How some agricultural countries like Denmark developed their economy," must be dealt with in history lessons. In geography, the study of the local soil, farm wealth, production and marketing, manufacture, trade and communications must be emphasized. The civics must deal with the village functioning, the Basic Democracies, the role of National Building Departments (NBDs), the administration of the district and the province at large.

The importance of economy, savings, working hard to increase income may be other topics which need special attention in the primary schools. Likewise ideas such as respect for women must be developed through stories, literature and discussions. Common mixed functions of boys and girls on some annual functions like "Parents' Day" may prove to be of immense value in this regard.

4. General Science: General Science for rural schools has deep roots in nature study, agriculture and geography. Instead of treating it technically in the classroom, the natural phenomena that is, weather, source of water, heat, light, composition and importance of air, soil and rocks etc., must be emphasized. The scientific observation and practice must conform closely to agriculture and school gardening.

5. Practical Arts and Music: Practical art teaching must deal largely with modelling and drawing of nature material, for example, the leaves, birds, trees, fossils, rivers, forests, village scenes, ploughs, sowing and harvesting scenes and the like. As for music, it is usually not liked in the rural areas due to its attachment with the class who are considered to be Kamis or working class. To explore the musical talents among the children, however, it is imperative to introduce local folk music through the services of the musicians who can tour different schools for this purpose. Similarly school bands must be provided at least in every central or consolidated school.

6. Health and Physical Training: Despite open air and natural environments in the rural areas the rural child lacks healthy growth. This is mainly due to the fact that the parents do not take much care for the health preservation of their children. They usually resort to statements which roughly means: "We are simple, why should we care for such formalities?" This attitude develops in the children as well. As the development of habits in body care, rules of living, eating, sleeping, and resting take place early in life, more emphasis must be placed in the schools on the importance of pure drinking water, fresh air and ample light, and community hygiene;

Attitudes must be built through persuasion and with practical help of the school staff to cover the dirty water pits, village ponds, and other dirty places to avoid malaria, cholera, and other diseases. Clean food and its constituents, understanding the causes of spread of main diseases and trying to avoid such calamities and epidemics.

7. Religious Instruction: "So far as the principles of Islam are concerned, Divine Providence has Himself spelled them out in His Holy Book in unambiguous terms. The difficulty however, is that while it has become customary to recite and teach the Holy Quran as a matter of grace, hardly any serious effort is made to go into its real meanings and implications. This is the reason why a wide gulf exists between our faith and practice today."<sup>30</sup> These words of the President are quite true. The elements of religion must conform closely to the development of socio-economic conditions of the community. The true principles of Islam as a living, dynamic religion must be included in a way that the individuals become incited towards more healthy living, instead of paying wholehearted attention to formal ways of praying.

#### DEVELOPING THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The responsibility of the rural schools in West Pakistan must not be limited to educating rural children in the classroom. The school must serve the community in which it is placed if it has to assume the function of a social institution. Or, borrowing Dewey's terminology, the school

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<sup>30</sup>F.M. Muhammad Ayub Khan, Islam and the Modern Challenge, Karachi, Department of Films and Publications, Government of Pakistan, 1961, p. 2.

should not be a part of social life; it should be all of it.<sup>31</sup> Thus the school needs to be changed into what has come to be called the community school. The two major responsibilities of the school in this respect are discussed below.

A. Helping the learner to understand the community problems. The diagram sketched below (See Chart VII) gives a picture of the rural school as conceived in community setting. From the homes in which the children draw their first lessons in living with the family circle, interests are gradually to be extended to schools and then school's relationship with persons and institutions in the village and beyond it. The child must be helped to understand these institutions and their related responsibilities and activities. These topics or some important parts thereof may form the topics for unit teaching in the rural primary schools.

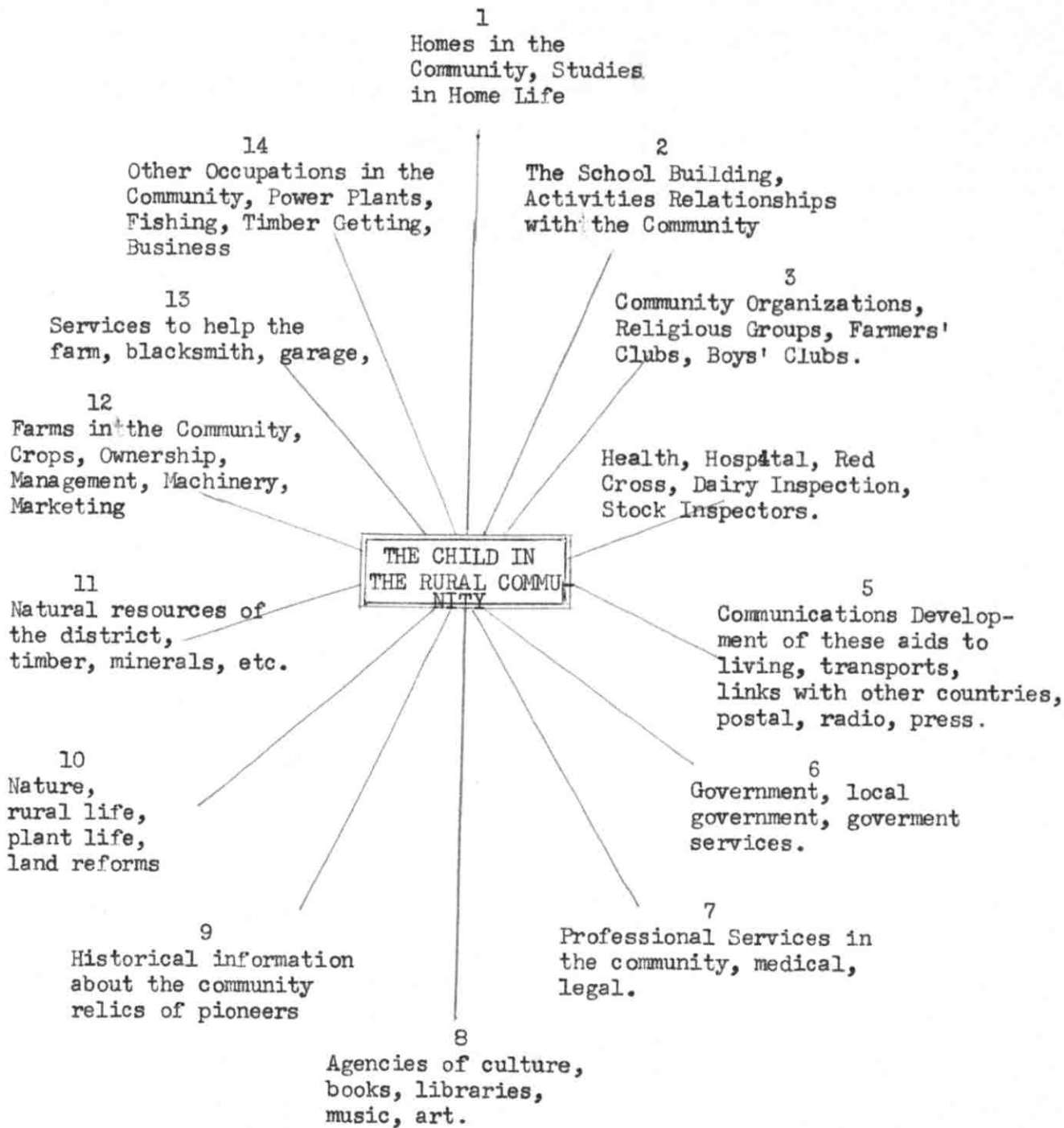
B. Encouraging local community in school interests. The local community needs to be encouraged to take a lively interest in the school affairs. This can be done in a variety of ways, such as the following:

1. individual action on the part of the teachers, supervisors and other educators. This device is specifically important and easy to carry out in the small communities of the rural areas;
2. joint committees comprising school and community members to promote particular activities such as school library, school and farm management, agriculture cooperatives and marketing enterprises;
3. public welfare societies such as village cooperative societies, youth leagues, welfare homes, etc.;

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<sup>31</sup>Reported in James Mulhern's, A History of Education, New York, The Ronald Company, 1946, p. 380.

