Chapter – IV

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT IN INDIA: AN OVERVIEW

4.1 INTRODUCTION:

India is the World's largest continuing civilization, which is multi-cultural and multi-lingual but essentially unified. It is a geographically diverse country that has nurtured people of diverse religions and races since time immemorial. Indian culture is a living process, assimilating various cords of thought and lifestyle. Contemporarily it is asserted that education can play an extremely important role in sustaining this special characteristic of the Nation, simultaneously bringing in the desirable transformation in the setting (Tilak, 2006, 46). Ancient Indian education system did play this role for several centuries.

Modern Indian education system, introduced during the colonial period, could reach only the affluent segment of the British Indian citizens and remained not only quantitatively small but was also characterized by wide regional and structural imbalances. At the time of Independence, only one child out of three was enrolled. The level of education was extremely low, characterized by high levels of regional and gender disparities. During the first decade of Independence, the need to reform and restructure India's education system became a priority as it was linked with the country's developmental process. Thus, universal education or education for all became an important aspect of Constitution of India and as well as in the different Five Year Plans (Department of Education, MHRD, 1993, 9). The Constitution of India focused on its Directive Principles governing educational development in the country (Ibid.).

Within the entire social sectors of India, the most wide spread is the influence of education. It has an impact on the overall human development outcomes (India, Human Development Report, 2011, 179). If the progress of education sector is analyzed, both the demand as well as supply side factors are to be considered. No doubt, the country has made a tremendous progress in the enrollment drive. To

enhance India position, the need is to be more focused, with proper allocation of resources, proper governance and best delivery mechanism (Sankar, 2010, 38).

4.2 OVERVIEW OF INDIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM:

Education is a concurrent subject under the Constitution of India. It is the subject of the Central (MHRD) as well as the State Governments (Department of Education). Both the Centre and the State are supposed to share the responsibilities of educating the citizens. The state and the district administration control the school management system. There have been a number of education specific support institutions such as District Primary Education Programme (DPEP), Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), State Implementation Societies, State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT), District Institute of Education and Training (DIET), Block Resource Centre (BRC), Cluster Resource Centre (CRC), and in the rural areas, Village Education Committee (VEC). There is an additional involvement of different NGOs like Pratham and Azim Premji Foundation etcetera which directly or indirectly help and monitor the functioning of the government institutions responsible for educational development.

It has been observed that during the decades between 1951 and 2001, that the country achieved three times increase in per capita income, 3.5 times increase in literacy rate and 2.5 times increase in gross enrollment ratio at elementary level. However, despite India making tremendous progress in improving its literacy rate in the recent years, it still compares very poorly with the World as well as the developing country standards (Sankar, op. cit., 36).

The status of educational development is low, which has led to poor enrollment and consequential low educational standard of the society (Singh, op. cit., 14). Nevertheless, the fact is, not all the states of the country are at the same position in terms of educational attainment and problems associated with education. This is one of the hard facts of the Indian education system. While in terms of indicators of education, a few states or parts therein are the better performers, the large and populous states are much behind (Department of Education, op .cit., 9).

4.3 STRUCTURE OF INDIAN EDUCATION:

Two types of education system are in practice in India - formal and non-formal. Formal education starts at the age of six when the child enters the primary level and can progress to upper primary, secondary, higher secondary and higher levels of education after successful completion at each level. Non-formal education system gives education to children between the ages 9-14. It is an alternative system of education specially meant for children of those parents who are unable to send their children for formal education due to their nature of work or due to some sort of social or economic deprivation (Vaid, 2004, 3929).

School is the institution where the students learn under the supervision of teachers. All schools in the country function under different Boards of Education administered by either the Central or the State Governments (Pajankar and Pajankar, 2010, 17). There are four levels of school education – elementary or primary education (primary and upper primary taken together), secondary education, higher secondary education and higher education. There is also provision of pre-primary (3-6 years), known as Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) that is imparted through Department of Women and Child Development (DWCD), Government of India. There are also a large number of pre-schools in India run by NGOs, Government bodies and private entrepreneurs. Higher education includes technical, vocational and general under-graduation and post graduation courses which are imparted at the college or university levels. Thus, the structure of education in the country includes Government aided schools, Government aided private schools and private non-aided schools.

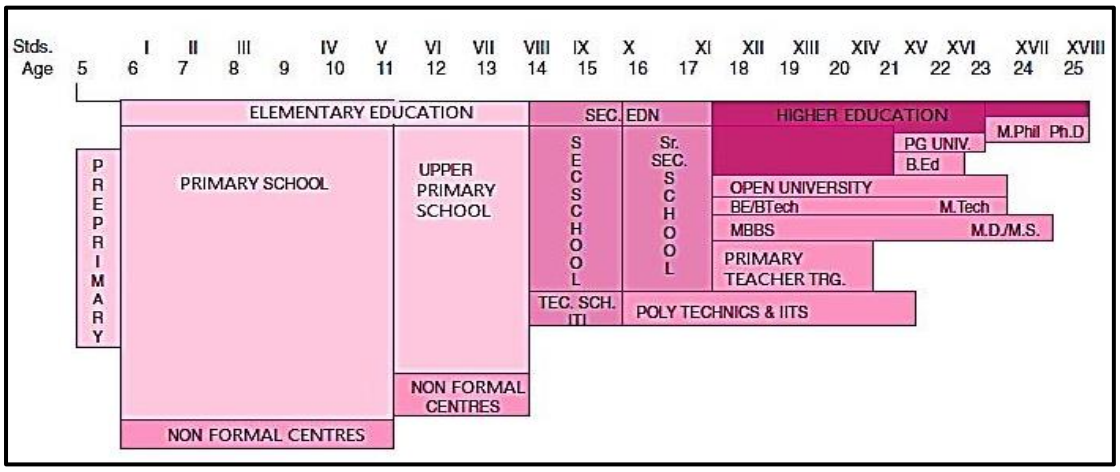

Figure – 4.1: Structure of the Indian Education (Ward, 2007, 287)

4.4 BRIEF REVIEW OF LEVEL-WISE CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA:

Primary education is the foundation on which the development of every citizen and the nation as a whole is based upon (Haloi, et al, 2014, 71). Success of primary education is also dependent upon the outcome of learning. Primary education contributes more towards societal development, while higher education is beneficial to society but more so for the individual (Chakrabarti and Joglekar, 2006, 1465). However, in Indian, primary education reveals certain disturbing facts – it lack in the resources that are essential to build up certain standards (Sengupta and Pal, 2009, 46). Consequentially, the outcome of learning at the primary level in the country has been far from satisfactory (Varghese, 1997, 91).

Aspects related to secondary education in India has by and large remained a less explored area (Majumdar, 2005, 2351). Nevertheless, it is considered as the means to higher secondary and higher education by the youth of the country. Thus, it is considered as a transition between the elementary and higher education. Caste and class have been found to play an important role in this transition. Among other factors which play their roles for secondary education are parental education, religion and region. Educating the female child is still not a common practice in some social and geographical spaces of the country.

4.5 FACTORS AFFECTING EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT:

India is the oldest seat of learning but the social stratification which is based on caste acted as a barrier for the universal spread of education. Earlier, education was meant only for the upper section of the society. Thus, the members of the lower castes and the tribes, which were at the bottom of the social strata, remained deprived of the process of learning (Ahmed and Nuna, 1986, 148).

Most generally, enrollment for school education is affected by availability of schools, availability of female teachers, quality of schools, quality of teaching, attendance, physical access or distance of the schools and female labour force participation, demand and supply factors, dysfunctional schools, numbers of classrooms, numbers, motivation and commitment of teachers (Vaid, op. cit., 3931; Aggarwal, 2009, 96).

Non-availability of school accounts for 10 per cent in rural areas and 8 per cent in the urban areas. Lack of interest, household chores and non-availability of schools are the limitation of the primary schools (Ramachandran, 2003, 963).

Apart from these, difference in income can also increase disparity of educational attainment across society and space (Ahmed and Nuna, op. cit., 148). Poverty has been a major cause of drop-out and low attainment level. We have a large market of child labour, which forces the child to work for the family in order to get an additional income. Once the child starts earning, parents as well as the child do not have willingness to go to the school. This remains true for the poorer family, for which an additional income by a child means a lot and dearer to them. This remains a serious issue as 14 per cent of children remain out of school in order to supplement household income (Mukherjee, 2004, 9).

Lack of infrastructure like educational institutions and teachers affect attainment of education. Although, educational infrastructure as well as the number of teachers has increased in the recent years in the country, it is still not in proportion with the growth of population, particularly that of the school going children (Ibid. 10). Infrastructure like black boards, drinking water and separate toilets for girls also affect educational attainment. There are many schools in India, which do not have any building and the classes are held in the open. Under the circumstance, the child does not find the school attractive. A strong co-relation between the drop-out ratio of the girls and schools without separate toilets for girls has also been observed. Availability of school per capita and teacher-pupil ratio is declining. The significance of educational infrastructure for educational attainment, particularly for secondary and higher secondary levels is extremely high. Moreover, with higher state expenditure, educational attainment may tend to increase, but quality of teachers remains a matter of consideration in the context of educational attainment. Thus, it becomes necessary to reexamine the policies pertaining to improvement of educational attainment (Ibid, 11).

Some studies suggest short term training courses for farmers. Such training courses are expected to bring in improvement in their functional knowledge, attitude, knowledge regarding modern farm practice, income and ultimately their socio-economic condition. It can be true for industrial workers too.

4.6 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT IN INDIA-PRESENT SCENARIO:

After almost six decades of slow progress since Independence, it is heartening to observe higher levels of literacy and education in the country. The 2011 Census has recorded a great leap in the literacy rates. The decade of 1991-2001 was considered as the literacy decade (Shagwan and Shagwan, 2008, 79). Although, good quality compulsory education for children below the age of fourteen is yet to be achieved, the first census of the current century has at least opened with a positive note in terms of literacy and education in the country (Ramachandran, 2004, 1).

Since a decade, the importance of schooling has come to surface and has been accepted as a norm. Gone are the days when people used to debate on the relevance of the primary education in the daily needs of the poor especially of the deprived (Ramachandran, 2003, 959).

A wide range of programmes by the Government and Non-Government agencies were initiated during the period of 2001-11 boosting literacy rates (India, Human Development Report, 2011, 11). Currently, the significance of being literate is realized across space and society. However, access to schooling, function of schooling, quality schooling and other infrastructure remains to be addresses seriously and effectively (Ramachandran, 2004, 1).

There has been satisfactory progress among all the sections of the society in general and the Schedule Castes (SC) and Schedule Tribes (ST) in particular. There is of course not withstanding variations in the level of achievement across the states, wherein some states have reached closer to universal literacy while others are lagging much behind. The literacy rate of India which was 52.21 per cent in 1991 touched 65.4 per cent in 2001 and 72.99 per cent in 2011. Female literacy has also shown good improvement. The enrollment is also increasing rapidly. There has been a massive growth in the number of schools particularly in the rural areas. Growth in the number of secondary, higher secondary and higher educational institutions has also been highly impressive. Presently, 95 per cent of the rural population living in 826,000 habitations has the primary school within one kilometer and 85 per cent of the rural population living has the upper primary within three kilometers (India

Infrastructure Report, 2007, 288). With this trend it would not be improbable for the country to achieve universal literacy by the next decade.

The remarkable progress of the different states in the matter of literacy proves the fact that different schemes envisaged by the central as well as state governments have pushed the scenario towards progress. On the other hand, despite landmark achievement by the country in terms of literacy attainment at the 2011 Census, the absolute number of illiterates is rising. One quarter of the Indians registered themselves as illiterates at this census. The drop-out rates also remained higher for the girls. Many a times, parents become less interested to sending the girl child to school due to economic and social circumstances resulting in higher drop-out of girls. Girls are also engaged in house-hold chores or some kinds of jobs to contribute to the family income (Sharma et al, 2007, 201) The drop-out girls is also higher due to their general deprivation from the well being (Sen, 1996, 22). Since both job prospects and earnings are meager for the women, expected benefits from education for them also reduce (Upadhay, 2007, 161). The efficiency in education is judged with the help of cost-benefit analysis of education. With that analysis, it was found that drop-out and repetition in education is causing wastage in education (Upadhay, 2007, 161).

Overall, Education scenario in India has undergone remarkable changes because of changing socio-economic condition.

4.6.1 Emerging Issues:

Way back in 1966, Kothari Commission had emphasized on the role of education in national development. During the last few years, there has been very significant progress in the field of education albeit inter-regional and caste, gender, religion based inequalities. The expansion of education has played a major role in achieving economic growth (Tilak, 2006, 34). Thus, social and economic returns of education are high.

There has been campaign against child labour. Access to school is rather a very important issue. Most of the NGOs actually do not address the issue of child labour. It is one of the issues which adversely affect drop-outs. Quality of education is another burning issue. Care should be taken for the learning outcomes

too. As data for the learning outcome is not available, no desirable action is being envisaged. Quality of teachers is another dimension which needs to be looked into as it in turn; it affects the quality of students. The vocational training should be within the reach of the poor masses. The forward linkage of education which means that the primary education is linked to the means of livelihood is yet to be established. There should be specific levels of exit, such as at grade eighth and twelfth, when a student can go for vocational courses or for skill oriented courses (Ramachandran, 2003, 967). Unstable plans and policies, frequent changes in government views and priorities impact the education system too (Ibid, 968).

India is far behind the accepted standard regarding educational attainment. Besides, the level of educational attainment is not spatially or socially uniform over India. Vast regional disparities can be seen in India. Summarily, following are the issues regarding the educational attainment n India.

1. Literacy scenario - During the last century, literacy rate in India increased from 5.3 per cent in 1901 to 65.4 percent in 2001 and to 72.99 per cent in 2011. Literacy amongst the males has spread much faster than amongst the females. All the states have gender disparity in literacy rate. While the states of Rajasthan, Odisha and Madhya Pradesh display larger gender disparity, in Kerala it is much smaller.
2. Educational attainment has not been spatially uniform. Poorly performing states are Bihar and Jharkhand, while the best performers are Kerala and Mizoram.
3. Formal education / enrollment by school - Enrollment in the primary school has increased. Enrollment of only 19.2 million at the 1951 Census touched the 113.6 million mark at the 2001 count.
4. The demand for higher education has been increasing rapidly since India achieved Independence although it is marked with a slower pace recently. This is despite the growing number of institutions. The need of the hour is to enhance the quality of higher education as well as reduce the spatial imbalance in the availability of institutions of higher education in the country (Tilak, 2006, 36).

4.6.2 Indicators of Educational Attainment

Educational attainment means the achievement in education or the highest level of education a person has achieved. Educational attainment is measured across the society and space with the help of various indicators, such as, (a) literacy rate, (b) enrolment rates, (c) attendance rates (d) dropout rates (e) retention rates of the school going children or the girl child and, (f) disparity in education (g) access to education (h) the proportion of population having primary, secondary, higher secondary and technical and higher qualifications. Some of the indicators are explained in detailed to understand the effects of these indicators, particularly on the regions and societies which have traditionally lagged behind in this regard.

4.6.2.1 Enrollment

Enrollment in educational institutions is best measured with the help of Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) which is considered an important indicator of educational development. GER is defined as the ratio in a particular level of education (regardless of age) to the population of official school age for that level of education. Enrollments in these levels also include under-age and over-age children. Hence, the percentage may be more than 100 in some cases (Pajankar and Pajankar, 2010, 20).GER across the country are not uniform. It is a crude but very widely used indicator. The states like U.P, Himachal Pradesh and Tamil Nadu has high GER while Bihar, Jharkhand and Nagaland have low GER. The GER for females tends to be higher at the lower levels of education, but the trend is reversed from the middle level onwards because of high drop-outs among the females (Singh, 2009, 18).

The overall GER (Table 4.1) has increased from the year 2013-14 to 2014-15 with the minor decrease at primary level. However, falling GER at the primary level is a matter of concern. The contributory factor must be studied. Other than that in upper primary, secondary, higher secondary, GER has improved from 2013-14 to 2014-15. For the different states, in the 2014-15 GER is highest in Meghalaya (138.40) in primary level. All the group of seven sisters in the north east GER is high in the primary level. For the upper primary level, Sikkim (140.66) has the highest GER in the followed by other north-eastern states.

Table – 4.1: State - Wise Gross Enrollment Ratio at by Education Levels

State/UT	Primary Level		Upper Primary Level		Elementary Level		Secondary Level		Higher Secondary Level	
	2013-14	2014-15	2013-14	2014-15	2013-14	2014-15	2013-14	2014-15	2013-14	2014-15
Andhra Pradesh	96.74	88.21	83.57	79.47	91.70	84.88	75.20	72.40	60.30	51.63
Arunachal Pradesh	128.46	128.13	113.94	122.53	123.61	126.33	86.65	91.62	65.27	68.71
Assam	113.43	114.96	93.13	95.86	106.28	108.31	71.21	74.78	32.94	33.97
Bihar	97.96	101.09	87.24	98.07	94.56	100.14	60.08	69.09	23.70	31.79
Chhattisgarh	103.99	103.08	100.72	101.23	102.78	102.40	97.99	101.82	57.23	63.34
Goa	105.14	103.97	105.76	100.19	105.37	102.54	106.66	113.63	70.24	77.88
Gujarat	101.13	98.72	90.86	93.56	97.21	96.75	74.50	74.34	48.51	44.93
Haryana	98.39	97.57	94.17	96.03	96.80	97.00	86.21	84.25	69.55	65.78
Himachal Pradesh	100.49	99.43	101.79	103.09	100.98	100.81	120.31	115.87	96.13	100.58
Jammu & Kashmir	84.90	85.97	72.43	70.89	80.27	80.35	65.97	66.29	51.33	59.33
Jharkhand	110.23	108.40	95.25	99.97	105.13	105.58	70.14	71.86	43.96	48.69
Karnataka	100.96	101.86	91.81	93.18	97.49	98.59	77.49	81.80	18.39	32.96
Kerala	95.42	95.11	98.34	96.89	96.55	95.80	102.51	103.24	87.58	76.87
Madhya Pradesh	111.49	101.11	100.67	96.63	107.51	99.46	83.35	80.18	44.76	45.48
Maharashtra	99.81	98.95	96.69	98.82	98.64	98.90	85.58	89.31	58.77	62.20
Manipur	149.15	134.37	113.31	118.77	136.95	129.26	84.30	90.62	62.18	65.39
Meghalaya	135.35	138.40	110.97	122.03	127.39	133.26	72.80	81.05	22.94	36.03
Mizoram	125.96	122.66	118.72	126.83	123.59	123.97	106.62	108.15	59.88	62.11
Nagaland	118.78	100.57	102.68	97.67	113.32	99.62	68.24	64.53	32.98	33.61
Odisha	105.84	105.53	86.20	90.13	98.44	99.76	74.79	77.06	N.A.	N.A.
Punjab	105.61	105.11	95.34	96.77	101.69	101.94	86.39	85.59	71.79	69.39
Rajasthan	101.53	98.64	84.58	85.79	95.46	94.09	78.68	76.16	53.03	56.46
Sikkim	124.42	112.57	138.84	140.66	129.61	122.30	98.37	111.26	62.62	68.55
Tamil Nadu	102.56	103.11	98.27	94.58	100.86	99.71	92.50	91.89	75.87	77.52
Tripura	113.31	109.98	114.03	120.54	113.56	113.47	117.01	120.57	40.99	43.40
Uttar Pradesh	96.41	95.00	73.17	74.54	88.18	87.79	66.18	67.79	61.27	63.75
Uttarakhand	100.60	100.54	86.52	85.53	95.26	94.84	88.18	90.35	76.31	80.36
West Bengal	104.00	102.33	99.64	103.17	102.37	102.64	74.82	78.17	48.13	49.95
All India	**101.36**	**100.08**	**89.33**	**91.24**	**97.00**	**96.89**	**76.64**	**78.51**	**52.21**	**54.21**

Source: DISE: 2014-15

Thus, for the elementary education that includes both the primary and upper primary, Meghalaya leads GER with 133.26. For the secondary education too,

another north-eastern state Tripura (120.57) leads in GER while for the higher secondary it is the state of Himachal Pradesh which leads in GER with 100.50. There is a sudden fall in the GER of the north-eastern states that could be ascribed to the problem of accessibility of schools in the hilly regions. The north-eastern region also faces the border security problem thus impacting the availability of school at distance.

The lowest GER at the elementary level was in the state of Jammu and Kashmir (80.35). It is a political unstable region with the problem of terrorism, facing shelling, infiltration, and bombardment in the primary schools thus has impacted the GER. For the secondary level, the lowest GER was found in Nagaland (64.53), another unstable region in terms of border security and insurgency .However, the lowest GER at higher secondary level was in Bihar (31.79). Though situation improved in the state of Bihar, it is still political unstable region which had led to the lower GER at higher secondary level. For the state of Gujarat, GER decreased from to 2013-14 to 2014-15 at the primary level, but increased 93.56 percent in the upper primary level, again decline at 74.34 at the secondary level and 44.93 in the higher secondary level.

Although the GER for India indicates progress, the process is yet not complete. The country is far from achieving universalized elementary education. Many children are still out of school. And many have never ever seen the school premises. It is also quite unsure that those who enter the Grade One would continue up to Grade Eighth (Venkatnarayan, 2009, 12). The enrollment is more prominent among girls, rural children and children of marginal groups as well as children from economically poor background. These improvements are particularly seen in the educationally backward states. Nevertheless, only about 55 per cent of them completed upper primary in 2005 (Sankar, 2010, 36).

Attempts have been made to boost enrollment through the initiatives of teachers and social activists. Other ways include listing out children in the school and out of school to find out how many are actually not enrolled; organize workshops to evaluate the skill of the children and then utilize their skill accordingly; taking note of the work and attitude of teachers and

administrators towards the students especially of the deprived sections and then focus on both push and pull factors that affect the child's access and retention in schools (Ramachandran, 2003, 961).

4.6.2.2 Drop-Outs

A child on reaching school faces all those which decide whether a child should continue or discontinue education.

