

**PRIMARY EDUCATION INFRASTRUCTURE,
ENROLMENT AND RETENTION:**

A REGIONAL ANALYSIS

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SUMAN NEGI



**CENTRE OF STUDY FOR REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY
NEW DELHI
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जवाहरलाल नेहरू विश्वविद्यालय
JAWAHARLAL NEHRU UNIVERSITY
Centre for the Study of Regional Development
School of Social Sciences
New Delhi-110067


CERTIFICATE

I, SUMAN NEGI, certify that the dissertation entitled "PRIMARY EDUCATION INFRASTRUCTURE, ENROLMENT AND RETENTION: A Regional Analysis" for the degree of MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY is my bonafide work and may be placed before the examiners for evaluation.


(SUMAN NEGI)

Forwarded by


27.7.05
PROF. M.D.VEMURI
(CHAIRPERSON)


Chairperson
Centre for the Study of Reg. Dev.
School of Social Sciences,
Jawaharlal Nehru University
New Delhi-110 067


27/7/05
PROF. SUDESH NANGIA.
(SUPERVISOR)

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ABBREVIATIONS

AIE	:	Iternative Innovative Education
AIES	:	All India Education Survey.
ASER	:	Age Specific Enrolment Ratio.
DIET	:	District Institutes for Education and Training.
DPEP	:	District Primary education programe.
EGS	:	Education Guarantee Scheme
GER	:	Gross Enrolment Ratio.
ICCCS	:	Integrated Childhood Care and Crèche Services.
KGSU	:	Kasturba Gandhi Swatantrata Vidyalaya
NCERT	:	National Council for Education Research and Training
NER	:	Net Enrolment Ratio.
NIEPA	:	National Institute for Education Planning and Administration.
NPE	:	National Policy on Education.
NPEGEL	:	National Programme for Education of Girls at the Elementary Level
NSSO	:	National Sample Survey Organization.
OB	:	Operation Blackboard.
POA	:	Programme of Action.
PROBE	:	Public Report on Basic Education.
SOC	:	Social Overhead Capital
SSA	:	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan.
UEE	:	Universal Elementary Education.
UPE	:	Universal Primary Enrolment.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Education in the present day context, is perhaps the single most important means for individuals to improve their personal endowment, build up their capacity levels, overcome constraints and in the process, enlarge their available set of opportunities and choices for sustained improvement into a well groomed being. It is not only a means to enhance human capital, productivity and the compensation to labour, but is equally important for facilitating the process of acquisition, assimilation and communication of information and knowledge, all of which augments a persons quality of life. Education is important not merely as a means to other ends, but as an attribute that is valid in itself for most individuals. More importantly, it is a critical invasive instrument for bringing about social, economic and political inclusion and durable integration of people particularly those excluded from the mainstream society.

The process of education and attainment has an impact on all aspects of life. It not only captures the capability of acquiring knowledge, communication, and participation in community life. But also alters an individual and the community's collective perceptions, aspirations, goals as well as the abilities and means to attain them. The level and dissemination of education has not only been an important precondition for sustained economic growth, both in the developed and the developing countries, but has also played a critical facilitating role in the demographic social and political transaction of these societies. Creation, application and adaptation of new technologies: low fertility, infant and child mortality rates, better nutritional, hygiene and health status of children, improved reproductive health and empowerment of women: social mobility and political freedom, all have visible linkages with education attainments of people. It is undoubtedly, a basic component of human development.

There is ample evidence to substantiate the claim, that education reinforces the socio-economic dynamics of a society towards equality in attainment and opportunities for its people. Though, the returns to education may vary across individuals, regions, level and nature of education, in general, they are significantly higher for poor developing areas than for the rich. Education is therefore, the best

social investment, given the synergies and the positive externalities that it generates for people in their well-being. It is also a priority for countries seeking to develop and sustain their level and pace of development. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in its Human Development Report (HDR) 1990, pointed out, and rightly so, that literacy is a person's first step towards learning and knowledge building, hence the literacy indicators are essential for the measurement of human development.

Thus provision of "basic education for all" continues to be a matter of serious concern for all. The National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986 is a landmark in the field of Indian education, which gives a comprehensive framework to guide the development of education. The policy, with its Program of Action (POA, 1992), gave priority to Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE), Adult literacy and Education for Women's Equality. In order to achieve the above mentioned goals, it is essential that all children in the school going age group 6-14 years enroll in schools and leave schools not before the completion of the upper primary level. This should be a continuing process over the years to come so that full adult literacy with upper primary and above level of education is reached by time the present generation is completely replaced.

1.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:

Education is seen as an investment in the future. The World Bank paper (1990) contends, "Primary education being the first level of instruction, is taken as the main foundation of educational development". It further states, "Effective primary education thus is a rock bottom necessary for development." This is because higher education and training needs to rest on a solid foundation, which is essentially the product of the primary system.

The quality and availability of physical facilities plays a distinct role in determining not only the quality of education, but also a quantitative output. Therefore infrastructure relates to the necessary physical conditions or physical framework of facilities through which services are provided to the public (Khader, 1998) for educational growth and development. Hence, a first step towards increasing access to primary schools is to address the issues such as supply of schools, classrooms and teachers. Continuing efforts are essential to provide the required facilities in order to accommodate all children of the primary school age. The

expansion of enrolment in schools in India do not matched with the comparable expansion of educational facilities. Despite the achievements shortages of facilities remain widespread.

Therefore infrastructure may be primarily regarded as supply side factors that can be counted amongst the important indicators of educational development. All supply side indicators relate to inputs into educational production which are hampered by a high proportion of wastage, rejects, defectiveness and failures. Indicators relating to output may therefore be more appropriate to reflect the reach and effectiveness of the deliverance of the education system.

This study is a document survey based on secondary data, where we will try to look into the infrastructural facilities, enrolments and retentions provided in primary schools over a given period of time and study the relationship of how education at the primary level is influenced by the supply side (infrastructure) factors in determining participation at primary school level and continuation to higher levels of schooling.

1.2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE:

This section attempts to review the various studies related into the factors affecting the quality of education, which by definition is a crucially important attribute. In no other sphere of human activity is quality of such a vital significance, as in schooling, especially at the primary level, which acts as the foundation in the procedure of educational development. It plays a crucial role in the changing and building of economies, social structure and political systems. Hence the quantitative output, of these qualitative facilities is reviewed with regard to the physical, social, and political attributes.

The section has been divided into different parts in terms of the various attributes that have been dealt within the study.

- Quality and Quantity of Infrastructure.
- Participation and Performance.
- Input of Resources to Education.
- Disparity and Inequality in Education.

1.2.1 Quality and Quantity of Infrastructure:

The availability of school facilities both physical and manpower could be classified as basic infrastructure. The level of infrastructure that is available at schools plays a distinct role in determining its quality in education. Though, there is no consensus among educationalist as to what constitutes quality in primary education, it is regarded as an umbrella Concept which includes all those aspects of education which makes it efficient and good (Ahmad, Raza and Nuna, 1990). The question that arises is what are the parameters that need to be set for the assessments of quality of primary schools. Many researchers have been focusing on the level of material and human inputs available in schools. Beeby (1971) defines school quality forms the 'dynamic perspective' thereby focusing on the actors and actions involved in the functioning of the school rather than the passive material inputs available in the school.

Infrastructure is generally defined as a physical framework of facilities through which goods and services are provided to the public (Khader,1998). They provide a facilitative set-up, which stimulates the development of an economy. Infrastructure installations do not directly produce goods and services but provide Social Overhead Capital (SOC) for all economic activities. They raise the productivity of other factors, including labour and other capital. For this reason infrastructure is often called as "unpaid factors for production" (Pradhan, 2003).

There are numerous empirical evidences that support the inter-relationship between infrastructure and school performance at international as well as national level. Eraikam,B (1992), in his study on factors affecting the quality of education in primary schools in Tororo, Uganda- (NIEPA), argues "quality is a function of inputs in the teaching and learning process of schools". His study revealed that inadequate study material, low trained teachers and low socio-economic status of parents put together crops for the main reason behind high dropouts and low enrolments. His study also states that family background makes a large contribution to the development of a child, before it becomes a pupil. He says, "if the family is not properly educated, the child may grow with poor attitudes towards education".

J.Mohanty, (2002), in his work on primary and elementary education states that the "school plant" is a comprehensive term meaning building, playground, furniture, equipment, library, laboratory and so on. All these physical facilities that is required for achieving the various objectives of the school constitutes the school

plant. The school plant he asserts not only includes the existing facilities, but also the future requirements to meet the changing demands of education

P.Verwimp,(1999) in his study on measuring the quality of education at primary schools in Ethiopia, dealt with two aspects of which one was the measure of quality of teaching attitudes and teaching behavior of teachers and the second being the quality measure of the institutions. Where his results show that school quality is positively correlated with increased number of enrolments, but also that the quality of teachers is negatively correlated with increased pupil/teacher ratios.

Bhagwati,J (1973) in his work on Education, Class and Income advocates that, in most of the developing countries, primary school enrolments are lower in the rural areas than in the urban areas, because in the rural areas of these countries, there are fewer schools and higher economic demands of the family on the school age children for minding cattle and finding water and firewood and other domestic engagements are more prominent. Besides these children have to walk long distances to a school, which increases the rate of dropouts. Therefore we could say that the provision of more schools may perhaps improve the access of the poorer groups to primary education.

Pal and Pant (1995) In their paper on strategies to improve school enrolment rate, state that “The variation in performance of different states and population groups in education is the result of differential access to education. Access to education according to him is determined by interaction of demand and supply of educational services and the learning process. Supply refers to adequate availability and quality of school facilities. Demand for school education is generated by the decision that parents make, based largely on the opportunity cost of sending children to school. The factors that they said determine access to education the most are, distance from school, quality of schools facilities, direct and indirect private cost in general and appreciation of the value of formal education by parents.

Raza & Ahmad, in their work on school accessibility in India state that, physical accessibility to the institution of learning such as schools and colleges is an important criterion in adjudging their efficiency and availability to the population intended to be served by them, they further argue that accessibility may be considered as one of the crucial factors which have a bearing on the ability of the population to avail the schooling facility.

The PROBE (1999) report, states that physical distance from primary schools persist for a significant minority of families. The most obvious aspect of this problem is the absence of any school in some villages. In addition, adverse terrain is sometimes a major obstacle (especially for small children) even when the school is available in the village. In the Himalayan region according to this report children have to walk long distances uphill at times through forests and streams to reach the village school. For instance a school in Atarvan (Sidhi, M.P) serves several villages. Most habitations are 2-3 kms. away from the school. These hurdles are “no joke” particularly in the winter. If schooling is an inalienable right of all citizens, these outstanding problems of physical distance have to be resolved.

“Without basic inputs learning is seriously hampered” (S.Kajubi), as a result wastage in education due to repeating and dropping out is quite high and even those who complete their cycle perform poorly. He further emphasizes that provision instructional material particularly textbooks is the most cost effective way of improving quality of education. He however noted that the investment should not be put into non- cost effective items such as reducing class size, providing primary teachers with more than a general secondary education and constructing high quality school buildings.

Urwick and Junaidu (1991), in their findings on their work on ‘The effects of physical Facilities on the process of education’ illustrate the existence of multiple links between the quality of school facilities and a number of educational process variables which are widely considered to be important determinants of the quality of schooling. They state the methods of teaching play an active role in participation of children.

Govinda and Varghese note two important points regarding the provision of infrastructural facilities in schools: (1) schools with higher grades attached to them have better facilities relative to schools with only primary sections, (2) the size of the school i.e. student enrolment, is a significant determinant of the status of facilities made available to a school. Some serious implications of these facts are immediately obvious. Primary Schooling, it appears is being systematically neglected in favor of higher levels of schooling and similarly schools in rural areas, which are typically smaller in terms of student enrolment, are being neglected for larger typically urban schools. Ironically, to meet any of the very laudable objectives of the education policy, it is precisely the reverse that needs to be done. It is the primary schools

specially in the rural areas that need an impetus and all the support they can get if universal literacy and education for all is achieved.

On infrastructure in schools, Nidhi Mehrotra (1995) also reports that “almost all schools left much to be desired”. Classes were commonly held in verandas or open spaces (with exception of Kerala), the rooms that existed were often used as office space or for storage purposes; in the districts surveyed in Uttar Pradesh (Allahabad and Pithoragarh) not one school had a classroom for every grade; children sat on worn out mats or strips of sack both brought from home (again Kerala, where benches were provided, was an exception); inside the room lighting was inadequate; only one school in the entire sample taken by her had electricity though all the villages had electricity connection; teaching aides, blackboards, chalk, etc were in short supply; drinking water and toilet facilities were unavailable almost everywhere.

1.2.2 Participation and Performance in Education:

Quantity relates to the utilization of facilities available and in turn reflects the quality of infrastructure. The issue of children dropping out of school before completing their primary schooling cycle has been persistent and much debated problem at the national level (world Bank 1997). Most studies conducted over time have shown a close relationship between the output and infrastructure

Jayachandran,U (.2001), states that the growing global consciousness about the ethical and social implications of child labour and non participation in schooling by children in their formative years has put the limelight back on the issues concerning children and the various forms of deprivation they face. Thus efforts have been made by the governments to remove constraints and attract children to school by providing various types of incentives (P.Duraisamy), specially at the 6-14 age groups that accounts for a high degree of dropouts. Prakash and Chaubey say that this is the age of free and compulsory education, but due to the extremely low wages/ incomes levels of parents, children are needed for augmenting the family incomes, transforming employment into superior and education into inferior good.

Zaidi (1991), says that because of high rates of dropouts the problem of wastage and stagnation occur in the field of education which inversely affects its growth. He associates many reasons with for a large percent of dropouts in the country. The most common he cites is the object of poverty among masses accompanied with inconvenient location and timing of schools.

Govinda (2002), in 'The India Education Report' observes that quality concerns of ashram schools basically meant for tribal children also fall short of many basic requirements. In such residential schools, there is no space available made even for children to sleep and infected with diseases leading to high drop out rate. The presence of single teacher schools or even two schools is of concern because of the extremely poor quality of instruction that results one or two teachers are rarely trained. The malady of single teachers and absenteeism in schools is equally important in point. In such a situation even the visible quality of education in terms of mere physical environment is extremely depressing leading to high dropout of tribal children from school.

K.Chanana: in her paper on gender inequality in primary schooling in India states that, it is a human right for one to receive basic education. According to her emphasis on literacy and primary education is intentional because these are the foundations of the educational system, if education is crucial, if is a right of all human beings, if it is pertinent for development and modernization, then the situation of Indian girls will indicate as to how they are being treated. Denial of access to primary education is not only a denial of access to higher levels of education it is also denial to basic human rights

Sengupta and Guha, (2002), put forth household endowments characterized by parental schooling, income and occupation to have a strong impact on the schooling opportunities and attainments for girls. They further stated that although the schooling level of both the parents had a strong, positive influence, mothers education emerged as a particular significant enabling factor. Therefore policies should be directed in raising enrolment and retention levels amongst girls, for this would be instrumental in raising the school participation levels of future generations of children.

Bhatty, (1998) observes that one cannot deny that poverty is one among many factors that often play roles for low level participation of poor children in school in as much as economic exclusion are as important as the sociological and political. He further suggests that limited access to school due to poverty factor can be alleviated by appropriate intervention most notably by improving the provision of basic education facility that address the quality aspect of schooling. According to him , in a hurried attempt to universalize education for all, major efforts are concentrated on the quality of schools by giving little thought to the impact of quality of schooling on both parents and children.

1.2.3 Input of Resources to Education:

Capital investment in education accounts for the second largest share of education budget. Both individuals and the society invest considerable amount of resource in education as such investments are found yielding attractive economic returns, besides cultural and social benefits. Allocation of Finance plays a dominant role in most of the developmental process of a nation, therefore talking of educational infrastructure, the resources that facilitate it, have a vital role in determining the quality and quantity of its output in many studies. Prakash and Buragohain argue that, “like general investment educational investment depends uniquely upon the spending power of the country, though the policy thrust may overcome and outreach the resource constraints.”

Tilak, has dealt with numerous studies on education with a marked expertise on educational finance where he states that, Independent India witnessed rapid expansion in terms of enrolment of students, number of institutions and teachers -- it was infact an educational explosion in terms of number of students, teachers and schools, therefore constraints on finance in many ways led to the educational explosion. He says the financing of education has not been satisfactory over the years, on balance; the education system is characterised with a severe degree of under investment. In this scenario he states that “formation of fixed capital (physical infrastructure) in this human capital industry takes place at a slow pace”

K.C.Nautiyal, argues that the existing budgetary allocation to education must be raised in the total percent of GNP. The higher the public allocation to primary education and research, the better and brighter would be the prospects of the country to catch up and match with the developing world.

Ramachandran in his paper on ‘Investment gaps in Primary Education’ concludes that the cost of getting every child into school varies across states. “Resources alone cannot transform conditions without appropriate socio-political changes and commitments from governments, teachers and parents. At the same time to make universal primary schooling meaningful, the allocation of finances should be increased in terms of current allocations.”

Schultz’s, in his book on education as an investments states that expenditure on education is regarded as a valuable investment leading to formation of human capital, comparable with physical capital. Investments in education increase the

productivity skills of human beings, and the benefits from these investments in education flow not only for long periods but even across generations.

1.2.4 Disparity and Inequality in Education:

While recognizing the necessity on the education of the disadvantaged to displace negative processes from their lives, a number of empirical studies indicate the particular important role played by education in improving the disadvantaged groups including women. It recognizes that an educated person is more capable to understand and evoke his or her own legal rights. By lacking education conversely, the deprived may not be able to access to public support that is available to them. Furthermore persons who are able to access information and formulated positions may join together to achieve collective goals and participate in political change. In contrast, illiteracy can muffle the political voice of the underdog. In this way education that is for all, regardless of caste, class and gender has a further impact in addressing the social and economic barriers within a society. The approach recognizes that education is intrinsically valuable as an end in itself.

Enactment of the Constitution of India, 1950 places the Scheduled Castes on an equal footing with rest of the population. They are given special consideration by the constitution through the provision of protective discrimination and other ameliorative measures. Despite these measures, majority schedule caste population continues to be the depressed. In this case the system appears to be responsible for the marginal position held by schedule castes and other weaker sections.

Gunnar Myrdal, 1967, in his book 'The Asian Drama': An inquiry into the poverty of nations has critically looked at the nation nature of state apparatus and it's functioning in South Asian countries including India. He observes that in post independent India, the political democratization has further strengthened the interest and the policy of the ruling elite, resulting into the weakening of state capacity in enforcing the rule of law, which he terms as soft state policy. As a result, there is increasing rate of violence, crime, corruption in public life etc. this reinforces the centrality of power by the privileged class and protects its own interest at the neglect of millions of the deprived section.

Loh, Jakie and Dreze in their paper literacy in India and China state that the disproportionately low level participation of school going age children such as from the Schedule Caste and Schedule Tribe and from similar social backgrounds did not

have the opportunity to go to school. School attendance rate among children in the age group of 5-14 for Schedule Caste and Schedule Tribe rural male was 643 and 579 as against 749 for general population. Among females the rate was 462 for Schedule Caste, 409 for Schedule Tribe and 610 for others. Correspondingly, there is large number of adults who were found illiterate among these social groups (NSSO, Report 1993). Among the Schedule Caste and Schedule Tribe population, the position of women is at the bottom of the heap. As given in the National Human Development Report, 2001, that less than one fourth of the Schedule Caste and Schedule Tribe women in every five among Schedule Tribe population were literate. Within the same social group, gender discrimination thus represents another crucial of massive educational deprivations.

Salam (2004) in her book on 'Education and Social Exclusion' says that equal access to education is one of the most important booms that can be provided in any democratic society, in accordance to her it remains clear that access to education are radically unequal. She further points out that considering these huge gaps between the literate and illiterate population, the consequence is the sharpest and the strongest rift between the culture of the dominant and the dominated. As she argues that in this overall process it is the dominant who benefit from such massive inequality and in return capable of imposing their superior culture to the others.