Chart VII



Adapted from Braitkwaite, J.W., McRae, C.R. and Staines, R.G. Reform in the Primary School, Melbourne, A.C.E.R., 1943, (The Future of Education Series No. 4).

4. associations of parents and citizens or through the good offices of the local members of Basic Democracies, the headmen and other educated persons in the community.

The School as the Center of Rural Activities. In order that the school obtains central focus of the social and cultural activities in the community, the school authorities must especially afford generous support to local organizations both in guidance and subsidies. It can be done in a variety of ways: evening classes for the functional literacy may be arranged for adults and those children who do not go to school in the day time in view of their pre engagements on the farm or in some rural crafts. The school building or the school halls (if they so exist) must be used for meetings, lectures, debates, films and dramatic shows. The mobile cinema to show documentary pictures and the mobile libraries can be made to use through the schools. Similarly the school play grounds can be used by the local community.

It is suggested that almost every big rural school or the central school should maintain a social service center. This center may have a small clinic or M.I. (Medical Inspection) Room for the school children and the community. As it will be somewhat impossible to engage individual doctors in all the schools, it is proposed that the services of a local qualified doctor or "Hakim" or "Tabeeb"<sup>32</sup> may be utilized. If it is

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<sup>32</sup>A Hakim or a Tabeeb is a certificated doctor in Unani, Aryovedic or Arabic Medicine. Such Hakims and Tabeebs are now being given government recognition to practice (Radio Pakistan News on 2nd May 1964).



not feasible, one doctor for each union council schools should be provided by the health department. This official should travel extensively in his area and be responsible for children's health, and also for the community health and hygiene.

An agricultural advisory service may also be created in each circle to advise on school gardening and community agriculture. In this way the rural schools will have full units directed towards the improvement of local community. Specific recommendations to coordinate the services of rural development agencies are made in the later part of this chapter.

#### A Program for Development of Public Relations.

On the basis of the above analysis a program for development of community and school relationship is suggested. It will entail the following requisites:

1. Studying the interests and needs of the community through:
  - (a) Community survey by the teachers and social workers.
  - (b) Public forums and discussions.
  - (c) Home visitations.
2. Enlisting the interests of the groups having direct bearing on the school program such as:
  - (a) Local and district education committees.
  - (b) Parent Teacher Associations.
  - (c) Basic Democracies Organizations.
  - (d) The School inspection staff.
3. Orientation the School Personnel. In this regard the teachers' organizations can serve a useful purpose. In West Pakistan the single big association of the rural school teachers is the Punjab Teachers

Union. Other small associations and organizations do exist, but they have little direct bearing on the rural primary schools as the former has. Such teachers associations, in short, must carry out the following activities in order to orientate the school personnel and bring schools close to society:

(a) Publish a magazine indicating various activities done by various schools for education.

(b) Sponsor public forums, festivals and exhibitions.

(c) Organize study groups and conferences.

(d) Establish a section dealing with research studies of pupil progress, textbooks, curriculum, schedules and problems of public and professional interests.

(e) Organize speakers' bureau comprising of competent teachers having profound knowledge of public and professional questions.

(f) Organize safety or cleaning campaigns for country improvement. This may be specially helpful in times of floods or epidemics. It is suggested that the primary school teachers must volunteer their services for community development to be carried out in the form of work camps along with university students.<sup>33</sup> This they can easily do during summer vacation or any other free time, say, during spring or winter vacation.

The teachers, especially the agriculture teachers can also work in 'model farming schemes' or 'Grow More Food campaigns' conducted by the government. This will relate their classroom teaching to the progress

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<sup>33</sup>Such work camps are regularly organized by the Peshawar University students during the summer vacation.

of research in such schemes. The "Experiment Stations" of the United States set in accordance with Hatch Act, of 1887 are the example in point. Such stations were established to provide scientific knowledge relating to agriculture and applied science.<sup>34</sup>

#### CLOSE COOPERATION AMONG RURAL, EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WELFARE AGENCIES.

In order to fulfill its responsibility for developing a balanced program to meet the needs of its community, the school must seek the help and cooperation of other agencies which try to achieve the same ends. Out of the complicating factors in the development of community organization is the vast number of national organizations called National Building Departments, that have local organizations (if at all we can call them local, for, almost all such agencies are located in the urban areas). Their diversity of interest is frequently divisive as remarked by Dr. Rahim, a well known Pakistani leader in agriculture and rural development:

At present there are many development departments running, which are duplicating or even triplicating the rural development programs. The sanitation, agriculture, health, cooperation, almost all have a sole object of bringing an effective improvement in our rural areas. These departments are unfortunately practically confusing the whole administration and the administered alike.<sup>35</sup>

He suggests that

the implementation of nation building programs can be simplified to the extent of base effectiveness through a single agency of the suffered themselves through their own efforts.<sup>36</sup>

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<sup>34</sup>Schools in Small Communities, Washington, D.C., American Association of School Administrators, 1939, p. 308.

<sup>35</sup>Village AID: Some Articles and Reports, Lahore, Village AID Administration, West Pakistan, 1960, p. 10.

<sup>36</sup>Ibid., p. 28.

There should, therefore, be a comprehensive program coordinating the efforts of all the departments. Only issuing of administrative decrees would not serve the desired purpose. Such decrees never speak for themselves alone. They will often express ideas worth considering, but their true value depends on whence they come, who is going to execute them and whether they reveal or conceal their real goal.<sup>37</sup>

To be practical it is recommended that rural development and social welfare schemes based more or less on the lines of the former Village AID organization must be created by the government. A rural education and welfare officer like County Agent in USA, or community development officer in India<sup>38</sup> must be made in charge in every sub-district whose duties must be:

1. To assist in preparing the local leaders, both teachers and local public who will shoulder the responsibilities of rural welfare.
2. To cooperate between various welfare departments and the village folks.
3. To take up practical work in agriculture, rural development and education.
4. To supervise the use of development fund through cooperated efforts of all the departments under his charge.
5. To constantly evaluate the progress and report it to the district headquarters for assessment and discussion.

To avoid further expenditure on the project it is suggested that the assistant director of Basic Democracies or former development

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<sup>37</sup>Robert Ulich, Education of Nations, Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1961, p. 162.

<sup>38</sup>United Nations, Social Progress Through Community Development, New York, UN Bureau of Social Affairs, 1955, pp. 66-68.

officers in the Village Aid organization may take up these responsibilities. It is especially feasible when the said officer is holding charge of political administration in the village.

Another method of effective cooperation of various organizations with the school seems pertinent. For example, one day in each year may be set as Business Education Day (B-E Day) and another as Education Business Day (E-B Day). On the former the teachers should visit the production, distribution and service agencies of the communities like village cooperatives, agriculture forms, seed and fertilizer agency and rural industries centers. In this case the business concern can serve as host and provide opportunity for a discussion of policies and theories in production and management. On E-B Day, on the other hand, business men could spend a day in the schools, learning first hand the hopes and achievements of their school system.<sup>39</sup> These Days may be combined with the Parents' Day and can be accommodated in the Education Week.<sup>40</sup>

#### THE METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

The method, according to John Dewey, is a "statement of the way the subject matter of an experience develops most effectively and fruitfully."<sup>41</sup> The question of the nature of method had long been debated. In the past, education was considered a matter of pouring in the knowledge to the child while he is a passive recipient to it. In actuality, however,

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<sup>39</sup>Such organizations exist in the United States. See Francis J. Browns, Educational Sociology, New York, Prentice Hall Inc., 1954, pp. 400-406.

<sup>40</sup>Education Weeks are celebrated only in East Pakistan every year.

