

NOTES AND NEWS

SEMINAR ON SLUM CLEARANCE

Introductory.—The (Seminar was organised by the Indian Conference of Social Work to make a comprehensive study of the slum problem in India and to formulate a plan for dealing with the prevailing situation in an adequate and vigorous manner. Representatives of the Central and State Governments, of local bodies and of employers and trade unions, also sociologists, social workers, town-planners and public health officials, participated in the deliberations; and the Seminar had thus the benefit of all shades of opinion.

After the inaugural session on May 14, 1957, the Seminar divided its work into Plenary Sessions and Working Groups, each assigned one of five broad heads of study as follows:

- (a) Social and public aspects of slum dwelling.
- (b) Minimum housing standards and slum improvement.
- (c) Positive steps for the prevention of slums.
- (d) Integrated plan for slum clearance.
- (e) Examination of slum clearance projects in Ahmedabad, etc.

The Plenary Session addresses were followed by general discussions in which all the delegates joined; and later in the day, the working groups took up detailed examination of their respective subjects. The discussions were throughout of a lively and stimulating character, and brought out both the expert's and the layman's views on a subject so complex in its ramifications. In the analysis of the problem and the remedies suggested, the outcome of the Seminar has been eminently satisfying. The following paragraphs give a brief account of the conclusions reached; the reports of the working groups themselves appear later.

Social and Public Health Aspects of Slum Dwelling.—The consequences of slum dwelling on the community are profound. The health of the individual is the first casualty; the general death rate and the infantile mortality rate are abnormally high. Decent family life is virtually impossible; human degradation abounds. Facilities for healthy recreation are extremely meagre; so are educational facilities. In the result, the physical and intellectual advancement of the individual suffers. The squalid environment and houses unfit for human habitation, in fact, breed a slum mentality amongst the inhabitants.

The way out must involve not only an improvement in the physical conditions around but also a vitalising of the community in its social outlook. An intensive campaign of education, not merely in the three R's but in all the varied ingredients of good community life, must be launched. Such a campaign must cover the following important ingredients:—

- (a) Youth organisation and welfare.
- (b) Training of personnel in the community for community services.
- (c) Community health.
- (d) Social education.
- (e) Community recreation.
- (f) Children's and women's welfare activities.
- (g) Family and youth consulting services.

The organisational needs of such a campaign are:—

- (a) Urban Community Development Administrations under the Central and State Governments in appropriate Ministries and Developments to guide and co-ordinate field activity.

- (b) A division of social services under each large local authority.
- (c) A crop of housing supervisors-cum-community organisers, drawn from amongst trained social workers, in each new housing colony.
- (d) Non-official community welfare organisations in townships and colonies, assisted by adequate grants-in-aid; and possibly an apex community welfare council.

It is believed that the results of a well-conceived programme of community education on the foregoing lines can, even in the short-term view, help to ameliorate many of the deleterious consequences of slum dwelling.

Minimum Housing Standards and Slum Improvement.—On the physical plane, effort must be directed to the prevention of future slums and the improvement, where this is possible, of existing ones. The first objective requires that certain minimum standards must be laid down and rigidly enforced for all new housing. The considerations involved are the availability of resources and the developing economic and social situation in the country. The question of building cost is important—though it is possible that this has all along been given undue importance. While some compromise with the ideal may be dictated by existing circumstances, the watering down of standards must be minimised by all possible measures to reduce building costs. Excessively rigid specifications now prescribed in many cities must be modified in a realistic manner; and standardisation and bulk manufacture of components must be resorted to. Savings, fully worthwhile, can be achieved in programmes involving thousands of houses if wooden doors, windows and other requirements are manufactured in bulk by public agencies or procured similarly on long-term contracts.

Subject to the foregoing observations, the Seminar took the view that the desirable minimum standard of accommodation for a family is a two room tenement, comprising two living rooms, a kitchen, and independent bath and water closet. If, temporarily, a reduction in standards is found to be inescapable, we should nowhere go below a self-contained tenement with a living room, kitchen, verandah, bath and water closet, so constructed, however, as to be capable, within a specified period, say 10 years, of being enlarged by the addition of another living room by:

- (a) Converting three tenements into two or two into one; or
- (b) The construction of an additional room for which space may be left initially.