PROBE (1999) brings out that ones choices and enabling capacity for the selection of a particular type of institution are also conditions by virtues of one's own socio cultural and economic background. For instance larger percentage of schedule caste children enroll in government schools while private schools operate for the children belonging to the elite. This is despite the promise of NPE, 1968, 1986, POA 1982, wherein the national system of education that lays the greatest emphasis on elimination of disparities in the education system and improvement in the quality of publicly funded schools. Differential in facilities was noticed even in government schools of rural and urban areas. For example in Madhya Pradesh, the proportion of schools with pucca buildings varies from 88 percent in indoor districts to 2 percent in Bastar a tribal region. Srinivas 1996 in his book '12th Century Avataar' argues that education is an inalienable part of the state apparatus, state remains a continuous arena in which different groups seek to make their version of education and its role in society. Caste, Class and gender consideration are also built up into the structure of practices of the state and provide ample content for conflict inside and outside of

education. In this process education according to him becomes a site in which conflicts over differential power relations of contending social groups (by pushing the marginal group at the background) concerning the means and ends of schooling are in play .

Salem also observes that education for girls has been generally neglected. The neglect according to her begins at home, through gender role identification and socialization that often undermines a girl and her personhood. This is reinforced by the society at large including school and school process, which is further compounded by the practice of various social ills. Sen and Dreze, (1998) observe that among girls , girls from economically and educationally backward communities have distinct disadvantage position. Which they feel is severe among the Schedule Caste community because besides being a girl, she also shares the social disability of her community in the form of untouchability, which is reflected in their dismal literacy performance, as observed that female literacy rate in Palanpur village of Murabad district varies from 0 percent among the Jatavas to 100 percent among the Kayastha.

Poverty and uneducated family background of these social groups are undoubtedly some of the factors for dismal literacy performance. Yet, the heavy social disabilities suffered by them by virtue of their being a Dalit in the Hindu caste order, continue to be the most hardened constraining factors for their education. These related factors crucially affect the overall literacy figures. For example the quoting the NSSO round, in 1999-2000, the percentage of female literates in rural Bihar and Rajasthan varies from 27 percent to 86 and 90 percent of Kerala and Mizoram, whereas the male literacy was 55 and 65 percent for Bihar and Rajasthan respectively.

Hindustan Times (7th July, 2002) put forth that the concern in the present situation of schooling characterized by the powerful global wave of privatization that takes away disproportionate large amount from the limited public budget. This further contributes to the pauperization of government schools and the misallocation of public resources that is likely to have adverse effect on the education of the weaker sections including girls. For instance, if crossing the caste or religious barrier, rural vs. urban etc. are not enough; school admissions now have a digital divide as practiced by few elite private schools. Though the criterion does not specify mention the category of social class, it clearly indicates that the policy is a discrimination against the economically weaker groups most of who belong to Schedule Caste and

Schedule Tribe. Differential access to school accentuates inequalities in economic and social opportunities, thereby providing the ground of a fractured society.

The overview of the above mentioned literature is quite helpful in throwing light on the study area and the problems of educational development in India. With this knowledge in mind the framework of the present study is prepared which goes a long way in finding the root causes of the problems and finding solutions for it.

1.3 NEED FOR THE PRESENT STUDY:

The present study conducted at the national level, tries to examine the inter-relationship between infrastructure facilities available at primary school level and the level of their influence on the number of students who participate. It tries to examine to what level do these facilitate influence ones entry and continuation to schools or leave before completing it. It is an attempt to analyze the changes in facilities that have taken place in the past and are taking place in the present in relation to the growth of population which bears the impact, in terms of quality and quantity of the population to be educated.

There is a need for a comparative study between different regions developed as well as backward to see whether infrastructure facilities promote enrolments of all and more so retain themselves in schools. Disparities, inequalities, dropouts and stagnations are the major problems, the study tries to see the relationship of these to availability of facilities in different states, in a given time frame, i.e. is between the Fourth All India Education Survey (1978) and Seventh All India Education Survey (2002).

1.4 OBJECTIVES:

The study will be conducted keeping the following objectives in mind.

- To analyze the availability and types of infrastructure facilities at primary school.
- To examine the impact of infrastructure on the performance level of education at primary school level.
- To analyze the disparity and growth in the facilities at rural and urban sectors
- To examine the disparity and growth in the performance, between males and females and the marginalized classes.

- To study the impact of finance as a facilitator to infrastructure.
- Study the various programs and policies initiated by the government for the Primary Education sector and its role in building up the infrastructure.

1.5 METHODOLOGY:

The empirical study will be based on data analysis with the help of various statistical methods and cartographic techniques.

- *Enrolment Ratio's*

1) *Age Specific Enrolment Ratio:*

$$= \frac{\text{Total Number of Children going to School in 6 to 11 yrs. Age group}}{\text{Total Child Population In 6 to 11 yrs. Age group.}} \times 100$$

2) *Gross Enrolment Ratio:*

$$= \frac{\text{Total Enrolments in Primary Level}}{\text{Total Child Population In 6 to 11 yrs. Age group.}} \times 100$$

3) *Net Enrolment Ratio:*

$$= \frac{\text{Total Enrolments in Primary Level of 6 to 11 yrs. Age group}}{\text{Total Child Population In 6 to 11 yrs. Age group}} \times 100$$

Sopher's Index for measuring gender disparity. (Modified by Kundu.)

$$\text{Log}(x_2/x_1) + \text{Log}((200-x_1)/(200-x_2))$$

Where $x_2 > x_1$

The value of index should always vary between (+1) to (-1) and in ideal case it should be zero. If it is -ve then there is no disparity against x_2 . [x_2 , in the study is

an indicator for Boys as they show a higher value, and x1 is an indicator for girls]. The modified version by Kundu has been used from the original Sopher's Index, where the value 100 was used instead of 200, because some of the values calculated for the different variables are over 100 %.

- Coefficient of variation is calculated to show Regional Variation across states.
 $C.V. = SD / \text{Mean} * 100$
- Composite Index: Composite Indices will be calculated by ranking the states and summing up their ranks following the norm of that the best performing state had the highest rank and the highest composite score, for measuring the availability of physical and instructional amenities in schools across states.
- Correlation analysis between the variables of educational infrastructure and total enrolments and retention.
- Growth Rates in number of schools, number of teachers, enrollments, finance allocations etc.

1.6 HYPOTHESES:

By considering the Educational Infrastructure of India the following hypothetical framework is constructed: -

- Areas with high levels of urbanization will have better infrastructure facilities.
- Schools with better facilities will show higher retentions.
- Dropout rates will be higher where the teacher pupil ratio is high.

1.7 DATABASE:

The study is based on secondary data taken from various government publications.

- All India Education Survey: NCERT and NIC. 4th(1978), 5th(1986), 6th(1993), and 7th (2002 not published).
- Selected educational statistics: Dept. of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development. New Delhi. (Various Years)

- Education in India, School Education (Financial Data, Numerical Data): Dept. of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development. New Delhi. (Various Years)
- Analysis of budgeted expenditure on Education: Dept. of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development. New Delhi. (Various Years)
- Census of India: Government of India, New Delhi.(1971, 1981, 1991 & 2001).

Taking the above stated parameters an attempt will be made in the study to look into where the loopholes lie, in the educational system of our country that is the largest in the world and also to answer some of the below stated questions:

- Do educational inputs have a significant effect in enrolment?
- Why are not all children in school?
- Why is the access to education for a girl child more difficult?
- Who is accountable – Social, Political or the Economic climate?

1.8 ORGANIZATION OF MATERIAL:

The present study entails the use of various aspects related to the topic, which has been organized in a suitable manner. The first chapter deals with the introduction, statement of the problem, objectives, database and methods of the study. Literature review has also been done to get some information related to the topic and also to make a framework for analysis.

Infrastructure plays a central role at any level of an education system. The second chapter thus deals with the physical and instructional infrastructure available at primary schools. Where it covers the availability of primary schools and school related facilities such as access to schools, nature of school buildings, amenities such as drinking water, playground, urinals, and libraries etc. along with number of teachers and particularly female teachers and teacher pupil ratio. Have been dealt with in this chapter.

The third chapter deals with the regional disparity in participation of children at primary schools. It looks into the enrolments and retentions within the gender and caste parameters in both urban and rural areas. It studies the levels of disparity on

lines of gender and also deals with the participation of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes within the Indian states.

The fourth chapter deals with the financial allocation of the Budgeted expenditure and States Domestic Production to the education sector, and primarily the elementary and primary share. It tries to analyze the changes of resource allocation to education sector over time.

The fifth chapter tries to determine the role of, infrastructural facilities available in schools with the participation level of students of the primary school age. There has been an attempt to formulate an analysis, determining the interrelationship between the variables of infrastructure and participation. The study ends with the summary and conclusion in the form of chapter six.

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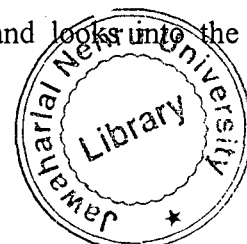
CHAPTER II

INFRASTRUCTURE AT PRIMARY SCHOOLS

2.1 Introduction:

Infrastructure forms the backbone of the education network. It acts as an attracting force for children especially in the formative years of schooling and to a great extent determines their participation levels. This chapter analyses the available infrastructural facilities at primary schools in the Indian states and looks into the disparity levels across regions.

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2.2 Primary Education in India:

Free and compulsory education for all children up to the age fourteen is the constitutional commitment in India. The stepping-stone towards achievement of Universal Elementary Education is establishing school facilities within easy access to every child. Keeping in view the educational facilities available at the time of independence, in the country, the goal of universal enrolment was far too ambitious to achieve within a short span of ten years. Since then the country has made significant progress in all spheres of primary education but the goal is still a distant dream and far out of the sight.

The Indian education system is perhaps the world's second largest education system after China, with 108 million children of different socio-economic ground aged 6-10 attending primary school. However, more than 25 million primary school-age children are not in school. Two out of every five first grade students do not complete the primary cycles of 4 to 5 years (depending on the state), and the learning achievement of those graduating is low. Children from poorer families are at a greater disadvantage. The dropout rate for the poor households is about four times that of the richest ones. There are large gaps in access to education; quality of education; and learning according to gender, social class, and location.

Till 1960, the emphasis was on quantitative expansion of educational facilities, which later diverted to enrolment and retention. It is the quality of education that is at present in the focus in all the programmes relating to elementary education in general and primary education in particular, but the impact of most of these initiatives is being diluted by population growth of our country. The intensified austerity of recent years

has presented educational authorities in developing countries with increasingly difficult choices in the use of scarce resources. Dilemmas, which twenty years ago might have seemed malicious inventions, such as whether to invest in more durable classrooms or in qualified teachers where both are disparately needed, are today very real.

2.3 Quality of Education:

Quality of education is thus visualized in terms of its product or output-that is the learners achievement both in scholastic and co-scholastic areas i.e. the performance in various subjects of study, habits, attitudes, values and life skills necessary for becoming a good citizen (The present study does not address the issues of learner's achievement). This is closely associated with the condition of learning and teaching environment. However the quality of education, though difficult to capture is of interest because of what it can do for people. The difference between poor and quality education matters in terms of what, how and how much children learn. This remains a burning issue in the country particularly while addressing the school status where majority of children from weaker and all those from the other poorer backgrounds are sent. In essence, quality of education is an important potential instrument to help achieve greater quality between those who start life with different sets of economic and social advantages.

Maintaining standards and showing a marked improvement in the quality of education is the major concern of most of the institutions. However, indicators of performance are mainly a guide to the efficiency of the process. They provide only rudimentary measures of the quality of learning in meeting the needs of its students. But now is the time when we should look into the infrastructural aspects of quality which has been dealt with in the chapter, more in terms of its availability and its scope of growth in a country like ours where the availability does not seem to be in pace with the growth of population specially at the primary level, and more so in the rural sector. This stage of education requires special attention to bring improvement in the quality of higher education, if schools are to progress and a country is to develop.

Therefore keeping the above discussion in view, the section is a document survey based on the All India Education survey and tries to look into the availability of physical and instructional facilities in the different states of our country.

2.3.1 Availability of Primary Schools

Weaknesses in the educational system, especially of its reach, that were seen at the time of independence could be attributed to the lack of support given to it by the colonial government. In the constitution of the republic the state had taken upon itself the responsibility of providing free and compulsory education to all children in the age group 6-14 years. Although, in the past fifty-five years there has been an unprecedented expansion of education, specially at the primary level, yet the attainment of this constitutional commitment has remained elusive. Therefore availability of schools plays the key role in attaining set national goals of achieving education for all. But the situation in a country is like that of a runner whose goal line is receding at a speed greater than his own

Primary School Education has indeed expanded dramatically over the years. The Seventh All India Educational Survey, states that there were 6,51,390, primary schools in India, which has almost increased three times since independence. When we look at the daunting size of this country and its population, this is no mean achievement. It needs to be firmly kept in mind as an indication of the successes possible through the commitment of successive governments to providing elementary education to the children of India.

The management of these schools is a vast and varied patchwork of agencies, both government and non-government. In India the Center is responsible for providing general direction in terms of educational policy and curriculum, education is predominantly a state subject, and the running of this vast school network is the responsibility of individual state governments. This is done in two ways: either by directly running schools, or by supporting privately-run schools through grants. A very small number of schools in each state are completely independent of government funding, and only these can really be called private schools.

Broadly, the vast majority of the population, both rural and urban, sends its children to government-run schools, as these are free, i.e. they do not charge fees. However, given that the quality of education in these schools is usually quite poor, the fast-increasing middle class prefers to send its children to the government-aided privately-run schools. The third category, the private schools, caters to the elite upper-class population. Therefore if one were to identify the single most important achievement in the field of education by the government in the post-Independence

era, it would have to be putting a school within reach of almost every child. Which is yet a far goal to be achieved.

2.3.2 Distribution of Primary Schools:

There has been a considerable increase in the spread of educational institutions during the period 1950-51 to 2001-2002. The Selected Educational Statistics states that, the number of Primary Schools has increased by 3 times. There were 209671 primary schools in 1950, which constituted nearly 90 % of the total schools in India. According to the Seventh Educational Survey this percentage share of primary schools had overall declined to 64.46 %, though the numbers had increased, this is mainly because there have been high levels of growth in the schools at upper primary, secondary and higher secondary level.

Table 2.1

Number of recognized Educational Institutions from 1950-51 to 2001-02.

Years	1950-51	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02*	2002-03*
Primary Schools	209671	330399	408378	454270	560935	619222	626737	641695	638738	644041	651390

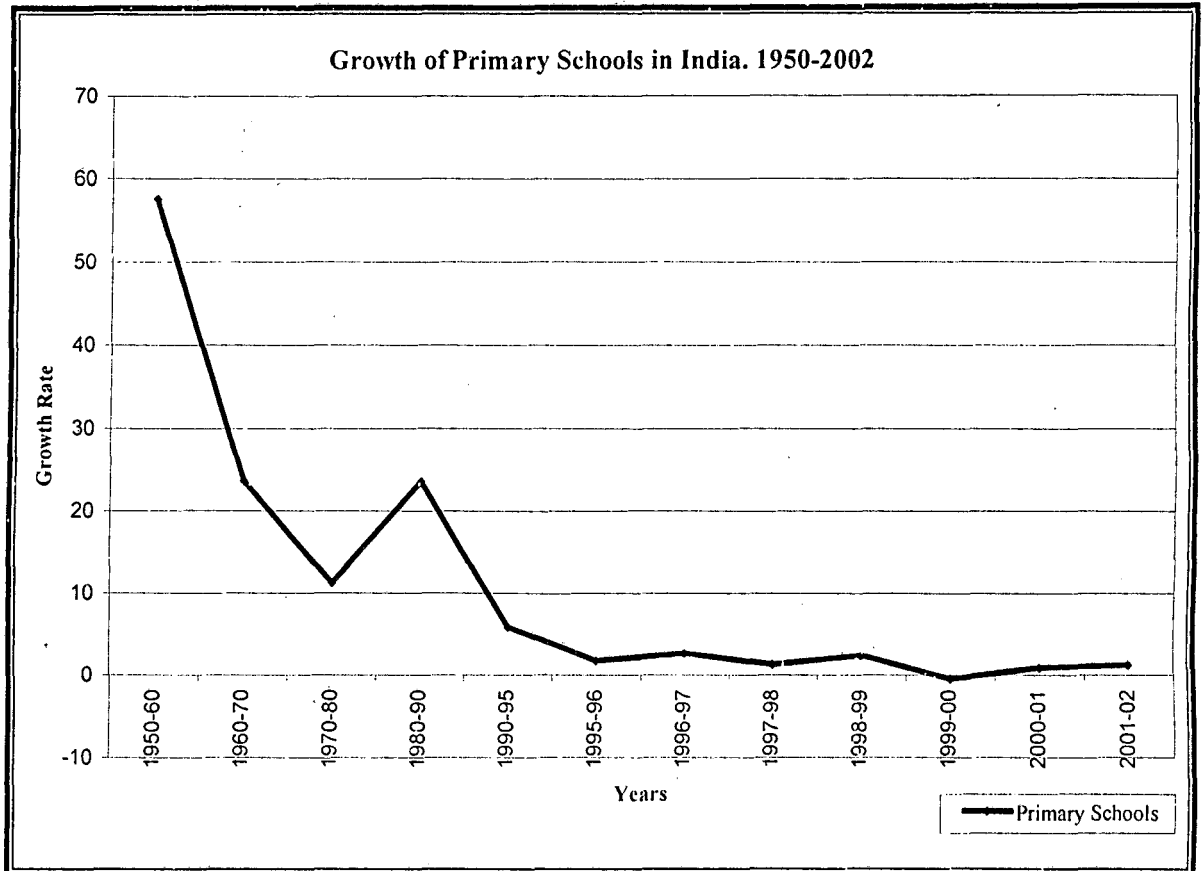
Source: *Selected Education Statistics*, 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

* Provisional.

Fig.2.1 shows the trend in the growth in the total number of primary schools across India. There was a growth rate of nearly 60 % in the first decade post independence. After which the rate has declined, to 24 % between 1980-90. This could be mainly attributed to the National Policy on Education, 1986. The post 1990 period the rate shows a declining trend but the growth is steady though low.

The distribution of available primary schools in India has been analyzed below in terms of the population of the concerned state between the periods 1978 – 2002. The states have been divided into high, medium, low and very low populated states.

Fig.2.1



Source: *Selected Education Statistics, 2002*. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

High population:

A Primary School is the basic foundation in the schooling structure. Therefore, the efforts should be to make available at least one such school with the basic facilities, even in the remotest of the rural areas so that no child is deprived of his basic right to education. Looking into the distribution within the high-populated states West Bengal shows the highest percent of primary schools available at 84.75 % in 1978 (Table 2.2) and it maintained its rank even in the latest survey at 83.74 % in 2002. Maharashtra in this category of states had the lowest percent of primary schools of 60.28 % in 1978 and 49.05 % in 2002 .(Table2.3)

Taking into account the regional variation in terms of rural and urban areas the urban areas had lower number of primary schools with the states of Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Assam and Rajasthan falling in the lower category states in the total share of urban primary schools. Whereas on the other hand the rural areas that had higher number of primary schools were in the states of West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh.