<sup>41</sup>John Dewey, Democracy and Education, op.cit., p. 179.

we cannot give anyone an education; he must get it. He must interact with his environment. This process of learning by doing, reacting and undergoing is, what Burton calls, "Experiencing",<sup>42</sup> and what Brubacher terms as "aggressive activity".<sup>43</sup> Aggressive is used in the sense that the learner forms an active curiosity which constantly forces new meanings to appear and which cannot be achieved through passive knowledge. The wider outcomes of such an active process manifest themselves in the powers which are essential ingredients of a rich life.

To inculcate such abilities in the child, however, there is no single method or technique which could be applied by the teacher on all occasions, for all children and at all times. Since learning or change in behavior has meaning only when what is learnt has some interest and significance to the learner, the teacher must try to make use of the methods which best fulfill the children's needs and interests and help in achieving the desired behavioral changes in them. Hereunder are discussed some of these techniques.

A. The Unit Method of Teaching. There are many definitions of a unit. One is, that a unit is a problem and the activities in the unit work toward the solution of the problem. Another definition is that unit is a block made up of related learnings which are the activities.<sup>44</sup> Dr. Hanna has defined the unit, or a unit of work, as "a purposeful learning experience focussed upon some socially signi-

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<sup>42</sup>William H. Burton, The Guidance of Learning Activities, New York, D Appleton Century Company, 1952, p. 147.

<sup>43</sup>John S. Brubacher, Modern Philosophies of Education, New York, McGraw Hill Book Company, 1962, p. 52.

<sup>44</sup>Teachers' Hand Book for Use in Rural Elementary Schools, The Institute of Inter American Affairs, Division of Education, n.d.) p.72.

ficant understanding which will modify the behavior of the learner and enable him to adjust to a life situation more effectively.<sup>45</sup> Or it consists of a comprehensive series of related and meaningful significant educational experiences, and result in appropriate behavior changes.<sup>46</sup>

Among the numerous advantages of unit teaching is that it cuts across the subject matter lines. There is no teaching of individual subjects in an isolated form; instead, correlation of subjects is at the root of the unit teaching. Correlation here means the combining or bringing together of different subjects or parts of subjects that are naturally related. Through correlation not only enormous time is saved but efficiency is also increased. This aspect is of vital importance especially when the present primary syllabus is likely to be more overcrowded with the introduction of rural subjects and other activities suggested in this chapter. Besides, the unit is rich in opportunities for children to satisfy their innate needs to create, to communicate, to dramatise and to satisfy their ego-integrative urge. It also helps in the functional use of the fundamental skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, to live democratically with their peers, to satisfy their individual needs, and to progress at their own rate.<sup>47</sup>

Both upper and lower grades can participate in certain units so much so that in the single teacher schools the units can work very effectively, if planned carefully. For instance, in a unit like "Our

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<sup>45</sup>Lavone A. Hanna, Potter and Hagaman, Unit Teaching in the Elementary School, New York, Hold, Rinehart and Winston, 1961, p. 101.

<sup>46</sup>Nelson L. Bossing, Teaching in Secondary Schools, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952, p. 63.

<sup>47</sup>Unit Teaching in the Elementary School, op.cit., p. 124.

Farm", the smaller children can observe and participate in minor activities at their level of comprehension, viz: participation in some activities like planting, distinguishing them and stating their use. They may not describe them in writing, still they can express orally or they may draw the figure or shape of the field or a plant telling the approximate length or height. It will also train them in oral expression and will help in drawing and arithmetic ability. As for the older group, they may carry on a variety of activities planned together by them with their teacher. They may break into groups to study different aspects of "the farm". One group may describe the necessity of farms and agriculture fields in human life. Still others may study, say, the agricultural life in the oldest Indus Valley Civilization of Mohenjo Daro and Harappa in West Pakistan from where many things relating to agriculture have been excavated. They may divide the fields into small equal parts or with varying ratio among the class members. Similarly calculation and costing the produce may help in learning the mathematics. Geography can be made use of by illustrating the kind of soil or land - fertility or barrenness, irrigated by rivers, canals or Persian wheels and the produce it yields. Language can best be taught by discussing various aspects of the crops and then writing compositions or short sentences on "wheat plant", "my father's rice field", or "our trip to the farm". Some children may show their creativity in such writing as well. Such creative writings may find place for publication in the Students' magazines.

In short, the unit method can best be employed in the rural areas especially in view of the abundant natural resources found therein.



B. The Project Method. Teaching through projects is another essential of the social aspect of individual and group learning that can be taken up in the rural schools. Projects can easily be used in the correlation scheme of social studies, mathematics, school gardening, cooking, decoration, weaving, colico printing, the art and music. For example, in a project on "food", the study of food habits of people, ideas of balanced food and the problems of climate may be taken up. The girls may work along with the boys and in their cookery lesson; they can prepare sample balanced diet after the project.

Some projects of similar nature were undertaken in an old training school in Indo-Pakistan sub-continent, at Moga. Students of Class IV dramatised useful trees. They studied various kinds of trees and made a thorough analysis of oil-producing trees. They investigated the manufacture of the paper. Following the example, the children of Class I "played bazaar" in which they tried to represent every variety of shop. Similarly students of class III had a project on "playing post office". They reproduced a miniature post office. They learnt about the importance of transmitting messages. Collecting stamps and post-marks formed the basis of further studies. In the course of time the miniature post office gave place to a real post office for the village.<sup>48</sup> Such projects or others can very easily be taken up in the rural primary schools.

Community Development Projects and Schemes. As far as possible the rural school children must be practically involved in small scale community development programs. Both children and the teachers can work together with the close collaboration of the Basic Democracies. Such projects may be construction of village road, cementing a village road,

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<sup>48</sup> Experiments in Primary and Basic Education, Delhi, Government of India, Ministry of Education, 1956, p. 26.

helping in smallpox vaccination schemes, spraying medicines on the plants or introducing the model farming scheme. Similarly the community cleaning projects or adult literacy campaigns or tree plantation week drives can easily be carried out through the schools. The student clubs like 4-H club as in the United States and the Phillipines,<sup>49</sup> Young Community League of Hungary,<sup>50</sup> Clubs in Australia,<sup>51</sup> may be formed in the schools for the said purpose. It is proposed that the Chand Tara Club (Crescent and Star Club) scheme adopted by former Village AID in Pakistan<sup>52</sup> may be revived in each village for the purpose of individual and community welfare.

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Teaching of Vocation/Subjects/Crafts.

It is almost impossible to teach all the vocational subjects suggested in this paper in the small, scattered village schools. For this purpose it is proposed to start minor crafts like weaving, book binding, basketry, carpentry, blacksmithy and metal work through the help of local craftsmen. For this scheme of apprenticeship the teachers, supervisors and local Basic Democrats can persuade the village artisans to spare some time for the school children. As for the more organized form of teaching they may be taken up in the proposed consolidated schools.

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<sup>49</sup>Village AID: Some Articles and Reports, Lahore, Village AID Administration, 1958, p. 15.

<sup>50</sup>Vide Radio Talk, Budapest Hungary at 1530 GMT on 25 January, 1964.

<sup>51</sup>John M. Braithwrite and Edward J. King, Multiple-Class Teaching, New South Wales, Australia, n.d., p. 30.

<sup>52</sup>Village AID Year Book, 1959 - West Pakistan, Lahore, Village AID Administration, 1959, p. 16.