On the question of slum improvement, the first prerequisite appears to be a survey of old buildings in cities and formulation of a programme for the improvement, up to certain prescribed standards, of such of them as have a future life structurally of 15 to 20 years. Bombay has pioneered action on these lines and has evolved a plan for subsidising improvement to sub-standard buildings. Other cities are advised to follow this example as a matter of urgency.

In addition, action to improve the environment by providing better civic services, such as conservancy, drainage, water supply and electricity, should be taken in respect of undeveloped village-like settlements in and on the out-skirts of towns and cities. These improvements must, of course, be regarded as of a short-term character, pending the re-development of the areas and the provision of more decent houses and services.

Steps for the Prevention of Slums.—If we aim to prevent new slums from arising, it is essential, first of all, to ensure the proper maintenance of existing buildings. The reasons

leading to the neglect of buildings must be properly studied and countered, for neglect inevitably leads to the deterioration of human habitations into slum-like conditions; and when housing is so short, the importance of preserving existing facilities is paramount. Once circumstances conducive to good maintenance are created, local authorities must take effective steps for enforcing the observance of rules and regulations; and if necessary, existing legislation on the subject must be amplified.

Secondly, new houses must be built on as large a scale as possible to fill the serious deficiency that exists. As one step in that direction, responsibility must be assumed by public bodies and private enterprise in the matter of housing a substantial proportion of their employees. A measure of compulsion must, if necessary, be applied to private employers for securing the discharge of this responsibility.

But above all, certain basic principles of new urban development must be prescribed and followed. These are:-

- (a) adequate country-wide legislation for town and country planning;
- (b) the compulsory formulation in respect of each town and city of a Master Plan to regulate future growth, including the rectification of existing defects;
- (c) prohibition on any new industry or establishment being set up within city limits, save in accordance with the provisions of the Master Plan;
- (d) the location of large new industrial projects, as far as possible, in self-contained townships away from the present metropolitan areas; and
- (e) the acceptance and implementation of the principle that all towns and cities with a minimum population of 50,000 should have an adequate, protected

water supply, electricity, and underground drainage and sewerage.

Integrated Plan for Slum Clearance.—The hard core of the slum problem lies in the great shortage of housing in the urban areas. If, therefore, the slums must be eradicated, the first need is for a sufficiently large programme of new housing. In this sense, the slum problem is an integral and inseparable part of the housing problem; and new housing and slum clearance must go hand in hand. If such integration is secured, it should be possible to achieve significant results even with the present inadequate financial resources set apart for slum clearance as such. Integration of all public housing schemes requires:

- (a) the enunciation of a National Housing Policy which ceases to regard housing as unproductive enterprise;
- (b) the unified (as opposed to the present diffused) handling by Central and State Governments, through separate Ministries/Departments of Housing, of all questions relating to housing, town and country planning and slum clearance.

Integration will help also to speed planning and execution of schemes in the field; for it would make possible the co-ordinated development of virgin lands on a large scale with an eye to sundry requirements. Speed in execution must also be secured by a substantial decentralisation of sanctioning authority in respect of housing and slum clearance schemes. The Central Government would then work only at the policy level and prescribe minimum standards and ceiling cost. The State Governments would scrutinize and sanction schemes; and, for this purpose, would be required to equip themselves with competent technical personnel to the satisfaction of the Central Government. The execution of schemes should be left to local or housing authorities, where they exist.

Dealing specifically with slum clearance, the Seminar expressed the view that the first step should be a scientific survey of the older or depressed parts of a city. The survey would study the magnitude of the problem and the classification of slums for purposes of improvement or re-development. Thereafter, pilot projects of both categories should be undertaken for execution in different types of slums; these would give needed experience for tackling larger clearance schemes in due course.

The execution of slum clearance schemes in a rational manner requires the enactment of legislation centrally or, at any rate, on a uniform basis throughout the country, providing for:

- (a) a definition of slums;
- (b) the procedure for slum clearance (and improvement), so designed as to avoid procedural delays to the maximum extent;
- (c) the basis of compensation for acquisition in slum clearance areas; bearing in mind the intention underlying article 31 of the Constitution; and
- (d) the acquisition of vacant lands outside the clearance areas for housing the spill-over population and for other housing, compensation in such cases being pegged down, as in Bombay, to the market value of the land on a particular date (in Bombay, January 1, 1948) and abolishing the solatium of 15 per cent. admissible under the Land Acquisition Act.