Table.2.2

Percentage of Primary Schools to Total Schools in India

States & U.T's	4th Survey (1978)			5th Survey (1986)		
<i>High</i>	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Uttar Pradesh	82.22	64.49	80.11	79.00	54.46	77.42
Maharashtra	63.11	45.68	60.28	63.44	43.43	59.87
Bihar	80.62	51.09	78.82	78.51	41.74	75.56
West Bengal	86.54	75.93	84.75	86.89	74.65	84.67
Andhra Pradesh	85.77	57.87	82.77	83.52	49.57	79.40
Tamil Nadu	80.42	60.10	75.81	79.02	51.91	74.47
Madhya Pradesh	85.29	59.34	82.76	83.29	58.36	79.91
Rajasthan	76.77	58.91	74.33	73.97	53.38	71.01
<i>Medium</i>						
Karnataka	65.94	32.91	60.98	60.03	15.97	52.30
Gujarat	44.17	27.94	41.55	41.57	21.57	38.00
Orissa	79.42	66.12	78.70	74.26	63.68	73.63
Kerala	53.91	44.79	52.80	51.13	44.91	50.42
Assam	81.10	59.31	79.87	78.39	63.89	77.33
Punjab	81.02	60.67	78.93	78.82	56.38	76.36
Haryana	75.71	50.78	72.89	62.81	41.02	59.95
Delhi	72.46	60.00	62.26	69.68	56.85	58.80
Jammu & Kashmir	73.68	47.70	70.87	76.04	44.57	72.38
<i>Low</i>						
Himachal Pradesh	74.59	41.38	73.47	79.12	52.82	78.06
Tripura	80.18	49.18	78.30	72.27	41.43	70.69
Meghalaya	88.93	41.28	86.94	81.68	43.33	79.45
Manipur	86.32	65.42	84.80	80.22	62.28	77.31
Nagaland	71.13	36.51	69.56	76.66	50.00	74.56
Goa	74.58	52.55	71.34	71.90	49.43	69.15
Arunachal Pradesh	84.66	63.16	84.19	79.18	52.63	78.35
<i>Very Low</i>						
Pondicherry	70.37	52.99	64.97	71.71	54.50	64.45
Chandigarh	52.38	31.11	35.14	45.00	25.36	27.85
Mizoram	60.37	50.00	58.97	62.92	56.88	61.73
Sikkim	84.84	38.10	82.14	71.91	22.22	71.23
A.N. Islands	79.59	21.05	74.42	70.20	22.73	66.29
D.&N Haveli	83.23		83.23	76.58	33.33	74.25
Daman & Diu				53.33	40.00	49.23
Lakshadweep	56.67		56.67	59.09	45.45	54.55
India	77.50	21.05	75.32	69.68	56.85	75.98
C.V	15.29	25.60	17.94	16.01	29.60	21.79

Source: All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi. Forth Survey: * Includes Daman and Diu

Medium Population:

In the medium populated states Assam (79.87 %, 1978 and 71.10 % 2002) and Punjab (78.93 %, 1978 and 67.16 % in 2002), showed a higher percent of total primary schools during the time period of the study, and had a higher value in respect to the national average. Whereas the states of Gujarat showed the lowest number of primary schools in comparison to the total schools in the state at 38.00 % in 1978 with a phenomenal decline to 16.11 % in 2002 (Table 2.3), the main reason for a decline in the primary schools in Gujarat can be mainly because there has been a very high growth rate in the upper primary schools and secondary schools in Gujarat over the years. Where in accordance to the latest survey the upper primary schools in Gujarat has increased by nearly 65 %, whereas the decline in primary schools has been by 45%.

In the rural areas of this category of states, Gujarat (44.17 %, 1978 and 16.89 % 2002) showed the lowest number of primary schools followed by Kerala. Whereas Assam (63.89 %, 1978 and 55.21 %, 2002) and Orissa (73.63 %, 1978 and 66.67 %, 2002) showed higher number of primary schools. A similar pattern was followed in the urban states also, therefore the states with higher percent of total schools showed a lower percent of primary schools, meaning thereby that states which had a better connectivity of upper primary and secondary schools with the primary schools showed a lower percent of primary schools, and an overall better setup of the school education system in their states.

Low and Very Low Population:

Amongst the low populated States and UT's Meghalaya (77.57 %, 1978 and 77.57%, 2002) and Sikkim (82.14 %, 1978 and 66.18 %, 2002) were amongst the States that had a higher percent of primary schools, which were also above the national average. Whereas, Chandigarh (35.14 %, 1978 and 16.15 %, 2002) and Lakshadweep (56.67%, 1978 and 11.11 %, 2002), had a very low percent of primary schools in comparison to the total schools in the state. In the rural areas of these states, Meghalaya (88.93 %, 1978 and

Table2.3
Percentage of Primary Schools to Total Schools in India

States & U.T's	6th Survey (1993)			7th Survey (2002)		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
<i>High</i>	79.22	65.64	76.93	77.02	59.59	73.75
Uttar Pradesh	59.24	37.96	55.20	52.74	35.42	49.05
Maharashtra	76.74	48.42	74.33	77.35	52.09	75.47
Bihar	86.88	75.67	84.78	86.13	73.13	83.74
West Bengal	81.61	50.57	77.06	71.47	45.65	66.98
Andhra Pradesh	77.56	48.75	72.62	76.00	51.47	69.05
Tamil Nadu	81.34	54.02	76.91	65.92	37.88	60.28
Madhya Pradesh	73.16	18.09	63.77	56.02	29.01	50.96
Rajasthan	53.61	19.94	47.22	50.03	22.37	44.19
<i>Medium</i>						
Karnataka	39.92	19.91	35.93	16.89	13.47	16.11
Gujarat	70.22	59.20	69.47	67.52	55.39	66.67
Orissa	50.24	44.23	48.90	54.23	47.93	52.73
Kerala				78.73	41.45	75.18
Jharkhand	74.54	55.96	73.43	72.13	55.21	71.10
Assam	77.82	54.15	74.90	69.85	49.47	67.16
Punjab	59.63	34.00	55.41	61.60	35.27	56.72
Haryana				75.46	45.68	72.55
Chhattisgarh	61.66	51.73	53.05	58.12	47.12	48.08
Delhi	72.66	45.56	69.58	68.47	35.00	64.12
Jammu & Kashmir				74.10	60.44	72.41
<i>Low</i>						
Uttaranchal	77.74	51.65	76.48	74.42	40.06	72.95
Himachal Pradesh	70.14	41.63	68.12	68.24	28.02	65.58
Tripura	79.09	47.12	76.80	80.42	50.90	77.57
Meghalaya	74.51	57.72	71.49	67.69	48.03	63.83
Manipur	72.72	25.29	68.13	70.27	31.84	66.47
Nagaland	71.70	53.08	66.97	73.11	56.92	67.69
Goa	74.48	50.00	73.32	73.09	42.77	70.33
Arunachal Pradesh	66.07	49.67	57.56	54.31	43.57	48.70
<i>Very Low</i>						
Pondicherry	46.67	18.42	23.08	26.67	13.74	16.15
Chandigarh	54.30	48.03	52.27	55.63	39.30	50.38
Mizoram	71.98		71.68	66.18		65.05
Sikkim	65.82	24.14	61.84	62.34	25.00	58.15
A & N Island	71.10	22.22	68.68	57.21	14.29	53.39
D & N Haveli	44.64	16.67	34.88	52.38	45.95	50.00
Daman & Diu	36.84	31.25	34.29	12.50	8.33	11.11
Lakshadweep		49.83	69.36	67.15	44.01	63.16
India	67.31	42.60	62.97	62.98	40.64	59.25
C.V	19.24	38.57	24.25	26.27	37.45	29.07

Source: All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi.

80.42 %, 2002) and Sikkim (84.84 %, 1978 and 66.18 %, 2002) had higher percent of primary schools. Looking into the urban areas of the low populated states, Andaman and Nicobar Islands (21.05%, 1978 (Table 2.2) and 25%, 2002) and Chandigarh (31.11 %, 1978 and 13.74 %, 2002), had lower percent of their schools as primary, in comparison to the higher levels of schools, which had a higher proportion.

Thus from the above mentioned analysis we can state that it was the educationally backward states except Himachal that had a higher proportion of only primary schools. Whereas the educationally developed states showed a lower proportion, indicating that primary schools in these developed states were attached with an upper primary or secondary level. The Coefficient of variation also shows an increasing trend over the years, implying that the regional variation was growing with time. The rate of growth in primary schools was higher in the states, which already had a higher proportion of schools in relation to the ones that did not. Therefore to reduce this regional gap efforts should be made to increase the number of schools in the less developed states, as it is these backward states that contributes to a higher regional disparity.

2.3.3 Access to Primary schools:

Physical accessibility may be considered as one of the crucial factors, which have a bearing on the ability of the population to avail the schooling facility. If the schools are so located that they are not within negotiable walking distance from the place of habitation, they cannot effectively serve the population meant for.

Accessibility is a significant parameter in any activity, which involves movement in space. It implies the relative ease or difficulty, in negotiating the distance between the two given points within which movement is likely to take place. Places that are inaccessible, or relatively inaccessible remain generally isolated from the thrust of movement, which takes place normally between accessible areas and brings about a sequence of changes in the realm of ideas through the flow of goods and people. Accessibility, therefore, determines the pace of change over time and is an instrument of differentiation between segments of space cauterized by varying degrees of geographical isolation or otherwise.

Accessibility to the school, is likewise an important criterion in adjudging their efficiency and availability to the population intended to be served by them. The attribute of accessibility flows directly from the decision to locate a school according

to the residential location of the population to be served. The decision to receive formal education, which is imparted in schools on a collective basis, implies daily movement of student population between the centers of residence and the school. Such, movement may be unimportant in the urban areas where alternative modes of transport are available and schools are located within the settlement. However, the location of schools in the rural areas has a crucial bearing on their usability by the population intended to be served. There is an outer limit beyond which it is not physically feasible for the children of different age groups to travel. The optimal negotiable distance is therefore, dependent on the age of the child, terrain type and the climatic conditions of the locality.

Considering the vastness of India and the variations in the physiographic conditions at regional level, the meaning of accessibility is bound to acquire different nuances of meaning in different regions of the country. One prerequisite for access to schooling is that the schools should be made available within a convenient walking distance from the home of every child, therefore according to the official norm, primary schools are to be served for all children within 1 km from the home of every child.

The schools located within 1 km of the habitation served a higher number of the population, in all areas implying that primary school children had to travel this distance. In accordance to the All India Education Survey, the data shows us that there have been fluctuations in the in the total percent of population served with primary Schools within their habitation and within 1 km. of their habitation. 78.53 % of the population in 1978 was served with primary schools within the habitation, which declined to 77.81 % in 1993, which could mainly be attributed to the overall increase in the population which did not keep pace with the increase in the number of primary schools. Though, there was an increase in the population served with primary schools within a distance of 1 km from 92.92 % in 1978 to 93.76 % in 1993, it has a negative impact, as the distance between the school and the home of children increased.(Table.2.4)

High Population:

Within the higher populous states (Table2.4) Andhra Pradesh served the largest number of its population with primary schools within the habitation area, which accounted for 91.84 % in 1978, 92.72 %in 1986 and 92.95 % in 1993. Whereas

Uttar Pradesh showed a low number of primary schools within its habitation covering only 52.97 % in 1978, which further increased to 60.50 % in 1993. Followed by Bihar at 77.98 % in 1978 which declined to 77.19 % in 1993, implying that, the growth in the total number of schools have not kept pace with the population growth in Bihar. Madhya Pradesh followed Bihar in terms of the total population being served with schools within their habitation with, 77.14 % in 1978, but has a phenomenal increase to 84.67 % in 1993. But the highest percent decline has been in West Bengal from 85.07 % of the population being served with schools within their habitation in 1978 to only 61.22 % in 1993.

The percentage of population served with schools within 1 km. distance of their habitation was much higher, in comparison to within habitation schools. With the highest being in the state of Maharashtra which served 96.28 % population in 1978, with a decline to 95.82 % in 1993, and with a net increase in the schools within habitation areas. This could be an outcome of positive implementation of meeting the required number of primary schools with higher population of the school going age. Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh are amongst the other states which served a low percent of the population with primary schools within 1 km. distance.

Medium Population:

In this category of population distribution within the states (Table 2.4), Punjab served the highest percent of its population with 97.34 % of the schools within its habitation in 1978, declining to 96.80 % in 1986 and 90.83 % in 1993. Gujarat (94.96 % in 1978 and 97.12 % in 1993), Haryana (94.07 % in 1978 and 94.47 % in 1993) and Karnataka (89.17 % in 1986 and 91.10 % in 1993), were states that served a higher population with schools, and also showed an increase in the total percent of schools within the habitation. Himachal Pradesh had the lowest percent of schools within the habitation serving the population at only 38.01 % in 1978, which increased to 45.07 % in 1993. This could be mainly because of Himachal having a mountainous terrain with sparsely populated habitations.

In the category of population being served with schools within 1 km. of the habitation Punjab had the highest percent at 99.79 % in 1978 and 99.32 % in 1993. Haryana (98.58 %, 1978 and 98.47 % 1993), Delhi (99.75 %, 1978 and 81.75 % in 1993) and Gujarat (94.14 % in 1978 and 98.78 % in 1993), were among states that

Table.2.4
Statewise Percentage of Rural Population served within Habitation and within 1Kilometre for Primary Stage

STATES & UT'S	4th Survey (1978)		5th Survey (1986)		6th Survey (1993)	
	Within Hab.	Within 1km.	Within Hab.	Within 1km.	Within Hab.	Within 1km.
<i>High</i>						
Uttar Pradesh	52.97	85.84	55.69	88.57	60.5	88.6
Maharashtra	90.1	96.97	92.42	97.95	90.65	95.82
Bihar	77.98	95.54	78.53	95.86	77.19	95.51
West Bengal	85.07	96.28	79.71	97.38	61.22	93.07
Andhra Pradesh	91.84	96.06	92.72	97.3	92.45	97.62
Tamil Nadu	81.74	94.63	83.92	96.02	77.16	99.53
Madhya Pradesh	77.14	90.17	81.51	92.92	84.67	93.55
Rajasthan	82.08	88.5	86.84	92.9	85.39	92.55
<i>Medium</i>						
Karnataka	89.17	95.59	92.5	97.24	91.1	96.58
Gujarat	94.96	98.14	97.83	99.45	97.12	98.78
Orissa	76.58	93.95	77.08	92.83	76.1	93.74
Kerala	83.35	90.64	87.67	94.39	76.67	89.68
Assam	81.34	94.2	81.74	93.57	66.27	88.61
Punjab	97.34	99.72	96.8	99.59	90.83	99.32
Haryana	94.07	98.58	96.68	99.37	94.47	98.47
Delhi	85.29	99.75	98.06	100	81.93	81.75
Himachal Pradesh	38.01	71.54	46.51	76.4	45.07	75.97
Jammu & Kashmir	74.66	89.94	78.23	90.7	82.68	92.37
<i>Low</i>						
Tripura	54.42	80.29	57.04	84.12	55.43	85
Meghalaya	76.12	88.56	80.87	89.22	74.05	87.97
Manipur	92.82	88.06	89.97	97.39	82.26	94.12
Nagaland	98.35	99.49	98.85	99.45	92.36	95.05
Goa	56.82	88.97	57.72	90.6	91.77	97.01
Arunachal Pradesh	55.9	60.69	65.85	73.35	70.12	77.87
<i>Very Low</i>						
Pondicherry	87.72	87.72	88.54	99.02	74.75	97.68
Chandigarh	89.42	100	96.92	99.67	89.96	96.07
Mizoram	74.54	74.63	98.05	98.28	94.3	95.77
Sikkim	42.35	64.34	72.13	83.11	65.59	83.44
A & N Nicobar	70.49	81.86	68.41	83.02	70.45	96.07
D & N Haveli	45.43	86.99	50.74	85.19	40.05	86.83
Daman & Diu			77.13	94.78	72.25	99.22
India	78.53	92.82	80.34	94.6	77.81	93.76
C.V	22.34	11.47	18.80	7.59	18.82	6.86

Source: All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi. Forth Survey: Includes Daman and Diu*

performed better in terms of accessibility. Himachal Pradesh fell as the state, which served the lowest percent of the population with schools within 1 km. of its habitation at 71.54 % in 1978, 76.40 % in 1986 and 75.97 % in 1993.

Low and Very Low Population:

Within the lower populated states and UT's, we observe that there is comparatively a lower percent of schools, serving the populations within habitations and also within 1 km. of the habitation. Most of the states in this group of population fall below the national average, where physical terrain and rural dominance could be one of the main reasons. Nagaland served the highest percent of population within its habitation at 98.35 % in 1978, 99.45 % in 1986 and 92.36 % in 1993. Chandigarh, Pondicherry and Manipur were among areas that served a higher percent of population with primary schools with the habitation. Nagaland, Goa, Chandigarh and Pondicherry were among states that served a higher percent of its population with primary schools within the distance of 1 km its habitation.

The regional disparity over the years in accessibility to schools has shown a considerable decline. The coefficient of variation calculated for all the states shows that the decline has been higher with the schools falling within 1 km. of the habitation than schools within the habitation. The c.v. for schools within habitation were at 22 % in 1978 which further reduced to 18 % in 1993. And the c.v. for schools within 1 km. of the habitation was lower at 11 % in 1978 and 7 % in 1993. It was the bigger states of India like except Punjab and Haryana that showed a higher coverage of schools within the habitation. And the mountainous states that had a lower coverage, which is a marked cause of the given level of regional variation. Where Gujarat had as high as 97 % of its schools within habitations in relation to Himachal that had only 45 % of its schools within the habitation. Such marked differentiations could be the root cause for a high regional variation in our country.

2.4 Quality of Primary School Infrastructure in India

In spite of enshrining free and compulsory education in the directive principles of Indian Constitution, the educational backwardness of India even after 50 years of independence is quite glaring. Low quality of schooling facilities reduces the Childs interests in education, that primarily account for educational discontinuity at various levels of schooling.

While experts admit that the quality, particularly of government schools is poor, little explanation is offered for why it is so. In most studies status of schooling, quality is considered almost as a constraint on 'supply side' (the provision of facilities), while poverty continues to be cited as the main determinant and bottleneck on the 'demand side' (the utilization of facilities). Hence efforts to increase the spread of education have concentrated almost exclusively on either increasing the quantity of schools or on setting up endless schemes to provide incentives to deprived sections of population to enable them to attend schools. Little thought is given to the impact that the quality of schooling has on the demand for schooling and hence to improving the quality of schools that exist.

The mere existence of instructional and physical infrastructure and teaching leaning material do not ensure their judicious and optimum utilization. The dictum that can be established from the existing literature clearly states that schooling effectiveness measured in terms of cognitive achievement of the learner as well as enrolment and retention of the student, is more closely associated with utilization of existing infrastructure (Yadava and Bhardawaj, 2000). As the indicators associated purposeful utilization of existing facilities are not easily quantifiable, data for these are not available at macro level. Therefore we here try to assess the availability of qualitative infrastructural facilities and see its impact on the quantitative output.

Infrastructure can be demarcated into physical infrastructure and instructional infrastructure. Which determine the quality of schooling. While there may be disagreement on the relative importance of each of these aspects, it cannot be denied that certain minimum standards have to be maintained in order to create an acceptable environment in which learning can take place. Thus, every school should have a pucca building that does not leak in the monsoons, separate classrooms for separate grades, sufficient light and air inside the classrooms, one teacher grade, usable toilet facilities, safe drinking water, and basic teaching and learning aids such as blackboards and chalk, and reading and writing material in a usable form. Equally importantly, minimum teaching standards include the regular presence of teachers in classrooms during teaching hours and a minimum achievement level of pupils, at least. But, there is overwhelming evidence that only a portion of schools in India meet these basic requirements.

The facilities provided in schools in India vary widely between localities. In general the schools in the urban areas are large in size and the facilities provided are

also better when compared to their rural counter parts. Table 2.5 below, gives the extent of facilities available at all India level over the years. It is clearly evident from the table, that at one extreme there are schools without a teacher and on the other hand, many schools comprise of open spaces and in tents. Variations in achievement levels among primary school children in India can partly be attributed to these varying levels of infrastructure endowments.

Table.2.5

Facilities in Schools in India

Year	Buildings				Teachers				
	1978	1986	1993	2002	1978	1986	1993	2002	
Open Space	8.58	7.52	4.25	2.48	No Teacher	0.62	0.5	0.77	1.3
Tent	0.12	0.49	0.38	0.15	1 Teacher	34.75	27.96	20.12	14.99
Thatched huts	10.05	6.94							
Kachcha	21.35	15.62	12.82	4.15	2 Teachers	27.27	32.38	41.92	43.18
Partly Pucca	13.23	16.22	14.55	12.25	3 Teachers	15.1	15.18	14.89	16.62
Pucca	46.66	53.21	68	80.97	4 Teachers	8.16	8.91	8.05	8.83
					5 Teachers	5.25	5.85	5.53	6.02
					> 5 Teachers	8.85	9.22	8.73	9.05
Total	100	100	100	100	Total	100	100	100	100

Source: All India Education Survey, NCERT, New Delhi.