On the other hand, when there is drop-out, due to poverty or migration or gender roles, there should be certain programmes that promote retain such children in the school (Ramachandran, 2003, 960). Over all, average annual drop-outs rates (Table 4.2) is less than 5 per cent for the primary and upper primary level while it increased near about 18 per cent in the secondary level and again it declined in the higher secondary level. In fact, in all the states, the drop-outs are high at the secondary level it is because at this level children are exposed to work and earn at times by compulsion or by choice and for them studies do not seen to be important.

Drop-outs for the levels of primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary, and the highest drop-outs rates were in the north-eastern states. It is in these states, GER was higher. Hence it can be inferred that people enrolled themselves but either the quality of education or the proper infrastructure were not available for which they drop-out. Apart from it, there is also political instability and border security problem for these states. On the other side, the drop-out rates were also higher in Madhya Pradesh for all levels and drastically high for Odisha at the secondary level. Poverty and need to work were the main reasons for these high drop-out rates. For the state of Gujarat drop-out is very low in primary, near to 6 per cent in the upper primary level. Like all states, it increased at the secondary level (21.61%), its more than the country's average again at the higher secondary; it falls to the 8 per cent.

Table 4.2: Average Annual Drop-out Rate by Educational Level (2013-2014)

State/UT	Primary Level			Upper Primary Level			Secondary Level			Grade XI to XII		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Andhra Pradesh	4.31	4.39	4.35	3.46	4.12	3.78	11.95	13.37	12.65	12.65	10.85	11.79
Arunachal Pradesh	11.54	10.22	10.89	4.44	6.74	5.59	16.08	12.75	14.49	18.57	15.49	17.07
Assam	8.19	6.68	7.44	7.6	6.54	7.05	28.59	32.1	30.43	7.62	6.83	7.24
Bihar	2.38	1.79	2.09	2.77	3.19	2.98	24.67	26.05	25.33	-	-	-
Chhattisgarh	1.45	1.38	1.42	4.09	3.51	3.8	24.1	22.72	23.41	-	2.13	-
Goa	0.08	0.33	0.2	-	-	-	11.68	7.19	9.58	18.21	8.38	13.36
Gujarat	0.50	1.06	0.76	3.52	8.04	5.55	22.85	19.81	21.61	9.06	6.18	7.83
Haryana	0.22	0.63	0.41	1.97	3.25	2.55	11.92	13.27	12.51	1.41	3.16	2.18
Himachal Pradesh	0.57	0.34	0.46	0.6	0.98	0.78	9.32	8.83	9.09	8.44	5.54	7.07
Jammu & Kashmir	5.53	5.37	5.46	3.86	4.8	4.3	14.7	16.14	15.36	8.8	6.2	7.64
Jharkhand	6.89	5.91	6.41	7.19	7.65	7.42	22.99	23.32	23.15	-	-	-
Karnataka	2.42	2.21	2.32	2.31	2.73	2.51	28.49	26.57	27.57	-	-	-
Kerala	-	-	-	-	-	-	17.3	11.4	14.46	6.95	5.9	6.4
Madhya Pradesh	9.91	10.4	10.14	9.88	13.57	11.7	25.21	27.91	26.47	0.52	2.83	1.55
Maharashtra	0.51	0.59	0.55	-	1.5	0.61	15.04	13.78	14.47	2.85	3.89	3.34
Manipur	17.27	18.74	18	7.48	6.54	7.02	12.35	15.28	13.81	3.3	3.08	3.2
Meghalaya	11.3	9.39	10.34	6.34	7.28	6.84	25.63	23.99	24.75	-	-	-
Mizoram	12.57	13.38	12.96	6.61	5.39	6.02	20	17.37	18.7	-	-	-
Nagaland	19.09	19.74	19.41	18.08	17.63	17.86	34.14	36.08	35.11	15.36	12.96	14.19
Odisha	2.83	3.05	2.94	3.11	2.48	2.8	49.39	49.57	49.48	-	-	-
Punjab	1.35	1.21	1.29	2.52	3.27	2.85	8.93	8.71	8.83	7.87	3.2	5.81
Rajasthan	7.76	9.12	8.39	4.49	7.95	6.03	17.85	20.06	18.77	-	-	-
Sikkim	5.55	3.49	4.57	6.35	3.98	5.14	13.74	12.14	12.89	14.11	11.92	12.91
Tamil Nadu	0.53	0.39	0.46	4.38	4.67	4.52	16.13	7.99	12.2	4.55	4.35	4.44
Tripura	3.63	3.52	3.58	3.21	2.2	2.72	24.51	25.7	25.09	9.15	9.06	9.11
Uttar Pradesh	7.91	6.21	7.08	-	2.43	0.53	7.26	7.35	7.3	-	-	-
Uttarakhand	3.28	2.83	3.07	1.78	1.57	1.68	9.85	7.44	8.7	0.23	-	-
West Bengal	3.44	2.37	2.91	5.63	3.1	4.31	16.73	19.77	18.34	8.03	7.76	7.9
All India	**4.53**	**4.14**	**4.34**	**3.09**	**4.49**	**3.77**	**17.93**	**17.79**	**17.86**	**1.48**	**1.61**	**1.54**

Source: DISE: 2014

To meet the enrollment target, many a times, authorities gather the names of the children who are not enrolled and fill up their names without the consent of the parents and the children. Thus, it becomes the case of fictitious enrollment. Those do not attend school are registered under drop-outs. All these are wastage of resources. Many a times, child's poor performance and conduct happen to be the cause drop-outs. Many times because of the bad conduct of the child, he is forced to leave the school. The poor performance leads to the detention of the students (Venkatnarayan, 2009, 13).

The issue of retaining children particularly of the vulnerable groups must be addressed seriously, lest because of drop-outs many would miss the benefits of education (Pajankar and Pajankar, 2010, 16).

4.6.2.2.1 Determinants for drop-outs:

Consideration of the following determinants of drop-out from schools is expected to bring-in positive results.

- Poverty
- Child not interested
- Parents not interested
- Unable to cope.
- To work in agricultural field
- Participate in the other economic activities
- Attend domestic duties
- Financial constraints
- Marriage
- Corporal punishment
- Distance Factors
- Other Reasons

Family background, which is defined by its income, education, occupation, size, health education, education of mother etcetera, plays a very important role in the matter of drop-outs. Drop-outs are useful at home to look after the sibling, bringing water, assisting mother in the household chores (Seetharamu

and Ushadevi, 1985, 27). Majority of the drop-outs happen to be girl children of the deprived sections who live in remote areas or who do not have schools nearby or within walking distance. Many students drop-out of school for physical safety. A similar situation prevails for the girl child in the urban slums without schooling facility in the vicinity. The girls are more involved in the household chores, agricultural field, sibling care, petty employment (maid, parlour) (Dutt, 2010, 26). As the girl child dedicates more to household chores, parents and society do not consider her education essential (Bhatty, 1998, 1735). It is a widely known fact that the proportion of children especially of the deprived sections and girls in particular either drop-out before reaching class fifth or even if they continue, their learning achievement is very low (Ramachandran, 2003, 960).

Poverty forces poor parents not to send the child to school despite the Government making education free. Children of such families either spend their time to make some earnings for the family or to share the household works with other members of the family. The incidence of non-enrollment and higher drop-outs at the lower grades of schooling thus can be linked with child labour or engagement in some economically gainful activity (Bhatty, 1998, 1734). On several instances it has been observed that the drop-out students work, not necessarily during the school timings. Hence, there is scope to retain them in the school without obstructing them to work (Bhatty, 1998, 1732).

4.6.2.2.2 Reduction of drop-outs:

The study of the different NGO tells us that good quality of education reduces the amount of drop-outs and encourage student of better learning ability. Thus, it can be said to strengthen backward and forward linkages and strengthen the primary education (Ramachandran, 2003, 960). Those children whose parents are engaged in services are more likely to attend the schools. The drop-outs rates has been declining from 2001-2011 (Sankar, 2010, 36).

Studies have shown that many times youngsters who drop-outs at the primary and secondary level are unemployed and do not do any productive work and have an negative impact on own self, other children and also on the society

(Ramachandran, 2003, 960). In the region of Andhra Pradesh, there are youth camps to address the sensitive issue of adolescence. Even, camps for the older ones that they can be with the peer group in formal school. There are motivational camps too, for drop-outs child. On reaching camps, children live community living. Who so ever is out of schools must be brought in school so that drop-outs may be decreased as well as the child labour would also decrease. The responsibility should be on the government for reducing the child labour and increasing enrollment. There should be propaganda for it in the media too (Ibid, 961). Since last few years there has lot of programmes for the out of schools children, children labour project and innumerable remedial education, supported by NGO's and others along with associated education training like health care, rural development (Ibid, 960).

4.6.2.3 Disparity in Education

Caste plays a major role in determining educational attainment especially in the rural areas. Children of the two scheduled sections of the country's population tend to lag much behind the general population in education. Between the two genders, females compare very poorly with the males mainly because of the existence of patriarchal nature of Indian society and the persistent societal taboo of sending a girl child to school. The social, economic and the cultural conditions of the girl child determine the access to education, type of course followed, and occupation chosen by her. In rural areas, parents are reluctant to send their daughter to schools, as she participates in the household chores and at times contributes through wage earning. Social and economic space of Indian society provides preferential opportunity to boys in comparison to girls (Khanna, 2002, 139). Tabular depiction of parental motivations for educating boys and girls clarify the situation more clearly (Table 4.3). Consequently, rural female literacy is still miserably low even after so many years of Independence. The issue of female education had attracted the attention of the policy makers because of the higher rate of gender disparity in education (Singh and Singh, 2009, 258). Several policy measures have been initiated by the Government for reducing the prevailing disparities between gender, class, caste and religion but perceptible results are

yet to emerge (Singh and Singh, 2009, 255) and disparity in educational attainment is still a major problem for the country (Mukherjee, 2004, 6).

Table – 4.3: Parental Motivation for Education

Parental Motives	
Male Child	**Female Child**
Better earning	Social vs. parental return
Financial security	Prejudice against female education
Improvement in social status	Marriage as ultimate goal
Withdrawal from agriculture	Gender-based division of labour - not allowed to work outside home
	Problem beyond primary stage

Source: Bhatty, 1998, 1862

The gender disparity in education is gradually narrowing down but still the gender roles in Indian society remain a problem in the context of disparity in education (Khanna, 2002, 139). Gender differences in schooling outcome are common in India. Parents in India do not spend on education equally for male and female child which creates disparity. At times, because of the quality of education, parents hesitate to enroll their children. In a way, children of rich parents get the benefits of education while poor children are left out (Chaudhari and Roy, 2006, 5276).

Rise in the literacy rates have not narrowed down intra and inter regional disparity in literacy (Aggarwal, 2002, 45). The reality is unraveled when the differences between rural-urban, gender and social classes are compared. From time to time, the Government has formulated various kinds of policies to reduce the different kinds of disparities. Impact of Christianity too has played a role in reducing the disparity to some extent. Other factors such as urbanization, diversification of economy, agricultural prosperity, and higher proportion of non-agricultural workers tend to reduce disparity. Thus, states with backward agricultural economy and low level of urbanization and industrialization display low level of literacy as well as higher literacy disparities (Dutta and Sivaramkrishnan, 2013, 198). Literacy is an associated feature of the urban areas and it gradually spread to the rural areas. The degree of urban influence and rural-urban interaction affects rural-urban disparity

(Shagwan and Shagwan, 2008, 81). While around four-fifth (79.92%) of the urbanites of the country were literate, less than three-fifth (58.74%) of their rural counterparts had attained the skill literacy at the 2001 census. Although the share of literates increased respectively to 84.11 and 76.77 per cent at 2011 census, disparity still exists. Rural-urban female literacy disparity is much more pronounced.

The basic reason of rural-urban disparity is most of the occupations in the urban areas require the skill of literacy in the population. Secondly, urban areas are better equipped. Thirdly, the urge for being educated is higher in the urban areas. Literacy gives awareness thus, people of urban region with higher literacy, are socially and economically more awakened. In the urban area, females are not restricted and not denied opportunities. Literate segment of the rural population migrates to the urban areas in search of jobs. Consequently, the proportion of literates is higher in the urban areas in comparison to the rural areas (Sagwan and Sagwan, 2008, 82). Over time, constant improvement in the standard of living, technology, means of communication, diversification of economy, policies for the upliftment of the deprived section, increased interaction between rural and urban areas, as well as increasing significance of education in the rural areas are helping in reducing the gap between rural and urban literacy rates (Shagwan and Shagwan, 2008, 82).

4.6.2.4 Access to Education

The Government is generally considered responsible in terms of financial, managerial and human resource to make the elementary education more meaningful and inclusive. The access to primary school has not been completely achieved in the country, especially in its rural areas. In order to achieve this goal, systematic planning and intervention by the concerned agencies is required, particularly in the rural areas (Pajankar and Pajankar, 2010, 22). The tribal and hilly areas are characterized by low levels of socio-economic development and literacy because of the less accessibility (Ram and Dabral, 1995, 258). About 90 per cent of children have access to schools within a distance of less than one kilometer, still enrollment and retention remains a problem (Ramachandran, 2003, 963). The policy makers of

elementary education have been concerned with the physical access of education, still then there remain gaps in the access to education (Ramachandran, 2003, 960).

4.7 QUALITY OF EDUCATION:

Quality of education means, effectiveness of teaching learning process. It is a relative concept rather than absolute. Quality of education can be defined as the effectiveness of the school. In other words, it is what is taught and how it is taught in a classroom as to make student understand (Govinda and Varghese, 1993, 3). The enrollment in schools have improved over the years but the declining trend of attendance pose the question of quality of education at the school level (India, Human Development Report, year,2011, 11).

Teacher's absenteeism is more evident in rural India and has been one of the major problems that affect the quality of teaching. Lack of devotion and accountability of teachers also affects the quality (Bhatty, 1998, 1739). Less number of female teachers is also one of the important factors behind lower school attendance among female students. In order to counter this, there is an appointment of contractual teachers (also known as *Para* teachers). Average number of teachers is much lower in rural India. More than 10 per cent are contractual teachers. The salary of these teachers is lower. Absenteeism among these contractual teachers is lesser than the regular ones on account of the insecure nature of job. The average proportion of female teachers is only 43 per cent in India. In rural India, it is much lower. For all levels of education, the states of Tripura, Jharkhand, Rajasthan and Assam have even lower proportions of female teachers and have lower enrollment and the highest drop-out rates particularly of the female students. Chhattisgarh has the highest proportion of female teachers. (India, Human Development Report, 2011, 201). This can be one of the reasons of the higher enrollment ratio (103.08 at primary level, and 101.23 at upper-primary level - 2013-14) and lower drop-out rates (1.42 at primary level and 3.80 at upper primary level-2013-14)

Equality, Quality and Quantity are the elusive triangle of the Indian Education (Naik, 1979, 169).

Naik (Ibid.) has presented three aspects in a modular form as below:

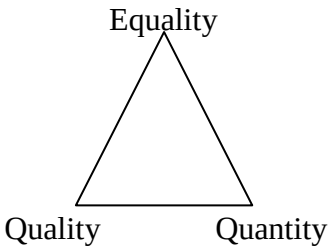

Figure – 4.2: Elusive triangle of Education

Earlier these three aspects of equality, quality and quantity were considered important in education. These three hold the same importance even today, as these have not yet been achieved (Singh, 2009, 13).

Some key problems are also like monitoring capability of teachers. There are many people especially the deprived sections of the society who do not have the access to quality education. It is usually the poor who send their children to Government schools, where quality of education in relation to privately managed schools remains poor due to the problems mentioned above. Children hailing from economically affluent families, find private schools affordable. Ultimately, this economic dualism in the society tends to widen the gap in getting access to quality education. (Ramachandran, 2003, 959)

To counter under achievement in education, provision of good quality schooling is also essential. In fact, it should be taken as basic condition for improving education at school level. Provision of the school should be nearby every habitation, rather than to expect a child to walk to and fro a kilometer to reach the school. It can reduce drop-outs to a great extent. Generally, schools with higher grades have better infrastructures and thus, have more enrollments. Primary schools are neglected at the cost of secondary schools. Many times the teachers do not possess the quality they should have, leading to deteriorated standards of teaching. (Bhatty, 1998, 1860)

To improve quality of education, reforms relating to training of teachers, motivation of teachers, introduction of attractive way of teaching, improvement in the facilities and infrastructure in schools are needed. Currently, quantity of institutions is being multiplied without improvement in the quality. Quality eventually affects the outcome

of learning. Under the no-detention policy, the quality of teaching is being severely hindered (Aggarwal, 2000, 2). Various approaches to ensure quality of education were suggested by several stake holders of which some were adopted. One of them is by increasing the accountability of the parents in the system. Some schools put parents on school board or give power to parents in teachers associations or village education committees (Prakash, 1993, 3). However, the gap between the goal and the actual achievement has not reduced.

4.8 EDUCATIONAL INFRASTRUCTURE:

Separate and properly maintained buildings, separate class rooms for separate grades, one teacher for each grade, usable separate toilets for boys and girls, safe drinking water, black-boards, reading writing materials, presence of teachers all through the school timing and minimum level of achievement among students are some of the minimum required infrastructural necessities. Uniformity in the availability of these in the country is expected to reduce the levels of disparity in education (Bhatty, 1998, 1736). Accessibility of roads is essential infrastructure to increase the literacy rate (Sarma, 1999, 69). According to RTE, pupil-teacher ratio should be 30 for every school at primary level and 35 at upper primary level.

In 2007, average number of classrooms for all schools in India was 4.1 Average student-classroom ratios for the country were 35. Conditions of the schools were not up the mark. 30 per cent of the primary schools required repairing. Half of the schools in India did not have separate toilets for girls and boys in 2007. Among the school infrastructure, lack of drinking water facilities and lack of sanitation facilities (particularly for girls) were the major concern of school infrastructure. About 87 per cent of the schools had drinking water facilities. However, in the matter of sanitation, India was lagging behind. There was a need of separate toilets for girls. Absence of separate toilets for girls makes their parents hesitate to send their daughter after the primary class (India, Human Development Report, 2011, 197).

Things are much improved now then the few years back. For an infrastructure like drinking water facilities, (Table 4.4) in 2014-15 nearly 96.12 percent of schools has the access of drinking water. The state of Gujarat has 99.88 percent of accessibility of

drinking water and Meghalaya with 63.74 percent has accessibility of drinking water. In fact, many schools in Gujarat do have RO system installed in their schools.

Table – 4.4: India - Infrastructural Facilities Available in Schools (2014-15)

State/UT	Percentage of Schools with									
	Drinking Water Facility	Play Ground Facility	Electricity Connection	Computer Facility	Library Facility	Building	Boundary Wall	Ramp	Girls' Toilet	Boys' Toilet
Andhra Pradesh	93.74	54.95	92.76	28.06	96.15	99.42	59.47	55.29	98.07	65.34
Arunachal Pradesh	80.64	39.39	38.60	24.68	25.75	100	52.47	77.30	96.89	95.97
Assam	83.36	55.20	22.40	9.83	56.36	99.97	28.46	88.77	74.86	54.80
Bihar	92.74	37.03	25.22	8.19	70.01	90.88	53.97	65.53	76.30	73.92
Chhattisgarh	97.03	53.27	66.88	11.88	91.28	98.07	59.11	74.39	92.00	76.06
Goa	99.23	46.51	98.72	43.51	97.70	98.66	79.08	59.50	99.42	90.85
Gujarat	99.88	77.47	99.72	75.22	91.88	99.95	92.67	84.96	99.79	98.63
Haryana	99.75	83.38	98.74	46.04	97.56	99.67	97.05	90.10	98.05	95.67
Himachal Pradesh	99.08	84.36	94.22	23.85	95.82	99.98	67.64	84.79	97.67	95.63
Jammu & Kashmir	90.82	37.04	26.39	17.56	58.65	99.87	33.59	33.23	77.93	71.54
Jharkhand	91.93	33.52	17.98	9.71	91.83	99.39	28.60	59.58	87.32	86.15
Karnataka	99.80	67.41	97.64	38.74	97.53	99.97	76.12	78.60	99.60	99.48
Kerala	99.56	72.85	97.01	93.77	96.33	99.05	82.91	87.19	97.78	96.99
Madhya Pradesh	96.23	65.28	28.29	14.58	88.81	98.45	44.93	78.54	89.59	89.68
Maharashtra	99.64	88.07	93.93	57.07	96.20	99.68	82.51	90.79	99.29	99.15
Manipur	88.58	54.30	30.66	25.23	28.55	99.76	31.46	93.99	95.51	94.93
Meghalaya	63.74	34.17	26.72	10.64	11.62	98.72	20.91	67.94	63.92	64.48
Mizoram	92.23	50.20	74.56	31.90	73.27	100.00	53.11	54.28	99.82	97.34
Nagaland	78.18	40.71	40.94	35.68	33.54	99.90	69.55	71.85	99.37	94.66
Odisha	98.03	29.71	29.73	13.72	91.39	98.96	66.63	77.38	88.34	82.45
Punjab	99.97	95.38	99.88	52.48	95.61	99.95	98.17	85.30	99.08	97.35
Rajasthan	97.08	51.86	55.28	28.60	69.32	99.19	83.43	60.56	98.03	96.91
Sikkim	97.17	67.11	70.72	58.56	47.33	99.84	35.64	26.44	98.91	98.19
Tamil Nadu	99.81	76.42	98.51	57.28	99.12	99.99	79.13	68.29	99.71	99.29
Tripura	88.98	61.35	28.58	15.11	41.22	99.96	19.24	60.69	99.88	99.44
Uttar Pradesh	98.57	70.36	53.59	12.72	74.61	99.97	71.46	84.52	98.72	98.50
Uttarakhand	95.14	58.23	76.95	32.97	88.84	98.60	80.48	84.17	95.97	96.46
West Bengal	97.93	38.39	56.96	12.13	72.70	99.65	42.28	90.23	92.42	89.93
All India	96.12	60.47	60.01	26.42	82.20	99.01	63.90	76.70	93.08	88.62

Source: DISE-2014-15

Play ground is necessary for the complete development of the child, but only 60.47 percent of the schools of India have the playground. Maharashtra has 88.07 percent of the schools with playground while Odisha has only 29.71 percent of the schools with playground. Gujarat has 77.47 percent of its schools with playground. The condition of the electricity has improved up over the period of years .Nearly, 60.01percent of schools in India has the electricity connection. Punjab occupying the top position with 99.88 percent of schools has the electricity connection while in the state of Jharkhand only 17.98 percent of the schools have the electricity connection. Gujarat too had a very good position of 99.72 percent of the schools with electricity. Computer now is a necessity for better learning. In India, 82.20 percent of the schools have access to the computer facilities. Kerala with 93.77 percent of the school has the computer in the school while in the state of Bihar only 8.19 percent has the computer facilities. Gujarat has 75.22 percent of schools with computer facilities. Libraries are synonyms with the schools. Nearly, 82 percent of the schools in India have the library facilities. Tamil Nadu with 99.12 percent of the school has library facilities while in the state of Arunachal Pradesh only 25.75 percent has library. Presently, 99 percent of the schools in India have their own buildings but only 63.90 percent of schools have their boundary wall. Among states, Punjab has 98.17 percent of schools has boundary wall while in Assam only 28.46 percent of school have the boundary wall. Ramp has now become compulsory in schools. 76.7 percent school in India has the ramp facilities. The state of Manipur has 93.99 percent of schools with ramp while in Jammu and Kashmir only 33.23 percent has ramp. Presence of toilet is an important infrastructure. There is an improvement in this infrastructure then last decade but far the toilet are usable is still unanswerable. At all India bases, 93.08 percent of the schools have facilities of girl's toilets and 88.62 percent of the schools have facilities of boys' toilets. At the state level, in Meghalaya is 99.82 percent of the schools have the facility of girl's toilet and Tripura has 99.44 percent of the schools with the facility of boys toilet while the state of Meghalaya and Assam has the least facilitated with the girls and boys toilets.