In case of teaching agriculture and school gardening, mention of two projects, one in the United States and the other in Palestine, seems well in place to present as a guide for the rural primary schools. In Dearborn (Michigan) Schools, seventeen acres of farming land adjacent to two of the elementary schools was divided into individual students. Each plot measured 40 x 20 feet and the program was carried out through summer months. The children worked one and a half hours a week in their garden and one day each week was spent in a classroom located at the garden site.<sup>53</sup> In Palestine, out of 400 village schools, 250 had school gardens or agricultural plots totaling 3070 dunums or nearly 800 acres. In the upper primary grades two periods a week of theoretical agriculture and four of practical work in the garden were spent. The period was later on increased to 3 periods a week.<sup>54</sup>

Teaching of practical handicraft, say, weaving may also be taken up effectively in rural schools. A living example of this nature is found in Colton, California elementary schools where children learn reading and arithmetic through age old crafts of ceramics and weaving. They set up looms and design<sup>ed</sup> their patterns within specific time.<sup>55</sup> Similarly in India, under Basic Education scheme, weaving and other related activities are carried out in Moga school.<sup>56</sup>

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<sup>53</sup>Elementary School Journal, vol. 56, No. 7, September 1955, pp. 8-9.

<sup>54</sup>H.B. Allen, Rural Reconstruction in Action, Experience in the Near and Middle East, New York, Cornell University Press, 1953, p. 150 and p. 157.

<sup>55</sup>Elementary School Journal, vol. 54, No. 7, Mar 1954, p. 383.

<sup>56</sup>Experiments in Primary and Basic Education, op.cit., p. 25.

The above illustrations show various methods of executing the projects. It is suggested that the training schools of West Pakistan should work out various projects with the help of industrial and technical schools for different parts of the country. As regards acquiring land, the village dignatories may be approached to donate land for the school, or the Shamlaat (common village land) may be developed through the help of the agriculture department. As for the teaching staff, the consolidated schools must have qualified teachers whereas in the most sparsely populated areas like Quetta and Kalat Divisions the travelling teachers may work according to the schedule appropriate in relevant cases.<sup>57</sup> It is suggested further that the parents may be requested to set suitable plots of land for their school going children where they can practice the theoretical knowledge in elementary agriculture as part of their home task.

#### RELATED CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Students Clubs and Organizations. The many activities of the rural school should be looked upon and treated as essential aspects of the curriculum. Among them are the assemblies, the clubs and other pupil organizations like home room, scouting, girl guiding, young farmers' clubs, crafts society and first aid service. In each consolidated school or in its absence, in each center school, an inter school student council must be established. This council may also publish a monthly or fortnightly magazine depicting various activities in the area schools. Regular

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<sup>57</sup> To provide ample educational facilities, sometimes the Pakistan Government either gives limited scholarships to students and puts them in the nearby school or mobile schools with trained teachers are provided. See Aspects of the History, Culture and Religion of Pakistan by Dr. Ishtiaq Hussain, Qurshid, Bangkok, SEATO, 1963, p. 39.

publication of such type of magazines was an exemplary feature in the model school where the writer had been studying (see p. 12(IV)).

#### Provision of Kindergarten Facilities.

Of great deficiencies in the rural elementary schools is the absence of kindergarten facilities. It is proposed that the village mosques may be used for this purpose. The Daaras (annexes) of the mosques are excellent places for KG type of classes. The Imams of the mosques are usually literate and with some refresher courses they can act as teachers. A reasonable honorarium to them may help a lot.

#### Guidance Service.

The presence of academic and vocational guidance service in the rural schools is of vital importance. It is suggested that child guidance clinics may be established in each consolidated or center school which may serve not only the primary school children but also of middle and high classes falling within the circle.

#### Parent Teacher Associations.

The need for parent teacher cooperation for the execution of educational program requires no comment. The cooperation, however, demands insight, understanding, planning and action on both sides. The interest will be less if the teachers and parents do not accept joint responsibilities. As far as possible, the parents must be encouraged to take lively interest in the schools. Regular meetings must be held where planned programs of school and community welfare be discussed. The parents must be invited often to see their children working on the farm or on any other project. These meetings, it is thought, are of immense help especially

when there is need of local help in the form of land donation or extension of villagers' help in agricultural and crafts matters. The annual function, the Parents' Day as it is called in certain Pakistani schools, must be a regular feature.

#### Provision of Library Service.

The provision of library service is extremely important in the rural areas where functional literacy is needed badly. In many cases the adult education schemes conducted by the authorities could not go forward due to lack of follow up program in library service. The education authorities must keep in mind that it is not only important to make the adult or child literate but to pursue his quest for reading and knowing, is also necessary. Many countries have solved this problem to a great extent. In Palestine for example, the circulating library service was provided on donkey backs.<sup>58</sup> In the United States, book-mobiles work likewise; the country library books are transferred from one village to another.<sup>59</sup> In India "Box Library" system is prevalent. These boxes are periodically exchanged with schools in neighbouring villages.<sup>60</sup> In Pakistan also the Public Relations Mobile Library service usually visits the cities and so is the case with US Information Library. It is however desirable that such services are extended to the villages also.

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<sup>58</sup> Rural Reconstruction in Action, op.cit., p. 155.

<sup>59</sup> Floyd W. Reeves, Education for Rural America, op.cit., p. 147.

<sup>60</sup> Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers in Small Rural Schools, New Delhi, Ministry of Education, India, 1959, p. 21.

## THE RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS AND THEIR PROFESSIONAL TRAINING.

Better teaching personnel is another requisite of an improved rural educational system. A great majority of rural teachers in West Pakistan teach in the rural schools as they feel at home and can do their domestic jobs after the school time is over. Usually, however, well trained and efficient teachers are drawn out of the rural areas partly because they are not satisfied with the salary scales and partly because they intend to continue their studies in the towns.

### Personal Qualities of the Teachers.

There is a great need of producing teachers who are no longer hearers of lessons or officers to maintain order in the class room, but are individuals having deep concern with the total development of the children, and serve the community needs through persuasion, hard work and by not offending the community customs and beliefs. The broad qualities of an ideal rural teacher put forth by Holmans, are: ability to lead, knowledge of broad culture, love for the country and present of community spirit.<sup>61</sup> Foght, however, states that the teachers who would have part in the reorganization of rural life must at least attain this tripod of educational requirements:

1. Be strong enough to establish themselves as leaders in the community where they are to live and labor.
2. Have a good grasp on the reorganization and management of the new kind of rural school.
3. Show expert ability in dealing with the redirected school .

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<sup>61</sup>Roy H. Holmes, Rural Sociology, New York, McGraw Hill Book Company, 1932, p. 268.

curriculum.<sup>62</sup>

Foght talks of Denmark which, perhaps, affords the best illustration of this nature. Here the central figure in rural life is the school teacher. Having credit for enlightened wholesome and contented rural life he has rightly won his place as community leader by making himself indispensable to his patrons.<sup>63</sup>

In order, therefore, to achieve the high esteem for the teaching profession, the rural teacher in West Pakistan must cultivate in himself various qualities and qualifications. The selection of young men and women must be made strictly on the basis of their having an earnest love for serving the rural community.

#### Tentative Suggestions for Rural Teacher Training Program.

Fortunately in West Pakistan the rate of training primary school teachers (mainly rural teachers) in 48 normal schools is 5422 per year.<sup>64</sup> Still in view of expansion of education this number will be quite insufficient. There is as such need of training more teachers in such schools. The basic qualifications and the duration of training period, however, may be the same as recommended by the Pakistan Education Commission, viz: Matriculation with two years training. The curricula for normal schools or primary teachers training institutes must form the following blocks:

##### 1. Pre Service Training.

(a) Theoretical Subjects. Subjects matter representing cultural and scientific courses such as Urdu, Mathematics, Art and

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<sup>62</sup>H.Q. Foght, The Rural Teacher and His Work, New York, the Macmillan and Company, 1918, p. ix.

<sup>63</sup>Ibid., p. 6.

<sup>64</sup>Educational Statistics for West Pakistan, Lahore, West Pakistan Education Bureau, 1962, p. 80.



Religion, Basic Democracies System, Rural Sociology. Professional courses such as Principles and Methods of Teaching, Educational and Child Psychology, History and Philosophy of Education in Pakistan, Curriculum Making.