The execution of clearance schemes, involving the demolition of buildings and the development of cleared areas, must be preceded by the construction of suitable transit accommodation for the *ad interim* housing of the affected population. The overall responsibility for providing permanent housing

to such people will be considerably minimised if they are given priority of allotment in all public housing schemes, subsidised or otherwise. Generally, however, it will be found that slum clearance schemes must be made eligible for the same loans and subsidies as the present subsidised industrial housing schemes.

Dealing with the financing of slum clearance schemes, the Seminar recommended that:

- (a) Government assistance should be given for both improvement and clearance schemes;
- (b) the ceiling of cost per tenement should be prescribed on the basis of certain agreed minimum standards and local conditions, and must be reviewed every three years or with any material change in construction costs;
- (c) the Government schemes must also provide for the re-housing of dishoused persons, though their income may be above the level now prescribed; and this could be made possible by enlarging the scope of the Low Income Group Housing Scheme so as to permit construction for renting-out purposes also;
- (d) the present lapsing system of financial grants should be replaced, so as to ensure continued availability of sanctioned funds over a period of say three years; and
- (e) a cess should be levied on certain classes of employers, related to the number of employees not housed by the employers themselves, the proceeds being utilised for new construction or for cheapening rents.

The Seminar also made several other recommendations designed to facilitate or enable private enterprise to provide new houses and to maintain existing buildings.

Examination of Slum Clearance Projects.— A factual examination of the progress made so far indicated that a good deal of spade work has been done and that a number of schemes are ripe for sanction and for execution. Local conditions have naturally dictated a different approach or emphasis. But handicaps imposed by deficient or non-existent legislation are hampering progress even in a limited sphere. Above all, there was a general impression that greater speed can be achieved only if suitable steps are promptly taken for decentralising authority for the scrutiny and sanctioning of schemes.

Two conclusions of importance relate to the necessity of augmenting training facilities for social workers and town planners. In the scheme of orderly development of urban communities, these workers will have a large and important role to play. But, at present,

facilities for training them are very meagre; and urgent steps are necessary to establish new institutions in these subjects.

The Seminar concluded its deliberations in an atmosphere of great expectations derived partly from the unanimity of the conclusions reached and their practical nature. Moreover, the great volume of encouraging messages received from the highest in the land were regarded as indicative of a moment propitious for fruitful action. It was, therefore, thought desirable to make suitable arrangements for follow-up action; and a Standing Committee of the Indian Conference of Social Work and a number of local committees in the large cities have accordingly been set up. These committees will be expected to press the conclusions of the Seminar on the various authorities concerned and to serve as a continuing forum for local discussion and action.

SOCIAL EDUCATION FOR TRIBAL AREAS

A certain amount of elasticity is required when not too specifically defined terms like Social Education are used in context of programmes for tribal welfare and development.

The general meaning and implications of the term naturally should remain the same for the whole country, however imperfect these may be, so that words like Social Education are not used with entirely different meanings in tribal areas.

The General Objectives.—The general objective of social education is: (i) to bring about awareness and consciousness for a new way of life; (ii) to establish contacts with a large section of the community with a view to acquainting them with the possibility of new development and help that is available for them; (iii) to enthuse and stimulate them emotionally with moods for active co-operation and self-help through simple and gain-yielding activities; (iv) to bring about some kind of community organisation through organised participation of groups of adults, women and children in social welfare and economic activities; (v) and to discover and train community leaders and workers.

Special Objectives in tribal areas.—In tribal areas the aim of all the above objectives will be: (i) to assist the community to improve and develop its economy and social health through the maximum exploitation of its physical and natural environment; (ii) to promote specific development in tribal areas so that they keep pace with the development of the country as a whole; (iii) and to so develop socially and culturally that the best elements of tribal life and culture are protected, preserved, and developed to suit the genius and wishes of the tribals themselves.