Infrastructure need for providing effective rural education include learning materials for teachers, material for students, text books, visual aids equipment, consumable learning materials, chalk, paper, pencil, exercise book, school building, water facilities, and school furniture (India Infrastructure Report, 2007, 289). Teacher's role in ensuring positive learning among the students is highly critical. Besides, effective teaching cannot be possible without the learning materials, hence the class room, text

book, black board, desk, library and playground are considered necessary for effective teaching (Ibid.).

4.9 EDUCATION OF THE DEPRIVED SECTION OF SOCIETY:

For the development of a society there is the need of unbiased and balanced progress of all the sections of human communities (Pradhan, 2011, 26). The caste system is very intricate structure which consists of large number of social strata and function. These social strata do not give equal opportunity for all which made a bridge between the privileged and the non-privileged (deprived) class (Table 4.5). These deprived classes were initially were deprived of many things, education being one of them. The STs are one of the marginalized groups and live in remote areas of the country, lagging in literacy and education. They belong to the lowest hierarchy of the social order, thus they are always socially distanced from the main stream society (Chantia and Mishra, 2014, 125).

certain kinds of social and economic discrimination (Tilak, 1987, 21). For this perspective, it is crucial to bring the weaker, deprived and discriminated sections such to the forefront of educational development as well as in the mainstream of national development (Pradhan, 2011, 26).

Government is making various drives to increase the enrollment of the deprived section. In 2014-15 (Table 4.9) the SC people had the better share of enrollment to their total population (16.60%), then the Muslims (13.43%) and the ST (8.60%). The tribal people had the dismal picture with only 8.60 percent of the total ST enrollment to the total population. With the more SC population, Punjab has highest SC enrollment (31.90%) to the total population. Mizoram (94.49%) has the highest enrollment among the tribals while Jammu and Kashmir (66.97%) has the highest Muslim enrollment with the domination of Muslim population in the state. The state of Arunachal Pradesh and Punjab has no SC and ST population respectively hence no enrollment there. Overall, more stronger drives are needed to improve the enrollment of the deprived section.

Table – 4.5: State-Wise Percentage of Enrollment among the Deprived Sections (2014-15)

States	Percentage SC Enrolment to Total Enrolment	Percentage ST Enrolment to Total Enrolment	Percentage Muslim Enrolment to Total Enrolment
Andhra Pradesh	16.40	7.00	9.17
Arunachal Pradesh	0.00	68.80	1.88
Assam	7.20	12.40	30.92
Bihar	15.90	1.30	16.53
Chhattisgarh	12.80	30.60	1.97
Goa	1.70	10.20	6.84
Gujarat	6.70	14.80	9.06
Haryana	20.20	0.00	5.78
Himachal Pradesh	25.20	5.70	1.97
Jammu & Kashmir	7.40	11.90	66.97
Jharkhand	12.10	26.20	13.85
Karnataka	17.10	7.00	12.23
Kerala	9.10	1.50	24.70
Madhya Pradesh	15.60	21.10	6.37
Maharashtra	11.80	9.40	10.60
Manipur	3.80	35.10	8.81
Meghalaya	0.60	86.10	4.28
Mizoram	0.10	94.40	1.14
Nagaland	0.00	86.50	1.76
Odisha	17.10	22.80	2.07
Punjab	31.90	0.00	1.57
Rajasthan	17.80	13.50	8.47
Sikkim	4.60	33.80	1.42
Tamil Nadu	20.00	1.10	5.56
Tripura	17.80	31.80	7.95
Uttar Pradesh	20.70	0.60	18.50
Uttarakhand	18.80	2.90	11.92
West Bengal	23.50	5.80	25.25
All India	16.60	8.60	13.43

Source: DISE 2014-15

Traditionally, Indian females have faced suppression and restrictions. In addition, the household responsibilities do not permit their participation in education. They all face

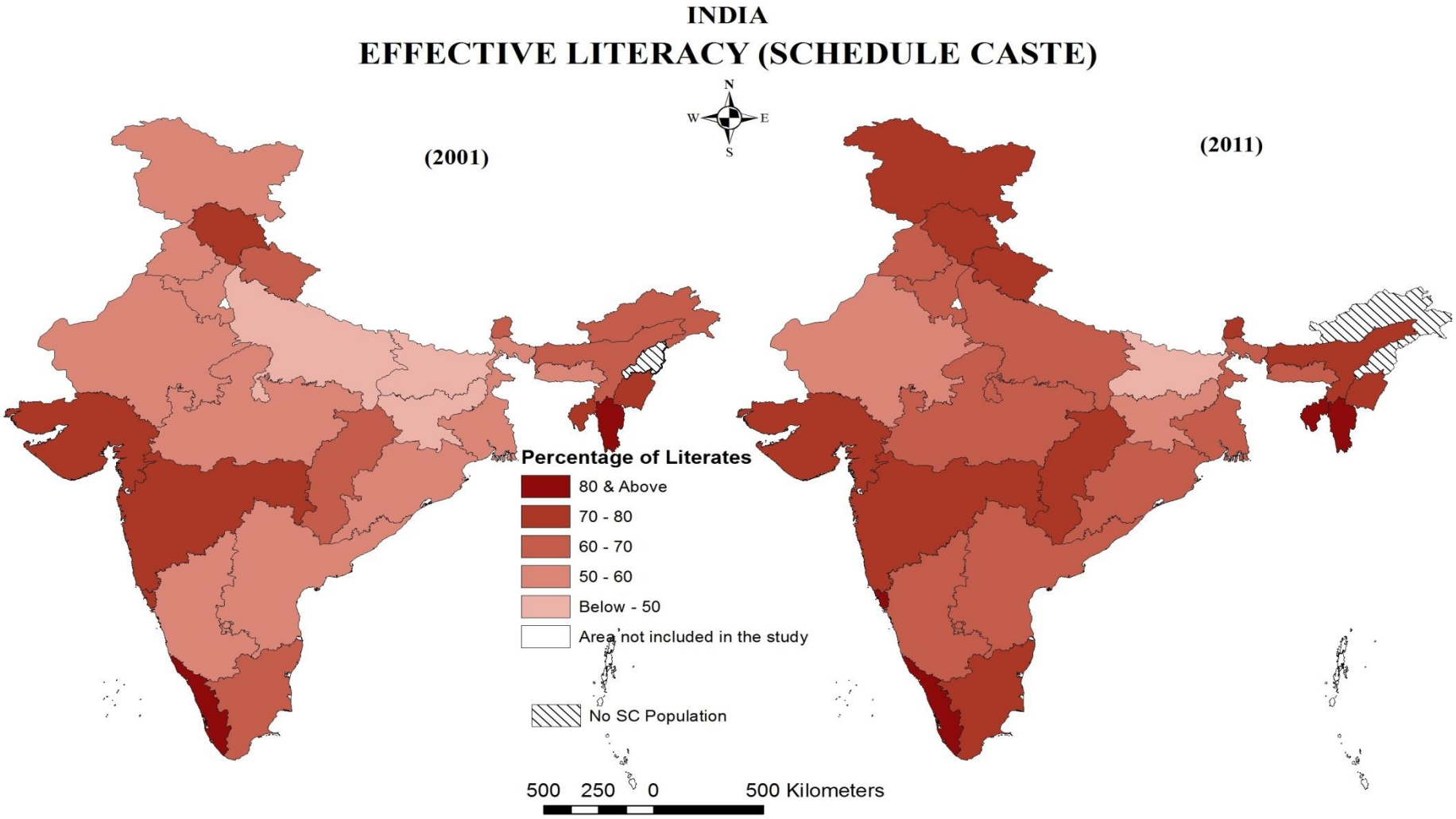

Figure – 4.3: India: Effective Literacy (Schedule Caste)

4.9.1 Education of the Scheduled Castes:

It was first time in National Policy of Education (1986) that the discussion on the need for the education of Scheduled Caste for the development of this caste was taken up by the government.

Table – 4.6: State-Wise Scheduled Caste Literacy Rate by Residence and Sex (2001 and 2011)

States	2001					2011				
	Total	Rural	Urban	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban	Male	Female
Andhra Pradesh	53.52	50.32	68.66	63.51	43.35	62.28	58.65	75.2	70.23	54.44
Arunachal Pradesh	67.64	65.87	69.28	76.31	54.99	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC
Assam	66.78	64.92	76.86	75.74	57.14	76.99	75.66	82.75	83.17	70.45
Bihar	28.47	26.93	49.11	40.23	15.58	48.65	47.66	60.64	57.97	38.46
Chhattisgarh	63.96	62.47	69.28	78.70	49.22	70.76	68.97	76.57	81.66	59.86
Goa	71.92	70.77	72.88	81.56	62.05	83.73	81.41	85.13	89.90	77.69
Gujarat	70.5	65.59	77.90	82.56	57.58	79.18	75.18	84.17	87.87	69.87
Haryana	55.45	54.13	60.19	66.93	42.26	66.85	65.75	69.78	75.93	56.65
Himachal Pradesh	70.31	69.54	81.06	80.01	60.35	78.92	78.33	86.43	86.23	71.46
Jammu &Kashmir	59.03	57.1	67.90	69.57	47.46	70.16	68.27	78.04	78.79	60.67
Jharkhand	37.56	32.52	58.14	51.59	22.55	55.89	52.72	67.34	66.94	44.20
Karnataka	52.87	47.25	69.27	63.75	41.72	65.33	60.44	77.43	74.03	56.58
Kerala	82.66	81.65	87.12	88.07	77.56	88.73	87.21	90.98	92.64	85.07
Madhya Pradesh	58.57	55.39	68.02	72.33	43.28	66.16	62.72	75.13	76.72	54.70
Maharashtra	71.90	67.88	78.27	83.29	59.98	79.66	75.79	84.64	87.18	71.89
Manipur	72.32	70.76	73.14	81.78	62.97	76.21	72.67	79.59	83.53	68.91
Meghalaya	56.27	51.91	63.57	65.86	45.21	68.57	61.14	82.77	74.89	61.43
Mizoram	89.20	88.89	89.30	88.44	92.16	92.43	81.96	95.61	93.08	91.04
Nagaland	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC	NSC
Odisha	55.53	54.23	65.31	70.47	40.33	69.02	68.05	75.18	79.21	58.76
Punjab	56.22	54.35	61.93	63.38	48.25	64.81	62.98	69.78	70.66	58.39
Rajasthan	52.24	49.86	61.35	68.99	33.87	59.75	57.17	68.64	73.77	44.63
Sikkim	63.04	60.23	81.89	70.15	55.71	77.54	74.35	85.43	82.80	72.04
Tamil Nadu	63.19	59.61	71.45	73.41	53.01	73.26	69.91	79.60	80.94	65.64
Tripura	74.68	73.59	79.51	81.85	67.24	89.45	89.10	90.14	92.78	85.98
Uttar Pradesh	46.27	44.52	58.17	60.34	30.50	60.89	59.80	67.47	71.77	48.87
Uttarakhand	63.4	61.53	72.01	77.26	48.74	74.41	73.12	79.12	84.34	64.05
West Bengal	59.04	57.09	68.99	70.54	46.90	69.43	67.53	76.72	77.22	61.23
INDIA	**54.69**	**51.16**	**68.12**	**66.64**	**41.90**	**66.07**	**62.85**	**76.17**	**75.17**	**56.46**

Source: Census of India, 2001 and 2011. NSC: No Scheduled Caste Population.

Due to age old rigid caste system, the SC people always had suffered from the social, economic, and educational disabilities which still exist in the Indian societies (Singh, 1989, 2).

The SC people have been receiving support from the government for education since 1951 but actually it was only some section of people who were reaping the benefits. Those who reap the benefit then were the first generation learners and now are subsequent learners but those who didn't reap the benefits are now the first generation learners (Ibid.). Since the stratification of the Indian society the SC people remained backward in terms of social, religious, economic, social, political and educational aspect. Gradual changes in SC people change the fate of the subsequent generation learners through education (Singh, 1989, 3).

The highest literacy rate among the SC (Table 4.6) according to 2001 was 54.10 percent which increased to the 66 percent in 2011, thus, a rise of 11.90 point percent. Among State wise total literacy, the highest literacy rate was found in the state of Mizoram (89.20) , which it retained it even in 2011 with 92.40 percent. The state of Mizoram with higher proportion of SC population leads in the rural literacy (88.80%), urban literacy (89.30%), male literacy (93.00%) and female literacy (91.04%) in 2001 and in 2011 also Mizoram has retained its position in urban literacy (95.61%), male literacy (88.40%) and female literacy (92.16%) except the rural literacy where Kerala (87.21%) surpassed Mizoram (81.90%). The lowest literacy in both the census years was found in Bihar in total, rural, urban, male and female literacy. The matrilineal society in Mizoram has helped the female literacy rates to be as high as the males. In fact in 2001, female literacy rates are more than the male literacy (Figure 4.3).

4.9.2 Tribal Education

Communities living in the hilly, forested and agriculturally negative areas remained geographically and socially isolated from the rest of the Indian population of the plain and agriculturally suitable areas until the beginning of the colonial period. Their mode of economy and social life remained characteristically primitive. The hills and forests where they dwell kept them isolated from the larger Indian society for a very long period and promoted stagnation. This

isolation made them backward for centuries (Talesra, 1989, 9). Today they represent a particular stage of social evolution. They have certain typical characteristics as social groups (Talesra, 1989, 17). They present a high level of ethnic and religious diversity (Dash, 1986, 3). Basically, these were preliterate societies. Earlier their economies were mostly dependent upon hunting and gathering. Of late, they have been transformed into the marginal cultivators and agricultural labourers. Many of these communities were designated as Scheduled Tribes (ST) by the Constitution of India and special provisions were made for their overall development including educational development.

In spite of constant effort of the Government, the level of education among the tribes is very low in comparison to that of the general population. Therefore, special policies should be designed to improve the quality of education among the STs, provide them easy access to quality education and remove all other obstructions pertaining to their education. The crux of the policy makers these days is inclusive, which is capable of providing opportunity to individuals, marginalized sections and can ignite social change and economic growth (Padhi, 2014, 207). Most important however, is to design appropriate syllabuses for them, considering the economic, social and environmental peculiarities of these communities of the country.

The total literacy rate of ST in India in 2001(Table 4.7) was 47.10 percent which improved to 58.96 percent in 2001 (an increase of 11.80 percent point). The highest total literacy among the tribals in 2001 was seen in Mizoram (89.34%). It retains its position in 2011 too with 91.51 percent. The lowest literacy among the tribals was seen in Bihar (28.17%) in 2001 which increased to be 51.08 percent. Tribal people are basically rural so there is not much difference between the total literacy and the rural literacy. Mizoram tops in both rural and urban literacy as well as the in male and female literacy. Among the tribal people, there is a clear cut distinction between the north-eastern region and the other region. The north-eastern with the domination of the tribal people has an impact of Christianity and its missionaries which led to the higher literacy rate (Figure 4.4).

Table 4.7: State-Wise Scheduled Tribe Literacy Rate by Residence and Sex (2001 and 2011)

States	2001					2011				
	Total	Rural	Urban	Male	Female	Total	Rural	Urban	Male	Female
Andhra Pradesh	37.04	35.43	56.39	47.66	26.11	49.21	46.88	66.82	58.35	40.09
Arunachal Pradesh	49.62	45.04	77.39	58.77	40.56	64.58	60.37	84.59	71.48	57.96
Assam	62.52	61.29	86.75	72.34	52.44	72.06	70.95	90.04	78.96	65.1
Bihar	28.17	25.91	65.67	39.76	15.54	51.08	50.32	65.33	61.31	40.38
Chhattisgarh	52.09	50.95	71.71	65.04	39.35	59.09	57.57	76.94	69.67	48.76
Goa	55.88	44.59	61.44	63.49	47.32	79.14	78.39	80.19	87.16	71.53
Gujarat	47.74	46.45	61.76	59.18	36.02	62.48	61.29	72.71	71.68	53.16
Haryana	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST
Himachal Pradesh	65.5	64.78	87.19	77.71	53.32	73.64	72.96	87.39	83.17	64.2
Jammu & Kashmir	37.46	35.74	70.37	48.16	25.51	50.56	49.14	71.68	60.58	39.73
Jharkhand	40.67	38.08	67.8	53.98	27.21	57.13	55.22	75.44	68.17	46.2
Karnataka	48.27	45.26	64.57	59.66	36.57	62.08	58.99	74.82	71.14	52.98
Kerala	64.35	63.65	81.21	70.78	58.11	75.81	74.05	90.35	80.76	71.08
Madhya Pradesh	41.16	40.01	57.23	53.55	28.44	50.55	49.32	66.73	59.55	41.47
Maharashtra	55.21	52.31	74.18	67.02	43.08	65.73	63.21	80.28	74.27	57.02
Manipur	65.85	65.09	80.94	73.16	58.42	77.36	75.89	87.67	82.08	72.71
Meghalaya	61.34	56.36	86.67	63.49	59.2	74.53	70.98	91.26	75.54	73.55
Mizoram	89.34	82	96.77	91.71	86.95	91.51	84.48	97.92	93.59	89.97
Nagaland	65.95	62.55	88.7	70.26	61.35	80.04	76.04	92.59	83.81	76.91
Odisha	37.37	36.13	58.12	51.48	23.37	52.24	51.08	69.08	63.7	41.2
Punjab	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST	NST
Rajasthan	44.66	43.7	60.79	62.1	26.16	52.8	51.73	68.99	67.62	37.27
Sikkim	67.14	65.37	84.89	73.81	60.16	79.74	77.48	89.15	85.01	74.27
Tamil Nadu	41.53	38.41	58.6	50.15	32.78	54.34	51.32	69.1	61.81	46.8
Tripura	56.48	55.46	91.97	67.97	44.6	79.05	78.44	92.22	86.43	71.59
Uttar Pradesh	35.13	32.99	51.1	48.45	20.7	55.68	54.48	66.97	67.08	43.72
Uttarakhand	63.23	61.65	85.91	76.39	49.37	73.88	72.39	88.33	83.56	63.89
West Bengal	43.40	42.35	58.67	57.38	29.15	57.93	56.68	71.22	68.17	47.71
ALL INDIA	47.10	45.02	69.09	59.17	34.76	58.96	56.89	76.78	68.53	49.35

Source: Census of India 2001 and 2011. **NST**: No Scheduled Tribes Population

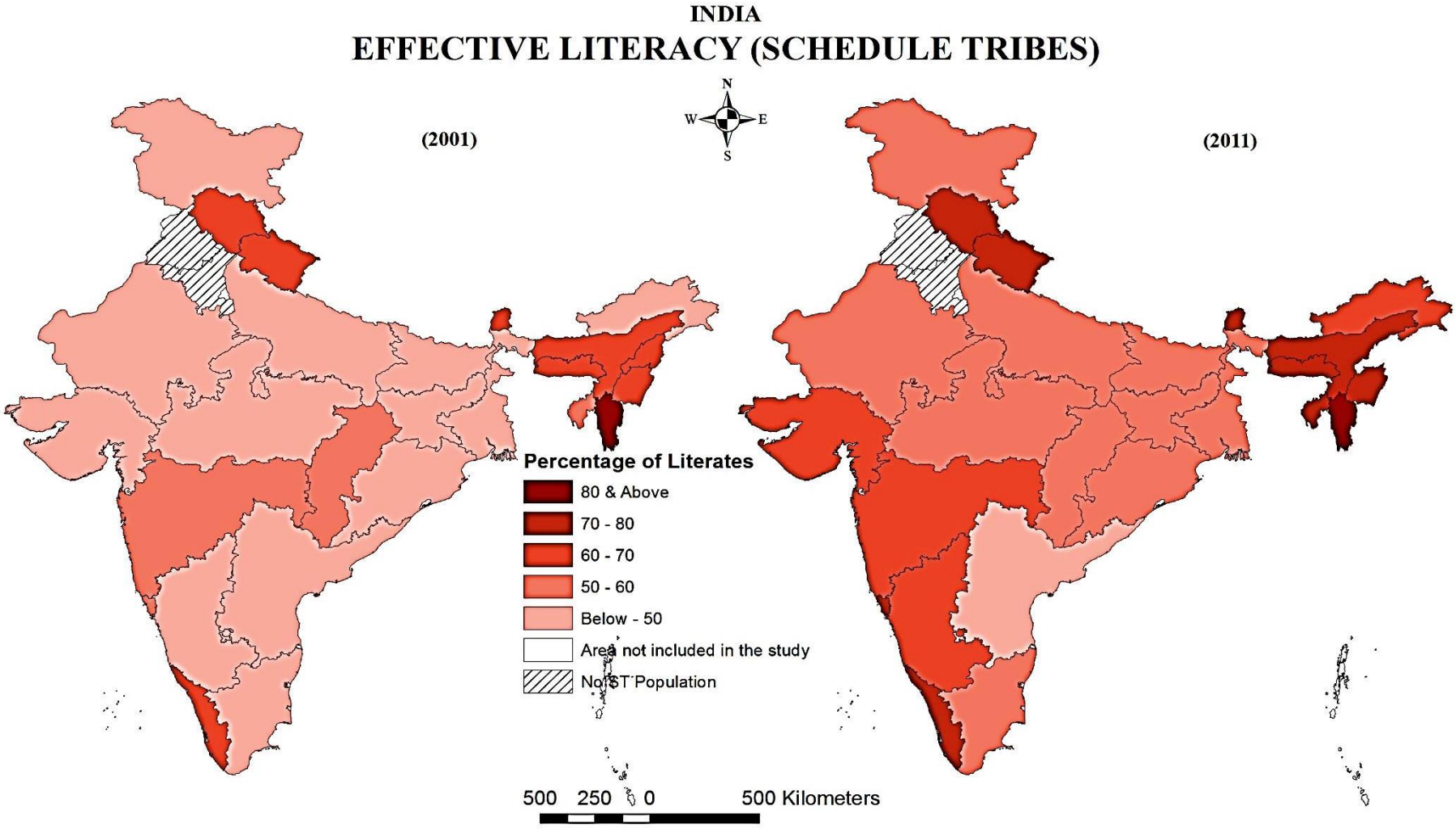

Figure – 4.4: India: Effective Literacy (Schedule Tribe)

The ST population of the country, characteristically being preliterate has remained dominantly illiterate and uneducated for a very long period (Krishnan and Shyam, 1977, 117). Although education of the STs started before Independence, their level of education and literacy rate has not reached an appreciable point. Comparing the progress of literacy rates among the general and the ST populations, one can observe the differences. While the literacy rates for the general population increased from 52.60 in 1991 to 64.80 in 2001 and to 74.11 per cent in 2011, literacy rates among the STs increased from 26.60 in 1991 to 47.10 in 2001 to 58.96 per cent in 2011. Although the increase of literacy among the STs has been impressive, their drop-out rates of 77.40 per cent mar the picture (Padhi, 2014, 207).