(b) Practical Subjects and Activities. Practical and field courses, such as Nature Study, Agriculture and School Gardening, Rural Community, Health and Hygiene and Village Crafts and Industries. Rural Projects, like Adult Education campaign, conducting community surveys of needs and problems, and organizing social welfare organizations.

## 2. In Service Training.

According to 1960-61 statistics only 815 out of a total number of 20,479 rural school teachers (male and female) were untrained.<sup>65</sup> Such teachers who are believed to have sufficient teaching experience need special in-service training in teaching techniques. For them as well as for 'trained hands', in-service training, summer courses and workshops must be arranged extensively. Similarly, research bureaus of the Teachers' Union and the Ministry of Education must provide material and publications on rural education. Some experienced headmasters and supervisors may help in enlightening the teachers on modern methods through monthly meetings in the center schools.

Practising School and Demonstration Plots. To strengthen and reconstruct the teaching practices, it is important to have demonstration schools attached to each normal school. The present practising primary or middle schools which serve as laboratory for academic work must also be used as practical centers in agriculture, school gardening and rural crafts

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<sup>65</sup> Ibid., p. 26.

instruction. The Guelamala's demonstration schools,<sup>66</sup> and demonstration scheme of Mexico<sup>67</sup> are cases in point.

#### CONSOLIDATION AND REORGANIZATION OF THE RURAL SCHOOLS

Of different factors at work for the betterment of the rural schools, the movement towards consolidation is more vital and important. Consolidation means reorganization of school areas round a central school where the pupils from various surrounding areas can be transported. America is the pioneer country in consolidating the rural schools. In 1869 the movement first rose in Messachusetts and spread gradually in almost all the states.<sup>68</sup>

The Importance of Consolidation. The advantages of consolidation are shown below. They are supported by the results of a study in America between 1930 and 1940.

1. The number of elementary attendance areas decreased from 6,411 to 4,708.
2. The number of one-teacher schools decreased by 30 per cent.
3. The average enrolments increased from 156.1 to 248.2.
4. The length of the elementary school term increased.

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<sup>66</sup>Demonstration School of the Pedro Molina Normal School, Guetamala, Ministry of Education, March 1957.

<sup>67</sup>D. Spence Hatch, Demonstration Scheme, in Rural Reconstruction in Mexico: Agriculture in the Americas, vol. IV, No. 3, March 1944.

<sup>68</sup>George Herbert Betts, New Ideals in Rural Schools, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1913, p. 38.

5. The professional education of teachers increased; 49 per cent had completed two or more years of college in 1930, while 88 per cent had accomplished this goal in 1940.<sup>69</sup>

Besides these, better economy and efficiency in administration and supervision, broader curricula, better school plant and equipment, and better achievement by pupils was achieved through consolidation.

There are, on the other hand, some objections to the execution of this scheme. They are mainly related to the difficulty of pupil transportation, incurring new expenditure, and lessening of cooperation due to local prejudice and pride. Still, the far reaching constructive results demand consolidation of rural schools.

The Proposed Organizing Unit in West Pakistan. Adequate standards and satisfactory criteria are needed for sound organization of the schools. Several studies have been conducted in America as to what constitutes local school administration. Dawson says that a satisfactory administrative unit to provide standard organization should consist of 280 teachers and approximately 10,000 pupils.<sup>70</sup> Briscoe concluded from his study that the minimum number of teachers in a unit would be 80 to 90.<sup>71</sup>

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<sup>69</sup>Your School District, Report of the National Commission on School District Reorganization. Howard A. Dawson and Floyd W. Reeves, Co-chairmen, Washington, Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1948, p. 234.

<sup>70</sup>Howard A. Dawson, Satisfactory Local School Units, Field Study No. 7, Nashville, Tenn., George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934, p. 81.

<sup>71</sup>Alonzo Otis Briscoe, The Size of the Local Unit for Administration and Supervision of Public Schools, Contribution to Education, No. 649, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935, p. 110.

In the case of West Pakistan, it is proposed that the present administrative unit on district level must function as usual. The rural schools, however, must be consolidated in a way that a maximum number of children are ensured to attend the schools. This is possible especially when, at present, Basic Democracies are working hard to improve the village roads. It is proposed that center schools, which exist almost in the center of adjoining villages, should be sufficiently improved. As for other parts of the country, the most suitable village school must be regarded as consolidated school and necessary improvements be carried out accordingly. For planning new schools under various education expansion schemes the above quoted points must be kept in view.<sup>72</sup>

#### EVALUATING THE RURAL EDUCATION PROGRAM.

Evaluation of an educational program is by no means a simple matter. It is not of interest only to a group of highly trained specialists. The welfare of general public is particularly to be kept in view. There, instead of evaluating exclusively the program in structural manner, viz: appraisal of buildings, qualifications of teachers, per capita costs, curriculum content, and methods of instruction, the shift must be more on the functional aspect of the school. It must be viewed with reference to its contribution to the social and economic life of the people.

Various evaluation techniques are employed in various rural educational programs. For bringing up the educational standard and socio economic conditions of the rural people in West Pakistan, it is imperative to go on reviewing the activities of the schools periodically. The

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<sup>72</sup> For some pilot programs in consolidation of rural schools in the United States and Denmark, the reader is referred to:

a) Nelson B. Henry (ed), Education in Rural Communities, 51 Year Book, Part II, Chicago, The University of Chicago Press, 1952, pp. 124-164.

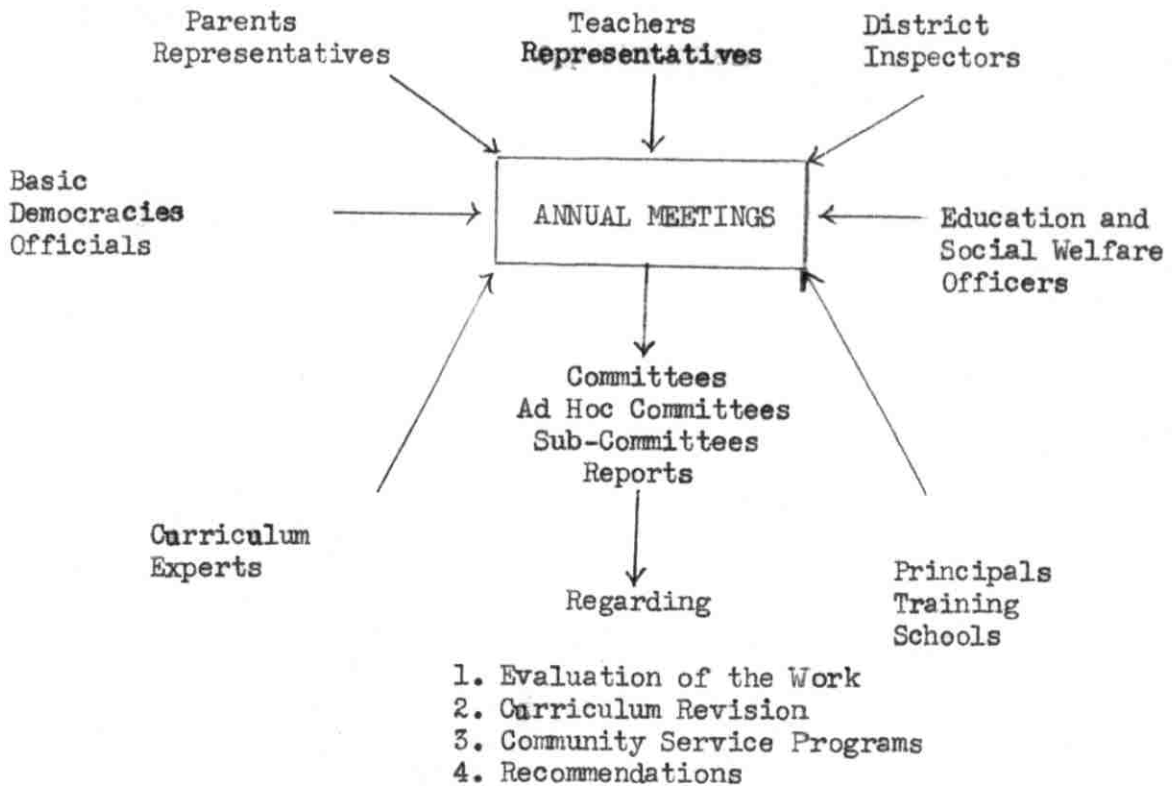
b) H. Rider Haggard, Rural Denmark and Its Lessons, Longman Green and Company, 1913, p. 160.

following chart depicts broadly such a process.