2.4.1 Physical Infrastructure

Primary education in India is predominantly a government-sponsored activity. As per the Sixth All India Education Survey nearly 89 % of the schools in India were under the government control or local bodies. Private initiatives are minimal and are more visible in the urban areas. The provision of physical infrastructure, in the primary schools in India, therefore is a reflection of public initiatives and governmental allocation of resources. Physical infrastructure primarily deals with the availability of basic school structures, such as buildings, classrooms, teaching aids, toilets facilities and drinking water, which overall constitutes the physical existence of a school.

Availability of a school need not guarantee that adequate infrastructure facilities are available in schools and the children are fully utilizing the available facilities. The availability of school buildings should be supplemented by a number of sections so far the determination of quality school is concerned. A large number of schools do not have minimum infrastructure, such as, drinking water, toilet facility, school boundary, play ground, buildings, teaching-learning aids, electricity etc. In addition, adequate number of instructional rooms and teachers are also not available in a good number of schools. Even if the teaching aids are available, that need not guarantee that teachers are well equipped to utilize available teaching learning aids and equipment. All these constitute the crucial aspect of quality education that can influence learner's achievement, and the total number of enrolments and retentions at all levels of schooling.

A). Type of School Buildings:

School buildings, as places of learning and everyday life that are closely linked to children, are focal points of social organization. They are places for essential educational and aesthetic functions. Many schools in India just exist for namesake as, there is no proper structure to call it a school. Many studies have shown that inadequate buildings do contribute to low levels of learning. Junaidu and Urwick in their study on schools facilities stated that students who belong to schools with sufficient number of classrooms perform better. According to the Seventh Education Survey 80 % of the schools had pucca buildings, which, has increased phenomenally from the time of independence. But the fact cannot be ignored that 16,777 primary schools in India still do not have buildings, leave alone them being concrete.

Different programmes and initiatives taken by governments and also private bodies in supplying all schools with a basic school structure in the recent policy implementations have contributed to a marked rise in the number of school buildings. But inspite of large-scale construction programmes our maintenance plans has been insufficient to meet the need of the schools. In most states it is easier to get a new school building sanction rather than get money for repairing a dilapidated building. This is because money for maintenance comes as a non planned grant, which is already under tremendous pressure at state levels on account of the burden of teachers salaries, therefore one of the main reasons why the condition of schools buildings are in a sad state are because of untimely repair and maintenance. The government of

Himachal Pradesh has brought out a very innovative circular regarding social audit in school maintenance work, a committee has been constituted for each school building from amongst the villagers and with the headmaster as its coordinator. This committee undertakes repair of its school buildings with its maintenance grant and it does not require technical estimates for the supervision of engineers

The nature of building type covered under the Educational Survey have been categorized into open spaces, tents, kachcha, partially pucca and pucca buildings, the study focuses on the growth and distribution of pucca buildings over the different states. The national averages (Table 2.6 & 2.7) of these pucca buildings in all primary schools have increased from a 46.66 % in the fourth Educational Survey to 80.97 % in the Seventh Educational survey. The rural sector has had a higher growth rate than its urban counterpart, where the growth has been by over 50 %. This growth can be owed mainly to the efforts of the governments in constructing a school to the reach of every child, especially in the deprived rural areas.

High Population:

The policy initiatives taken at different stages of time at various levels of governance have yielded positive results in the nature of building structures in all the states of India from the time of the fourth survey. West Bengal showed the highest and consistent growth rate, it had 20.13 % Pucca School buildings in 1978 (Table.2.6) has shown a growth rate of nearly three folds at 67.97 % in 2002 (Table.2.7). Rajasthan followed by Maharashtra had the highest percent of pucca school buildings according to the latest Educational survey, though Rajasthan shows a slight decline in comparison to the total number in 1993. The Lok Jumbish Project in Rajasthan has given priority to the maintenance and repair of existing school buildings. This has been a very positive step as with less resource it is possible to develop many more rooms. The design under Lok Jumbish has been innovative and the participation of the Building Nirman Samiti has been remarkable. The whole village knows the nature of maintenance work being undertaken. Such demystification of estimates goes a long way in promoting a culture of transparency and accountability.

Table.2.6
Percentage of Primary Schools with Pucca Buildings.

States & U.T's	4th Survey (1978)			5th Survey (1986)		
	R	U	T	R	U	T
<i>High</i>						
Uttar Pradesh	68.57	90.19	70.65	72.39	19.85	52.41
Maharashtra	60.80	83.98	63.65	64.37	84.04	66.92
Assam	22.33	56.36	23.67	32.56	50.80	33.37
West Bengal	14.21	53.44	20.13	21.42	62.43	27.97
Andhra Pradesh	43.55	61.68	44.91	67.24	72.11	67.61
Tamil Nadu	70.32	69.56	70.18	79.32	76.64	79.01
Madhya Pradesh	47.96	85.84	50.61	51.87	77.24	54.38
Rajasthan	61.35	93.35	64.82	77.22	86.11	78.18
<i>Medium</i>						
Karnataka	72.23	72.63	72.26	84.83	135.35	87.54
Gujarat	71.75	92.67	74.02	87.59	93.71	88.21
Orrisa	21.48	58.91	23.17	47.49	66.38	48.47
Kerala	77.78	75.12	77.51	68.70	79.74	69.82
Jharkhand						
Assam	6.16	22.98	6.86	7.16	14.19	7.58
Punjab	54.61	53.88	54.55	84.91	88.93	85.24
Haryana	86.62	94.09	87.20	85.63	88.07	85.85
Chattisgarh						
Delhi	53.22	57.67	56.73	63.75	46.58	49.67
Jammu & Kashmir	21.73	36.96	22.83	27.40	51.44	29.12
<i>Low</i>						
Uttaranchal						
Himachal Pradesh	11.22	63.10	12.21	23.84	66.31	24.99
Tripura	1.39	51.67	3.31	2.51	37.93	3.58
Meghalaya	3.86	47.89	4.33	6.80	38.46	7.80
Manipur	1.42	2.07	1.45	1.71	5.56	2.21
Nagaland	1.06	8.70	1.24	6.54	15.00	6.98
Goa	84.55	85.44	84.65	84.88	82.76	84.69
Arunachal Pradesh	6.92	83.33	8.16	13.52	80.00	14.92
<i>Very Low</i>						
Pondicherry	57.42	69.01	60.36	60.09	66.12	62.24
Chandigarh	54.55	89.29	79.49	77.78	94.29	90.91
Mizoram	0.00	3.39	0.39			0.00
Sikkim	56.36	100.00	57.53	29.40	100.00	29.70
A & N Islands	53.85	100.00	55.00	56.40	100.00	57.63
D.& N.Haveli	44.78		44.78	61.16	100.00	62.10
Daman & Diu				100.00	100.00	100.00
Lakshadweep	64.71		64.71	100.00	100.00	100.00
India	44.21	71.38	46.66	54.46	46.02	53.21
C.V	68.11	43.83	66.32	58.93	43.22	61.98

Source: All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi, Forth Survey: * Includes Daman and Diu

Medium Population:

The number of pucca buildings in the medium populated states too have shown an increasing trend with Haryana having the highest percent of its schools buildings as pucca structures, at 94.09 % (1978) and 98.54 % (2002). Punjab, Gujarat, Karnataka and Kerala were other states that showed a balanced growth with a high percent of their buildings being pucca. Assam showed the lowest percent of Pucca school buildings at only 6.86 % in 1978 and 37.12 % in 2002, which was one of the lowest in the country, and much below the national average. Other states with low percent of their school buildings being pucca were Jammu and Kashmir.

In the rural areas it was the state of Assam that had only 6.16 % of its primary school buildings as pucca in 1978 (Table.2.6), and 36.61 % in 2002 (Table.2.7). Orissa and Jammu and Kashmir were other states that had low number of their primary school builds of pucca structure. Whereas Haryana had the highest percent of pucca buildings at 94.09 % in 1978 and 96.66 % in 2002, followed by Gujarat (92.67 %, 1978 and 88.6 %, 2002) in the urban areas.

Low and Very Low Population:

The Hill States of India have shown a very low proportion of their school buildings to have pucca structures. Mizoram had only 2 pucca primary schools out of a total of 516 primary schools in 1978, which has increased to 292 pucca schools of a total of 1252 primary schools, in the 2002. Whereas, Nagaland in 1978 had only 1.24 % of its buildings as pucca structures which is still very low at 23.32 % in 2002, much below the national average and the required standards. The states of Tripura, Manipur, Meghalaya and Himachal Pradesh also show a very low percent of the schools having pucca structures. This could be one of the main reasons for a very high dropout rate in these states, as the PROBE report states, that the school structures, if not in proper conditions become a cause for children, to dropout before completing their schooling, as many times they have to bear with the extremities of the weather.

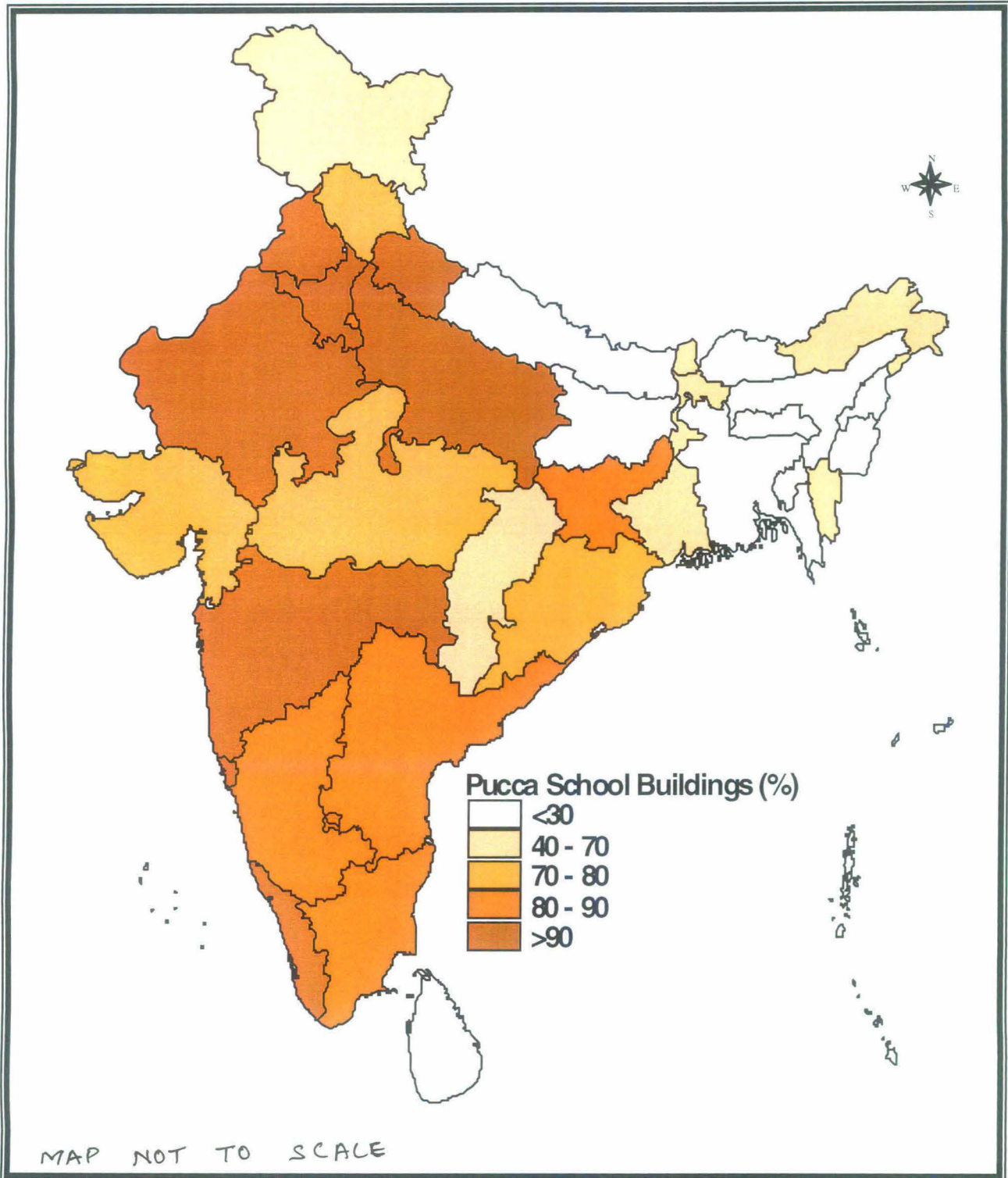
Table.2.7
Percentage of Primary Schools with Pucca Buildings.

States & U.T's	6th Survey (1993)			7th Survey (2002)		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
<i>High</i>						
Uttar Pradesh	89.83	89.35	89.76	93.36	89.87	92.83
Maharashtra	69.03	77.06	70.08	95.67	90.87	94.93
Bihar	61.83	55.64	61.49	36.61	47.49	37.12
West Bengal	33.63	54.68	37.15	66.45	75.91	67.97
Andhra Pradesh	75.35	69.32	74.77	83.31	79.80	82.89
Tamil Nadu	62.21	60.52	62.02	87.46	84.81	86.90
Madhya Pradesh	54.59	291.37	81.56	76.34	83.64	77.26
Rajasthan	91.20	204.25	96.67	95.98	90.27	95.37
<i>Medium</i>						
Karnataka	86.59	74.46	85.62	90.37	85.77	89.88
Gujarat	81.34	89.81	82.28	68.71	88.86	72.56
Orrisa	58.42	67.00	58.92	79.34	81.65	79.48
Kerala	77.58	80.96	78.26	90.29	91.36	90.52
Jharkhand				87.39	84.69	87.25
Assam	13.86	21.36	14.20	36.61	47.49	37.12
Punjab	91.56	89.95	91.41	96.88	94.07	96.60
Haryana	92.84	91.83	92.74	98.79	96.66	98.54
Chattisgarh				60.41	74.02	61.25
Delhi	45.72	48.38	47.97	81.98	81.52	81.57
Jammu & Kashmir	48.70	69.79	50.27	63.62	74.70	64.41
<i>Low</i>						
Uttaranchal				94.20	96.03	94.39
Himachal Pradesh	30.12	65.34	31.27	72.29	85.17	72.60
Tripura	16.84	28.74	17.35	59.12	53.45	58.96
Meghalaya	20.69	40.56	21.57	52.01	63.04	52.71
Manipur	8.96	13.61	9.63	16.74	33.42	19.20
Nagaland	3.56	15.91	4.00	14.05	25.00	14.57
Goa	96.47	97.10	96.60	97.99	97.26	97.78
Arunachal Pradesh	25.79	54.05	26.70	47.03	72.97	48.47
<i>Very Low</i>						
Pondicherry	51.89	60.67	55.82	81.18	79.87	80.56
Chandigarh	85.71	82.14	83.33	87.50	94.44	92.31
Mizoram	0.90	6.07	2.44	18.76	36.94	23.32
Sikkim	17.37		17.37	52.92		52.92
A & N Islands	54.70	28.57	53.72	72.08	70.00	71.98
D. & N. Haveli	88.62	100.00	88.80	86.18	100.00	86.51
Daman & Diu	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	94.12	98.00
Lakshadweep	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
India	64.14	99.17	68.00	80.61	83.61	80.97
C.V	55.45	72.86	54.05	34.37	25.62	33.21

Source: All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi.

As in the other population slabs the urban areas in this category also have more of their school buildings in pucca structures. The UT's of Daman and Diu and

Percentage of Pucca School Buildings in India 2002



Lakshadweep had almost 100 % of pucca buildings, whereas Manipur had only 2.07 % pucca buildings in 1978 and 32.42 % pucca buildings in 2002. The hill states of Manipur, Arunachal Pradesh, Mizoram, Meghalaya, Himachal Pradesh, Sikkim and Tripura in all the surveys showed a large proportion of their schools having a very low percent of pucca buildings. Though the Seventh Educational Survey shows better results, which could be mainly due to policy and programme initiatives such as SSA, DPEP and Operation Blackboard, which covered a large number of schools during this phase. The SSA in 2002-03 had 8,095 school buildings and DPEP 8,894 school buildings.

The disparity calculated through the coefficient of variation has shown a great decline over the years signifying that with an increase in total number of schools the number of pucca school buildings has also increased. The c.v. has declined to 33 % in 2002 from a high variation of 66 % in 1978. Though the regional variation has declined it still remain very high. So efforts should be put forth to make every school that is constructed into a pucca structure.

B). Quality of Available Facilities:

There is no consensus among educationists as to what constitutes quality in primary education. It is generally agreed that the quality of education can be more objectively and concretely seen in terms of quality of primary education. Level of material and human inputs hold an important place in assessing the quality of primary schools and the output of these schools in return. In the contemporary era when the whole system is facing a transitional change, quality is becoming an important component in our educational institutions

In its disarming critique of its own education intervention and progress of education, the government of India noted that lack of school facilities for children was a constraint on universalization of primary education. Facility is either absent or distant. The National Policy on Education made a lot of emphasis on school effectiveness on meeting supply side constraint like building, teachers and teaching aid. Operation Blackboard marked the highpoint in the supply side effort and did improve school facilities to a large extent. The All India Educational Survey carried out, by and large have been very accurate in telling us about the condition of school infrastructure, the quality of teachers is not directly responsible for the quality of school facility.

The Physical facilities provided by the school determine the size of a class (Govinda and Varghese), therefore they form a very important aspect in school participation. The facilities used in the study include drinking water, lavatory, separate urinals for girls, playgrounds and library facilities. It also included incentives given such as mid-day meals, uniforms and textbooks. Instructional facilities (teaching aids) included were blackboards and chalk.

In order to draw a holistic picture of facilities provided to children at state level composite indices had been calculated by ranking the states and summing up their ranks following the norm of that the best performing state had the highest rank and the highest composite score. Where the ranks indicate that the educationally and economically developed states of India had better facilities provided to the primary school children, which in itself is an indication of educational development in the concerned state. Table 2.8 gives us the states in order of their ranks. Where the national capital of Delhi showed emerged as the winner in the race of facilities in all the three Survey's used. Other states that showed higher ranks were Kerala, Haryana, Punjab, Tamil Nadu and Gujarat. While most of the educationally backwards states such as Bihar, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh show an increase in their rank indicating an increase in the facilities provided to primary schools.

2.4.2 Instructional Infrastructure:

The availability of a school structures is of no use, until we do not have instructional facilities, which may be teachers, or teaching aid, which are of prime importance in attracting children to schools. They play a role that actually adds more to the quality of education and also the achievement levels of a student. In most states and the Indian educational system in a general view, more emphasis has been laid on achieving targets with numbers and the quality has always been suffered. This study primarily deals with the quantitative aspect of education and qualitative fallout has been delineated and this section particularly tries to look into the availability of teachers, teacher-pupil ratio's, female teachers and the availability of teaching aid, that enhance the overall develops the learners achievements levels, and also help enhance the retention and enrolment ratios.

Table 2.8
States Ranked According to the Availability of Facilities.