Even after so many years of Independence, education is yet to enter the priority list of the ST populations. Most of the educated among this segment happen to be the first generation learners. Thus, there is a lack of educational environment in most of the tribal areas and tribal homes. Even to this day, the tribes slog for a living from primary activities, which compel their children to remain out of the school. The drop-outs boys work in the field and the girls do the house hold chores (Sengupta and Ghosh, 2012, 71). Many tribal children still have little access to basic education. For those who attain, going to the secondary level is still a distant dream (Ibid, 72)

Education among the ST population is a complex phenomenon. Many literatures suggest lack of adequate educational infrastructure in the tribal areas, lack of interest towards education and motivation among the ST population and their socio-economic conditions, lead to the higher drop-outs among them. Basically, their general ignorance and deprivation of basic necessities of life do not arouse interest in them towards education. They do not consider education as a medium of upliftment. Hence, generally tribal people drop-out at the primary or the secondary level to get engaged in eking out bread (Ibid, 77).

The greatest handicap in the spread of education among the tribes is the *lingua franca,* which may be different from their dialect they speak at home and within their community. Thus, they feel alienated and disinterested, besides their grasping becoming difficult. Intelligence is same among all human children

whether one comes from urban, rural, or tribal area. It is just different in cultural background and linguistic ability that makes these kinds of differences. In the tribal areas, if the teachers are from the different cultural background they fail to understand the local dialect and many a times fail to handle the situation intelligently and effectively. Consequently, the drop-out rates tend to increase. Thus, dialect of the concerned tribe should be considered in the initial years of schooling as an important factor behind the spread of literacy and education among the tribes (Aggarwal, 2002, 40).

Much has been achieved during the last six decades. The tribal society has experienced unprecedented transformation. They are now mingling with the generation population. Education has started making inroads into the tribal societies. They moved from nakedness to the best fashion today, they have accepted literacy and made a better life for themselves. Today, some of them are in a position to qualify for the Government and corporate jobs (Singh, 1991, 12). But, much still remains to be achieved. The educational attainment amongst the STs is generally low. Situations have improved much but lots to be done for their improvement.

4.9.3 Muslim Education

Educational attainment among the Indian Muslims is relatively poor. Traditionally, *Maktabs* and *Madrasas* imparted Islamic education to Muslim children. Modern education system introduced in India during British period was considered inappropriate to the traditional education system of the Muslims. Thus, the *Madrasa* system continued in many parts of the country, leading to alienation of the Muslims of India away from the modern education system and the benefits accruing out of it (Alam and Raju, 2007, 1614).

The cultural differences in the society cause differences in educational attainment and way of learning (Nicto, 2002, 51). Religion is an important determinant of educational attainment (Sengupta and Guha, 2002). Muslims in India have been found to be lagging behind other religious in terms of educational attainment (Alam and Raju, 2007, 1619).

After Independence efforts have been made by both Central and state Governments to modernize *Madrasa* education in the country by providing them financial and other assistance. Despite efforts, not much has yet been achieved with regard to education of the Muslims in the country (Hussain and Chatterjee, 2009, 65).

Table 4.8: India - Literacy Rate by Major Religious Groups (2001)

India/States	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Sikh	Buddhist	Jain	All Religious Groups
Andhra Pradesh	59.40	68.00	75.30	78.70	54.80	93.20	60.50
Arunachal Pradesh	64.60	57.70	47.00	92.40	44.90	85.20	54.30
Assam	70.00	48.40	56.40	90.40	69.90	95.30	63.30
Bihar	47.90	42.00	71.10	79.40	59.00	93.30	47.00
Chhattisgarh	63.90	82.50	75.30	89.00	84.90	96.80	64.70
Goa	81.90	75.40	83.80	95.50	82.80	95.70	82.00
Gujarat	68.30	73.50	77.70	85.10	66.90	96.00	69.10
Haryana	69.40	40.00	85.30	68.90	67.40	94.20	67.90
Himachal Pradesh	76.80	57.50	82.80	83.00	73.70	96.30	76.50
Jammu & Kashmir	71.20	47.30	74.80	85.40	59.70	86.50	55.50
Jharkhand	54.60	55.60	69.70	87.20	74.70	92.80	53.60
Karnataka	65.60	70.10	87.40	83.70	54.80	84.30	66.60
Kerala	90.20	89.40	94.80	92.40	92.10	95.50	90.90
Madhya Pradesh	62.80	70.30	85.80	82.90	74.40	96.20	63.70
Maharashtra	76.20	78.10	91.00	88.90	76.20	95.40	76.90
Manipur	75.30	58.60	65.60	88.50	53.30	94.50	70.50
Meghalaya	69.30	42.70	65.30	74.70	70.80	69.90	62.60
Mizoram	79.30	74.70	93.10	91.80	45.80	61.70	88.80
Nagaland	74.90	48.20	66.20	82.80	74.60	94.50	66.60
Orissa	63.30	71.30	54.90	90.50	71.00	93.30	63.10
Punjab	74.60	51.20	54.60	67.30	72.70	95.90	69.70
Rajasthan	60.20	56.60	83.00	64.70	71.40	94.00	60.40
Sikkim	69.40	57.80	72.40	97.20	67.30	90.70	68.80
Tamil Nadu	72.00	82.90	85.80	83.70	86.30	92.20	73.50
Tripura	75.30	60.90	67.90	98.40	49.20	82.90	73.20
Uttar Pradesh	58.00	47.80	72.80	71.90	56.20	93.20	56.30
Uttaranchal	74.10	51.10	87.9	73.10	76.30	96.30	71.60
West Bengal	72.40	57.50	69.70	87.20	74.70	92.80	68.60
India	65.10	59.10	80.30	69.40	72.70	94.10	64.80

Source: Census of India, 2001.

With reference to the Table 4.8, overall, in 2001 literacy rate was highest among the Jain community (94.10%), followed by Christians (80.30%), Buddhist (72.70%), Sikh (69.40%) and Hindus (65.10%).

Table 4.9: India - Literacy Rate by Major Religious Groups (2011)

States	Hindu	Muslim	Christian	Sikh	Buddhist	Jain	All
Andhra Pradesh	66.11	73.58	77.82	78.09	67.68	91.94	67.02
Arunachal Pradesh	70.11	67.69	62.55	94.37	57.89	60.62	65.38
Assam	77.66	61.92	67.00	92.34	77.32	96.13	72.19
Bihar	62.85	56.34	67.67	80.46	74.69	85.36	61.80
Chhattisgarh	69.79	84.55	77.85	93.16	87.34	97.24	70.28
Goa	88.69	84.73	89.92	95.00	92.35	95.58	88.70
Gujarat	77.46	80.82	83.94	87.35	79.86	96.98	78.03
Haryana	77.08	53.39	83.85	75.40	81.70	95.87	75.55
Himachal Pradesh	83.11	67.52	84.19	87.78	79.24	95.23	82.8
Jammu & Kashmir	79.09	61.03	78.03	90.82	68.79	93.46	67.16
Jharkhand	67.66	66.21	74.95	92.76	80.41	93.45	66.41
Karnataka	74.36	78.89	90.80	85.64	76.11	88.33	75.36
Kerala	93.49	93.29	96.49	95.18	95.34	97.08	94.00
Madhya Pradesh	68.63	74.90	81.88	85.83	79.59	96.23	69.32
Maharashtra	81.76	83.56	92.25	90.90	83.17	95.35	82.34
Manipur	81.98	67.76	72.62	90.70	77.76	91.51	76.94
Meghalaya	77.23	54.00	76.52	83.09	78.87	85.82	74.43
Mizoram	91.78	77.87	95.49	93.00	48.11	72.33	91.33
Nagaland	79.95	57.86	80.08	96.08	79.43	92.14	79.55
Odisha	73.14	79.95	64.47	89.82	78.20	92.92	72.87
Punjab	80.05	61.88	65.99	73.64	80.36	95.28	75.84
Rajasthan	66.04	62.68	80.68	70.07	75.80	95.14	66.11
Sikkim	81.96	76.52	82.12	95.8	80.42	89.64	81.42
Tamil Nadu	78.83	88.17	90.14	86.82	90.14	94.51	80.09
Tripura	88.16	83.16	86.15	91.90	74.60	88.49	87.22
Uttar Pradesh	69.68	58.76	73.63	79.35	68.59	94.05	67.68
Uttarakhand	81.22	63.18	88.89	79.39	84.84	96.84	78.82
West Bengal	79.14	68.75	75.99	89.98	81.95	93.51	76.26
India	73.27	68.54	84.53	75.39	81.29	94.88	72.98

Source: Census of India, 2011.

The least literacy rate in 2001 was found among the Muslims (59.10%). Among Hindu, as the dominant religion the highest literacy was found Kerala with 90.20 percent and the lowest literacy was found in Bihar with 47.90 percent. Among the Muslims, the highest literacy was found in the state of again Kerala with 89.40 percent and lowest in again Bihar with 42 percent. It is observed that educational level of the head of the household among Muslims influences the level children education (Alam and Raju, 2007, 1619). It is pertinent therefore to address the social and economic conditions of the Muslim segment of India's population to understand the problems of their education (Ibid, 1620).

In a decadal time (Table 4.9), all the communities have increased their literacy rate but the relative position of the religious communities remains the same as in the 2001. In 2011 too, the highest literacy rate was highest among the Jain community (94.88%), followed by Christians (84.53%), Buddhist (81.29%), Sikh (75.39%) and Hindus (73.27%). The least literacy rate in 2011 too was found among the Muslims (68.54%). Although the highest growth of literacy (9.44 point %) too was seen among the Muslims only, but still more fierce action is needed to improve literacy and educational attainment among the Muslims.

4.9.4 Female Education

Education of the female child is always considered useless as her education is not utilized in terms of job. It is therefore viewed as wastage of time and resources. The fact is, female education is beneficial as it creates awareness among them. Health benefits including child health, is one of the most important benefits that the girls get out of their education (Bhatty, 1998, 1860). Female education helps in lowering fertility and mortality rate. It also helps in the utilization of nutritional and health care facilities and educational achievement of the child. Thus, non-monetary benefits of schooling are high. Still many children are out of school. Returns to educational investment of girls are lower than that of the boys, as they contribute less in the labour market. India is an agrarian country where girls contribute to their parental income by contributing their labour or taking care of young siblings. Though poverty plays a major role in the non-enrollment of both male and female children, prejudice against the female child acts as a strong detrimental force for their education (Krishnan and Shyam, 1977, 117). Income,

caste, occupation and educational level of the parents continue to determine access, attendance, completion, and learning achievement of the female child (Ramachandran and Saihjee, 2002, 1611). Religious background, mother's education, household income and father's occupation influence girls' education (Sengupta and Guha, 2002, 1623).

Table - 4.10: ABC of Female Education

	A (ACCESS)	B (BENEFITS)	C (CONSTRAINTS)
MEASURES	- Gross Enrollment Ratio. - Drop-outs.	- Direct and spill over.	- Activity Profile. - Time Utilization - Drop-outs - Socio-economic factors.
VARIATIONS DUE TO	- Income Group - Gender - Residence - Pull factors - Social Process	- Difference in expectations - Opportunity	- Less demand of Education - Less supply of education
LIMITATIONS	- Difference in Gender based attainment at different educational level - Parental Incompetence	- Change in Social Structure	- Mutually reinforcing nature of constraints

Source: Negi, 2004, 808

Literacy, particularly of rural, SC and ST females is a matter of great concern. Female children of these segments of India's population are generally engaged in extending help in the family pursuit, household chores and taking care of the siblings. These stop them from attending school (Joshi, 2002, 41).

The trend of higher proportion of girls dropping out after primary level is commonly seen in India. One of the factors affecting it is the distance of school (Varghese, 1997, 91). The completion rates are lower for the girls with only around 37 and 26 per cent of them completing the middle level and secondary level of education respectively. About three-fourths of the girls do not complete school education in the country. Kerala happens to be an exception, where the completion rate of girls' education is 100 per cent. Even after so many decades of Independence, universal basic education is still a distant dream. Elementary education is still a minimum need, which is not yet achieved. The participation of

the female child in the vocational courses is low as drop outs are higher in the middle school. Special efforts are needed to attract the girls to schools (Sharma et al, 2007, 203). Many a times media also plays an important role in making girls understand the importance of education and reduce drop-outs (Sharma et al, 2007, 201).

Wherever female enrollment has increased, urbanization and globalization seem to have played the master role as these make the skill of literacy and education mandatory (Mukherjee, 2004, 9). Consequentially, higher educational attainment among the females has led to higher work participation rate among females (Dubey et al, 2004, 759). With gradual increase of female educational attainment, birth, infant mortality and child death rates have started declining in India. Thus, we can say that, female education has paved the way for social transformation in the country which is as much essential as the take off stage of W. W. Rostow (Mukherjee, 2004, 12).

4.10 EXPENDITURE IN EDUCATION:

Kothari Commission (1964-1966) and National Policy on Education (1986) recommended 6 per cent of the GDP for education. Nevertheless, different states have different requirement of resources and the capacity to mobilize the resources. In the last couple of years, around 3.7 per cent of the GDP were invested, out of which around 50 per cent were on elementary education, 30 per cent on secondary education, and 11-12 per cent on the higher education. Out of the total expenditure, around one-fourth was met by the Central Government and rest by the State Governments (Sankar, 2010, 37).

India's elementary education budget has more than doubled since 2007-08 from Rs. 68,853 crores to Rs. 147,059 crores in 2012-13. In 2012-13, the average allocation per student in India's Government elementary schools was Rs. 11,509. The Government of India's allocation for Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) was Rs. 27,258 crores in 2013-2014 (Gupta, 2013, 9).

Public expenditure on education is less than 4 per cent of the GDP of India. Low public expenditure on education and increasing participation of private educational

institutions has resulted in the alienation of the deprived and economically weaker sections of the society from educational attainment. This issue has been dealt with the implementation of the Right to Education (RTE) Act (2009), which ensures quality as well as access to education. There is a vicious cycle of high poverty and low participation of school. Public funded institutes and pro-active approach can break this cycle as they can ensure more students from economically deprived sections of the society. With the increase of enrollment at secondary and higher secondary levels, the demand for the creation of educational infrastructure for higher education by both private and public sectors becomes more pertinent (Tilak, 2006, 43).

4.11 RURAL EDUCATION:

The National Policy of Education (1986) and Programme of Action (1992) emphasize decentralized planning and management of elementary education. Direct community involvement is encouraged through formation of Village Education Committee for managing of elementary education in villages. Villagers have also been involved in the design of the Non-Formal Education (NFE) Programme, which ensures minimum of eight years of learning for every child at his/her own place of habitation (Tilak, 2006, 306).

One of the most important infrastructures in rural areas is paved road, which makes the school accessible. The other important infrastructure is availability of water within the premises of the house or in its immediate neighbourhood, so that the child particularly the girl child remains free from the task of collecting water and can attend school. The roll of electricity is also of much significance. With uninterrupted supply of electricity, reading, writing, using of electronic educational aids including computers, operation of scientific apparatuses and tools, which are common requirements for quality teaching and learning, becomes possible and easy. Thus, supply of uninterrupted electricity is an essential requirement of quality teaching and beneficial for both students and teachers (India Infrastructure Report, 2007, 303). Less than a fifth (17%) of all the rural schools in the country has pre-primary schooling facility. An estimate of 2005 reveals that about 48 per cent of the village schools had only two teachers, half of them without any female teacher (Ibid, 289).

The major problem of education in the rural areas is irregular attendance of children as well as of teachers. SSA is an attempt towards universal enrollment, retention and emphasized quality education (Ibid, 312). Teacher absenteeism is a biggest challenge. A study by World Bank in 2003 reports that surprise checking found around 25 per cent of the teachers absent from school during working hours. Absenteeism is relatively less if frequency of inspection higher and the school is accessible by paved road (World Bank, 2004, 660).

After 2005, Mid-Day Meal Scheme (MDMS) become a significant feature of school infrastructure in the rural areas. MDMS has two motives - improving nutrition and improving enrollment. The scheme has been successful in addressing the twin goals to a great extent. It has significantly contributed towards enhanced enrollment and improved nutritional level of children, especially the girls (India Infrastructure Report, 2007, 289).

The rural schools have to be made attractive to increase enrollment. This could be possible with good quality teachers, sufficient furniture and educational equipments. Social justice would be delivered provided rural schools are not neglected. Provision of best quality teachers, who can encourage rural children to attend schools and provide quality education and proper guidance to them, has become the need of the hour. Selection of such teachers and proper reward to them for their quality work can help the situation in the country. Although much still remains to be achieved, sincere efforts are being made to provide equal opportunity to every child irrespective of his/her class, caste, gender, religion and social background. Avoiding social conflict is an important issue in the process of Universal Elementary Education (Aggarwal, 2002, 43).

4.12 ROLE OF NGO:

Government cannot work on all fronts single handedly. Thus, taking the help of other agencies like NGO's, education trusts, corporate organizations etcetera, that could make a difference in the provision of education is helpful. Nevertheless, in our country most of the works have bureaucratic style of functioning which does not give much space to NGOs and others to function without their guidelines (Ramachandran, 2003, 960).

There are lots of good initiatives from several NGOs which work for the enrollment of the children. PRATHAM, a well known NGO in Mumbai involving 5000 people, runs 2800 *balwadis*, 350 study centers and conducts more than 500 bridge courses impacting 100,000 children over different municipal wards of Mumbai. NALI KALI, in Mysuru district of Karnataka also works for primary education. Their work involves training of government teachers in child centers and in activity based programmes, as well as participatory teaching so that learning can be joyful. DIGANTAR in Rajasthan works with deprived sections of the society. The motto of DIGANTAR is, 'learning does not come from compulsion'. Here children are free to come and go according to their wish. The teacher motivates children and in the course of the time both of them, teacher and student motivates each other as a result of co-operation. Here, children learn at their pace. There is no attendance and even no syllabus. Thus, the main motive of this is reaching the unreached (Ramachandran, 2003, 965).

Like in other countries, India too has public-private-partnership (PPP) in education system. The government projects like Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and Mid- Day Meal Scheme (MDMS) have received a good support from NGOs. Some of the NGOs have worked commendably in different fronts like making teaching training programmes effective, arousing gender concerns, managing differently-able children and organizing mid-day meals. Various NGOs have received fund from central and state governments for national, state and rural level activities (India Infrastructure Report, 2007, 302)

4.12.1 Pratam's Annual Survey of Educational Report (ASER-2014)

Annual Survey of Educational Survey Report (ASER) is the largest household survey of children especially of the rural areas on schooling and basic learning. ASER is under Mumbai based NGO called Pratham, but the survey is carried out by district level local organizations or institutions. Using random sampling technique it covers 20 households in 30 villages each of 577 districts. All children between age 3 to 16 in the household are surveyed. ASER tries to find out the proportion of children who regularly go to the school, read simple text and can do simple calculation. 2014 ASER noted that decline in the learning ability is the cumulative effect of neglect over the years.

Learning Outcome - Learning and numeracy are the basic learning outcome of the schools. In spite of the massive investment in schools, the learning ability of the children has declined. Many children are not acquiring even the basic ability in reading and arithmetic.