Chart VIII

Chart Showing Evaluation and  
The Revision of Rural Education Programs  
in West Pakistan

(District or Tehsil Level)



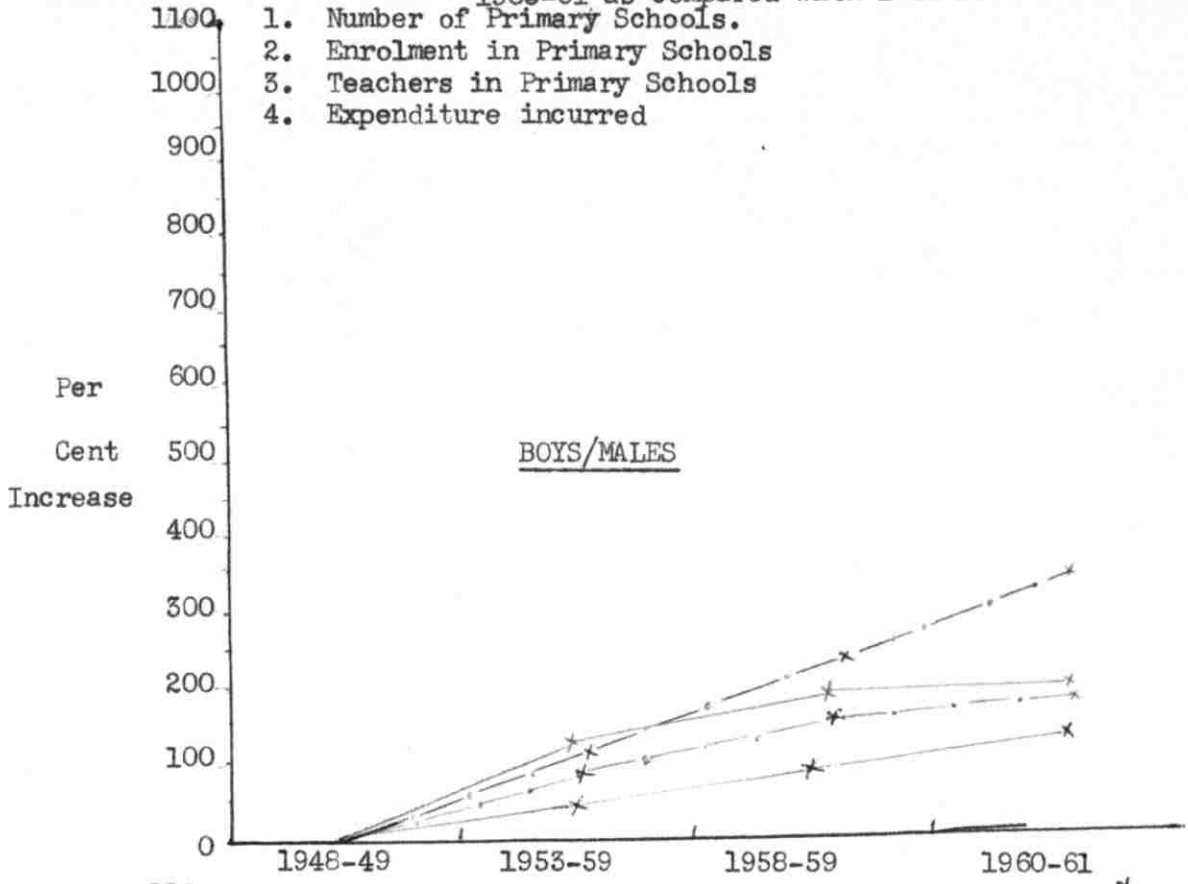
A FINAL WORD

Finally, we must realize that the implementation of the rural education program suggested in the above pages is a slow and continuous process. The emphasis that has been given to the responsibility of the school for improving the educational programs should not be interpreted

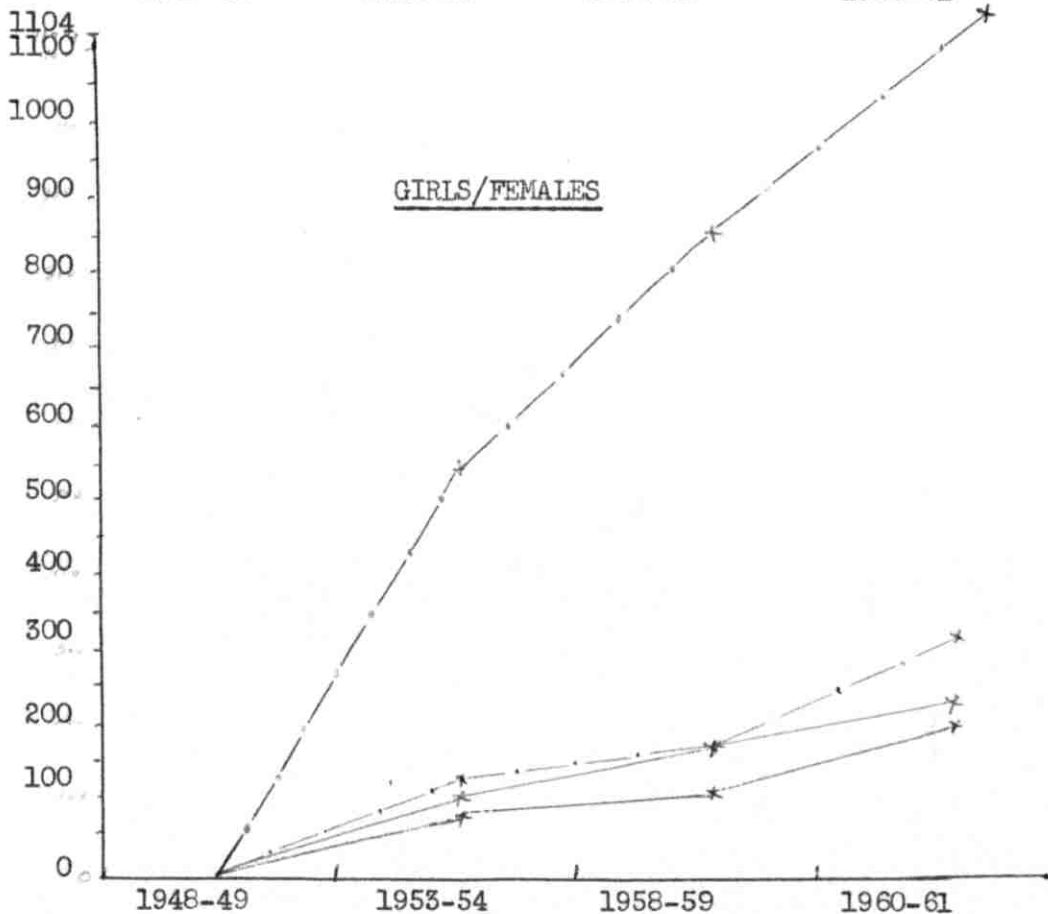
to mean that this improvement can go on in isolation of all the other considerations. An attack will have to be made on all points. This is possible if all the agencies connected with rural education believe in the satisfaction which comes from the shared life and approach the task with something of the enthusiasm and the sense of dedication of a missionary.

Appendix A

Histogram showing percent increase in Number, Enrolment, Teachers and Expenditure on Primary School in West Pakistan in 1953-54, 1958-59 and 1960-61 as compared with 1948-49.