As in all the Block Development Projects, there will be a technical personnel of

the Project Administration and the State Government in the tribal areas. These will mainly belong to Health, Education, and Community Development, and other Extension Services. It should be the function of the Social Education Organiser to assist the technical personnel to carry out these programmes of service and assistance as effectively as possible, and to help the communities to take direct advantage to these services. They will introduce the personnel and programmes to the people, advise the communities about them, and help to explain and interpret the technical advice given by the technical personnel to the communities. In a manner the social educator is a liaison between the technical personnel and the communities.

The promotion of economic life and well-being.—In tribal areas there will naturally be the maximum concentration on forestry; on guiding traditional methods of shifting cultivation to more desirable methods of agricultural cultivation; on sheep breeding and poultry farming; on tribal crafts based on the skill, needs, market and available raw materials in the area; and on the organisation of foresters' co-operative marketing and credit.

Audio-Visual Aids.—The use of audio-visual aids will require far more technical skill in planning of programme and in interpreting all materials in tribal dialects than is ordinarily experienced in rural areas.

Literacy programmes which have not been too attractive or successful in rural areas will face more serious problems owing to lack of teachers and effective implementation of our language policy. In real tribal areas where the degree of acculturation is low, the tribal dialects are still effective instruments of speech. The introduction of other languages and a new script must be slowly and carefully done according to the needs and capacity of

local areas to absorb them. There should be an effective co-ordination of the local education programme.

As a policy, the maximum use of tribal dialects by social education should yet be advocated; a new script should be introduced after considering local wishes; and everything should be done to keep alive and even enrich the major tribal dialects.

Treatment of special problems.—In the absence of well organised social services or private welfare agencies, it will be necessary for the Social Education Organisers to deal with all special problems of tribal community, like absence of water in the hot season, the prevalence of diseases like leprosy and yaws or the harassment of the community by petty officials, etc.

Social Survey.—Before tribal life and economy are developed, it will be desirable to make brief relevant surveys and investigations about the actual conditions and standard of living and the more pressing problems facing the community. This will be a very special need in tribal areas whose conditions and problems are complex and dissimilar; and little is known about them. This will therefore, be a special responsibility of the Social Education Organiser.

Strengthen existing community organisations and agencies.—In many tribal areas the organised community is a reality; and in some tribal areas tribal assemblies and parichayats may still be in existence. Such traditional community organisations should prove an asset to tribal development. To be effective, tribal leadership should be encouraged and trained and guided in some manner wherever possible. Indirect guidance should be given to improve and increase the existing functions of local tribal organisations. An imperfect democratic organisation of the community itself should be preferred to a new and imposed organisation created by the

Social Education Organiser and the Project and State authorities.

Tribal Culture.—Non-tribal people do not know about the real content, richness, and values of tribal culture. The tribal people have emotional qualities, an aesthetic sense, and artistic skills which are far often superior to what can be given by the Social Education Organiser. The culture pattern of the tribal people has to be discovered, preserved, and enriched; and it should be the task of the Social Education Organisers to remove impediments and create opportunities for tribal cultural activities; and help to acquaint non-tribal communities about the values of tribal culture.

Art and culture should remain the true experiences of the life and spirit of the individual and community; and special care should be taken to avoid new introductions leading to undesirable acculturation. Tribal culture should best be developed socially and recreationally; and under no circumstances the commercialisation of artistic values should be encouraged. Such a policy is in no way detrimental to the use of certain tribal skills for the promotion of tribal economy, especially through tribal crafts.

The Social Education Organiser should gather information about arts, crafts, and folklore; create opportunities for the training of leadership; and create exhibitions and fairs where tribal culture could be presented.

Dancing, song, story, drama, documentation of myths and legends, music, painting, stone-crafts, pottery, and tribal crafts should each receive specific encouragement.

Need of village social education.—If "Social Education" is taken in its literal sense, then it implies the education of the individual, of the family in a unit, and of large community groups in the following:

1. Education for work, employment, and promotion of skills contributing to

income, production, and all aspects of the economic life of the community.

2. Literacy.
3. Education for sex, family planning, marriage, parenthood and family life in general.
4. Health education.
5. Education for household management.
6. Education for participation in the co-operative movement.
7. Education for civics and citizenship.
8. Education for recreation.
9. Education for social participation, self-expression and culture.
10. Education for community organisation and development.