Table – 4.11: Ability to Read

Percentage of Children by Class and Reading Level (All Schools – 2014)						
Class	**Not Even A Letter**	**Letter**	**Word**	**Level – 1 (Std. I Text)**	**Level 2 (Std. II Text)**	**Total**
I	48.6	30.2	12.1	4.5	4.5	100
II	25.7	31.6	19.6	11.0	12.2	100
III	14.9	25.0	20.0	16.6	23.6	100
IV	8.4	17.9	17.9	18.9	37.4	100
V	5.7	12.5	14.3	19.1	48.1	100
VI	3.5	9.0	10.9	17.8	58.8	100
VII	2.6	6.2	8.1	15.4	67.7	100
VIII	1.8	4.5	6.7	12.8	74.6	100
Total	**15.1**	**17.9**	**13.9**	**14.1**	**38.9**	**100**

Source: ASER-2014

In the reading test, (Table 4.11) 48.6 % of the students of the first standard could not even read a letter, 30.2 % could just read the letter but not sentences, 12.1% of children could barely managed to read the words. Only 4.5 percent of children could read standard I text, whereas 4.5 percent of children could read standard II text. For the fifth standard, in the reading test, 5.7% of the students of the fifth standard could not even read a letter, 12.5 % could just read the letter but not sentences, 14.3% of children could barely managed to read the words. Only 19.1 percent of children could read standard I text, whereas 48.8 percent of children could read standard II text. In a totality from, in the reading test, 15.1% of the students of the standard I-VIII could not even read a letter, 17.9 % could just read the letter but not sentences, 13.9% of children could barely managed to read the words. Only 14.1 percent of children could read standard I text, whereas 38.9 percent of children could read standard II text. Thus, the picture is very dismal.

Table – 4.12: Reading and Comprehension in English

Percentage of Children by Class and Reading Level in English (All Schools – 2014)						
Class	**Not Even Capital Letter**	**Capital Letter**	**Small Letters**	**Simple Words**	**Easy Sentences**	**Total**
I	56.5	15.5	14.8	10.2	3.0	100
II	38.3	19.4	20.8	13.8	7.7	100
III	26.9	19.1	24.6	17.9	11.5	100
IV	18.1	16.4	25.5	22.4	17.6	100
V	13.3	13.7	23.9	25.2	24.0	100
VI	8.7	10.4	23.3	26.3	31.4	100
VII	6.5	8.4	20.2	26.2	38.8	100
VIII	4.7	6.5	17.7	24.4	46.8	100
Total	**23.0**	**11.9**	**21.3**	**20.4**	**21.4**	**100**

Source: ASER-2014

Table – 4.13: Comprehension in English

Percentage of Children by Class who can Comprehend English (All Schools – 2014		
Standard	**Of those who can read words, % who can tell meaning of the words**	**Of those who can read sentences, % who can tell meaning of the sentences**
I	62.1	43.1
II	59.4	46.9
III	60.1	57.3
IV	60.9	59.5
V	60.9	62.2
VI	60.5	64.8
VII	60.7	66.3
VIII	59.4	68.2
Total	**60.5**	**63.2**

Source: ASER-2014

In reading and comprehension in English, (Table 4.12) 56.5 per cent of the standard I students, could not recognize capital letters, 15.5 per cent of children could recognized the capital letter, and 14.8 per cent could recognize small letters. While only 10.2 per cent of children could read simple words, only 3 per cent of children could read easy sentences. For the students of standard VII, English, 6.5 per cent of the standard VII students, could not recognize capital letters, 8.4 per cent of children could recognize the capital letter, and 20.2 per cent could recognize small letters. While only 26.2 per cent of children could read simple words, only 38.8 per cent of children could read easy sentences. In totality, 23 per

cent of the standard I-VIII students could not recognize capital letters, 11.9 per cent of children could recognize the capital letter, and 21.3 per cent could recognize small letters. While only 20.4 per cent of children could read simple words, only 21.4 per cent of children could read easy sentences.

Regarding the comprehension in English, (Table 4.13) 62.1 per cent of students of standard I could read the words and tell their meaning, while 43.1 per cent of students could read the sentences and tell the meaning. 59.4 per cent of students of standard VIII could read the words and tell their meaning, while 68.2 per cent of students could read the sentences and tell the meaning. On the total, 60.5 per cent of students of standard I-VIII could read the words and tell their meaning, while 63.2 per cent of students could read the sentences and tell the meaning. Reading is a very serious issue. Thus, it needed to be discussed and debated at length. There is a need to improve the conceptual knowledge of children instead of imparting rote learning. There should be change in teaching methodology in order to address these issues.

Table – 4.14: Level of Arithmetic

Percentage of Children by Class and Arithmetic Level All Schools – 2014						
Class	Not Even 1 – 9	Recognize Numbers		Can Subtract	Can Divide	Total
		1 – 9	10 - 99			
I	42.4	33.9	19.3	3.4	1.1	100
II	19.5	36.5	31.2	9.9	2.8	100
III	10.0	29.4	35.3	18.0	7.4	100
IV	5.3	21.2	33.3	24.1	16.1	100
V	3.9	15.4	30.1	24.5	26.1	100
VI	2.3	10.5	29.2	25.8	32.2	100
VII	1.7	7.5	28.5	24.4	37.8	100
VIII	1.3	5.4	26.1	23.2	44.1	100
Total	11.8	20.8	29.0	18.6	19.8	100

Source: ASER-2014

According to the 2014 ASER report, (Table 4.14) 42.4 per cent of children of standard I could not even recognize 1-9 numbers, while only 33.9 per cent of children could recognize 1-9 numbers, and only 19.3 per cent of children could recognize 10-99 numbers. For the standard V, still 3.9 per cent of children of standard V could not even recognize 1-9 numbers, while only 15.4 per cent of children could recognize 1-9 numbers, and only 30.1 per cent of children could

recognize 10-99 numbers. Of all children enrolled in standard V, only 24.5 per cent were able to solve simple two-digit subtraction problems. Further, only 26.1 percent of students could do the divisions. On the total, 11.8 per cent of children of standard I-VIII could not even recognize 1-9 numbers, while only 20.8 per cent of children could recognize 1-9 numbers, and only 29 per cent of children could recognize 10-99 numbers. Only 18.6 per cent were able to solve simple two-digit subtraction problems and only 19.8 percent of students could do the divisions.

The performance of learning and arithmetic of the students are declining thus, there is an urgent need to take measures for its improvement. Although, the education policies generally emphasize on teaching methodology, not much seems to have been achieved as the current picture shows large gap between the intention and the reality. Strong focus is wanted in Standard I and II to make sure that basic skills are built in these early years. Students need to be encouraged to speak, to discuss, to express their opinions and to solve problems together. Without basic skills, they cannot progress much in education. There should be clear learning goals. The entire system and the parents need to be geared up to make this happen.

4.13 INEQUALITY IN EDUCATION:

Education inequality is seen along the social class and the gender. Backward classes are lagging behind the higher classes, despite having preferential policies along their side. Within this, the deprived section women are the worst sufferer (Breen and Vaid, 2008, 3). Social equality can be achieved through strong political will, which can turn through people movement (Dutta and Sivaramkrishnan, 2013, 199).

Fernandes (1982, 205) has outlined the inequalities in educational attainment due to socio-economic and regional background as the following.

- Inequality in education opportunity - Despite all the facilities given, there still exists wide inequality in educational opportunity by sex and caste in India.
- Inequality in the quality of school - Disparity between private, government, rural, urban, special schools for schedule castes, ashram schools for scheduled tribe.

- Difference in the magnitude of impact of education in earning - Educational attainment is influenced by mental ability, parental support – this difference leads to the difference attainment and finally on earning.
- Inequalities in investment in education - Amount of investment have influence on the return to education. Private and public schools differ in investment thus differ in result (Tilak, 1987, 82).

There should be fundamental change in the rural education system. We need to look at the social and political issues in the rural areas. There should be change in the bureaucratic hierarchy for the system and there should be more of inclusive approach in the rural system. Some schemes like motivational camps, remedial teaching, and seasonal hostels should be taken up (Jha and Jhingan, 2002, 249).

4.14 PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION:

One of the major problems that impact primary education is the scarcity of the financial recourses. There is a shortage of schools and limited infrastructure. Other problems include – weak institutional structure. Dealing with the first time school goers is also another major problem. Improving operation and management of primary schools is another major challenge in the India (Sen, 2002, 1). Primary education would not be benefiting and improve the situation of all unless and until whatever they learn, is relevant to their life. When education does not lead to employment, children in the adolescent age resort to various kinds of crimes. They may also develop negative approach towards the education (Ramachandran, 2003, 960).

Wastage and stagnation are the major problems of primary education. Drop-outs or withdrawal of students before the completion of the elementary cycle leads to wastage, while stagnation leads to retention of the students in same grade or repetition of the class. Both these process leads to the slow progress of elementary education. In order to understand the process of wastage and stagnation, one has to look into the previous record of the student, whether that child attended the school previously and presently also not attending etcetera. The enrollment of the child also depends upon interest of parents in child education, socio-economic condition of the family,

conducive school environment and interest of the child. If these factors are not favourable, the child does not feel like coming to school (Venkatnarayana, 2009, 12).

The major problem of education includes the non-performance of the government schools and the lack of infrastructural facilities, shortage of teachers. All these have given the way for mushrooming of the private institutions that are usually costlier than the government institutions. Costlier fees acts like a serious constraint for the economically weaker families to provide their children education leading to wider inequalities. Financial constraint is one of the major reasons for drop-outs. In 2007-08, one fifth of the children were out of schools (India, Human Development Report, 2011, 12). The gender gap in education is persistent at all levels of education and is the bane for education in India (India, Human Development Report, 2011, 11).

Drop-outs remain higher amongst SC, ST and Muslims. The proportion of schools teachers belonging to these socio economic groups is low as compared to other groups, which creates a social distance between teachers and students of these groups. Hence, because of these reasons, many teachers have limited commitment towards educational development of these students (India, Human Development Report, 2011, 11).

Bhatty (1998, 1731) has outlined the causes of educational deprivation in the following manner.

- Poverty – Parents with poor economic status can be related to non-enrollment or drop-outs. Such parents instead of sending their children to school engage them in some work in order to enhance the house hold income.
- Household work - They are engaged in the activities like taking care of siblings, looking after animals they keep and collecting water and fuel.
- Economic activities - Working in the agricultural fields.
- Quality of education is another reason for educational deprivation.
- Non-motivational teaching staff.
- Organization factor by which resources are allocated.

4.15 EMPIRICAL STUDY OF LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT:

With the over view of the Indian education system, along with the indicators and factors of literacy and educational attainment in India, the study now moves towards the empirical study of literacy and educational attainment in India. This section includes the analyses of the spatial pattern of literacy over the census year of 2001 and 2011. Disparity in literacy is also worked out for the census year 2001 and 2011 and reasons are analyzed. Further, the educational development indexes as given by the NUEPA are also analyzed. Lastly, this section also analyses the association between the different educational indicator and infrastructure with the help of the multiple regression analysis.

4.15.1 Spatial Pattern of Literacy:

The first census after the independence was in 1951. The literacy rate of India in 1951 was only 18.3 percent.

Table - 4.15: India – Share of Literates (1951-2011)

India	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
Total	18.3	28.3	34.5	43.6	52.2	64.8	72.99
Male	27.2	40.4	46	56.4	64.1	75.3	80.89
Female	8.9	15.4	22	29.8	39.3	53.7	64.64

Source: Department of Higher Education, MHRD.GOI.

Male literacy was 27.2 per cent (Table 4.15) while female literacy was only 8.9 percent. Literacy in every census has witnessed growth. Hence from the from 18.3 percent in 1951 with an increase in every census year, in 2011 the total literacy rate increased to 72.99 percent while male literacy has reached 80.89 percent, female literacy increased to 64.64 percent. Among the states, (Table 4.16) Kerala has retained its highest position since 1951(47.18%) till the last census year (94%). For the lowest literacy rate the state varied since 1951 but since 1991(37.49%) it was the state of Bihar with lowest literacy rate till 2011(61.8%). Gujarat has been above the national average since 1951 (21.82%) till 2011(78.03%).

Table - 4.16: States of India – Share of Literates (1951-2011)

State	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	2011
Andhra Pradesh	NA	21.19	24.57	35.66	44.08	60.47	67.02
Arunachal Pradesh	NA	7.13	11.29	25.55	41.59	54.34	65.38
Assam	18.53	32.95	33.94	NA	52.89	63.25	72.19
Bihar	13.49	21.95	23.17	32.32	37.49	47.00	61.80
Chhattisgarh	9.41	18.14	24.08	32.63	42.91	64.66	70.28
Goa	23.48	35.41	51.96	65.71	75.51	82.01	88.70
Gujarat	21.82	31.47	36.95	44.92	61.29	69.14	78.03
Haryana	NA	NA	25.71	37.13	55.85	67.91	75.55
Himachal Pradesh	NA	NA	NA	NA	63.86	76.48	82.80
Jammu and Kashmir	NA	12.95	21.71	30.64	NA	55.52	67.16
Jharkhand	12.93	21.14	23.87	35.03	41.39	53.56	66.41
Karnataka	NA	29.8	36.83	46.21	56.04	66.64	75.36
Kerala	47.18	55.08	69.75	78.85	89.81	90.86	94.00
Madhya Pradesh	13.16	21.41	27.27	38.63	44.67	63.74	69.32
Maharashtra	27.91	35.08	45.77	57.24	64.87	76.88	82.34
Manipur	12.57	36.04	38.47	49.66	59.89	70.53	79.21
Meghalaya	NA	26.92	29.49	42.05	49.1	62.56	74.43
Mizoram	31.14	44.01	53.8	59.88	82.26	88.8	91.33
Nagaland	10.52	21.95	33.78	50.28	61.65	66.59	79.55
Odisha	15.8	21.66	26.18	33.62	49.09	63.08	72.87
Punjab	NA	NA	34.12	43.37	58.51	69.65	75.84
Rajasthan	8.5	18.12	22.57	30.11	38.55	60.41	66.11
Sikkim	NA	NA	17.74	34.05	56.94	68.81	81.42
Tamil Nadu	NA	36.39	45.4	54.39	62.66	73.45	80.09
Tripura	NA	20.24	30.98	50.1	60.44	73.19	87.22
Uttar Pradesh	12.02	20.87	23.99	32.65	40.71	56.27	67.68
Uttarakhand	18.93	18.05	33.26	46.06	57.75	71.62	78.82
West Bengal	24.61	34.46	38.86	48.65	57.7	68.64	76.26
India	**18.3**	**28.3**	**34.5**	**43.6**	**52.2**	**64.8**	**72.99**

Source: Census of India, Various Years.

Table - 4.17: State-Wise Effective Literacy Rate of India by Residence (2001 and 2011)

State	2001			2011			Point % Growth		
	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban
Andhra Pradesh	60.47	54.5	76.09	67.02	60.45	80.09	6.55	5.95	4.00
Arunachal Pradesh	54.34	47.83	78.26	65.38	57.94	82.93	11.04	10.11	4.67
Assam	63.25	59.73	85.34	72.19	69.34	88.47	8.94	9.61	3.13
Bihar	47.00	43.92	71.93	61.8	59.78	76.86	14.8	15.86	4.93
Chhattisgarh	64.66	60.48	80.58	70.28	65.99	84.05	5.62	5.51	3.47
Goa	82.01	79.67	84.39	88.7	86.65	89.95	6.69	6.98	5.56
Gujarat	69.14	61.29	81.84	78.03	71.71	86.31	8.89	10.42	4.47
Haryana	67.91	63.19	79.16	75.55	71.42	83.14	7.64	8.23	3.98
Himachal Pradesh	76.48	75.08	88.95	82.8	81.85	91.1	6.32	6.77	2.15
Jammu & Kashmir	55.52	49.78	71.92	67.16	63.18	77.12	11.64	13.4	5.20
Jharkhand	53.56	45.74	79.14	66.41	61.11	82.26	12.85	15.37	3.12
Karnataka	66.64	59.33	80.50	75.36	68.73	85.78	8.72	9.40	5.28
Kerala	90.86	90.04	93.19	94.00	92.98	95.11	3.14	2.94	1.92
Madhya Pradesh	63.74	57.8	79.39	69.32	63.94	82.85	5.58	6.14	3.46
Maharashtra	76.88	70.36	85.48	82.34	77.01	88.69	5.46	6.65	3.21
Manipur	70.53	66.74	79.28	79.21	76.2	85.38	8.68	9.46	6.10
Meghalaya	62.56	56.29	86.3	74.43	69.92	90.79	11.87	13.63	4.49
Mizoram	88.8	81.27	96.13	91.33	84.10	97.63	2.53	2.83	1.50
Nagaland	66.59	62.79	84.74	79.55	75.35	89.62	12.96	12.56	4.88
Odisha	63.08	59.84	80.84	72.87	70.22	85.75	9.79	10.38	4.91
Punjab	69.65	64.72	79.10	75.84	71.42	83.18	6.19	6.70	4.08
Rajasthan	60.41	55.34	76.20	66.11	61.44	79.68	5.70	6.10	3.48
Sikkim	68.81	66.82	83.91	81.42	71.95	88.71	12.61	5.13	4.80
Tamil Nadu	73.45	66.21	82.53	80.09	73.54	87.04	6.64	7.33	4.51
Tripura	73.19	69.72	89.21	87.22	84.9	93.47	14.03	15.18	4.26
Uttar Pradesh	56.27	52.53	69.75	67.68	65.46	75.14	11.41	12.93	5.39
Uttarakhand	71.62	68.07	81.44	78.82	76.31	84.45	7.20	8.24	3.01
West Bengal	68.64	63.42	81.25	76.26	72.13	84.78	7.62	8.71	3.53
India	**64.84**	**58.74**	**79.92**	**72.99**	**67.77**	**84.11**	**8.15**	**9.03**	**4.19**

Source: Census of India 2001 and 2011.

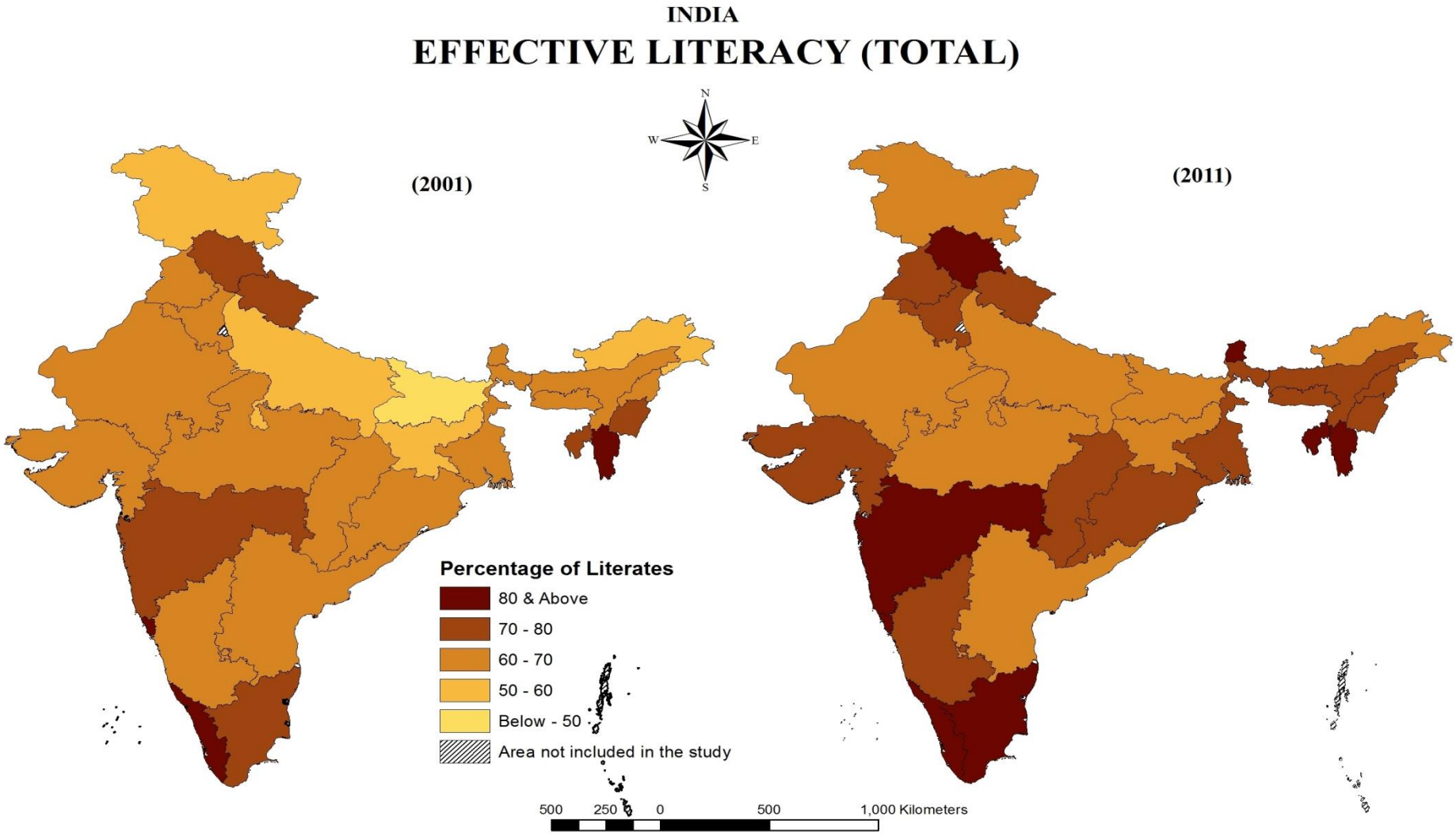

Figure- 4.5: India: Effective Literacy (Total)

If we analyze literacy rates in India based on 2011 Census enumeration (Table 4.17, Figure 4.5), Kerala appears to have retained its top spot with 94 per cent followed by Mizoram (91.33%) and Goa (88.70%) as well as Tripura (87.22%). Kerala had point percentage growth of 3.14 over the 2001 Census year. Mizoram had a little less growth of 2.53 point per cent. Goa had higher growth than Kerala and Mizoram with 6.69 point per cent during the two census years. Tripura has the second highest jump of 14.03 point percentage in the growth of literacy after Bihar.

The census year of 2011 has witnessed a wider growth in literacy with all the states crossing the 60 per cent mark. The bottom spot has been occupied by the state of Bihar with 61.80 per cent literacy with the highest growth of 14.80 point per cent during the decade in reference. The Bihar government in 2005 took some affirmative steps to enhance literacy in its state like increasing favourable policy of government, available educational and transport facilities, public awareness, establishment of the village education committee, monitoring the functioning of the schools, recruitment of the school teachers, expanding the mid-day meal scheme and developing the Bihar education project to monitor all the schemes (Rai, 2014, 161).