4th Survey(1978)			5th Survey(1986)			6th Survey(1993)		
Rank	States and UT's	Composite value	Rank	States and UT's	Composite value	Rank	States and UT's	Composite value
1	Delhi	264	1	Delhi	258	1	Delhi	127
2	Kerala	256	2	Tamilnadu	226	2	lakshadweep	117
3	Haryana	229	3	Haryana	224	3	Chandigarh	116
4	Tamilnadu	225	4	Punjab	223	4	Daman & Diu	114
5	Chandigarh	219	5	Chandigarh	219	5	Kerala	113
6	Punjab	212	6	Gujarat	211	6	Pondicherry	109
7	A & N Nicobar	210	7	Arunachal Pradesh	190	7	Punjab	101
8	Gujarat	208	8	West Bengal	184	8	Haryana	99
9	Arunachal Pradesh	197	9	D. & N.Haveli	172	9	A & N Nicobar	98
10	D. & N.Haveli	188	10	Mizoram	172	10	Mizoram	84
11	Rajasthan	168	11	Maharashtra	170	11	Rajasthan	81
12	Maharashtra	158	12	Pondicherry	163	12	Uttar Pradesh	75
13	Mizoram	154	13	Rajasthan	163	13	Maharashtra	72
14	Uttar Pradesh	146	14	A & N Nicobar	156	14	Tamilnadu	71
15	Tripura	145	15	Nagaland	154	15	Goa	69
16	Himachal Pradesh	142	16	Tripura	154	16	Sikkim	67
17	Pondicherry	142	17	Goa	147	17	West Bengal	67
18	West Bengal	142	18	Kerala	143	18	Gujarat	65
19	lakshadweep	130	19	lakshadweep	140	19	D. & N.Haveli	55
20	Assam	129	20	Himachal Pradesh	137	20	Andhra Pradesh	52
21	Andhra Pradesh	123	21	Karnataka	136	21	Madhya Pradesh	49
22	Nagaland	121	22	Daman & Diu	132	22	Himachal Pradesh	47
23	Goa	109	23	Andhra Pradesh	115	23	Nagaland	43
24	Madhya Pradesh	109	24	Madhya Pradesh	113	24	Arunachal Pradesh	42
25	Orrisa	105	25	Meghalaya	100	25	Manipur	34
26	Sikkim	105	26	Manipur	92	26	Bihar	22
27	Jammu & Kashmir	97	27	Uttar Pradesh	88	27	Orrisa	21
28	Karnataka	87	28	Sikkim	78	28	Karnataka	18
29	Meghalaya	64	29	Bihar	65	29	Assam	17
30	Manipur	53	30	Jammu & Kashmir	52	30	Tripura	17
31	Bihar	50	31	Orrisa	44	31	Jammu & Kashmir	12
32	Daman & Diu	9	32	Assam	38	32	Meghalaya	10

Source: Calculated from, The All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi.

A). Teachers In primary schools:

Improving teacher's performance is the most important challenge for primary education in India. For all states, teachers' salaries constitute the largest share of the education budget, and the states cannot afford to waste any of these resources. Teachers are the principle instructional instruments in the small schools that make up majority of India's primary schools. According to the 7th All India Education Survey, on an average each primary school had less than four teachers each. In most states teachers' performance falls short of what is needed for children to complete primary school with adequate learning.

The governments of India have made great strides in improving the quality of the teaching corps- raising preservice general education requirements, improving preservice and in-service training, and increasing the number of female teachers and teacher's who share their students social backgrounds. But the capacity of teaching force to deliver high quality education is constrained by historical deficiencies in teachers and training and the absence of performance incentives. As a result, many teachers often have little understanding of the material they teach, posses few teaching skills, and are poorly motivated of which the quality is reflected in primary students learning achievements. In addition, despite efforts to increase the diversity of the teaching corps, many states still have few female, schedule caste and schedule tribe teachers to serve as role models for children. Thus, to increase the effectiveness of the teaching force and achieve minimum levels of learning by children, the challenge for the next decade is to improve the preparation, motivation and deployment of teachers.

Non-availability of teachers and large size of classes are more tangible and rudimentary problems, since planning malady that had plagued the system was insincerity and lack of creativity and motivation on part of the teacher and the school administration. Teacher abstention and their apathy to hold classes in an ordinary and regular manner was responsible for the plight of most rural schools. (Gazdar, 1996). Purposeful utilization of the instructional inputs available is dependent on the ingenuity and motivation level of teacher in concern. That is why with the same level of infrastructure availability, performance in sates varied due to specificity in the quality of manpower

The number of teachers present at primary schools has increased by nearly 28 times since but yet our country faces a scarcity of teachers. The male teachers present

in 2001 were almost two times the number of female teachers. The government needs to sanction more posts for teachers as they form the most essential part of the education system. In rural areas the teacher pupil ratio is very high which contributes to congested classrooms affecting the overall learning and achievement levels. Most of the present teachers also do not execute their requisite responsibility, and abstention from schools is a common problem faces especially in the rural areas. Therefore improving teachers' performance is the most important challenge for primary education in India, for all states teachers salaries constitute the largest share of the education budget, and states cannot afford to waste these resources.

Table.2.10

Teachers in Primary Schools from 1950-51 to 2000-2001.

(in 000')

Years	1950-51	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00*	2000-01*	2001-02*
Male	456	615	835	1021	1143	1190	1226	1246	1236	1221	1213
Female	82	127	225	342	473	566	597	658	683	675	715

Source: *Selected Education Statistics*, 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

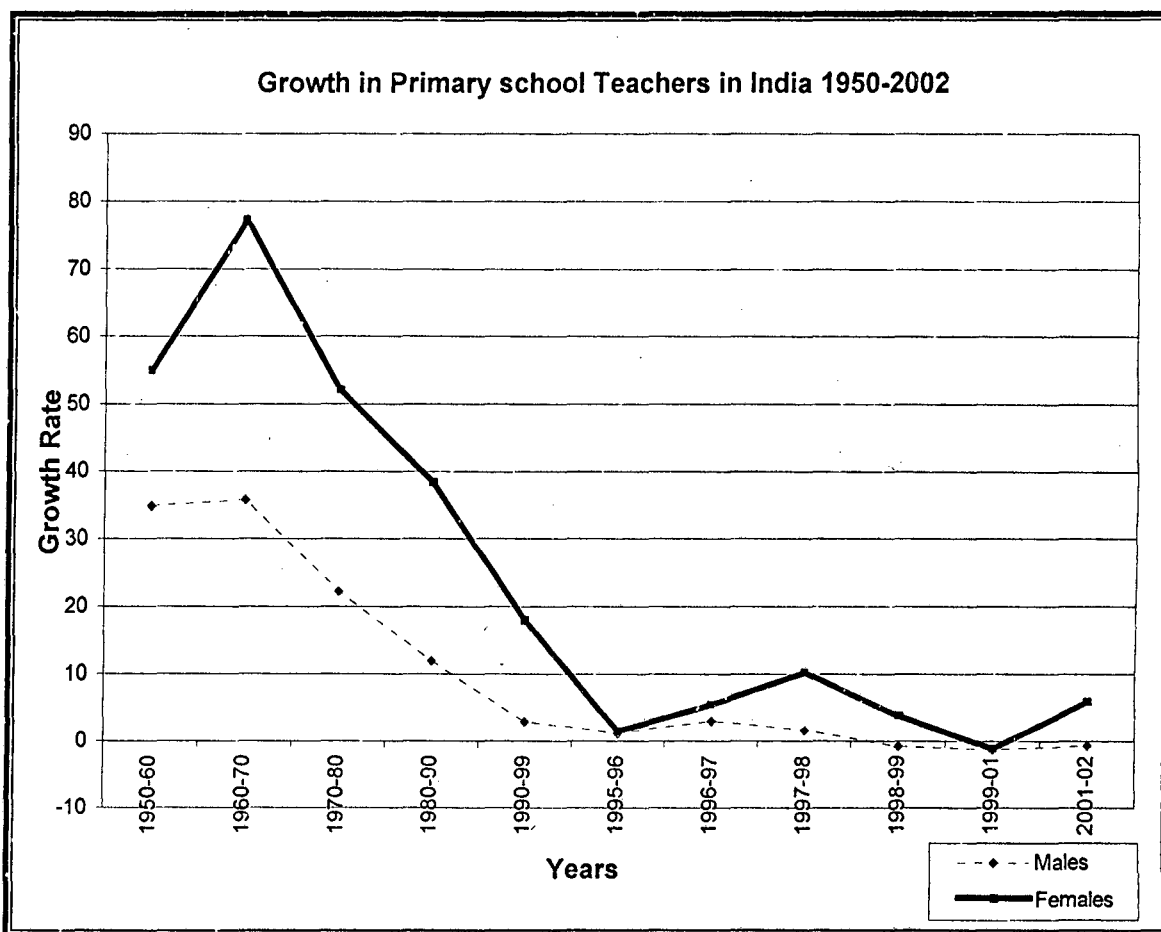
*- Provisional.

The number of teachers has increased many a folds but yet the teacher pupil ratio is very stark. The government has not been able to keep the growth rate of teachers in pace with that of the pupils under them. The growth rate showed a higher trend for male teachers than the female teachers. The post independence period saw a higher growth rate in the number teachers in India, but there was a sharp decline between 1970 – 1995, post 1995 period has shown a fluctuating but trend in the growth.

A.1). Teacher Pupil Ratio:

In a general way it is clear that the number of pupils in the class affects the efficiency of teaching and learning. What is the optimum teacher pupil ratio for a school, is a question which has been bothering both developed and developing countries of the world for several years. While teachers and parents normally want smaller classes so that the child may get individual attention, the educational authorities generally favors larger classes so that the cost per pupil is reduced. In our country where there is a scarcity of resources the teacher pupil ratio varies over states, therefore the main focus is to improve the teachers' performance.

Fig.2.2



Source: *Selected Education Statistics*, 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

The states allocate a required number of seats for teachers that are usually provided in terms of the total number of students in a given class. But the situation shows a very varying trend in India in very few states have subsist upon this allocation. The teacher pupil ratio in India gives a very varying picture, in the time span of the study. On the national level it has shown a positive result, where there is an overall decline in the total ratio at 42 students per teacher in 2002, which was 45 in 1986. The rural areas have lesser number of teachers and therefore show a higher ratio at 44 students per teacher whereas the urban areas were at 36 students per teacher in the Seventh Educational Survey.

High Population:

Taking a closer look at the distribution of teachers in terms of total students at the state level (Table.2.9), in the higher populated states Bihar was at the lowest slot where it had a very high teacher pupil ratio in 1986 at 60 students per teacher, which

was one of the highest in the country and has further increased to 83 students in 2002. Implying that the increasing number of students in Bihar has not kept pace with the rise in number of teachers. Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal over the years has shown an increase in the teacher pupil ratio, whereas the other states of Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra have shown a declining trend and they all fell below the national average in the Seventh Educational Survey.

The urban areas showed a better distribution of teachers in terms of its rural counterpart. The states of Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, and Rajasthan had lower teacher pupil ratio in the urban areas, in almost all the surveys, whereas the states of Maharashtra, and Uttar Pradesh showed a higher ratio. The rural areas of all the states showed a higher ratio, with Bihar and Uttar Pradesh falling in the higher category. Presence of an educated population in the urban areas plays a distinct role in a higher number of teachers in these areas.

Medium Population:

Gujarat emerged as the best performer over the years where the number of teachers were concerned to the total number of students, the teacher pupil ratio almost a declined by 50 % from 1986-2002, it has the highest ratio at all India level, with 61 students per teacher in 1986, which came down to 31 students per teacher in 2002. Kerala, Gujarat, Assam and Jammu and Kashmir showed higher number of teachers levels in the seventh Survey, whereas Orissa, Jharkhand, Chattisgarh and Haryana showed lower number of available teachers in relation to the total number of students in the state.

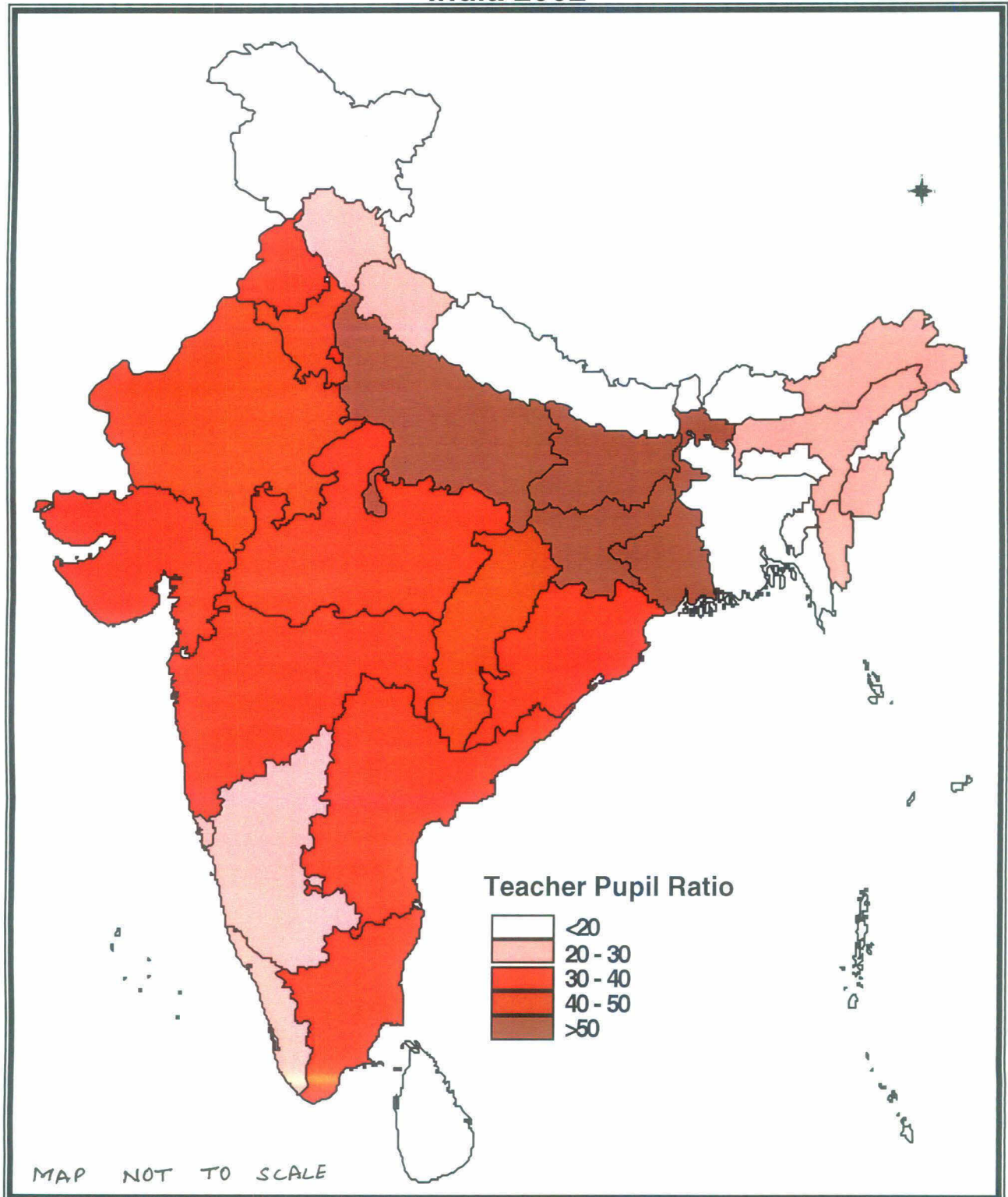
In the rural areas of these states there is a considerable decline with, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala and Jammu and Kashmir being better performers, with a lower teacher pupil ratio, in 2002. Whereas the urban areas in this category of states, further showed a decline in the teacher pupil ratio, with Orissa, Jharkhand and Assam having a higher ratio.

Table.2.9
Teacher - Pupil Ratio

States & U.T's	5th Survey (1986)			6th Survey (1993)			7th Survey (2002)		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
<i>High</i>									
Uttar Pradesh	42	37	41	44	33	42	61	36	55
Maharashtra	46	36	42	33	47	37	30	46	36
Bihar	58	72	60	50	42	50	85	60	83
West Bengal	41	40	41	45	37	43	55	43	53
Andhra Pradesh	56	59	56	50	47	49	32	35	33
Tamil Nadu	58	53	56	38	35	37	35	33	34
Madhya Pradesh	39	38	39	43	32	40	38	29	36
Rajasthan	58	48	55	39	24	37	42	33	41
<i>Medium</i>									
Karnataka	49	45	48	38	43	39	26	28	26
Gujarat	64	57	61	33	43	36	28	37	31
Orissa	38	45	39	37	38	38	41	36	40
Kerala	40	41	40	31	31	31	28	28	28
Jharkhand							59	53	59
Assam	37	30	36	35	31	35	30	23	30
Punjab	39	41	40	44	36	42	39	36	38
Haryana	54	49	53	49	39	47	42	35	41
Chattisgarh							43	40	43
Delhi	34	34	34	44	43	43	38	40	40
Jammu & Kashmir	35	27	33	25	18	24	21	11	19
<i>Low</i>									
Uttaranchal							29	27	29
Himachal Pradesh	38	34	38	36	28	36	22	23	22
Tripura	36	42	36	23	24	23	23	21	23
Meghalaya	35	51	37	23	25	24	21	24	22
Manipur	16	18	17	14	13	14	23	15	21
Nagaland	19	30	20	12	11	12	12	7	12
Goa	28	31	30	20	23	21	17	25	21
Arunachal Pradesh	34	31	34	28	20	27	28	22	27
<i>Very Low</i>									
Pondicherry	34	33	34	26	24	25	20	23	21
Chandigarh	36	28	28	37	28	31	38	33	34
Mizoram	29	24	27	25	21	23	21	16	19
Sikkim	15	23	15	11		11	12	0	12
A. & N. Nicobar	31	32	31	19	24	20	16	23	17
D. & N. Haveli	36	25	35	40	36	40	41	26	40
Daman & Diu	40	43	41	29	33	30	42	34	39
Lakshadweep	27	28	28	21	24	22	19	21	20
India	46	43	45	45	37	40	44	36	42
C.V	30.90	31.00	30.20	34.14	31.22	33.08	46.22	41.57	44.25

Source: All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi.

Teacher Pupil Ratio in Primary Schools in India 2002



Low and Very Low Population:

The overall teacher pupil ratio in this category of states has been very low, almost below the national average in almost all the states. Where the States and UT's of Sikkim, Mizoram and Manipur showed low a ratio, and Himachal, Tripura, Meghalaya and Daman and Diu showed a higher ratio in both rural and urban areas and also in the total primary school teacher pupil ratio.

The distribution of teachers with regard to the number of students in India shows a very meager picture. Most states that are educationally developed illustrated a lower teacher pupil ratio in contrast to the educationally less developed states. The central Indian states presented more congested classrooms. The regional disparity over the years has also augmented. Where the value of c.v. has increased from 30 % in 1986 to 44 % in 2002. Only implying that all round efforts to increase enrolments is not equalized with the increase in the number of teachers. Therefore getting all children to school is not of any significance if there are not enough teachers to teach. Efforts should be made to boost the teaching population to cater to the needs of those who enroll.

A.2). Female Teachers

An important instructional infrastructure is the proportion of women teachers. In order to ensure enrollment and retention for girls children in the fold of formal education it was mandatory to have at least one female teacher in the school. Orthodox minded parents don't want their daughters to learn from male teachers, though more prominent at the upper primary level as gender stereotypes get entrenched more firmly after attainment of puberty.

Looking into the All India Education Survey there is a marked regional variation as far as the female teaching staff is concerned. On an all India basis there has been a considerable increase in the total percent of female teachers, there were 28.20% in 1986, which has increased to 39.58% in 2002. But a marked increase has been in the rural front where only 20.94% of teachers were females in 1986 and has now shown a considerable increase to 31.81% in the Seventh All India Education Survey in 2002. And in the urban areas the percent constituted of 55.62% (1986), 61.29% (1993) and 66.70% (2002), which goes to show that the urban areas had a

much higher proportion of female teachers in terms of its rural counterpart, where in terms of social reasons more females' teachers are required. (Table2.11)

High Population:

In the high populated states (Table.2.11), Tamil Nadu had the highest proportion of total female teachers, 39.31 % (1986), 48.90 % (1993) and 69.72 % (2002), and even the overall growth rate in terms of total female teachers was highest in this state. Followed by Maharashtra where the proportions of female teachers increased from 38.22 % (1986) to 46.43 % (2002), with not much variation in the overall growth. In this category of population distribution, Bihar emerged to be the state with least proportion of female teachers, where there were 17.46 % (1986), 19.84 % (1993) and 22.57 % (2002).