The above curricula cannot be imparted unless there is at least one social educator in every community who can deal even with the smallest part of the whole programme. Social Education Organisers function in a large number of villages, and they will have to depend upon social educators they are able to find or create in every village. In tribal villages, even the schoolmaster cannot be always depended upon to shoulder this burden. The services of educated youths residing in villages could be utilised if they are willing to volunteer as social educators, and if they could be specially trained in brief training camps to befriend, help, and activate the tribal communities.

Special Programmes for women, youth and working adults.—A practical experience of planning social education programmes reveals that different methods and separate programmes and activities are needed to impart social education to: (1) working adults, (2) girls and women and (3) youth. In tribal areas also there will be a need to devise special programmes for youth, women and working adults in that order of priority.

Social education for youth will prepare them for community service, leadership training, enjoyment of recreation, and gradual development of interest in receiving formal education of whatever kind that is available for them. Social education for women will be more difficult in tribal areas than in rural areas because of the special nature of the tribal social structure, the functions of the women in the family and the community, and the role of the woman in economic and social life. Still a woman will have to approach them, guide and advise them, and deal with problems of maternity, child care and family life and family planning. The tribal women will be more easily attracted to tribal arts, crafts and recreation.

Working adults amongst the tribals could be induced to respond to economic activities, co-operation, and organised social life through panchayats before they become willing to respond to literacy activities. Community and social recreations and cultural activities may perhaps help to take more active interest in community life.

Some special considerations.—The tribal population in India is between 17 and 25 millions. There are great dissimilarities amongst them and the most important is the degree of acculturation and the aspects of life which have been influenced by the surrounding cultures and communities.

In order to adjust and plan social education programmes, it may be found useful to classify tribes and tribal areas in the following manner:

- (1) Tribes living in forest areas, dependent on hunting economy and shifting cultivation who are yet more or less isolated as in Bastar, Baiga Chack, several Assam and NEFA areas, etc.
- (2) Tribes living in semi-barren areas with a precarious existence on shifting cultivation and a frugal economy; but

willing to settle on land and take to regular agriculture. The degree of acculturation will be about 50 per cent.

- (3) Tribal areas already under an average rural economy where the degree of acculturation is about 60 to 80 per cent. and the basic economy is agriculture. Such tribes will be found in the plains surrounded by non-tribal communities. These could be generally treated as purely rural communities.
- (4) Tribals who are assimilated with a rural-industrial economy when they work in mines, and other urban economies.

As social education is a process of rapid social change, great care has to be taken in relation to the first two groups. If their cultural heritage and "hill consciousness" is strong, they may resent and even resist change.

Sympathy, caution, wisdom, and slow change after proper study and understanding brought about by a qualified personnel will prove more helpful than a rash and rapid introduction of new ideas and programmes, however well-meant they may be. The tribal people have always been undergoing a process of social change, yielding to social forces that are generated outside their social sphere. If these social forces are properly analysed and understood, then carefully planned programmes will be developed which will not give any shock to their social consciousness and social organisation. Indeed, acculturation may become helpful to them if they are allowed to adapt themselves to their environment, benefit by their environment, and develop their own pattern of healthy community life with external aid, and not too much external direction and pressure.

(Dr. B. H. Mehta)

Annual Children's Play—A Community-wide Project in U.S. Town

Everybody with talent and interest can find an outlet for it during the production of the annual children's play here, Port Washington, New York. A community-wide project, is sponsored by the Play Troupe of Port Washington and the Main Street School and Home Association.

The project, now in its 11th year, is the outgrowth of an idea proposed by a principal of one of the local schools. She believed that the children would benefit from and enjoy seeing their favourite stories as "live" plays, well presented at low cost, with children and adults playing the appropriate parts.

"This is an unusual concept," explains Elmer Tangerman, President of the Sponsoring Theatrical Group, "because practically all children's plays are presented either by a cast of children or by touring adult groups that tend to make the production as simple as possible." The Port Washington production, on the other hand, is an elaborate one. Presented in the local junior high school auditorium, the number of performances has been increased from two to five in recent years to accommodate a growing audience which sometimes totals 4,000 persons.