The state of Bihar is followed by Tripura (14.02) and Nagaland (12.96) in point percentage growth of literacy. There has been a massive drive in the country especially after the implementation of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) which has led to this achievement. However, some states like, Chhattisgarh (5.62), Punjab (5.70) and Andhra Pradesh (6.55) show dismal picture in terms of decadal literacy growth during the decade.

In terms of rural literacy, (Figure 4.6) Kerala has retained the first position (92.98 %) but Mizoram (97.63%) has overtaken Kerala (95.11 %) in the urban literacy rate. There is a slight difference between the rural and urban literacy (Figure 4.7) in Kerala, just a difference of 2.13 point percentage. After Kerala, its Goa where the difference between rural and urban literacy rate is very small, a difference of 3.30 point percentage.

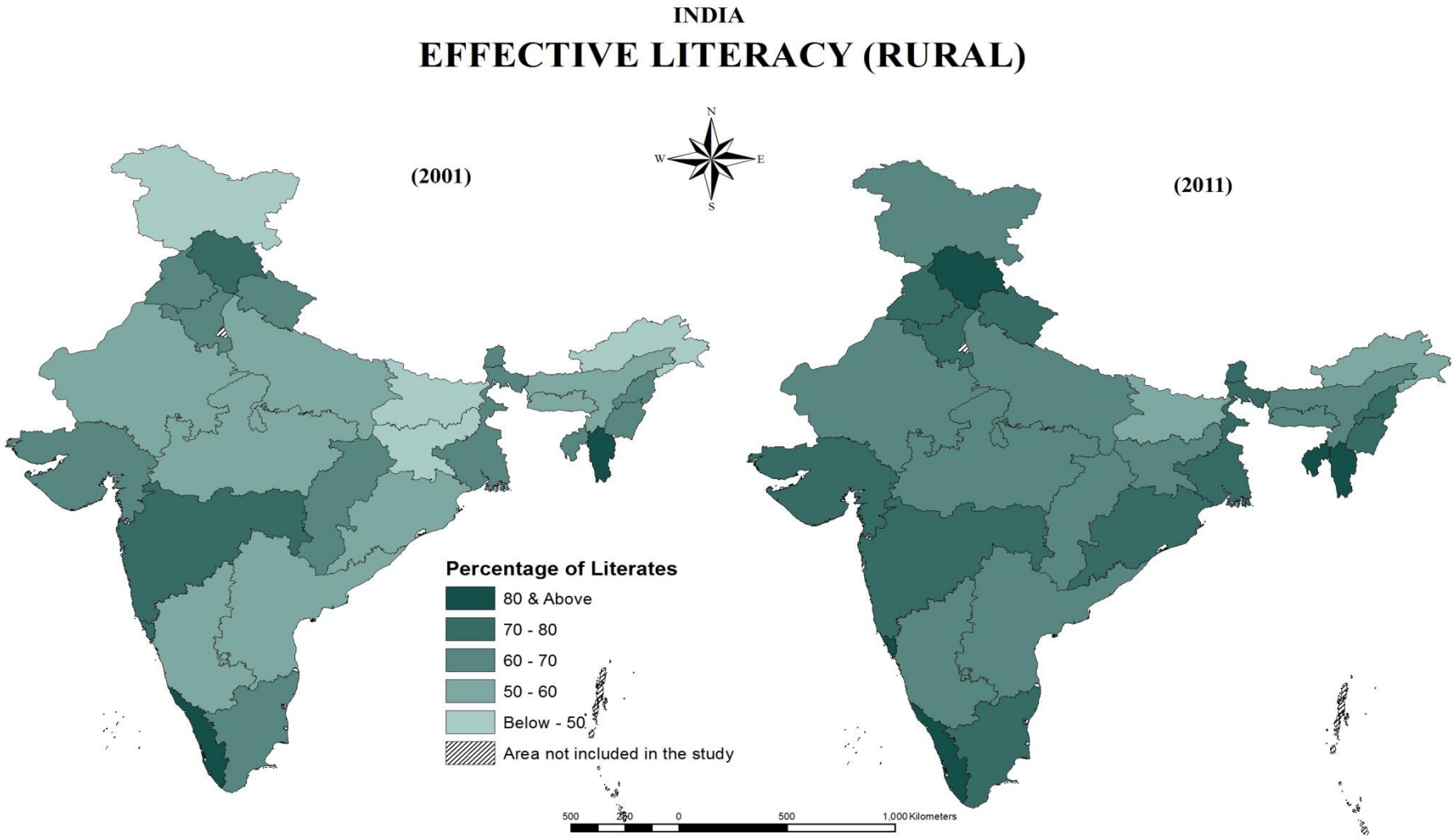

Figure – 4.6: **India: Effective Literacy (Rural)**

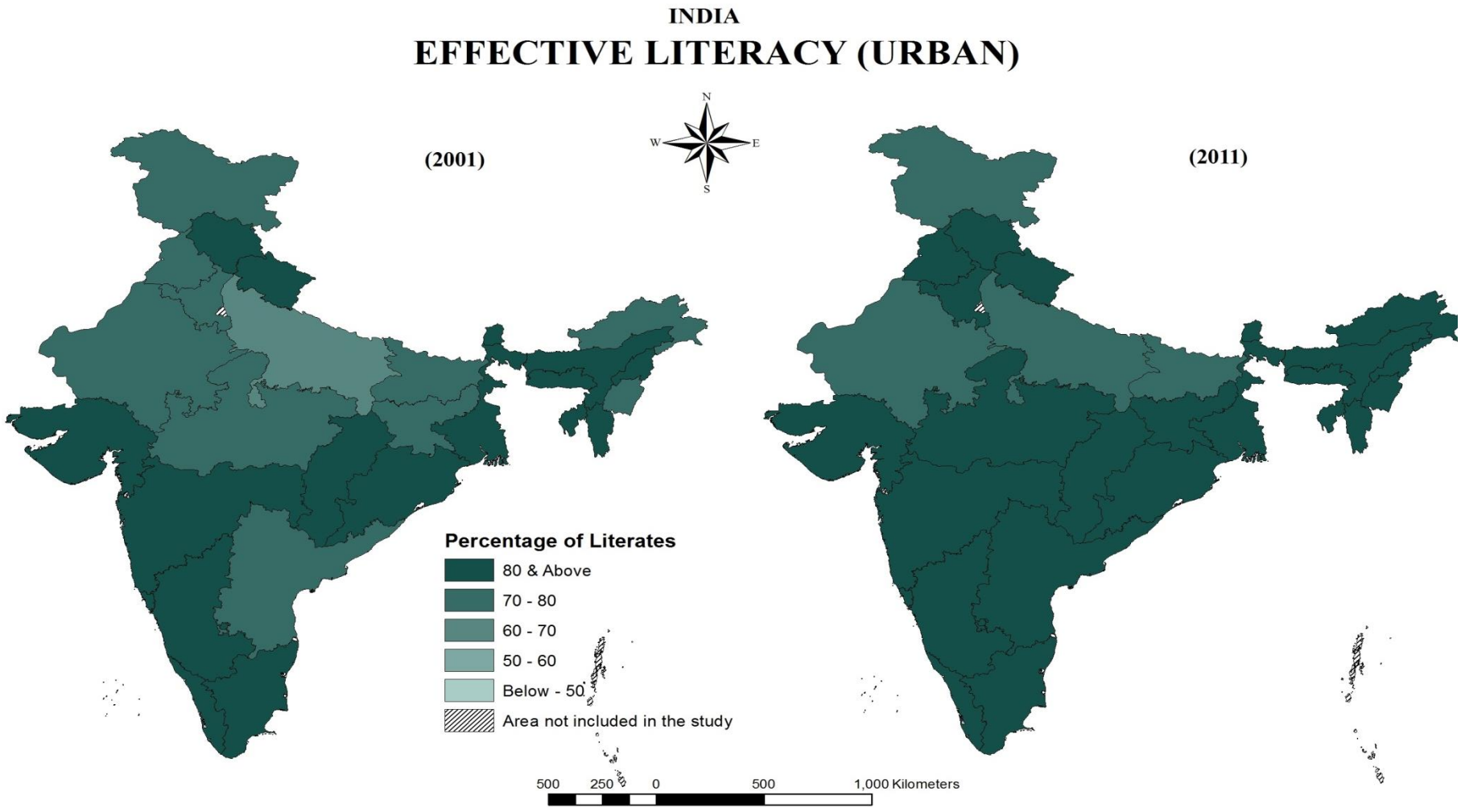

Figure – 4.7: India: Effective Literacy (Urban)

The state of Gujarat has a steady growth in terms total literacy rate from 69.14 per cent in 2001 to 78.03 per cent in 2011, a growth of 8.89 points. There are numerous schemes of central as well as the state government, which has led to such an improvement in the rural literacy of Gujarat from 61.29 percentage to 71.71 percentage, a growth of 10.42 point percentage growth, where as its growth in the urban literacy (Figure 4.7) is rather slow with 81.84 percentage in 2001 to 86.31 percentage in 2011, a meager increase of 4.47 point percentage.

A peek-a-boo into the north eastern states, which have been generally the neglected areas of the country, Tripura has registered highest growth in the total literacy rate among all the states of the region and second highest in the country after Bihar. Meghalaya displays the highest growth in the rural literacy amongst all the north-eastern states with 13.63 point percentage growth during 2001-11. Arunachal Pradesh displays greater disparity between rural and urban literacy rate. Much of the part of it remained inaccessible adversely affecting the growth of literacy rate.

The state of Uttar Pradesh has registered lowest urban literacy rate of 75.14 per cent and Bihar is having lowest rural literacy (Figure 4.6).rate among all the Indian states. Very low degree urbanization, absence of industrial growth, traditionally based agro-based economy, dearth of proper transportation and communication facilities, poor educational facilities, and scarcity of employment opportunities leads to the low literacy level in literacy in Bihar (Rai, 2014, 160, Mishra and Singh, 2015, 10).

The literacy rates of the deprived section of society are still below the National average. That shows that even after such a massive drive, this segment of the population, remains secluded from developmental process, even though we have been talking about the inclusive growth.

Moving from the total effective literacy rate to effective male literacy rate (Table 4.18, Figure 4.8), it can be said that all the states have made a significant decadal progress in the male literacy. Female literacy (Figure 4.9).is said to be an important parameter of development. It is heartening to see that all the states crossed at least 50 per cent mark in female literacy. The lowest is in the state of

Bihar (51.50%), U.P. (57.18), Rajasthan (52.12%), M.P (59.24%) and Jharkhand (55.42%). Interestingly, the lowest female literacy rate has been the characteristic feature of the Hindi speaking belt where the patriarchal views are strong enough to have prejudices against the female literacy. The 2011 census witnessed a gradual change in the female literacy. Nevertheless, the disparity is still prevalent in all spaces. Kerala again tops amongst all the states for both male (96.11%) and female (92.07%) literacy followed by Mizoram (93.35 % and 89.27%), Goa (92.65% and 84.66%) and Tripura (91.53% and 82.73%). These states have been under the influence of the Christianity where missionaries worked a lot in the field of education even before the Independence.

All the states have significantly improved their position in terms of literacy than the previous decade. Nevertheless, the disparity prevails in the country at all levels. The highest growth in terms of point percentage for male literacy has been in Nagaland (11.59) followed by Bihar (11.52) and Tripura (10.51) and for female literacy, Bihar (18.38) followed by Tripura (17.82) and Uttar Pradesh (14.96). These signify that all the plans and policies are proving to be effective in increasing literacy rate.

Table – 4.18: State-Wise Effective Literacy Rate of India by Sex (2001 and 2011)

State	2001			2011			Point % Growth		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Andhra Pradesh	60.47	70.32	50.43	67.02	74.88	59.15	6.55	4.56	8.72
Arunachal Pradesh	54.34	63.83	43.53	65.38	72.55	57.7	11.04	8.72	14.17
Assam	63.25	71.28	54.61	72.19	77.85	66.27	8.94	6.57	11.66
Bihar	47.00	59.68	33.12	61.8	71.20	51.50	14.8	11.52	18.38
Chhattisgarh	64.66	77.38	51.85	70.28	80.27	60.24	5.62	2.89	8.39
Goa	82.01	88.42	75.37	88.70	92.65	84.66	6.69	4.23	9.29
Gujarat	69.14	79.66	57.80	78.03	85.75	69.68	8.89	6.09	11.88
Haryana	67.91	78.49	55.73	75.55	84.06	65.94	7.64	5.57	10.21
Himachal Pradesh	76.48	85.35	67.42	82.8	89.53	75.93	6.32	4.18	8.51
Jammu & Kashmir	55.52	66.60	43.00	67.16	76.75	56.43	11.62	10.15	13.43
Jharkhand	53.56	67.30	38.87	66.41	76.84	55.42	12.85	9.54	16.55
Karnataka	66.64	76.10	56.87	75.36	82.47	68.08	8.72	6.37	11.21
Kerala	90.86	94.24	87.72	94.00	96.11	92.07	3.14	1.87	4.35
Madhya Pradesh	63.74	76.06	50.29	69.32	78.73	59.24	5.58	2.67	8.95
Maharashtra	76.88	85.97	67.03	82.34	88.38	75.87	5.46	2.41	8.84
Manipur	70.53	80.33	60.53	79.21	86.06	72.37	8.86	5.73	11.84
Meghalaya	62.56	65.43	59.69	74.43	75.95	72.89	11.87	10.52	13.2
Mizoram	88.80	90.72	86.75	91.33	93.35	89.27	2.53	2.63	2.52
Nagaland	66.59	71.16	61.46	79.55	82.75	76.11	12.96	11.59	14.65
Odisha	63.08	75.35	50.51	72.87	81.59	64.01	9.79	6.24	1.35
Punjab	69.65	75.23	63.36	75.84	80.44	70.73	6.19	5.21	7.37
Rajasthan	60.41	75.7	43.85	66.11	79.19	52.12	5.70	3.49	8.27
Sikkim	68.81	76.04	60.40	81.42	86.55	75.61	12.61	10.51	15.21
Tamil Nadu	73.45	82.42	64.43	80.09	86.77	73.44	6.64	4.35	9,01
Tripura	73.19	81.02	64.91	87.22	91.53	82.73	14.03	10.51	17.82
Uttar Pradesh	56.27	68.82	42.22	67.68	77.28	57.18	11.41	8.46	14.96
Uttarakhand	71.62	83.28	59.63	78.82	87.4	70.01	7.20	4.12	10.38
West Bengal	68.64	77.02	59.61	76.26	81.69	70.54	7.62	4.67	10.93
India	**64.84**	**75.30**	**53.67**	**72.99**	**80.89**	**64.64**	**8.15**	**5.59**	**10.97**

Source: Census of India 2001 and 2011.

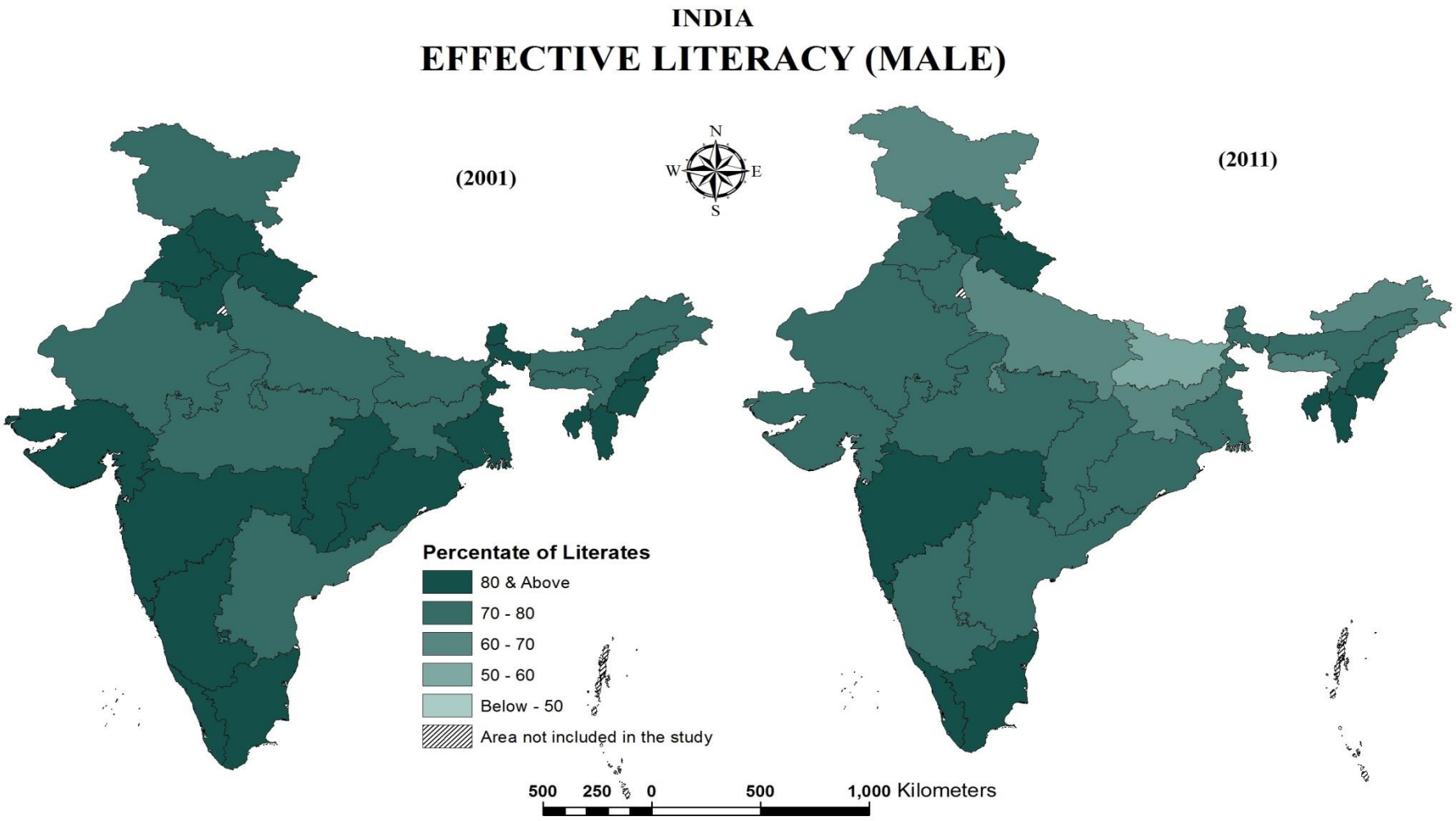

Figure – 4.8: India: Effective Literacy (Male)

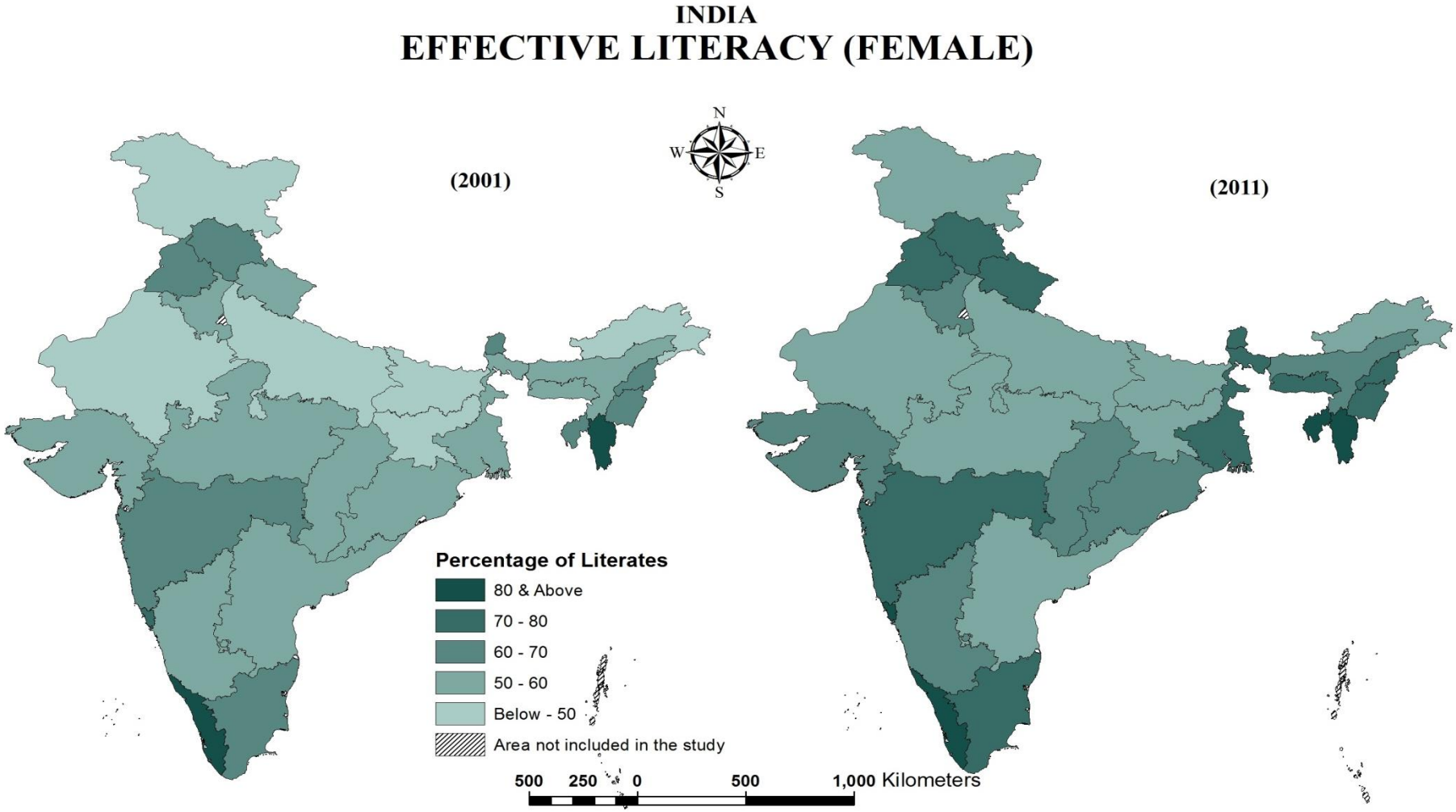

Figure – 4.9: India: Effective Literacy (Female)

4.15.2 Disparity Index of Literacy:

State level disparity in literacy is calculated with the help of modified Sopher's Disparity Index (Kundu and Rao, 1986, 441).