REFERENCE	
1	
2	
3	
4	



Appendix B

Subjects of Study and Allocation of Time for Primary  
Classes in Pakistan

Serial No.	Subjects	C l a s s e s					Remarks
		I	II	III	IV	V	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Languages*	15	15	11	11	11	*Languages
2.	Elementary Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	a) Mother Tongue
3.	General Science	3	3	3	3	3	b) Non-Mother Tongue
4.	Social Studies**	-	-	4	5	5	c) English (optional)
5.	Physical Education (Including Health)	6	6	4	4	4	**Social Studies Not introduced as subject in classes I and II.
6.	Religious Education	5	5	4	4	4	
7.	Arts and Practical Arts	10	10	7	6	6	
		No. of Periods of 30 minutes per week.		No. of Periods of 40 minutes per week.			

Summary:

The Academic Year	= 225 days
Total number of periods in each classes I and II	= 1689 periods
Total number of periods in each classes III and IV	= 1464 "
Number of periods per week for classes I and II each	= 45 "
Number of hours per week for classes I and II each	= 844.5 hrs.
Number of periods per week for classes III - V each	= 39 periods
Number of hours per week for classes III - V each	= 976 hrs.

Adapted from: Curriculum for Primary Schools in Pakistan with Detailed Syllabus, Karachi, Ministry of Education, Government of Pakistan, 1960, pp. 18-19 and 170.



Appendix C

Specimen of Weekly Time-Table for Five-Class Primary School (A,B,C,D,E stand for five full working days and W/2 stands for half working day. In Classes I and II the periods are of 30 minutes each and in Classes III to V of 40 minutes each).

Days of the Week	Class	Periods								
		1	2	3	4	5	6			
A	I	Language	Mathematics	Physical Education	Religious Education		Language Arts & Art.			
	II	"	"	"	"		"			
B	I	"	"	"	"		"			
	II	"	"	"	"		"			
C	I	"	"	"	"		"			
	II	"	"	"	"		"			
D	I	"	"	"	"		"			
	II	"	"	"	"		"			
E	I	"	"	"	"		"			
	II	"	"	"	"		"			
W/2	I	"	"	"	"		"			
	II	"	"	"	"		"			
		Assembly (10 minutes)			Recess (10 minutes)			Recess (30 minutes)		
		General Science			General Science			General Science		
		Manual Work			Manual Work			Manual Work		

Days of the week	Class	Periods						
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A	III	Language	Mathematics	General	Social	Religious Education	Language	Physical Education
	IV	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
	V	"	"	Social Studies	Musice	"	"	"
	III	"	"	"	Religious Ed	General Sc.	"	Manual Work
	IV	"	"	"	Musice	Religious Ed.	"	Physical Education
B	V	"	"	Arts & Studies	Practical Arts	Social Studs.	"	"
	III	"	"	"	"	Religious Ed.	"	"
	IV	"	"	General Science	Social Studs	"	"	Manual Work
C	V	"	"	Arts	Practical Arts	"	"	Physical Ed.
	III	"	"	"	"	Religious Ed.	"	"
	IV	"	"	General Science	Social Studs	"	"	"
D	V	"	"	General Science	Arts	Social Studs	"	"
	III	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
	IV	"	"	General Science	Social Studs	Religious Ed	"	"
E	V	"	"	General Science	Arts	Social Studs	"	"
	III	"	"	"	Arts & Pr. Arts	"	"	"
	IV	"	"	Arts & General Science	Prac. Arts Social Studs	"	"	Manual Work
W/2	V	"	"	Social Studies	Music	"	"	"
	III	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
	IV	"	"	Gen.Sc.	"	"	"	"

From: Curriculum for Primary Schools in Pakistan with Detailed Syllabus, Karachi, Ministry of Education, Pakistan, 1960, pp. 159-161.

Appendix D

RESPONSES OF RURAL PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS  
INTERVIEWED

1

Age: 21 Years

Education: Matric, J.V.

Experience: 2 Yrs

1. I come from a village and the school I teach in is near to me. So I am working there. Although the salary is low, but I feel at home.
2. Most of the parents are illiterate, therefore, their behavior with regard to their children is odd. They often say, "The child is in your hands, teacher. Make him straight; he is very naughty." Because of this sort of attitude I usually do not see them.
3. Yes, please. The syllabus is divided in different parts and we have to cover it. Now, with the arrival of new books, the curriculum has become more overcrowded, and adoption of new methods is difficult in view of lack of funds.
4. I have seen mathematics, history and geography, and Urdu courses of study. I think there is too much material and there are too many books.
5. For teaching mathematics, a sample problem is solved on the black board and similar type of problems are assigned as home work. The mathematics syllabus has now been reduced, therefore, sometimes I use charts and illustrations. For teaching Urdu, I think the alphabetic method is the best one. History and geography are taught in the form of stories and biographies.
6. The "Direct Method" of teaching advanced in the new Urdu primers may be better, but it is beyond the comprehension of an average student. Alphabetic method is suitable. Anyhow, the departmental directions are also followed.
7. The syllabus is so much that it can hardly be covered. Every possible opportunity is afforded to enable the intelligent students to appear in the scholarship examination.
8. There is not any program of community work in the school. This is being undertaken by the Basic Democracies and other similar departments.
9. Usually the inspectors examine the students on the basis of the covered course of study. They give remarks to the teachers in the form of 'good', 'satisfactory', or 'unsatisfactory' (as the case may be) in their log books.

10. I have never come across such an incident.
11. The main reasons of school dropouts are: poverty, disinterest of parents in their children's education, putting them on work at home and on the field, and fear of failure in the class.
12. I think if the syllabus is less crowded and all the teachers work dilligently, there may be good results. The audio visual aids must be provided in the 'center schools' and can be used by different schools attached to them.

## II

Age: 51 years                      Education: Middle, J.V.                      Experience: 25 yrs.

1. I myself am a villager, therefore, I teach in the village school. I can go to school easily and in simple dress.
2. Rarely there is any exchange of views. The literate parents care to come to school and enquire about the progress of their children.
3. The prescribed syllabus has to be finished; we have therefore to teach it.
4. The new curriculum seems to be suitable but has too much material.
5. Urdu is usually taught by alphabetic method. Direct method, as found in the new Urdu primers, is also followed sometimes. Mathematics is taught through solving of sample problems. History is taught in the form of stories. Enough emphasis is put on Urdu calligraphy so that children can write Urdu very easily and correctly.
6. The direct method of teaching cannot be followed unless there are models and other illustrations. Due to non availability of such facilities in the primary schools, this method has not proved a great success.
7. Yes, special attention is paid to intelligent students to enable them appear in the competitive examination.
8. The school time is set and when the school is over, children go back to their homes. Nothing much can be done in addition to studies.
9. Usually Urdu and mathematics comprehension is tested.
10. Never a suggestion of this nature was given by any inspector.
11. Illiteracy and economic position of parents, overwork in the school, long distance from the native village to the school are some of the major reasons for school dropouts.

12. Presence of school garden on the basis of Bhagowal model school is of great importance. The children can work there during the school time and afterwards.

III

Age: 44 years                      Education: Middle, J.V.                      Experience: 20 years.