The 1957 production, the much-loved fairy tale "Jack and the Beanstalk," played to 2,500 children and 1,000 adults. It was the tenth in a series of children's classics which have included "The Wizard of Oz," "Alice in Wonderland," "Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs," "Peter Pan" and "Cinderella." As many as 50 members have been in the casts, about half of them children, and as many as 100 people have worked in various backstage operations.

The Play Troupe, a 30-year-old organisation of amateurs, handles "everything from the footlights back," drawing on its collection of

scenery, drops, lights, make-up kits, costumes, and specialised skills. Members of the troupe conduct the try-cuts which, for the children, are held in the schools to test audience reaction of members of the class.

"We do not cast a child who is below class level in his school work," says Tangerman, who has played in five of the shows, produced seven and directed five, including "Jack and the Beanstalk" of which he and his wife were co-producers. A child is given a part only after a check with parents and teachers to be sure that rehearsals—held three nights a week for about seven weeks—will not interfere with school work. The young actors must be able to take this schedule as well as play two performances one Saturday, one the following Friday night and two the next day.

Children and adults have occasionally been cast in minor parts as a means of helping them overcome personal problems, because teachers have often indicated that the plays have had a therapeutic value for participants.

"Participants in backstage operations are all volunteers and we try to use everyone who shows any aptitude." Tangerman says, "This means that on stage and off we may have adults who have no children in school or children whose parents are not involved in the production." Although many family groups participate, no special effort is made to throw them together.

"We make all the scenery and costumes needed for the plays and allow interested children to participate in any backstage operations," the producer says. "We have had school children learning to handle lights, makeup, economy manufacture and painting, costumes, properties and assisting the director."

Both on stage and off, general effort is to treat children and adults alike on the basis of merit. Any necessary discipline is given, regardless of the age of the person, by the proper authority.

Admission to the plays is less than the price of a motion picture, so the producers assume that any child wanting to attend can do so. It is also possible for a child to earn a free ticket for himself by selling 10 tickets to others. Some enterprising students have sold enough admissions to get a free ticket to each of the five performances.

Although the schools take no official part in the children's plays, they co-operate in various ways. For example, the auditorium

is provided rent-free, and in one elementary school, the students in art classes make posters to advertise the play. The best poster in each class brings a free ticket to the artist.

The Main Street School and Home Association, a typical parent-teacher organisation, manages all publicity, ticket sales, the auditorium and other business responsibilities. It advances money for each production and administers the profits which are used to buy auditorium, playground and other school equipment and to provide scholarships.

"The objective of the children's plays, however, has not been to make money but to provide a good show at a low price," Tangerman emphasises.