Table – 4.19: State-Wise Effective Literacy Rate of India and Disparity Index by Residence (2001 and 2011)

State	Literacy Rate & Disparity (2001)				Literacy Rate & Disparity (2011)			
	Total	Rural	Urban	Disparity Index	Total	Rural	Urban	Disparity Index
Andhra Pradesh	60.47	54.5	76.09	0.21	67.02	60.45	80.09	0.19
Arunachal Pradesh	54.34	47.83	78.26	0.31	65.38	59.94	82.93	0.22
Assam	63.25	59.73	85.34	0.24	72.19	69.34	88.47	0.17
Bihar	47.00	43.92	71.93	0.30	61.8	59.78	76.86	0.17
Chhatisgarh	64.66	60.48	80.58	0.19	70.28	65.99	84.05	0.17
Goa	82.01	79.67	84.39	0.04	88.7	86.65	89.95	0.03
Gujarat	69.14	61.29	81.84	0.20	78.03	71.71	86.31	0.13
Haryana	67.91	63.19	79.16	0.15	75.55	71.42	83.14	0.11
Himachal Pradesh	76.48	75.08	88.95	0.12	82.8	81.85	91.1	0.08
Jammu & Kashmir	55.52	49.78	71.92	0.23	67.16	63.18	77.12	0.13
Jharkhand	53.56	45.74	79.14	0.34	66.41	61.11	82.26	0.20
Karnataka	66.64	59.33	80.5	0.20	75.36	68.73	85.78	0.16
Kerala	90.86	90.04	93.19	0.03	94.00	92.98	95.11	0.02
Madhya Pradesh	63.74	57.8	79.39	0.21	69.32	63.94	82.85	0.18
Maharashtra	76.88	70.36	85.48	0.14	82.34	77.01	88.69	0.10
Manipur	70.53	66.74	79.28	0.12	79.21	76.2	85.38	0.08
Meghalaya	62.56	56.29	86.3	0.29	74.43	69.92	90.79	0.19
Mizoram	88.8	81.27	96.13	0.13	91.33	84.1	97.63	0.12
Nagaland	66.59	62.79	84.74	0.21	79.55	75.35	89.62	0.13
Odisha	63.08	59.84	80.84	0.20	72.87	70.22	85.75	0.14
Punjab	69.65	64.72	79.1	0.14	75.84	71.42	83.18	0.11
Rajasthan	60.41	55.34	76.2	0.21	66.11	61.44	79.68	0.17
Sikkim	68.81	66.82	83.91	0.16	81.42	71.95	88.71	0.15
Tamil Nadu	73.45	66.21	82.53	0.15	80.09	73.54	87.04	0.12
Tripura	73.19	69.72	89.21	0.18	87.22	84.9	93.47	0.08
Uttar Pradesh	56.27	52.53	69.75	0.18	67.68	65.46	75.14	0.09
Uttarakhand	71.62	68.07	81.44	0.12	78.82	76.31	84.45	0.07
West Bengal	68.64	63.42	81.25	0.17	76.26	72.13	84.78	0.12
India	**64.84**	**58.74**	**79.92**	**0.20**	**72.99**	**67.77**	**84.11**	**0.15**

Source: Census of India 2001 and 2011.

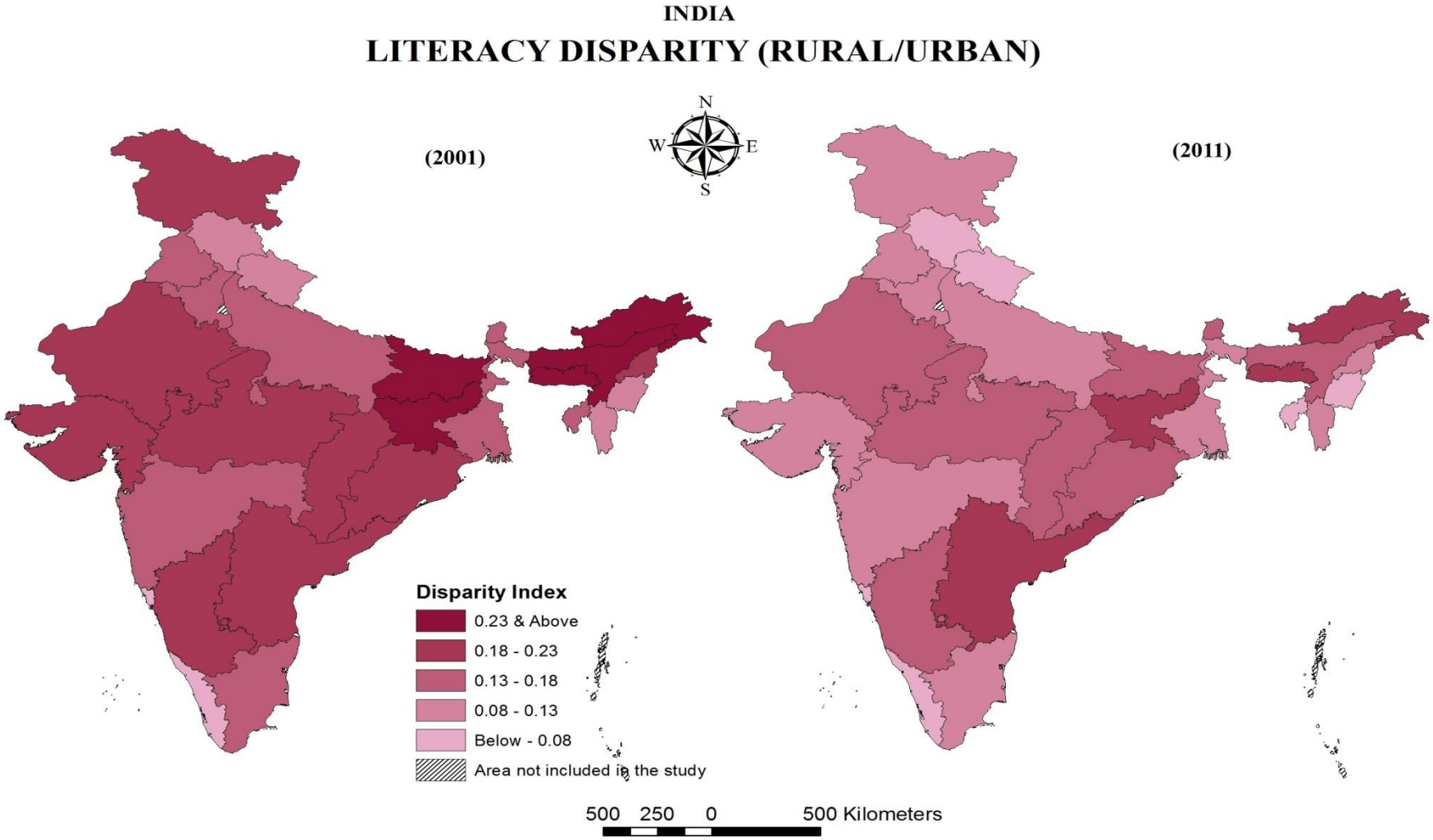

Figure – 4.10: India: Literacy Disparity (Rural - Urban)

For comprehending the temporal variations in the disparity indices of rural-urban and male-female segments of population, literacy rates of the 2001 and 2011 Census years have been considered (Table 4.19).

For all these analysis, all the twenty-eight states (excluding the state of new formed Telangana) were considered for the study. The union territories and NCT of Delhi were not considered for the study. The states and the union territories if taken in the same frame, the analysis is not satisfying as the averages of the union territories are very high with low population as comparison with the states hence here for the all the analyses the union territories along the NCT of Delhi are not considered. Only twenty-eight states and its averages were considered for the study.

The tabulated indices have been mapped using choropleth method to reveal their spatial patterns. Disparity index ranges between 0.00-1.00. The tabulated indices have been classified under five categories for both rural-urban and male-female segments. The values of the categories have been kept similar for both the census years for the purpose of comparison. The average index of all the states for rural-urban disparity of 2001 is 0.18 and for 2011 0.13 hence, the categories chosen for rural-urban disparity for both years are, below 0.08, 0.08-0.13, 0.13-0.18, 0.18-0.23, and 0.23 and above, designated as very low, low, moderate, high and very high respectively.

Literacy in the urban (Figure 4.10) areas tends to remain higher than in the rural areas in general, due to the nature of the urban sectors. The skill of reading and writing is an essential requirement in every urban pursuit. Besides, the urban areas are better provided with educational and associated infrastructure like transport in comparison to rural areas. Thus, rural-urban disparity in literacy remains a common feature among all the states of the country, wherein the urban areas are always in an advantageous position.

Over all, it can be seen that rural urban disparity in literacy has narrowed down during the last census decade. The states of Kerala (0.03) and Goa (0.04) had very low level of disparity at the 2001 Census, which has further reduced to 0.02 and 0.03 respectively in ten years. As discussed earlier, both the states have long since

been under the influence of the Christian missionary activities, in which education and health of the population are of primary concern. Spread of literacy has been uniform across space in these two states, resulting in negligible literacy disparity in their rural and urban areas.

The next category of low rural-urban literacy disparity (Figure 4.11).at the 2001 Census year included the states of Himachal Pradesh, Manipur and Uttarakhand, all with disparity index of 0.12. All the three states retained their positions at the 2011 census, but with reduced disparity indices. Other states which joined this category at the latter census include Tripura (0.08), Uttar Pradesh (0.09), Maharashtra (0.10), Haryana (0.11), Mizoram (0.12), Punjab (0.12), Tamil Nadu (0.12) and West Bengal (0.12). Uttar Pradesh has a surprising entry into the low disparity category in 2011 from (0.18) high disparity category in 2001. Perhaps the planned initiatives towards educational development in the country have been instrumental in this improvement.

The states of Mizoram (0.13) Maharashtra (0.14), Punjab (0.14), Haryana (0.15), Sikkim (0.16), Tamil Nadu (0.15) and West Bengal (0.17) had moderate disparity at the 2001 Census. Mostly these states have moderate urban growth (Dutta and Sivaramakrishnan, 2013, 198). As an aftermath of faster industrialization post liberalization (1991), most of the states in the country experienced faster urbanization (Ibid), which could have triggered the spread of literacy in their urban as well as the rural areas. A perusal of table 4.19 reveals the upward movement of all excepting Sikkim from moderate to low, and that of states like Nagaland (0.13), Gujarat (0.13), Jammu and Kashmir (0.13), Odisha (0.14), Sikkim (0.15), Karnataka (0.16), Assam (0.17), Bihar (0.17), Chhattisgarh (0.17) and Rajasthan (0.17) from high to moderate disparity category at the 2011 Census. Transportation and road connectivity to remote areas are playing an important role in minimizing the gap between male and female literacy in Rajasthan.(Khayamkhani and Chaplot, 2014,91) The situation in Sikkim remains almost unaltered perhaps due to its peculiar socio-geographical peculiarities. Improved situation in the states of Odisha, Assam, Bihar and Chhattisgarh may be ascribed to the phenomenon of permanent or temporary migrations to other states in search of employment in large numbers, especially from the rural areas of these

states. Such migrations and recent Government initiatives might have facilitated the increase of rural literacy rates of these states. It is usually the males, who migrate, leaving their family behind. Thus, the family and the children of these migrants generally develop fondness for literacy and educational skills (Ramachandran, 2003, 965; Sankar, 2010, 38). Mushrooming of privately owned English medium schools in the rural areas, may be considered as a manifestation of this changed scenario. (Sankar, 2010, 38) .The other contributory factor are the Right to Education Act, (RTE) 2009 , which mandate that 25 percent of seats of all private school must be offered to this underprivileged children at free of cost (Bansal, 2017, 12).

Exactly half of the states (14 out of 28) of the country had high (8 states) or very high (6 states) rural-urban literacy disparity at the 2001 Census. The states included in the high disparity category were Tripura (0.18), Uttar Pradesh (0.18), Chhattisgarh (0.19) Odisha (0.20), Karnataka (0.20), Gujarat (0.20), Andhra Pradesh (0.21), Rajasthan (0.21), Nagaland (0.21) and Madhya Pradesh (0.21). The states in the very high category were Jammu & Kashmir (0.23), Assam (0.24), Meghalaya (029), Bihar (0.30), Arunachal Pradesh (0.31) and Jharkhand (0.34). As is clear, the list includes almost all the states, excepting Gujarat and Karnataka that are characteristically either peripheral, agrarian or have a dominance of the ST population. There is however, not a single state in the very high rural-urban literacy disparity category at the latest census count of 2011. It may be due to satisfactory spread of literacy in the rural segment of India's population in general and in the lagging states in particular. At the 2011 Census, only five states, namely, Madhya Pradesh (0.18), Meghalaya (0.19), Andhra Pradesh (0.19,) Jharkhand (0.20), and Arunachal Pradesh (0.22) recorded high disparity index. It is heartening to note that the remaining states of the country have significantly reduced the literacy gap between their rural and urban populations in the very first decade of the new century.

Table - 4.20: State-Wise Effective Literacy Rate of India by Sex and Disparity Index (2001 and 2011)

State	Literacy Rate & Disparity (2001)				Literacy Rate (2011)			
	Total	Male	Female	Disparity Index	Total	Male	Female	Disparity Index
Andhra Pradesh	60.47	70.32	50.43	0.21	67.02	74.88	59.15	0.15
Arunachal Pradesh	54.34	63.83	43.53	0.23	65.38	72.55	57.70	0.15
Assam	63.25	71.28	54.61	0.17	72.19	77.85	66.27	0.11
Bihar	47.00	59.68	33.12	0.33	61.80	71.20	51.50	0.20
Chhattisgarh	64.66	77.38	51.85	0.26	70.28	80.27	60.24	0.19
Goa	82.01	88.42	75.37	0.12	88.7	92.65	84.66	0.07
Gujarat	69.14	79.66	57.80	0.21	78.03	85.75	69.68	0.15
Haryana	67.91	78.49	55.73	0.22	75.55	84.06	65.94	0.17
Himachal Pradesh	76.48	85.35	67.42	0.17	82.8	89.53	75.93	0.12
Jammu & Kashmir	55.52	66.60	43.00	0.26	67.16	76.75	56.43	0.20
Jharkhand	53.56	67.30	38.87	0.32	66.41	76.84	55.42	0.21
Karnataka	66.64	76.10	56.87	0.19	75.36	82.47	68.08	0.13
Kerala	90.86	94.24	87.72	0.06	94.00	96.11	92.07	0.04
Madhya Pradesh	63.74	76.06	50.29	0.26	69.32	78.73	59.24	0.19
Maharashtra	76.88	85.97	67.03	0.17	82.34	88.38	75.87	0.11
Manipur	70.53	80.33	60.53	0.19	79.21	86.06	72.37	0.12
Meghalaya	62.56	65.43	59.69	0.06	74.43	75.95	72.89	0.03
Mizoram	88.80	90.72	86.75	0.03	91.33	93.35	89.27	0.03
Nagaland	66.59	71.16	61.46	0.10	79.55	82.75	76.11	0.06
Odisha	63.08	75.35	50.51	0.25	72.87	81.59	64.01	0.17
Punjab	69.65	75.23	63.36	0.11	75.84	80.44	70.73	0.09
Rajasthan	60.41	75.70	43.85	0.34	66.11	79.19	52.12	0.27
Sikkim	68.81	76.04	60.40	0.15	81.42	86.55	75.61	0.10
Tamil Nadu	73.45	82.42	64.43	0.17	80.09	86.77	73.44	0.12
Tripura	73.19	81.02	64.91	0.15	87.22	91.53	82.73	0.08
Uttar Pradesh	56.27	68.82	42.22	0.29	67.68	77.28	57.18	0.20
Uttarakhand	71.62	83.28	59.63	0.23	78.82	87.4	70.01	0.16
West Bengal	68.64	77.02	59.61	0.17	76.26	81.69	70.54	0.10
India	**64.84**	**75.30**	**53.67**	**0.22**	**72.99**	**80.89**	**64.64**	**0.16**

Source: Census of India 2001 and 2011.

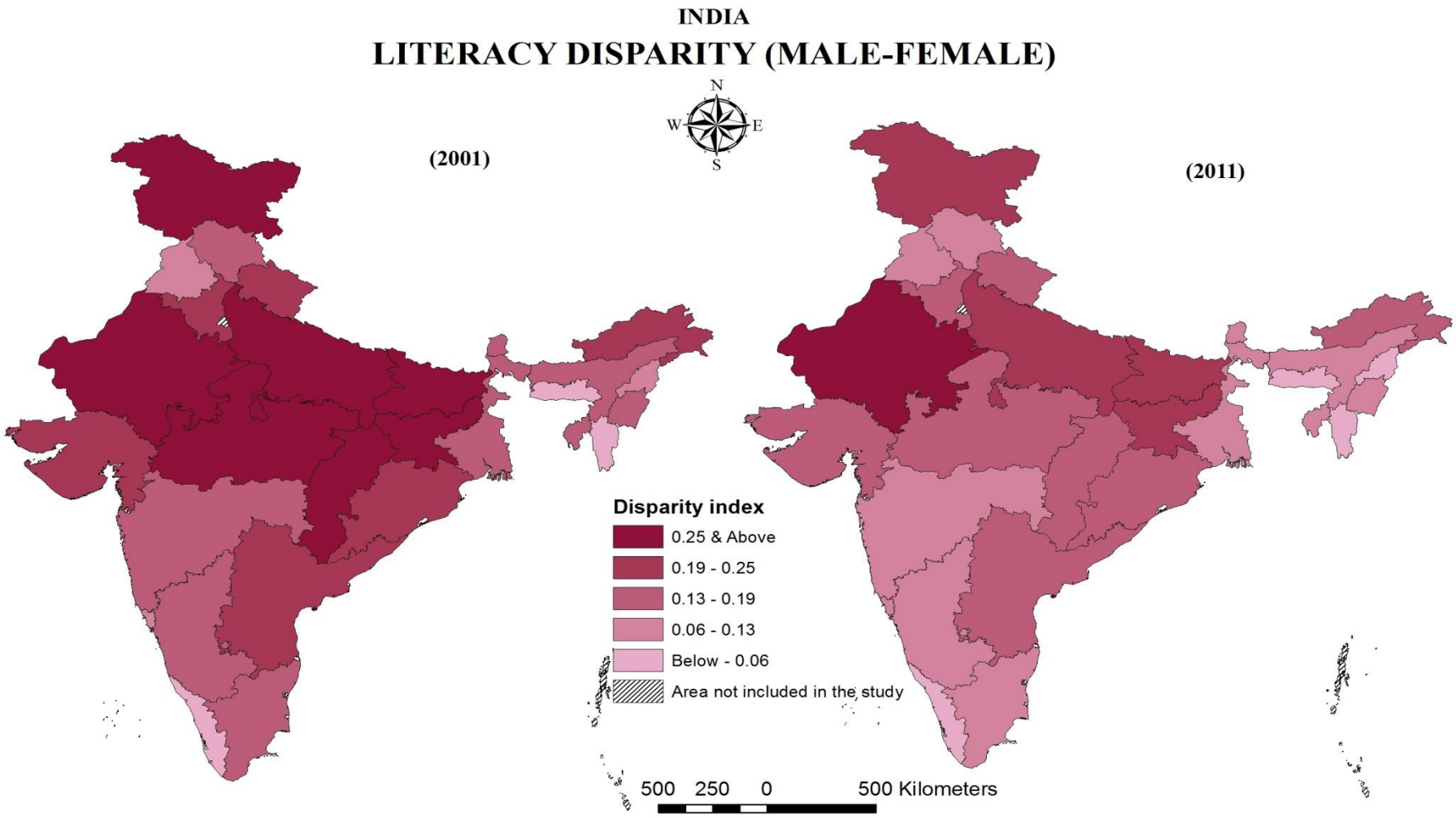

Figure – 4.11: India: Literacy Disparity (Male - Female)

Keeping the average male-female literacy disparity indices of 0.19 at the 2001 and 0.13 at the 2011Census years, five categories of disparity were chosen, such as below 0.06, 0.06-0.13, 0.13-0.19, 0.19-0.25 and 0.25 and above. The five categories were designated as very low, low, moderate, high and very high respectively.

At the World Social Forum of 2000, the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) was set which listed ten goals and each country was given fifteen years to achieve these goals. India was also part to it. One of the goals of MDG was to augment female literacy and reduce male-female literacy disparities. India had very wide disparity between its male and female segments of population as per the 2001 Census count. Post 2001, number of new policies was executed by the Central as well as the State Governments to enhance the literacy rates and to minimize male-female disparities in literacy.

Analyzing disparity indices based on 2001 and 2011 Census counts (Table 4.20), it was found that in 2001, the lowest gender disparity index was in the states of Mizoram (0.03), Meghalaya (0.06) and Kerala (0.06). These states remained in the same category in 2011 with still lower indices, excepting for Mizoram, where the disparity index remained unaltered. Meghalaya's index reduced by 0.03 points and Kerala's by 0.02s point in 2011. At the 2011 enumeration, the new entrant to this category of very low male-female literacy disparity was Nagaland (0.06). Gender disparity in literacy tends to be lower where equal opportunity of education is provided to both the segments and both avail it. Generally, females are considered as one of the deprived sections in the Indian society. Various forms of discrimination against women in Indian society hinder the progress of literacy and education in them. The North-Eastern states, however, particularly those with predominance of ST population, display negligible male-female literacy disparity. This may be ascribed to the absence of gender discrimination in tribal social order and spread of Christianity. Among the states of mainland Indian, Kerala has had high literacy rates since long, which might have played a positive role in the reduction of discriminations against women and increase in the female literacy and education. The male-female literacy disparity in Kerala was 0.06 (very low) at the 2001 census count, and has further reduced to 0.03 during the next ten years.