Taking a wider look into the rural urban variation, it was the urban areas that had a much higher proportion of female teachers, where Tamil Nadu had the highest proportion, which was 39.31 % (1986) and 84.45% (2002) and West Bengal had the least number of urban female teachers which was 41.09% (1986) and 50.81 % (2002). The scenario in the rural areas where female proportion of teachers were concerned was very poor, where the states of Madhya Pradesh 9.81 % (1986), West Bengal 14.41 % (1986) and Rajasthan 14.36 % (1986) had the lowest proportion where . Though the Seventh Educational Survey does show better results but yet the total numbers are low, with the lowest being in the states of West Bengal 18.35 % (2002) and Rajasthan 22.20 % (2002).

Medium Population:

In the range of medium populated states (Table.2.11), Kerala showed the highest proportion of female teachers in the total number of primary schools in the states, where there were 62.12 % (1986), 67.66 % (1993) and 72.77 % (2002) female teachers to total male teachers. Kerala was followed by Punjab with 54.03 % (1986), 57.74 % (1993) and 64.09 % (2002). Orissa had the lowest proportion at 15.57 % (1986) and 22.97 % (1993) with Chattisgarh falling in the lowest category in the Seventh Survey with only 25.50 % of its total proportion of teachers being females at the primary level. With Karnataka (26.26%, 1986 and 42.01 %, 2002) and Assam (25.59 % in 1986 and 33.85 % in 2002) also with low proportions.

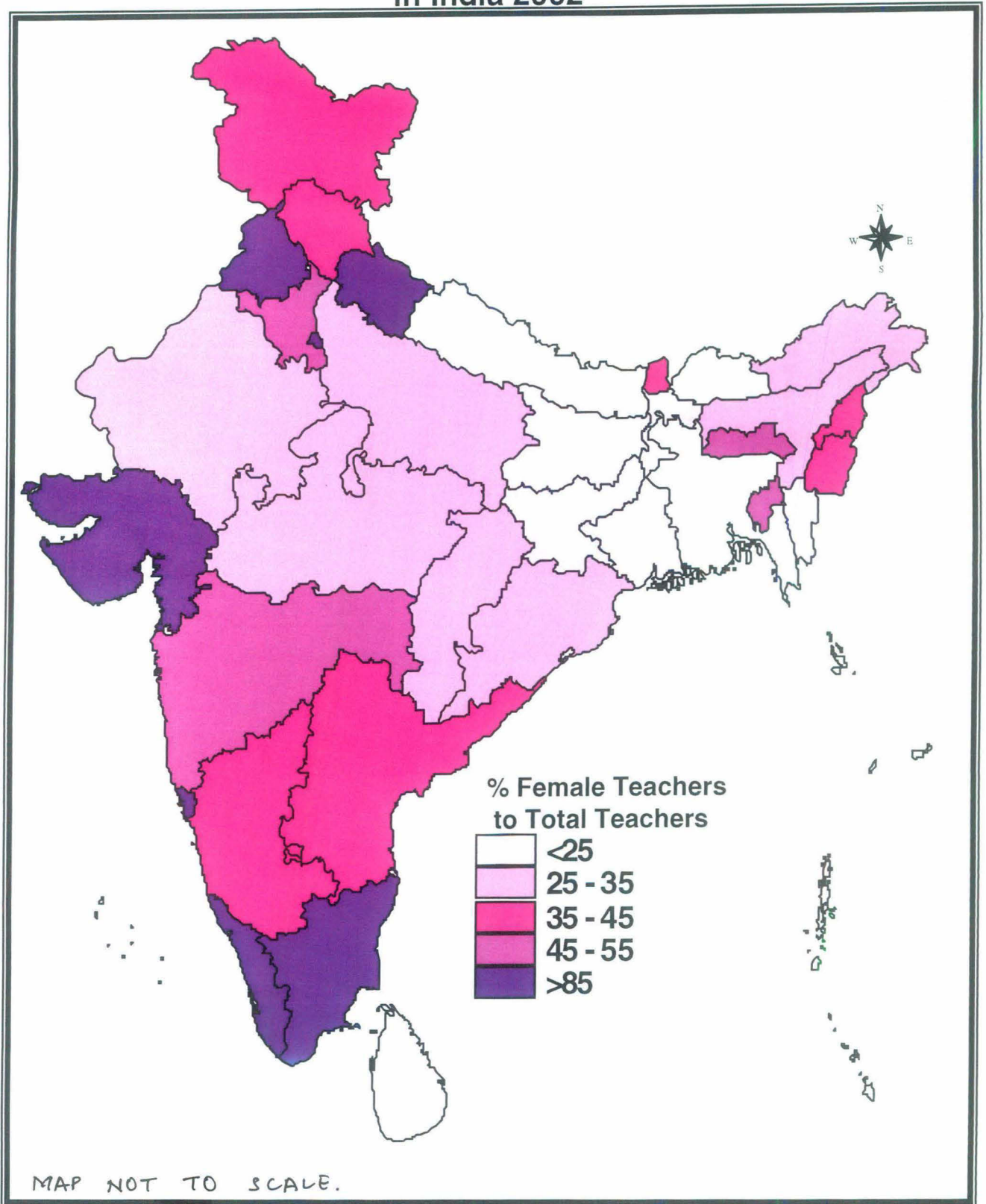
Table.2.11

Proportion of Female Teachers to Male Teachers at Primary Schools

States & U.T's	5th Survey (1986)			6th Survey (1993)			7th Survey (2002)		
	% Female teachers			% Female teachers			Female Teachers		
<i>High</i>	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Uttar Pradesh	15.48	45.65	21.27	17.27	52.85	25.49	24.70	55.32	32.42
Maharashtra	24.14	63.14	38.22	25.55	72.35	40.02	31.76	75.35	46.43
Bihar	15.18	46.41	17.46	16.82	56.25	19.84	22.63	58.77	22.57
West Bengal	14.41	41.09	20.44	13.98	49.68	22.61	18.35	50.81	24.94
Andhra Pradesh	22.96	54.34	28.04	24.65	60.95	31.38	33.90	67.70	41.72
Tamil Nadu	30.42	66.90	39.31	41.51	72.88	48.9	61.73	84.45	69.72
Madhya Pradesh	9.81	56.34	21.62	12.56	59.43	24.85	22.20	62.50	31.42
Rajasthan	14.36	45.61	23.42	18.94	47.68	25.71	24.35	57.57	29.73
<i>Medium</i>									
Karnataka	16.29	61.73	26.12	25.86	65.71	31.2	35.37	77.05	42.01
Gujarat	26.21	68.06	39.03	24.59	73.95	38.03	36.57	79.07	56.58
Orissa	11.92	50.29	15.67	18.76	59.61	22.96	25.64	71.47	30.67
Kerala	60.82	71.87	62.12	65.72	74.77	67.66	71.49	77.14	72.77
Jharkhand							15.82	60.99	19.17
Assam	22.06	56.66	25.59	24.48	67.25	28.85	29.54	69.34	33.85
Punjab	47.66	84.09	54.03	51.84	88.2	57.74	59.34	90.31	64.09
Haryana	34.25	74.77	41.25	39.11	80.36	46.56	43.25	81.96	49.27
Chattisgarh							20.55	59.09	25.50
Delhi	49.24	58.13	56.67	44.98	66.45	63.73	50.56	68.59	67.14
Jammu & Kashmir	31.61	74.82	38.07	32.53	71.19	37.28	34.39	74.93	40.20
<i>Low</i>									
Uttaranchal							51.64	75.29	56.54
Himachal Pradesh	32.00	88.83	35.59	36.98	87.98	40.39	42.30	87.07	44.28
Tripura	17.56	76.81	21.86	17.05	65.23	21.75	17.37	54.08	19.15
Meghalaya	35.96	80.10	39.96	43.07	80.53	46.5	46.53	75.86	49.89
Manipur	17.47	36.17	21.43	26	46.77	30.56	33.47	58.62	38.58
Nagaland	25.01	80.00	29.9	28.04	78.67	31.18	34.16	73.58	38.12
Goa	54.51	81.86	58.99	53.84	82.33	63.21	73.41	90.57	81.13
Arunachal Pradesh	12.31	65.00	17.34	14.9	73.43	23.07	19.20	68.71	30.04
<i>Very Low</i>									
Pondicherry	28.53	59.39	41.93	33.42	61.83	49.05	52.44	62.22	57.71
Chandigarh	84.06	92.46	90.91	92.74	93.62	93.35	80.30	90.13	87.96
Mizoram	36.15	62.99	44.11	34.21	61.72	46.86	37.54	65.99	47.93
Sikkim	29.44	83.33	29.6	31.04		31.04	37.83		37.83
A & N Islands	29.86	63.64	32.85	36.15	86.11	40.83	44.30	79.59	48.72
D & N. Haveli	37.50	71.43	38.86	34.38	100	35.71	33.80	88.89	36.04
Daman & Diu	35.61	70.59	45.36	59.13	86.67	66.88	60.90	69.61	64.34
Lakshadweep	29.41	30.30	29.73	34.43	21.43	27.48	32.26	80.00	38.89
India	20.94	55.62	28.2	23.5	61.29	31.61	31.81	66.70	39.58
C.V	53.96	24.11	44.79	51.18	23.49	42.62	43.24	15.74	38.64

Source: All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi.

Percentage of Female Teachers in India 2002



The urban areas, in this category of population distribution, also show a higher proportion of female teachers in relation to the rural areas. Where the state of Punjab showed the highest proportion with 84.09 %, (1986), 82.20 % (1993) and 90.31 % (2002) of female teachers followed by Haryana with 74.77 % in 1986 and 81.69 % in 2002. Whereas the states of Orissa (50.29 % in 1986 and 71.47 % 2002) and Assam (56.66 %, 1986 and 69.34 %, 2002) too showed low percentage of female teachers in comparisons to the other states. The scene in the rural areas had a different view, where the proportions were considerably much lower. Orissa had the lowest proportion of female teachers, which was only 11.92 % (1986), 18.76 % (1993) and 25.64 % (2002), with Chattisgarh having 20.55% of female teachers in the rural areas.

Low and Very Low Population:

In the smaller populated states (Table.2.11) Goa had the highest proportion of female teachers at 58.99 % (1986) which increased to 81.13 % (2002) followed by Mizoram (44.11 % in 1986 and 47.93 % in 2002) and amongst the Union Territories Chandigarh had the highest proportion at 90.91 % (1986) with a slight decline at 87.96 % (2002). Whereas, Sikkim, Arunachal Pradesh Tripura and Manipur showed low percentage, of female teachers in primary schools.

The urban areas in these States and Union Territories remarkably showed a much higher percent in comparison to the other states. Where Chandigarh had the highest proportion at 84.06 % (1986), 92.74 % (1993) and 80.30 % (2002) in the given years. The states of Himachal Pradesh (88.83 % in 1986 and 87.07 % in 2002) and Sikkim (83.33 % in 1986) followed it in the higher female teachers. In the rural areas Arunachal Pradesh had the lowest proportion at 13.31% (1986) and 19.20 % (2002) in the given time frame. Other States, which also had low rural female teachers, were Manipur (17.47 % in 1986 and 33.47 in 2002) and Tripura (17.56 % in 1986 and 17.37 % in 2002).

Therefore from the above stated analysis we can assume that the educationally developed states overall show a better performance in terms of availability of female teachers. There is also a decline in the regional variation in the number of female teachers, indicating that the states falling on the lower side are increasing their required posts and reducing the problem of multi-grade teaching, prevalent in many.

Conclusion:

Quality of education presented at primary schools is not adequate in situation to its desired quantity. The picture we get from the above stated investigation is that, even after fifty years of planned development the governments of India have not been able to deliver basic infrastructural amenities to children who require a convincing amount of facilities at schools to guarantee paramount participation.

The number of schools has increased enormously post independence period, but they fail to cater to needs of every child in terms of its accessibility. No state in India has schools located within its habitation or even within one kilometer of the habitation. Accessibility seems to be even a bigger problem in the hilly states of Himachal, Tripura, Meghalaya and Sikkim.

Infrastructure facilities available reveal an even meager picture where most primary schools do not have adequate amount of required facilities such as space and structures to hold classes. Dilapidated school buildings, non-availability of rooms, lack of basic teaching aids, dearth of pedagogic material such as books etc., inadequate number of qualified teachers, specially women teachers, dearth of pedagogic material such as books etc. leads to congested and unappealing school system, effecting the learning skills of a student and further emerge as a foremost impediment to the expansion of basic education.

CHAPTER III

REGIONAL DISPARITY IN PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENTS AND RETENTIONS

3.1 Introduction:

School participation and grade completion form the pillars of the education network. In the previous chapter we tried to analyze the regional variation of infrastructural facilities in government run primary schools across the Indian states. The following section focuses on the participation of children to these primary schools within the Indian states. It also looks into the number of students who enter the system of formal education and continue upto the upper primary level.

3.1.1 Indian Scenario:

Since independence, universalization of Education has been an important public concern in India. Elementary education is considered as a basic developmental right of every child. Article 45 of the Indian Constitution states that, "The State shall strive to provide free and compulsory education to all citizens up to the age of 14." The Indian constitution, Five Year Plans and other policy documents have dwelt on the importance of and need for Universalization of Elementary education.

The National Policy on Education (updated in 1992) and the 1992 Programme of Action, which provide the basic policy framework for education in India emphasize on remediating historical inequalities. This emphasis is reflected in the objectives for Primary Education. In order of priority, these are to give adequate emphasis on childhood care and education (ECCE), universal enrollment and retention of children upto fourteen years of age substantial improvement in the quality of education and expand access for unserved students. Girls and students from the minority groups such as the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are to receive priority attention. The National Policy acknowledges past disadvantages due to gender caste and tribe affiliations and sets in motion the means for rectifying this disadvantage. At least implicitly then, India's national policy defines the existence of gaps – defined as differences between two groups

with respect to some indicators. For education, the indicators of interest are enrolment, retention and attendance (Aggarwal, D. 2002).

All supply side indicators relate to inputs into education production which is characterized by a high proportion of wastage, rejects, defectives and failures. Indicators relating to output may therefore be more appropriate to reflect the reach and effectiveness of education. Therefore the present chapter examines the critical gaps in unequal educational participation amongst the marginalized social groups and gender differentials, at primary level. It addresses the education deprivation of primary school students and how deprivation is closely woven with particular social formation that are fundamentally hierarchicised in terms of gender, caste and class.

The previous chapter looked into the accessibility, availability and supply side factors in schools, in our country, that play a determining role in ^ensuring enrollments and retentions at primary school level. The factors that effect access to education such as distance from school, availability of proper school buildings, adequate drinking water, availability of teachers etc. but the accessibility to education does not depend upon the availability of facilities alone. Levels and patterns of utilization of these existing facilities reflect the accessibility to education, where the result may be in the form of enrollments and retentions in a particular school.

3.2 Enrolments in Primary Schools:

Enrolment rates are key performance indicators of the extent, to which a particular education system manages to provide all children with schooling facility. As far as this scenario is concerned it reflects only one side of the story, as wastage in the form of dropouts and stagnation in the education system is very high. Wastage in education is a problem that both developed and under developed countries is facing today. It is well known that all pupils admitted to the first grade of the education cycle do not complete that cycle within the prescribed minimum period. Some of them dropout before the end of the cycle and some repeat one or more grades before either dropping out or completing the last grade of the cycle successfully. The word 'dropout' refers to premature withdrawal of pupil from the educational system at a particular stage of

instruction, while 'stagnation' or 'repetition' refers to the continuance of the pupil in the same grade for more than a year.

This problem has been widely investigated for many years in the developed and under developed countries. In India also the problem of wastage continues to plague the education system. Do children fail to attend school because they are forced by economic circumstances to work? Or do they work because the system allows them to stay out of school, which is boring and irrelevant to their lives in any case? The truth, surprisingly, lies closer to the latter statement

One of the eye-opening findings in the Public Report on Basic Education, the PROBE report, 1999 is that only one to five per cent of out-of-school children are actually involved in earning significant wages. Many of the children working up to eight hours a day were not earning any significant income as they were involved in jobs like looking after their siblings, cattle grazing etc. and not in wage-earning labour. Another surprising and heartening finding was that 98 per cent of parents felt that education was necessary for boys, and 89 per cent felt it was necessary for girls

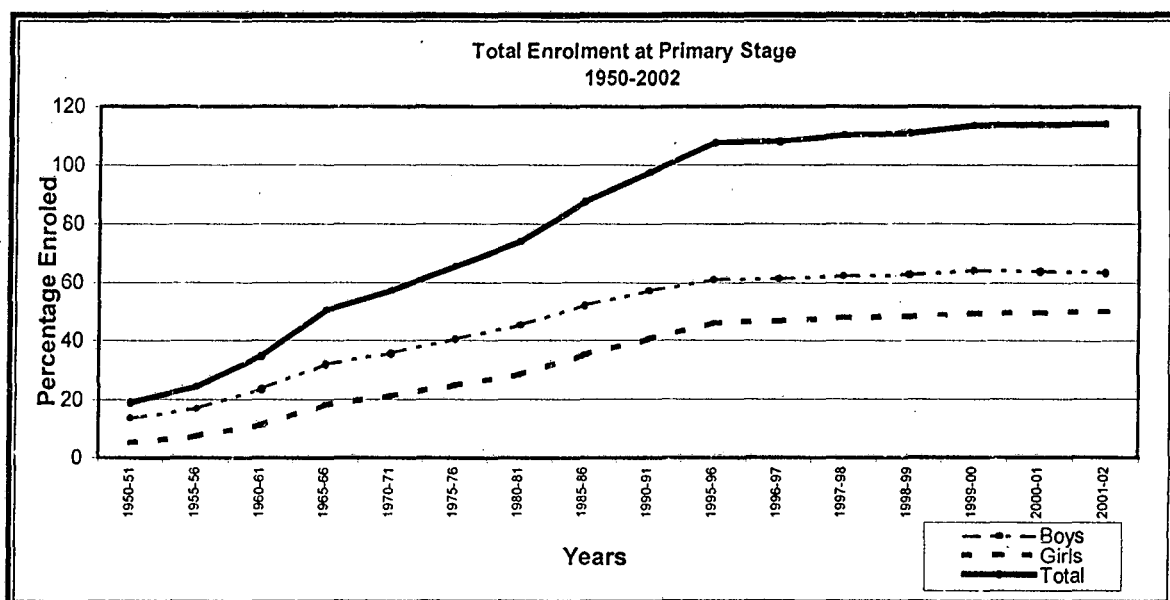
The increase in drop out rates can also be due to the unattractiveness of the school and teaching processes. The PROBE report recorded startling data about the lack of or dysfunctional state of basic amenities in many schools. As many as 52 per cent lacked playgrounds, 89 per cent did not have toilets and 59 per cent did not have drinking water. As for teaching aids, 26 per cent did not have blackboards, 59 per cent had no access to maps and charts, 67 per cent lacked any kind of teaching kits, and 75 per cent had no toys for the children. In 77 per cent of the schools, there were no libraries. The report also noted that when the team dropped in at the schools, only 53 per cent of the teachers were actually involved in teaching. The rest were either in the head teachers' rooms, or standing outside the class, talking with other teachers, or involved in other non-teaching activities

It is not factual, therefore, to cite poverty and ignorance as the main causes for poor school attendance and large-scale dropouts. A mass public demand for the passing of the 83rd amendment is an essential step to make this a reality. Critics of this move have rightly pointed out that given what actually happens in most schools, this is not

something we want to force on our children through the Constitution! So, the issue of the quality of education needs to be tackled simultaneously

There have been enormous amount of efforts made by different governmental and non-governmental bodies to ensure that all children falling in the 6-11 years age group enroll themselves, for which various sorts of incentives are attached to attract children into school especially at the primary level. The result of which has shown a positive impact as the national level data for total enrolments have increased by nearly 6 folds from an enrolment rate of 13.8 % in 1950 to 63.6 % in 2001-02. (Fig.3.1).