TATA INSTITUTE CLASS OF 1957-59

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|---|------|---|------|
| 1. Abraham, C. R., Malaya,
B.A., Malaya University | 1953 | 23. Karnik, A. M., Bombay State,
B.A. (Hons.), Bombay University | 1946 |
| 2. Balchandani, (Miss) C. M., Bombay State,
B.A. (Hons.), Bombay University | 1956 | LL.B., Bombay University | 1948 |
| 3. Bhagchandani, B. D., Bombay State,
B.A., Bombay University | 1957 | M.A., Bombay University | 1949 |
| 4. Bhatt, B. N., Bombay State,
B.Sc., Gujarat University | 1956 | 24. Khan, A. A., Uttar Pradesh,
B.A., Aligarh University | 1956 |
| 5. Bhende, S. A., Bombay State,
B.A., Bombay University | 1953 | 25. Khan, (Miss) S., Bombay State,
B.A., Bombay University | 1957 |
| LL.B., Bombay University | 1955 | 26. Kumar, K., Uttar Pradesh,
B.A., Lucknow University | 1955 |
| 6. Buch, (Miss) M. H., Bombay State,
Visharad, Allahabad University | 1954 | M.A., Lucknow University | 1957 |
| B.A., S.N.D.T. Women's University | 1955 | 27. Macchiwalla, (Miss) A. I., Bombay State,
B.A. (Hons.), Bombay University | 1950 |
| B.T., S.N.D.T. Women's University | 1956 | 28. Madane, S. K., Bombay State,
B.A., Poona University | 1957 |
| 7. Chakrabarty, (Miss) C.N.B., Bombay
State, B.A., (Hons.), Bombay
University | 1957 | 29. Malhotra, (Miss), O., Uttar Pradesh,
M.A., Agra University | 1955 |
| 8. Chohan, B. R., Bombay State,
B.A., Bombay University | 1950 | 30. Malhotra, (Mrs.), P., Andhra Pradesh
B.A., Osmania University | 1957 |
| 9. Devasthale, V. V., Bombay State
B.Sc. (Hons.), Bombay University | 1947 | 31. Mehendale, B. B., Bombay State,
B.A. (Hons.), Bombay University | 1940 |
| 10. Gandhi, M. H. Bombay State,
B.Sc. (Hons.), Gujarat University | 1952 | M.A., Bombay University | 1942 |
| LL.B., Gujarat University | 1957 | 22. Moolky, (Miss) A. U., Mysore,
B.A., Nagpur University | 1954 |
| 11. Ghodke, V. B., Mysore,
B.A., Karnatak University | 1957 | Dip. Social Service, St. Xavier's College | 1957 |
| 12. Gollerkeri, M. S., Mysore,
B.A. (Hons.), Karnatak University | 1954 | M.A., Poona University | 1957 |
| 13. Goswami, P. C., Assam,
B. Com., Gauhati University | 1952 | 33. Mullick, (Miss) C. G., Bombay State,
B.A., Rajputana University | 1957 |
| 14. Hatibaruah, J. R., Assam,
B.Sc., Gauhati University | 1955 | 34. Mulye, W. G., Bombay State,
B.A. (Hons.), Bombay University | 1951 |
| M.Sc., Banaras Hindu University | 1957 | LL.B., Bombay University | 1955 |
| 15. Hom Chaudhuri, S., Assam,
B.A., Gauhati University | 1956 | 35. Nadkarni, (Miss), N. G., Mysore,
B.A., Bombay University | 1955 |
| 16. Homechoudhury, P. K., West Bengal,
B.A., Calcutta University | 1949 | Dip. Social Service, St. Xavier's College | 1957 |
| 17. Irani, (Miss) J. D., Bombay State,
B.A., Bombay University | 1957 | 36. Nag, (Mrs.) K., West Bengal,
B.A., Calcutta University | 1955 |
| 18. Jagannadharao, V., Andhra Pradesh,
B.A., Madras University | 1952 | 37. Naik, J. B., Bombay State,
B.A., Saugar University | 1952 |
| B.L., Madras University | 1954 | 38. Narsimha Rao, M., Andhra Pradesh,
B.Sc., Osmania University | 1956 |
| 19. Jasdawala, (Miss) S.A., Bombay State,
B.A., Gujarat University | 1957 | 39. Navale, B. D. Bombay State,
B.A., Poona University | 1956 |
| 20. Joshi, (Miss), L. P., Madras
B.Sc., Madras University | 1957 | 40. Nayab, P. M., Bombay State,
B.A., Poona University | 1956 |
| 21. Joshi, (Mrs.), N., Bombay State,
B.A., Poona University | 1953 | 41. Pardeshi (Mrs.), A. G., Bombay State,
B.A. (Hons.), Bombay University | 1947 |
| 22. Kalita, K. K., Assam,
B.A., Gauhati University | 1953 | 42. Parikh, (Mrs.) R. M., Bombay State,
B.A. (Hons.), Bombay University | 1953 |
| | | M.A., Bombay University | 1957 |
| | | 43. Pazawna, J., Assam,
B. Com., Gauhati University | 1956 |
| | | 44. Pinto, B. A., Mysore,
B.A. (Hons.), Madras University | 1952 |

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|---|----------------------|---|--------------|
| 45. Rai, A. C., Mysore,
B. Com., Madras University
B.L., Madras University | 1955
1957 | 50. Saikia, J. N., Assam,
B.Sc., Gauhati University
M.Sc., Calcutta University | 1954
1956 |
| 46. Rege, (Mrs.), I., Bombay State,
B.A., Agra University | 1956 | 51. Sharma, M. D., Rajasthan,
B.A., Rajputana University | 1953 |
| 47. Rocco (Fr.), C., Ceylon,
Dip. of Classical Maturity, Naples
(Italy)
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