1. I come from the village and am fully acquainted with the rural environments. Naturally, I like my surroundings and teach in a village school.
2. Sometimes I exchange views with parents and find them quite cooperative. The behavior of parents actually depends on the behavior of the teacher.
3. We are forced to follow the prescribed syllabus. In my opinion, however, a good teacher should try to correlate the syllabus with living examples of daily life. This will enable the students to face the facts of life easily.
4. I have gone through the new primary school curriculum. The courses of study for classes I and II are less, especially in mathematics. But in classes IV and V the syllabus is overcrowded so much so that general knowledge (social studies) of class V equals middle and matriculation standard.
5. The methods of teaching vary with the subject and the class. In most cases the personal efforts of the teacher bring good results.
6. I personally do not like direct method of teaching. I think alphabetic method is easier and more effective. The children do not commit spelling mistakes.
7. We provide some occasions to make the students feel interested in their work.
8. Many a time such opportunities are provided for community work. This can be more effective if the children have such a training from their parents. Due to illiteracy of parents, such programs are not effective.
9. Usually the mathematics, Urdu and general knowledge are tested.
10. Never.
11. Poverty, illiteracy and work at home are the main reasons for leaving the schools.
12. I suggest the following measures for the betterment of rural primary schools:
  - (a) A good salary for the teachers.
  - (b) The inspectors should not be prejudiced while giving remarks on teachers' work.
  - (c) The great difference between the pay scales of high and primary school teachers should be made up.

IV

Age: 26 years

Education: Matric, J.V.  
Honours in Persian

Experience: 2 yrs.

1. 80% of West Pakistan population lives in the villages. The teachers coming from the villages serve there as the schools are near to their homes. The teachers can be of help both to students and their families. In addition they can look after the work in their fields. Life is simple, inexpensive and easy going.
2. In most of the villages there is party system and these parties are constantly in conflict with each other. If the teacher wants to make contacts with one or other party to bring up the conditions of the school, the second party become suspicious and this makes the position of the teacher unsafe. For this purpose both parties are kept in touch. The teacher is respected. Parents are informed of the quarterly examination results of the children. Parents' Day is celebrated once every year and this provides an opportunity for teacher-parent exchange of views.
3. The prescribed curriculum has to be followed strictly. In addition, the directions of A.D.Is (Assistant District Inspectors) are followed. Depending upon the availability of resources and according to needs some changes can be made. Most changes are made in accordance with the agricultural needs.
4. I have studied extensively the new primary school curriculum. We are following it to a very great extent. Mathematics and social studies are beyond the comprehension of average students because they are not used to it. Since the department has prescribed this, we are forced to follow. The science for class V is also quite difficult. Urdu is quite interesting and meets the environmental requirements. Standard of mathematics has come down, though the course, as a whole, is still crowded. There are very few exercises on problems. There is in certain cases no relation of one mathematical process with the other.
5. Due to lack of audio visual aids in the village schools, the Direct system is not followed. Sometimes direct method is followed; this may help to read the text fast but the students feel difficulty in getting dictation. Alphabet method, direct method and teaching through stories are practiced in this school.
6. Direct method is good in enabling the children read but they commit mistakes in Urdu calligraphy. Alphabetic method is better one.
7. Intelligent students are afforded special opportunities for competition examination or scholarship examination.
8. I cannot recall such an incident.
9. After the school time is over, children help their parents in their daily work. There is very little opportunity in the school for field work. The science is being taught without practical work.

10. The inspectors first of all check the registers, general cleanliness of the school, syllabus, time table and charts, etc. Then the ability of students is tested in different subjects.
11. Illiteracy and depressed economic position of parents are main reasons for school dropouts. Some teachers punish the students for not doing their home work.
12. The teachers must realize their sacred duties and work more honestly, sincerely and diligently.

## Appendix E

### Responses of Rural Parents Interviewed

#### I

Age: 47 Yrs.      Occupation: Chairman, Basic Democracies      Education: Primary Pass

1. Nothing can be said about the present teachers. They simply pass their time. In my times the teachers were respected because they were hardworking and made the students work hard. Now also some teachers make the students work very hard but are not sympathetic as those in olden times.
2. There is so much home work assigned from the school that the students cannot help in our work. We also take care not to disturb our child in his studies and do not ask him to do any work for us.
3. Nothing more has been done by schools except educating the children in the school.
4. Why not; the teachers are still held in esteem. If they work on cooperative bases, it is much better but because most of Basic Democrats are illiterate, they do not like any interference from teachers' side.
5. At times I pay a visit to school on my own or on the invitation of the headmaster in my capacity as chairman of Basic Democracies. I do not visit school specially for children; this is the job of teachers to take care of children's education. I should not interfere with them.
6. Main reason is low economic position. Some people make the children work with them and because of many absences, the name is struck off the school rolls. Fear of punishment by teachers is another cause of not attending the school.
7. I know these days the children are carrying much more books than previously.
8. It is good to work in crafts provided the studies do not suffer. The child coming from a big family will however not like to learn them. I am anyhow ready to render any help I can.
9. Some families belonging to lower status have migrated to the cities. It is imperative that our people must regard the educated ones and shun the 'class idea'. These people can be of immense help for rural development.

#### II

Age: 32 years      Occupation: Service      Education: Secondary School

1. Village teachers generally perform their duties to the best of their abilities. The present school teachers are different from old times in the way they look at things.



2. After finishing the homework, the children help us in the work. Presence of school has helped in changing the old dogmatic beliefs about many absurd things.
3. Through the school the children do have a change in their way of looking at things. The teachers are held in esteem.
4. With the cooperation of public health teams, the teacher can help build a healthy atmosphere in the village.
5. I pay visits to the school to acquaint myself with the progress of my children.
6. Inferiority complex, stupidity and finding difficulty in keeping pace with other class mates in studies are some of the reasons. Financial position of parents is another factor.
7. The syllabi are too crowdy these days and this factor hinders in bringing up of students' capacities.
8. Studies and practical training should go side by side. Field or farm work in leisure time brings a pleasant change in their idea of work and study. We are ready to fulfil their requirements during their practical training.
9. Village teachers have the same privileges as city teachers have. Present government is looking more and more for the betterment of villages. The teachers can make the work of a village more effective.

### III

Age: 50 Years

Occupation: Trade

Education: Middle Pass

1. Some new teachers work hard and are good. Teachers in old times were also good, but they worked much hard for the children.
2. Education helps a person develop his character and make him moral. I do not usually ask my child to work. He should study.
3. Not usually.
4. Except study no other community works are being undertaken. They can, however, work after the study is over.
5. I often exchange my views with teachers who are good and painstaking.
6. Due to the illiteracy and low economic conditions of the parents many students leave the school before completing the studies.
7. There are too may books and too much material in the schools these days.

8. I think practical training in agriculture is good.
9. Their salary should be increased so that they can pay better attention towards the students.

IV

Age: 39 years                      Occupation: Farming                      Education: Nil

1. Our primary school teachers must work like teachers in olden days. They should work honestly.
2. My child usually does not like to work with me on the field. He seems busy in his school book. Occasionally during the vacation he can help me. My daughter however does both school and household work.
3. Except educating the children in the School nothing more is done.
4. I think the teachers can cooperate if the new Basic Democracies care to seek their help.
5. I do not want to interfere in the school affairs. On special occasions or during any function I am invited to the school.
6. Some teachers abuse the children and beat them. This fear as well as the fear of failure in the examination cause them troubles. Often the children mix with bad boys; they smoke, wander here and there and do not go to school.
7. From the books the children carry with them, I can say that it is too much. In our days there were only two books.
8. This is very good idea. The children must work and help their families. I think the holidays must be given to students during the crop seasons and not for summer only.
9. If possible the schools must be given some common land to have grounds for the school where the general public can also play in the afternoon. Schools must teach the adults also.

Appendix F

Views of an Experienced Head Teacher Expressed  
to the Writer in a Private Letter dated 26 Feb. 1964

1. In every primary school the teachers use one method - the book teaching - except occasionally in classes I and II when 'look and say method' and some use of audio visual aids are employed.
2. According to my sixteen years experience, I can say that students of ninth and tenth class commit spelling mistakes because they were not taught well by alphabetic method. If through 'look and say' technique alphabets are taught, they will never commit mistakes.
3. In the village schools the children observe the plants and animals. Ten years before the courses of study were generally rural. Now, due to being mixed, is 'neither duck nor fowl!
4. Language learning demands teaching through direct method.
5. Time table is sent herewith.\*

\*It is the same as shown in Appendix C.

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