Low male-female literacy rate (0.06 to 0.13) was recorded only in the three states of Nagaland (0.10), Punjab (0.11) and Goa (0.12) in 2001. During the next decade, another six states, viz. Sikkim (0.10), West Bengal (0.10), Assam (0.11), Maharashtra (0.11), Himachal Pradesh (0.12), Manipur (0.12) and Tamil Nadu (0.12), improved their position to join this group states. Progress made by Nagaland (0.06) and Goa (0.07) during this period has also been noteworthy. It is a matter of research concern to understand the position of Punjab in the category of low disparity despite being characteristically one of the gender discriminating states of the country, for which its sex ratio remains low. The impact of Christianity in Nagaland and Goa is clearly evident in their lower disparities. Apparent from the reduction in the disparity in terms of points, females have gained the most (by 0.07 points) in Manipur and West Bengal during the two points of time. While from among the remaining, Assam and Maharashtra (by 0.06 points), and Himachal Pradesh, Sikkim and Tamil Nadu (by 0.05 points) have achieved relatively less.

At the 2001 Census count, the male-female disparity index was moderate in Sikkim (0.15), Tripura (0.15), Assam (0.17), Himachal Pradesh (0.17), Maharashtra (0.17), Tamil Nadu (0.17) and West Bengal (0.17). All of them have improved their position and reduced the disparity in 2011. These states were replaced by Karnataka (0.13), Andhra Pradesh (0.15), Arunachal Pradesh (0.15), Gujarat (0.15), Uttarakhand (0.16) Haryana (0.17) and Odisha (0.17) at the later census count. The disparity level has reduced substantially in these states too during decade in question. Maximum reduction of 0.08 points of disparity is registered by Arunachal Pradesh and Odisha. The remaining states gained by 0.07 to 0.05 points during this period. Effective implementation of the educational planning measures and transformed social perceptions might have brought in this positive change in these states.

High disparity index was seen in the states of Manipur (0.19), Karnataka (0.19), Andhra Pradesh (0.21), Gujarat (0.21) Haryana (0.22), Arunachal Pradesh (0.23) and Uttarakhand (0.23) in the year 2001. All this states in ten years of time have moved to its next lower order category. Initiative from the government and awareness among people lead to the fall in the disparity. In this census year, high

disparity index was seen in the states of Chhattisgarh (0.19), Madhya Pradesh (0.19), Bihar (0.20), Jammu and Kashmir (0.20), Uttar Pradesh (0.20) and Jharkhand (0.21). These states in the last decade were mostly in very high disparity category and now in high disparity category. These are the regions of typical Hindi belt with the exception of Jammu and Kashmir where there are staunch patriarchal thought, low sex ratio, high discrimination against females and their mobility, lead to low literacy among females these states. Male-female disparity declined in 2011 in Chhattisgarh by 0.07 points, Madhya Pradesh by 0.07 points, Bihar by 0.13 points, Jammu and Kashmir by 0.06 points, Uttar Pradesh by 0.09 points, and Jharkhand by 0.11 points.

Very High disparity index in 2001 was found in the states of Chhattisgarh (0.26), Jammu and Kashmir (0.26), Madhya Pradesh (0.26), Uttar Pradesh (0.29), Jharkhand (0.32), Bihar (0.33), and Rajasthan (0.34). All the states except the state of Rajasthan have moved to the lower category in 2011 census. Rajasthan is the only state in 2011 to be in the very high disparity index category. Though it has too declined by 0.07 points but still has the highest disparity index. Although *Lok Jumbish* project in Rajasthan helped to reduce its gender disparity but a lot more remains to be done.

4.15.3 Educational Development Index (EDI):

Educational Development Index or EDI is an index to compute the development in the education sector. Several organizations have attempted to work on EDI. In India, District Information on School Education (DISE) provides information on various inputs and processes and outcome related indicators. Thus, since 2005-06 the National University of Educational Planning and Administration (NUEPA) and the Government of India (MHRD, Department of School Education and Literacy) have started computing EDI. NUEPA along with MHRD made an effort to compute EDI taking twenty parameters, which were re-grouped on the basis of access, infrastructure, teachers and outcome. Each year they take twenty indicators, which many a time keeps on changing depending upon the availability and nature of the data. Though at India level, for all the indicators, it is NUEPA only along with the MHRD who generate the data; still they themselves claim that because of the changing nature of the indicators availability, EDI computed by

them may not be comparable with the same in the previous year (DISE, 2010-11, 42). Their EDI is computed separately for primary and upper primary and also a composite index for primary and upper primary taken together. Nevertheless, they do not include the parameter of the secondary and higher secondary level. Since, EDI computation was started in 2005-06 only, the years of 2005-06 and 2010-11 have been considered in this exercise.

The main purpose of EDI is to recapitulate various indicators related to input, process and outcome and delineate the geographical areas those are lagging in educational development. It also helps in formulating plans and policies, more specifically in the distressed regions. Educational infrastructure is has great significance for the spread and development of education. It impacts the quality of education too. The learning environment is strongly related to the infrastructure. Thus, the schools need proper infrastructure for efficient learning outcome. Important infrastructure includes the girl's toilet, library, boundary wall, computer, playground, classrooms, offices and other buildings structures. In many parts of the country schools still function with one or two rooms with no teaching materials, which affect the outcomes (Gupta, 2013, 24).

An investigation of EDI evidently suggests that the states of the country are at different levels of educational development in general and elementary education in particular. Some states with high composite EDI values are said to be better than other states but still they may not be equal in the all the parameters used by NUEPA in the computation of the EDI. The ranks are relative to each other. Every state needs further improvement in some aspect or the other, even if it is at the top rank. There are various indicators used for the computation of the EDI, those are grouped into four sets.

Table – 4.21: States Wise Educational Development Index of 2005-06 and 2010-11 by NUEPA

State	EDI & Rank Primary Level				EDI & Rank Upper Primary Level				Composite EDI & Rank (Primary & Upper Primary)			
	2005-06		2010-11		2005-06		2010-11		2005-06		2010-11	
Andhra Pradesh	0.604	7	0.714	8	0.705	5	0.820	5	0.654	5	0.767	5
Arunachal Pradesh	0.417	27	0.573	24	0.500	24	0.624	19	0.458	26	0.598	24
Assam	0.454	24	0.504	28	0.525	21	0.607	20	0.490	23	0.555	26
Bihar	0.335	28	0.523	27	0.319	28	0.502	28	0.327	28	0.512	28
Chhattisgarh	0.557	12	0.618	18	0.561	17	0.604	22	0.559	16	0.611	19
Goa	0.529	15	0.717	7	0.643	11	0.780	8	0.586	14	0.748	7
Gujarat	0.595	8	0.720	5	0.666	8	0.757	10	0.630	9	0.739	8
Haryana	0.521	17	0.714	9	0.591	16	0.809	6	0.556	17	0.761	6
Himachal Pradesh	0.630	**3**	0.698	11	0.707	4	0.781	7	0.668	4	0.739	9
Jammu & Kashmir	0.556	13	0.649	16	0.639	12	0.708	13	0.597	13	0.679	13
Jharkhand	0.428	26	0.538	26	0.441	27	0.52	27	0.435	27	0.529	27
Karnataka	0.627	4	0.719	6	0.720	**3**	0.746	11	0.674	**3**	0.732	10
Kerala	0.660	**2**	0.736	4	0.755	**1**	0.872	**1**	0.708	**1**	0.804	**3**
Madhya Pradesh	0.514	19	0.593	23	0.509	22	0.587	25	0.512	21	0.590	25
Maharashtra	0.593	9	0.704	10	0.677	6	0.740	12	0.635	7	0.722	12
Manipur	0.520	18	0.556	25	0.608	15	0.684	15	0.608	10	0.620	18
Meghalaya	0.512	20	0.601	21	0.556	19	0.598	24	0.534	19	0.600	23
Mizoram	0.623	5	0.694	12	0.677	7	0.760	9	0.650	6	0.727	11
Nagaland	0.510	22	0.659	15	0.556	20	0.688	14	0.533	20	0.674	14
Odisha	0.522	16	0.606	19	0.502	23	0.606	21	0.512	22	0.606	21
Punjab	0.568	11	0.778	**2**	0.648	10	0.852	**2**	0.608	11	0.815	**1**
Rajasthan	0.540	14	0.605	20	0.626	14	0.641	18	0.583	15	0.623	17
Sikkim	0.611	6	0.764	**3**	0.660	9	0.825	**3**	0.635	8	0.795	4
Tamil Nadu	0.672	**1**	0.808	**1**	0.730	**2**	0.822	4	0.701	**2**	0.815	**2**
Tripura	0.511	21	0.597	22	0.560	18	0.671	16	0.535	18	0.634	16
Uttar Pradesh	0.482	23	0.672	14	0.482	25	0.539	26	0.482	24	0.606	22
Uttarakhand	0.575	10	0.675	13	0.635	13	0.664	17	0.605	12	0.670	15
West Bengal	0.454	25	0.619	17	0.480	26	0.601	23	0.467	25	0.610	20

Source DISE,2005-06,2010-11

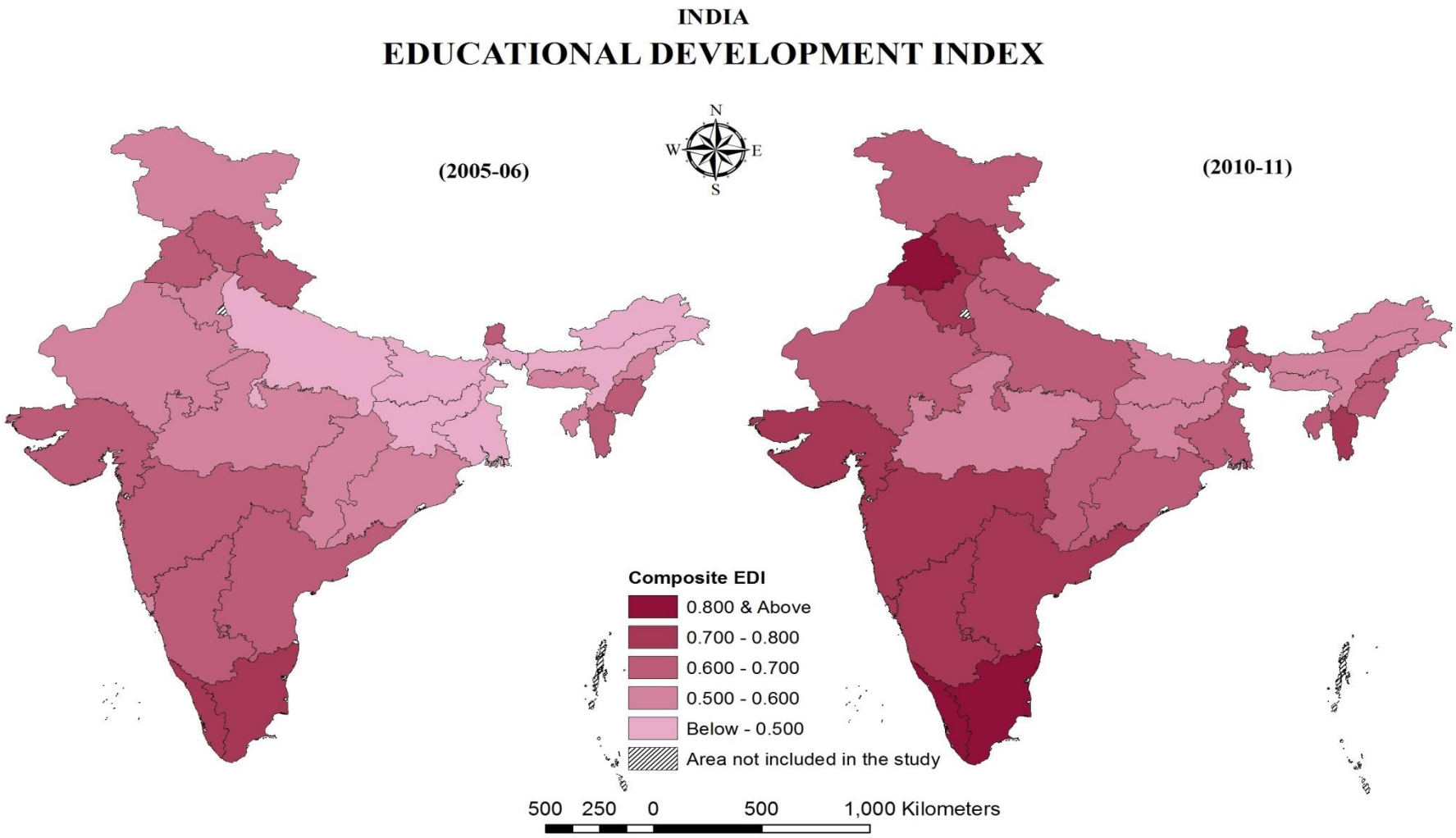

Figure – 4.12: India: Education Development Index

On the basis of the value of the index, the states are ranked. The states are also ranked by the level of education like the primary and upper primary. The average of primary and upper primary is also prepared which is known as the composite EDI.

Based on the composite EDI, for both the years the index values have been group into, below 0.500, 0.500-0.600, 0.600-0.700, 0.700-0.800 and 0.800 and above categories, and designated as very low, low, moderate, high and very high respectively for further analysis.

With respect to both primary and upper primary as well as the composite EDI of 2005-06, (Table 4.21, Figure 4.12), the states of Bihar, Jharkhand, West Bengal, Assam and Orissa were very low ranking states. In terms of composite EDI, the states of Bihar (0.327), Jharkhand (0.435), Arunachal Pradesh (0.458), West Bengal (0.467), Uttar Pradesh (0.482) and Assam (0.490), were placed at the last six ranks. Pupil-teacher ratio in Bihar was very high (64 pupils per teacher), and in a good number of schools (17.17 %) the ration was even more than 100. This is also true for Jharkhand, where PTR was 65:1. In West Bengal, the ratio of Primary and Upper Primary schools was above 5, which means only one Upper Primary school was available for every 5 Primary schools (NUEPA, 2005-06, 182).

States like Madhya Pradesh (0.512), Odisha (0.512), Nagaland (0.533), Meghalaya (0.534), Tripura (0.535), Haryana (0.556), Chhattisgarh (0.559), Rajasthan (0.583), Goa (0.586), and Jammu and Kashmir (0.597) had low EDI which ranked between 13and 22, and with EDI values ranging between 0.500 and 0.600.The EDI is basically low because of the lack of the infrastructure, even the drop-outs rates were high. The moderate EDI in 2005-06 was in the states of Uttarakhand (0.605), Manipur (0.608), Gujarat (0.630), Maharashtra (0.635), Punjab (0.635), Sikkim (0.635), Mizoram (0.650), Andhra Pradesh (0.654), Himachal Pradesh (0.668), and Karnataka (0.674). High EDI were found only in two states of Tamil Nadu (0.701) and Kerala (0.708), which were the second and first rankers respectively.

Several new plans and policies for the betterment of literacy and education were introduced and implemented in the country during the first decade of 21st century. Resultantly, each and every state experienced improvement in its position in terms of EDI value. Thus, none of the states remained in the very low EDI group. Nevertheless the states of Bihar (0.512), Jharkhand (0.529), Arunachal Pradesh (0.598) and Madhya Pradesh (0.590) remain the bottom liners. Bihar has improved by 0.185 point, Jharkhand by 0.94 points, Arunachal Pradesh by 0.140 and Madhya Pradesh by 0.78 point. Bihar has made tremendous progress in educational development. Enrollment is on the rise in these states, unfortunately however, the drop-outs have not reduced. Thus, more actions are needed in these states.

EDIs are moderate in the states of Odisha (0.606 - rank improved from 22 to 21), Uttar Pradesh (0.606 - rank improved from 24 to 22), West Bengal (0.610 - rank improved from 25 to 20), Tripura (0.634 - rank improved from 18 to 16), Nagaland (0.674 - rank improved from 20 to 16,). Some of the states, however lost their ranks such as, Meghalaya (0.600 - rank decreased from 19 to 23), Chhattisgarh (0.611- rank decreased from 16 to 19), Manipur (0.620 - rank decreased from 10 to 18), Rajasthan (0.623 - rank decreased from 15 to 17), Uttarakhand (0.670 - rank decreased from 12 to 15). There was no change in the position of Jammu and Kashmir (0.679) during the point of reference. The rankings are relative in nature and indicate that the states where ranking has improved are paying relatively better attention to educational development.

Similarly, from among the states that are having high EDIs at the latest point of reference, some are gainers and some are losers. The states which gained in ranking were Gujarat (0.739 - from 9 to 8), Goa (0.748 - from 14 to 7), Haryana (0.761 - from 17 to 6) and Sikkim (0.795 - from 8 to 4). The states whose ranks decreased included, Maharashtra (0.722 - from 3 to 4), Mizoram (0.727 - from 6 to 11), Karnataka (0.732 - from 3 to 10) and Himachal Pradesh (0.739 - from 4 to 9). EDI of Punjab (0.815 - rank improved from 11 to 1), Tamil Nadu (0.815 - retained its second position) and Kerala (0.804 - rank decreased from 1 to 3) were very high (above 0.800) during 2010-11 and these states were the first three

rankers. There is a tremendous development in the state of Punjab which jumped from the eleventh to the first position, surpassing Tamil Nadu and Kerala.

It is worth noting that, although the EDI rank of the states have fluctuated between the two periods of reference, without exception all states have gained in EDI indicating wide spread educational progress in the country. To further improve the situation, particularly of the states in the lower EDI categories and all states in general, analysis of spatial variation of EDI at lower units, such as district and *taluka* could be of immense help. Such analysis would yield still more fruitful results, if EDI is calculated separately for access, infrastructure, teachers and outcome indicators. This would enable the policy maker to understand the region specific as well as indicator specific problems and make strategies accordingly.

4.16 EXISTING GAP AND FUTURE CHALLENGES:

There are major challenges in the education sector regarding to its outcome. One of it is to maintain the quality of education. We need to pay attention regarding the quality of education. If we compromise on quality, Universal Elementary Education (UEE) would remain far from the reality. There are wide gaps in the existing scenario across the space and society of India. The other challenges are to maintain the access of education. There remains gap in access, infrastructure, as well as the facilities in the elementary and secondary education. There is also concern of teachers and students absenteeism, quality of teacher's education, and drop-outs. Demands of the private schooling are on the increasing trend because of the failure of the government mechanism to deliver efficiently, or because of the people want to have English education in the private school which gives better opportunity than vernacular medium. However, the private school varies in quality in terms of outcomes. Other concern is the skill development in education (Sankar, 2010, 38)

Enrollment is no more a serious concern but learning out remained more concern for us. Thus there should be more researches to understand this across society and space which could make a deeper understanding to differential in educational process and can help the government to design the more effective strategies and plan to achieve UEE (Vaidyanathan and Nair, 2006, 24).

4.17 CONCLUSION:

Certain pockets of our country are the international hub for the knowledge, while some other region and section of the population are deprived of even the basic education. The generalization cannot be drawn with such variation. Some states region of India has made a remarkable progress in education while others remain too far from reaching the goal. Thus, a rigorous exercise is needed to balance this.

At the State level, there has been a massive drive in the country especially after the implementation of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) which has led to great achievement by the 2011 census. The bottom liners like Bihar, too, have crossed the 60 per cent mark in literacy. Bihar registered the highest point percentage growth of 14.80 per cent from census 2001. Kerala has retained its top position. On the other hand, states like, Chhattisgarh, Punjab and Andhra Pradesh show dismal picture in terms of decadal literacy growth during the decade. Gujarat has a steady growth in terms total literacy rate in with a growth of 8.89 points from census2001.

There has been a gradual improvement in the female literacy in the Hindi heartland of India. That speaks of change in the mind-set of people. All the states of India have crossed the 50 per cent mark in female literacy. Never the less, the disparity is still prevalent in all the spaces. The improvement in literacy among major states signifies that all the plans and policies are proving to be effective in increasing literacy rate.

Over all, it can be seen that rural urban disparity in literacy has narrowed down during the last census decade. The states of Kerala and Goa had very low level of disparity at the 2001 Census, which has further reduced in respectively in ten years. Both the states have long since been under the influence of the Christian missionary activities, in which education and health of the population are of primary concern. Spread of literacy has been uniform across space in these two states, resulting in negligible literacy disparity in their rural and urban areas. Uttar Pradesh has a surprising entry into the low disparity category in 2011 from high disparity category in 2001. Perhaps the planned initiatives towards educational development in the country have been instrumental in this improvement.

Improved situation in the states of Odisha, Assam, Bihar and Chhattisgarh may be ascribed to the phenomenon of permanent or temporary migrations to other states in search of employment in large numbers, especially from the rural areas of these states. Such migrations and recent Government initiatives might have facilitated the increase of rural literacy rates of these states.

At the 2011 Census, only five states, namely, Madhya Pradesh, Meghalaya, Andhra Pradesh Jharkhand, and Arunachal Pradesh recorded high disparity index. It is heartening to note that the remaining states of the country have significantly reduced the literacy gap between their rural and urban populations in the very first decade of the new century.

Kerala had high literacy rates since long, which might have played a positive role in the reduction of discriminations against women and increase in the female literacy and education. The male-female literacy disparity was lowest in Kerala. It is a matter of research concern to understand the position of Punjab in the category of low disparity despite being characteristically one of the gender discriminating states of the country, for which its sex ratio remains low. Rajasthan is the only state in 2011 to be in the very high disparity index category.

Several new plans and policies for the betterment of literacy and education were introduced and implemented in the country during the first decade of 21st century. There is a tremendous development in the state of Punjab which jumped from the eleventh to the first position, surpassing Tamil Nadu and Kerala in the Educational Development Index (EDI). Nevertheless, the states of Bihar, Jharkhand, Arunachal Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh remain the bottom liners in the EDI. Bihar has made tremendous progress in educational development. Enrollment is on the rise in these states, unfortunately however, the drop-outs have not reduced. Thus, more actions are needed in these states.

The policy that worked for 2001 has not worked for 2011. The regression analysis tells us that we need to change the methodology and perspective for the educational development.

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