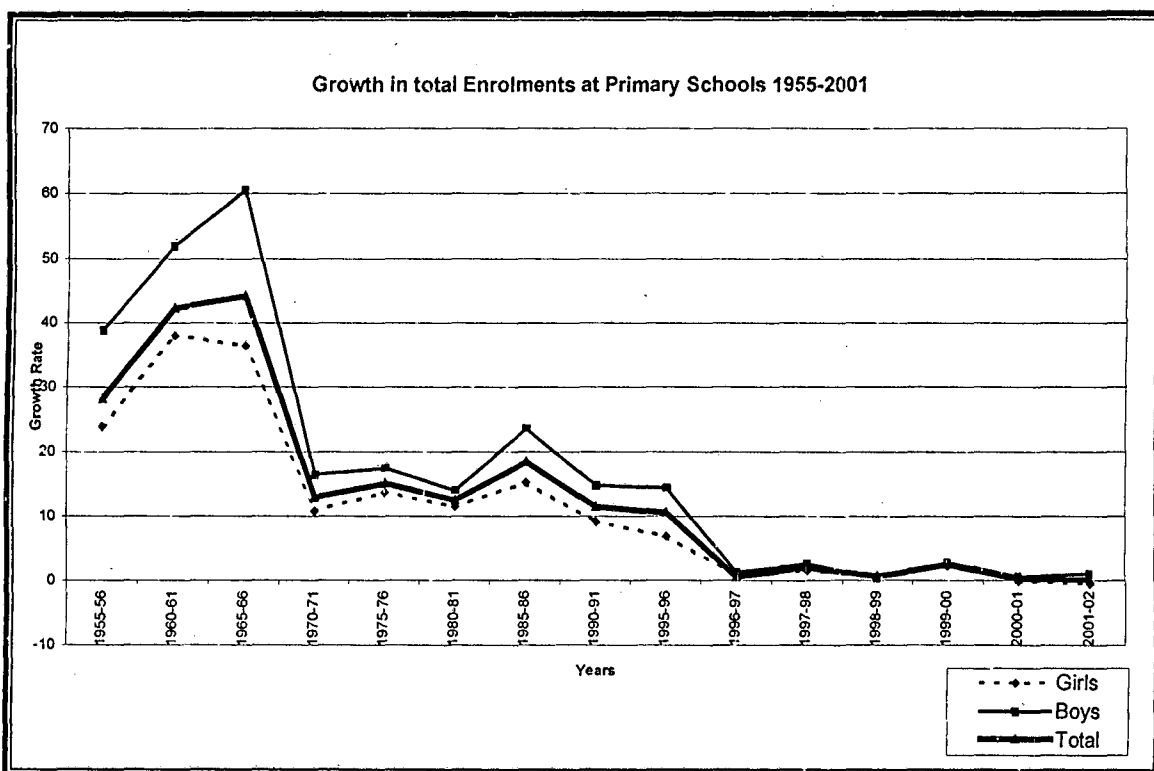
Fig.3.1



Source: *Selected Education Statistics, 2002*. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

The first decade of planned development saw a sudden and very high growth in the enrolments at primary level at 23 %, as a huge proportion of the school going population was out of school. The growth rate over the years has shown a declining trend, this could mainly be as because a large number of students had already joined school. Though we can notice a higher growth rate post policy year of 1986. The growth has been quite stable post mid 1990's as only a negligible portion of the population was out of school. Figure 3.2, shows us the growth rates, though low was stable for both males and females.

Fig.3.2



Source: *Selected Education Statistics, 2002*. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

3.2.1 Regional Disparity in Enrolments:

Enrolment as stated earlier is a key indicator in determining the progress of the education system of a country. Taking into account the vastness of a country like India, disparity is bound to exist in the education process where enrolment procedures, are prominent factors. These vast variations in the educational progress are across regions and across socio-economic classes.

This section deals with the differentials in enrolments based on the data from the 4th, 5th, 6th and 7th All India Educational Surveys. The analysis of enrolments at primary schools is based on three indicators, which are-

Age Specific Enrolment Ratio

Gross Enrolment Ratio

Net Enrolment Ratio.

These ratios are often used to examine the degree of participation in a given level of education. In this study, the enrolments at primary level for males and females within the framework of both rural and urban areas have been dealt with. The states have been categorized in this section too, on the basis of its population as high, medium, low and very low populated states.

A) Age Specific Enrolment Ratio:

Age Specific Enrolment Ratio for the age group 6 to 11 years is the percentage of the number of students in the corresponding age group, to the total population in that age group, irrespective of the class in which they are studying. This could also include children who are in pre primary classes or at times in the middle school level, but cases like this are very rare. This is an indicator for the achievement of the goal of UEE. The value of the ratio for most cases in this indicator is usually less than 100.

To have a better in depth look into the ASER, at the national level data, based on the AIES, have been analyzed. Where at the national level there have been fluctuations, it was 64.14 % in 1978 (Table.3.1), which increased to 75.89 % in 1986 (Table 3.2) and further declined to 66.40 % in 1993 (Table.3.3). Boys in all the years have shown a higher enrolment ratio in comparison to the girls at the primary level. In the rural urban differentials, the urban areas had a higher ASER. Though the 6th AIES survey shows a lower ratio of urban enrolment at 63.56 % in comparison to a 67.74 % rural ratio. This could be because the survey did not including many privately run and unrecognized schools, which are more operational in the urban centers. Such schools in urban areas have over the years increased.

High population:

In the high-populated states Tamil Nadu showed the highest percent of ASER in the time period taken for the study. It had the highest rate at 87.63 % in 1978 (Table.3.1), which showed a decline though in 1993 (Table.3.3), but was the highest at 78.06 %. The states of Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal were the other states that showed a higher ratio of ASER, in all the survey reports. Whereas the performance of the

educationally backward states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Rajasthan were considerably lower.

Enrolment amongst the boys in all the states in the various AIES's have been higher to the girl child enrolment, this is mainly due to a lower female status and importance of education attached to the male child, the result clearly visible in the enrolment ratio. The 4th Survey showed Tamil Nadu with 94.44 % boys enrolled, being the highest, whereas the lowest girl child enrolment was in the state of Rajasthan at only 23.03 %. The 6th Survey showed a marked increase in the total enrolment of girls but Bihar Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh still had a very low ASER, which were below 50 %. Thus putting forth that even after policy interventions and set targets the governments of these states was not able to ensure most girl children into schools.

Residence of a child plays an important role in determining his age at enrolment. People residing in rural areas tend to send their children at a higher age to schools in terms of the urban areas, which has some level on influence on the ASER. The data as stated earlier pertains mainly to recognized government primary schools, which has a higher dominance in the rural areas, therefore the enrolment in the rural areas was higher in comparison to the urban ASER. Where in both the urban and the rural front the states of West Bengal, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu showed a better performance in their ASER and the States of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan were

Medium Population:

In the medium populated states also there is not a very fixed trend in the ratios over the years. These mainly comprise of a relatively more educationally developed states, where the ASER has almost been above the national average in all the states. On the total enrolment front the states of Kerala, Karnataka and Punjab have shown high enrolment ratios. Where Kerala has shown an ASER of 85.99 % in 1978 and 83.44 % in 1993. On the other hand the states of Orissa, Jammu and Kashmir and Haryana, showed lower ASER. Where Jammu and Kashmir showed the lowest at 58.35 % in 1978 and 52.50 % in 1993.

Female enrolments again followed a similar trend of being on the lower side in comparison to the male counterpart. All states in this category show a lower female

Table.3.1

AGE SPECIFIC ENROLEMENT RATIO 4Tth SURVEY (1978)

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D
<i>High</i>												
Uttar Pradesh	72.82	30.00	52.42	0.51	65.35	51.84	58.36	0.14	55.65	51.36	53.40	0.05
Maharashtra	36.17	52.18	61.83	-0.20	49.46	26.98	38.54	0.32	88.30	70.09	79.39	0.17
Bihar	68.30	34.64	51.98	0.39	72.51	71.39	87.02	0.01	70.57	37.17	54.36	0.38
West Bengal	81.81	59.51	70.85	0.21	64.17	54.02	59.16	0.11	76.91	57.98	67.60	0.18
Andhra Pradesh	69.24	46.40	58.08	0.24	72.10	63.60	67.96	0.08	69.85	50.04	60.17	0.21
Tamil Nadu	92.79	80.62	87.06	0.11	96.85	80.18	88.41	0.15	94.44	80.43	87.63	0.12
Madhya Pradesh	59.46	26.77	43.90	0.44	72.64	53.82	63.11	0.19	61.95	32.41	47.71	0.37
Rajasthan	69.61	19.57	46.48	0.69	54.90	30.66	42.01	0.32	65.86	23.02	45.22	0.58
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	86.26	68.13	77.48	0.17	73.30	66.11	69.77	0.07	82.20	67.48	75.05	0.14
Gujarat	83.23	58.59	71.53	0.24	72.89	59.84	66.31	0.13	79.99	59.01	69.82	0.20
Orissa	70.96	45.42	58.51	0.27	49.88	40.00	45.03	0.12	67.76	44.59	56.45	0.25
Kerala	88.73	87.22	87.99	0.01	75.39	76.83	76.09	-0.01	86.48	85.48	85.99	0.01
Assam	81.36	61.75	71.81	0.19	34.01	29.51	31.77	0.07	71.94	55.12	63.71	0.17
Punjab	100.71	91.72	96.47	0.08	83.15	79.02	81.16	0.04	97.05	88.98	93.22	0.07
Haryana	79.76	41.37	62.14	0.41	65.43	45.34	54.50	0.22	77.35	42.25	60.66	0.37
Delhi	94.08	89.69	92.24	0.04	88.53	71.56	79.99	0.15	86.42	73.17	79.87	0.12
Jammu & Kashmir	70.70	36.39	54.52	0.39	72.46	55.94	75.81	0.17	76.03	40.92	58.35	0.38
<i>Low</i>												
Himachal Pradesh	90.66	68.34	79.80	0.20	93.48	55.47	71.38	0.36	90.87	67.00	79.06	0.22
Tripura	86.49	58.51	72.31	0.27	89.65	83.81	86.73	0.05	86.85	61.38	73.97	0.24
Meghalaya	70.91	16.79	43.17	0.78	34.72	48.89	58.35	-0.19	60.96	59.79	60.37	0.01
Manipur	87.62	63.58	75.34	0.22	81.30	81.39	81.34	0.00	86.49	66.48	76.37	0.18
Nagaland	76.43	63.91	70.34	0.12					76.43	63.91	70.34	0.12
Goa	89.36	73.84	81.60	0.14	66.93	64.71	65.84	0.02	82.35	71.08	76.76	0.10
Arunachal Pradesh	64.39	30.75	47.84	0.42	90.20	54.45	72.33	0.34	65.91	32.19	49.30	0.41
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	83.89	69.66	76.95	0.13	54.55	72.45	87.38	-0.18	88.70	74.69	81.57	0.13
Chandigarh	93.10	76.45	84.78	0.15	60.55	56.40	58.63	0.04	63.27	58.31	60.95	0.05
Mizoram	86.82	88.87	87.80	-0.02	69.48	24.78	81.34	0.58	88.84	85.39	87.14	0.03
Sikkim	82.67	56.63	69.65	0.25					82.67	56.63	69.65	0.25
A & N Nicobar	67.78	57.38	62.58	0.11	67.98	77.80	72.19	-0.09	67.84	62.09	65.07	0.06
D & N Haveli	85.23	54.52	69.88	0.30					85.23	54.52	69.88	0.30
Daman & Diu												
Lakshadweep	83.97	91.11	93.86	-0.06					83.97	91.11	93.86	-0.06
India	75.04	47.26	61.67	0.29	80.81	65.04	72.89	0.15	76.27	81.28	64.14	-0.05
CV	0.19	0.39	0.24		0.61	0.33	1.04		0.14	0.31	0.20	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

ASER, with the states of Orissa, Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir and Gujarat showed a lower female ASER with Jammu and Kashmir having 40.92 % ASER in 1978 and Orissa

at 44.59 % in 1978, and an ASER of 44.62 % and 66.15 % for 1993 for the respective states, in terms of female enrolments. On the other hand the states of Punjab, Kerala and Karnataka showed high female enrolments. Taking the male ratio in account the states overall show a favorable ASER. Where the states of Kerala, Punjab, Karnataka and Delhi show a higher ASER for males, much above the national average.

Rural urban distribution of these ratios has a very overlapping trend, but most of the rural areas show a higher ASER in terms of the urban areas. Both the rural urban trend in terms of enrolment, was higher in the states of Punjab, Karnataka, Kerala and Delhi and the states Orissa, Jammu and Kashmir and Assam showed a lower ASER. Taking a closer look in terms of the gender enrolment in rural and urban areas one can clearly notice that there is a distinct higher enrolment for boys in rural areas than the urban areas. Though the female ASER shows a mixed pattern.

Low and Very Low Population:

This category includes, mainly the hill states of our country, which do not show a very distinct variation in the terms of the states included in this category. The UT's of Pondicherry, Lakshadweep, Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Daman and Diu showed an ASER above the national average. Chandigarh was the only UT, which showed a low enrolment ratio, in the 4th and 5th AIES, but there was a slight increase in the 6th survey. The low ratio in this UT's does not imply that Chandigarh had a low enrolment ratio it is mainly because Chandigarh being an urban center has a high proportion of private schools, in comparison to the other UT's. Among the states Meghalaya, Sikkim and Arunachal showed lower ASER with Arunachal having only 49.30 % enrolment in 1978 and Sikkim at 53.48 % 1993.

In the enrolment ratios among boys and girls, all the states showed a higher ratio for boys, following the similar trend as in the previous analysis. But the states which showed a higher ASER within the male category in 1978 were Himachal Pradesh (90.87 %) and Pondicherry (88.70 %), while Arunachal Pradesh (65.91%) and Dadar and Nagar Haveli (67.84%) showed lower male enrolments in the Forth Survey. On the other hand the states of Tripura (96.72 %) Manipur (95.53 %) and Pondicherry (95.66 %) showed high male enrolments in the Sixth Survey. Whereas the states of Meghalaya

Table.3.2
AGE SPECIFIC ENROLEMENT RATIO 5th SURVEY (1986)

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D
<i>High</i>												
Uttar Pradesh	75.29	40.20	58.76	0.38	73.80	70.11	72.06	0.03	75.02	45.53	61.13	0.31
Maharashtra	91.09	77.63	84.50	0.12	85.50	81.77	83.67	0.03	89.05	79.14	84.19	0.09
Bihar	96.31	49.50	73.04	0.45	79.71	60.62	70.21	0.18	94.23	50.90	72.68	0.42
West Bengal	84.91	67.12	76.22	0.16	67.25	58.70	63.08	0.09	80.41	64.97	72.87	0.15
Andhra Pradesh	86.04	61.73	73.97	0.23	80.54	72.71	76.65	0.07	84.77	64.27	74.59	0.19
Tamil Nadu	97.37	93.26	95.48	0.04	99.65	95.83	97.79	0.03	98.07	94.11	96.22	0.03
Madhya Pradesh	98.33	60.86	80.06	0.34	85.65	85.19	93.09	0.13	98.80	66.11	82.89	0.30
Rajasthan	85.74	35.16	63.41	0.55	82.50	63.64	73.90	0.18	85.07	41.32	65.62	0.45
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	85.54	69.83	77.77	0.14	74.82	70.65	72.56	0.04	93.31	79.86	86.68	0.12
Gujarat	85.70	67.87	76.98	0.16	79.81	70.52	75.28	0.09	83.81	68.71	76.44	0.14
Orissa	83.94	60.31	72.26	0.22	92.24	77.10	84.69	0.13	84.88	62.23	73.67	0.21
Kerala	87.22	85.70	86.47	0.01	87.07	88.81	87.93	-0.02	87.20	86.11	86.66	0.01
Assam	89.10	73.53	81.58	0.14	76.53	70.94	73.84	0.05	87.84	73.27	80.81	0.13
Punjab	96.31	92.43	94.50	0.03	58.68	61.43	59.96	-0.03	86.81	84.65	85.80	0.02
Haryana	89.52	69.81	80.40	0.18	59.43	58.66	59.07	0.01	83.18	67.39	75.84	0.15
Delhi	84.56	80.26	79.56	0.04	72.11	71.54	71.85	0.01	76.35	75.05	75.75	0.01
Jammu & Kashmir	86.89	58.38	73.39	0.27	85.07	89.26	87.04	-0.04	86.59	63.35	75.61	0.22
<i>Low</i>												
Himachal Pradesh	83.19	72.88	78.12	0.09	82.79	77.47	80.20	0.05	83.16	73.24	78.28	0.09
Tripura	79.65	75.85	77.54	0.03	99.51	93.47	96.53	0.05	87.85	78.52	77.58	0.08
Meghalaya	54.50	52.53	53.51	0.02	67.48	65.07	66.27	0.02	56.54	54.49	55.51	0.02
Manipur	84.62	75.97	80.32	0.08	84.12	73.53	78.87	0.10	84.48	75.31	79.93	0.08
Nagaland	57.55	59.55	58.53	-0.02	47.58	43.13	45.39	0.06	55.45	56.10	55.77	-0.01
Goa	84.62	77.68	83.18	0.06	83.52	80.20	81.23	0.03	87.25	79.51	83.41	0.07
Arunachal Pradesh	71.39	51.81	61.83	0.20	92.15	73.96	83.05	0.16	72.92	53.52	63.43	0.20
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	97.44	94.13	95.83	0.03	92.35	86.43	89.41	0.05	94.72	89.93	92.37	0.04
Chandigarh	86.35	86.48	86.41	0.00	64.33	63.50	63.94	0.01	66.20	65.36	65.81	0.01
Mizoram	89.80	86.66	88.25	0.03	51.44	52.35	51.89	-0.01	74.38	72.87	73.64	0.01
Sikkim	78.37	64.86	71.68	0.13	31.23	29.48	30.36	0.03	70.47	58.93	64.75	0.11
A & N Nicobar	73.83	65.44	69.63	0.08	94.98	84.27	89.65	0.09	78.97	69.98	74.48	0.08
D & N Haveli	92.48	75.80	84.79	0.15	94.71	75.06	84.86	0.18	92.77	75.69	84.80	0.15
Daman & Diu	86.95	82.39	84.69	0.04	93.82	89.17	91.51	0.04	89.52	84.93	87.24	0.04
Lakshadweep	96.69	95.20	95.96	0.01	97.90	97.44	97.68	0.00	97.23	96.21	96.73	0.01
India	87.43	61.28	74.82	0.25	83.00	75.84	79.54	0.07	86.43	64.59	75.89	0.20
CV	15.93	24.87	18.10		22.00	22.12	21.65		15.01	20.45	15.65	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi
B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

(56.58 %) and Nagaland (49.17 %) showed a lower ASER for males. Regarding the female ASER in this category of states was very low with Arunachal Pradesh having only

Table.3.3

AGE SPECIFIC ENROLEMENT RATIO 6th SURVEY (1993)

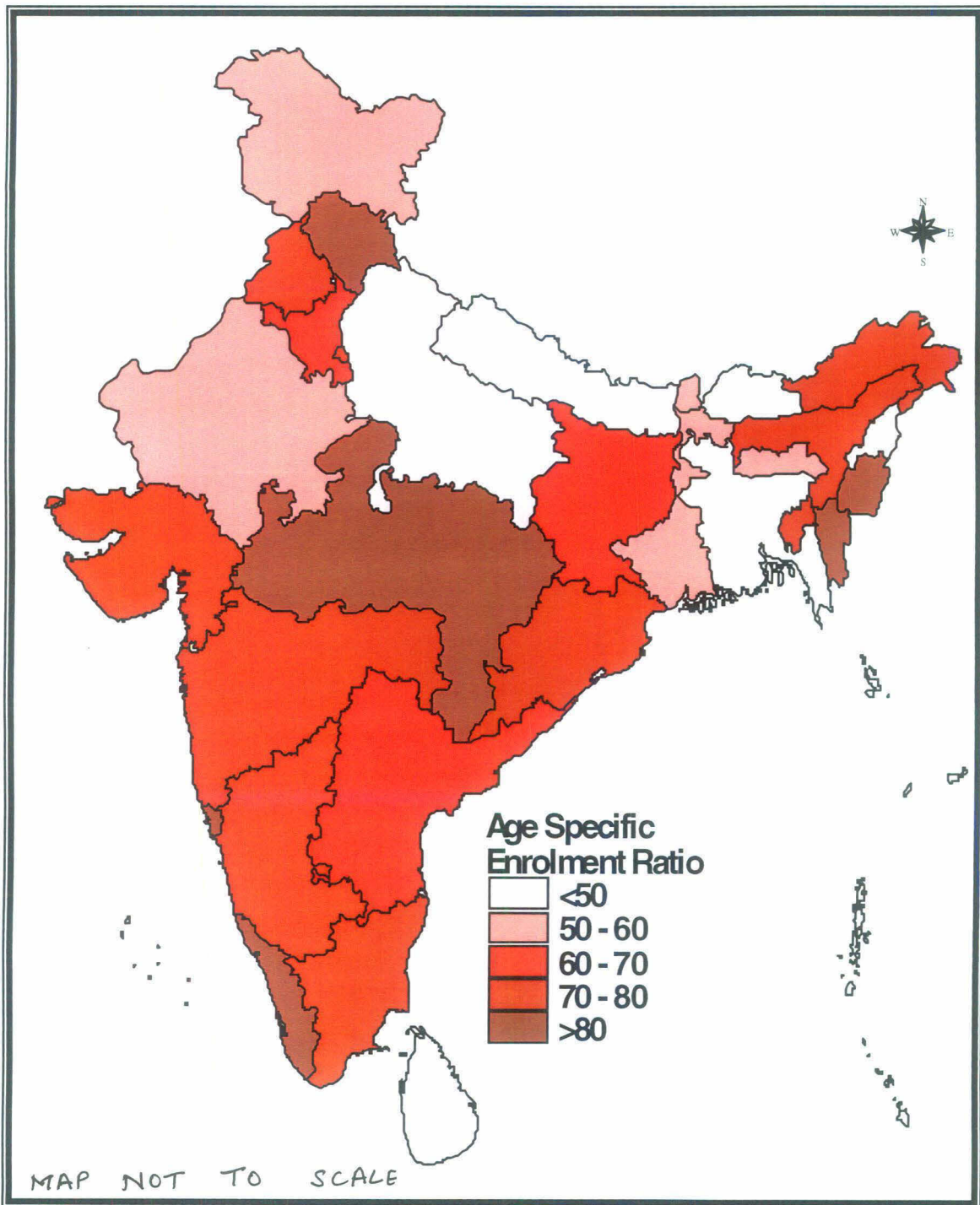
STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
	B	G	T		B	G	T		B	G	T	
<i>High</i>												
Uttar Pradesh	58.88	36.42	48.36	0.27	53.25	46.03	49.87	0.08	57.76	38.33	48.66	0.23
Maharashtra	96.40	77.48	87.18	0.17	66.44	62.52	64.53	0.04	83.04	70.81	77.08	0.11
Bihar	80.28	46.60	64.31	0.34	56.48	52.83	54.75	0.04	77.15	47.42	63.05	0.31
West Bengal	65.41	55.70	60.65	0.10	48.22	44.91	46.60	0.04	60.43	52.57	56.57	0.08
Andhra Pradesh	70.87	56.41	63.74	0.15	66.28	64.59	65.45	0.02	69.63	58.61	64.20	0.11
Tamil Nadu	87.22	82.20	84.75	0.04	64.78	65.43	65.10	-0.01	79.58	76.49	78.06	0.03
Madhya Pradesh	93.85	68.18	81.32	0.23	89.08	79.70	84.50	0.08	92.75	70.83	82.05	0.20
Rajasthan	73.70	35.49	55.55	0.43	67.35	55.35	61.65	0.12	72.25	40.04	56.94	0.35
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	87.27	75.39	81.33	0.11	79.32	73.07	76.20	0.06	84.71	74.64	79.68	0.09
Gujarat	82.64	69.22	76.13	0.12	79.02	73.09	76.15	0.05	81.39	70.56	76.14	0.10
Orissa	86.52	67.41	77.07	0.18	74.54	65.56	70.10	0.09	84.84	67.15	76.10	0.16
Kerala	87.85	84.54	86.21	0.03	76.03	75.38	75.71	0.01	84.73	82.12	83.44	0.02
Assam	85.37	72.70	79.12	0.12	79.28	72.93	76.14	0.06	84.71	72.73	78.79	0.11
Punjab	86.56	81.93	80.89	0.04	49.80	52.29	50.97	-0.03	74.99	72.91	74.90	0.02
Haryana	78.09	72.48	75.46	0.05	49.47	51.11	50.24	-0.02	71.07	67.24	69.27	0.04
Delhi	79.37	82.22	80.71	-0.03	74.89	77.87	76.30	-0.03	75.34	78.31	76.75	-0.03
Jammu & Kashmir	68.95	48.85	58.94	0.21	34.86	32.14	33.50	0.04	60.32	44.62	52.50	0.18
<i>Low</i>												
Himachal Pradesh	86.37	82.57	84.50	0.03	93.21	86.09	83.79	0.06	86.96	82.87	84.95	0.04
Tripura	98.42	87.79	93.20	0.09	87.55	81.23	84.45	0.06	96.72	86.76	91.84	0.09
Meghalaya	55.23	56.66	55.94	-0.02	62.50	67.73	65.09	-0.05	56.58	58.71	57.64	-0.02
Manipur	95.30	88.75	92.07	0.06	96.11	91.95	94.06	0.04	95.53	89.63	92.62	0.05
Nagaland	42.97	41.42	42.21	0.02	79.42	77.10	78.28	0.02	49.17	47.48	48.34	0.02
Goa	76.25	74.05	75.16	0.02	85.94	82.45	83.26	0.03	87.02	84.93	85.99	0.02
Arunachal Pradesh	77.95	62.82	70.63	0.14	86.71	73.19	80.17	0.12	79.06	64.14	71.85	0.14
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	98.39	93.26	95.86	0.04	94.12	86.26	90.25	0.07	95.66	88.78	92.27	0.06
Chandigarh	65.86	64.67	65.30	0.01	71.18	70.40	70.81	0.01	70.25	69.40	69.85	0.01
Mizoram	86.42	76.85	81.64	0.09	78.12	76.09	77.11	0.02	82.62	76.50	79.56	0.06
Sikkim	65.80	56.57	61.18	0.09	79.56	82.94	78.52	-0.03	61.25	53.51	57.38	0.08
A & N Nicobar	86.76	84.44	85.61	0.02	89.45	82.47	86.00	0.06	87.47	83.92	85.72	0.03
D & N Haveli	80.60	56.89	68.87	0.23	84.78	72.56	79.22	0.11	87.13	63.25	75.31	0.22
Daman & Diu	84.47	83.55	84.03	0.01	91.70	93.30	92.48	-0.01	87.74	87.96	87.85	0.00
Lakshadweep	92.26	90.38	91.35	0.02	95.45	89.44	92.54	0.05	94.06	89.85	92.02	0.04
India	75.87	58.33	67.40	0.17	65.57	61.42	63.56	0.04	73.20	59.14	66.40	0.14
CV	22.96	23.28	19.76		32.21	28.98	30.46		20.80	21.82	19.09	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

32.19 % in 1978 and 53.52 % in 1986 but showed an increase to 64.14 % in 1993, which is mainly due to various efforts of policy interventions taken up to increase female

Age Specific Enrolment Ratio in Primary Schools in India 1993



enrolment in the states. Meghalaya, Dadar and Nagar Haveli and Nagaland were other states, which showed a low female enrolment.

On the rural urban front, most urban areas in these states showed a higher ASER, except in the states of Himachal Pradesh, Goa and Mizoram that have shown a higher rural ASER. Meghalaya had the lowest rural enrolment at 43.17 % in 1978 and 55.94 % in 1993, followed by Nagaland. On the urban front the states of Pondicherry and Mizoram had higher ASER.

Therefore from the above stated analysis we can infer that it was the low populated North Eastern States along with educationally developed states of Kerala, Himachal and Goa that came out as overall better performers of ASER. Indicating that there was least amount of overage and under age children participating in education further implying that the rate of stagnation or repetition was also low in these states. The regional disparity measured with coefficient of variation showed an increasing trend in the years.

B) Gross Enrolment Ratio

Gross Enrolment Ratio is defined as the percentage of total enrolments to the total population in that age group, therefore in reference to this study it will be, all students going to primary schools in 6 to 11 years age group, to the total population in this age group. This is a crude measurement of enrolment at any stage of education system, as it does not rule out the factor of the underage and overage. As a result of which GER values exceed 100. If it is well above 100 in most cases it shows high participation of the age of the learners, which could be attributed to the inefficiency in the educational system in terms of deliverance.

The Goss Enrolment Ratio at an all India level (Table.3.4) has increased by nearly two folds from 42.6 % in 1950 to 96.3 % in 2001. A sudden rise in the enrolments post 1950's can mainly be because of a large number of schools being opened in rural areas, which earlier were the neglected areas. This sudden boost in educational development gave way to a high number of enrolments. The GER over the years has been higher for the male population falling at 105.3 in 2001.

Table.3.4
Gross Enrolment Ratio in Primary Schools in India. 1950 - 2001.

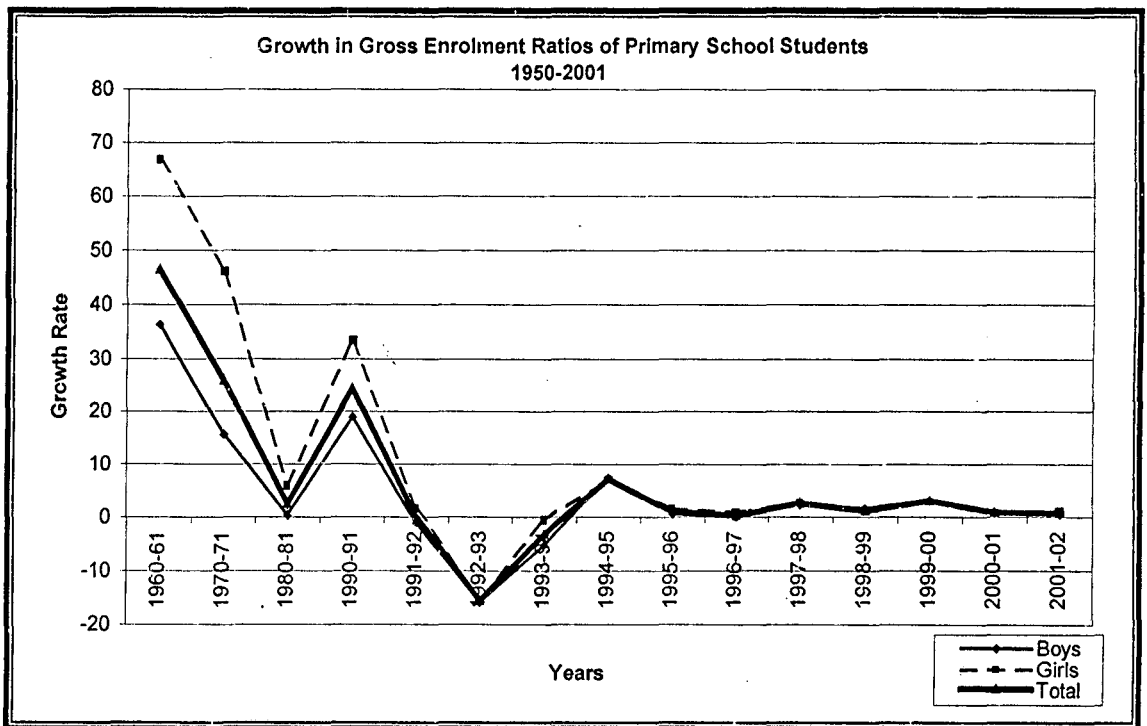
Year	1950-51	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01*	2001-02*
Boys	60.6	82.6	95.5	95.8	114	97	99.3	100.9	104.1	104.9	105.3
Girls	24.8	41.4	60.5	64.1	85.5	80.1	82.2	82.9	85.2	85.9	86.9
Total	42.6	62.4	78.6	80.5	100.1	88.8	91.1	92.1	94.9	95.7	96.3

Source: *Selected Education Statistics*, 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

*- Provisional

The growth rates in the first decade post independence for the total primary school enrolment was by nearly 46 %. Which dropped to 25 % between 1960-70, even showed a negative growth in the early 90's. But was consistent even though it was low in the late 1990's. (fig.3.3)

Fig.3.3



Source: *Selected Education Statistics*, 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

The GER for the time frame in the study overall shows a very fluctuating trend with many states having high ratios, only implying that the distribution of the children enrolled in primary schools is not in pace with the specified age, that is 6 to 11 years. They could be either overage or underage, in respect of the class in which they are enrolled. But in a country like ours the case of underage is a rare one. Stagnation,

Table.3.5

GROSS ENROLEMENT RATIO 5th SURVEY (1986)

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D
<i>High</i>												
Uttar Pradesh	87.51	47.81	68.80	0.39	80.02	61.98	71.54	0.17	86.17	50.33	69.29	0.35
Maharashtra	110.57	105.58	107.58	0.04	121.98	110.05	116.12	0.11	125.82	107.22	116.70	0.17
Bihar	108.20	51.41	79.97	0.53	84.33	62.17	73.30	0.21	105.20	52.77	79.13	0.49
West Bengal	91.72	72.26	82.22	0.18	73.84	64.05	69.06	0.09	87.16	70.17	78.86	0.16
Andhra Pradesh	107.44	78.83	93.24	0.25	92.09	83.92	88.03	0.07	103.89	80.01	92.03	0.21
Tamil Nadu	132.30	128.10	130.36	0.04	107.25	103.72	105.53	0.03	124.59	120.02	122.44	0.04
Madhya Pradesh	114.83	69.48	92.72	0.40	121.61	101.25	111.77	0.18	116.31	76.33	96.86	0.35
Rajasthan	102.46	42.73	76.09	0.59	110.30	79.22	96.13	0.27	104.08	50.62	80.31	0.51
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	107.44	85.98	96.82	0.19	149.13	138.90	144.15	0.11	117.70	98.69	108.33	0.17
Gujarat	124.43	94.52	109.80	0.26	110.14	97.01	103.73	0.11	119.85	95.31	107.86	0.22
Orissa	110.26	80.35	95.47	0.26	110.85	93.64	102.27	0.15	110.33	81.87	96.24	0.25
Kerala	107.71	105.16	106.45	0.02	100.14	100.90	100.52	-0.01	106.71	104.59	105.67	0.02
Assam	98.88	80.73	90.12	0.16	94.05	85.55	89.96	0.07	98.40	81.21	90.10	0.15
Punjab	106.52	99.92	103.44	0.06	68.93	71.76	70.24	-0.03	97.03	92.85	95.08	0.04
Haryana	103.00	79.86	92.29	0.20	68.87	69.49	69.16	-0.01	95.81	77.61	87.35	0.16
Delhi	152.95	143.52	148.62	0.11	87.46	85.60	86.60	0.02	92.76	90.21	91.58	0.02
Himachal Pradesh	106.19	92.27	99.35	0.12	103.69	96.39	100.14	0.06	106.00	92.59	99.41	0.12
Jammu & Kashmir	91.14	61.25	76.99	0.28	92.47	98.50	95.29	-0.05	91.36	67.25	79.96	0.22
<i>Low</i>												
Tripura	138.63	114.34	126.72	0.23	104.33	98.28	101.35	0.05	135.21	112.73	124.17	0.21
Meghalaya	113.56	110.01	111.77	0.03	91.92	91.27	91.59	0.01	110.16	107.08	108.61	0.03
Manipur	101.34	88.57	95.00	0.11	96.31	82.43	89.42	0.12	99.98	86.91	93.50	0.11
Nagaland	119.10	112.18	115.70	0.06	82.82	72.88	77.93	0.09	111.47	103.92	107.76	0.07
Goa	137.47	125.70	131.63	0.11	144.10	132.43	138.30	0.12	138.97	127.22	133.13	0.11
Arunachal Pradesh	109.77	76.72	93.64	0.29	120.78	94.64	107.70	0.23	110.59	78.10	94.70	0.29
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	128.55	126.14	127.38	0.02	115.39	108.02	111.73	0.06	121.52	116.27	118.94	0.05
Chandigarh	109.21	109.05	109.14	0.00	78.92	76.83	77.95	0.02	81.51	79.44	80.55	0.02
Mizoram	156.31	142.44	149.48	0.16	82.08	82.74	82.41	-0.01	126.48	118.45	122.53	0.07
Sikkim	157.52	129.66	143.72	0.30	49.41	47.13	48.28	0.03	139.40	115.83	127.72	0.22
A & N Nicobar	95.45	83.17	89.30	0.11	105.60	92.93	99.30	0.11	97.92	85.52	91.72	0.11
D. & N. Haveli	139.37	110.00	125.83	0.27	120.65	92.98	106.78	0.24	136.94	107.45	123.18	0.27
Daman & Diu	169.59	153.72	161.71	0.23	157.24	141.90	149.62	0.18	164.97	149.30	157.19	0.20
Lakshadweep	151.09	142.64	146.97	0.09	149.84	134.48	142.28	0.16	150.54	138.96	144.87	0.13
India	106.18	74.37	90.84	0.28	100.42	88.35	94.59	0.11	104.88	77.55	91.69	0.24
C.V.	18.10	29.77	22.29		24.25	24.07	23.73		17.18	25.49	19.79	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

Table.3.6

GROSS ENROLEMENT RATIO 6th SURVEY (1993)

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
<i>High</i>	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D
Uttar Pradesh	75.57	48.05	62.68	0.28	70.63	61.05	66.14	0.09	74.59	50.63	63.37	0.24
Maharashtra	109.81	100.30	105.17	0.08	84.52	79.49	82.07	0.05	98.53	91.02	94.87	0.07
Bihar	80.32	46.62	64.34	0.34	56.48	52.83	54.75	0.04	77.19	47.43	63.08	0.31
West Bengal	96.91	83.80	90.48	0.12	67.36	62.91	65.17	0.04	88.34	77.74	83.14	0.09
Andhra Pradesh	84.92	70.05	77.58	0.14	72.06	70.82	71.44	0.01	81.46	70.25	75.93	0.10
Tamil Nadu	112.14	105.98	109.11	0.05	82.25	83.11	82.67	-0.01	101.96	98.20	100.11	0.03
Madhya Pradesh	97.06	72.24	84.95	0.22	107.18	94.20	100.85	0.11	99.38	77.29	88.60	0.20
Rajasthan	95.35	46.53	72.16	0.48	94.32	77.11	86.14	0.15	95.12	53.53	75.36	0.39
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	108.84	93.43	101.14	0.13	101.59	93.33	97.46	0.07	106.51	93.40	99.96	0.11
Gujarat	112.56	92.82	102.99	0.17	109.13	100.07	104.73	0.08	111.37	95.33	103.59	0.14
Orissa	107.76	85.84	96.93	0.19	86.54	76.99	81.82	0.09	104.80	84.60	94.82	0.18
Kerala	103.09	98.96	101.05	0.04	87.34	86.70	87.03	0.01	98.93	95.72	97.34	0.03
Assam	94.10	79.84	87.06	0.13	84.69	77.45	81.12	0.07	93.08	79.58	86.41	0.12
Punjab	98.29	91.28	95.00	0.06	58.60	59.15	58.86	-0.01	86.21	81.50	83.99	0.04
Haryana	86.92	80.73	84.02	0.06	56.64	58.84	57.67	-0.02	79.49	75.36	77.56	0.04
Delhi	104.61	108.73	106.55	-0.04	98.37	103.00	100.56	-0.04	99.00	103.58	101.17	-0.04
Jammu & Kashmir	82.54	59.16	70.89	0.22	43.01	39.78	41.40	0.04	72.53	54.25	63.43	0.18
<i>Low</i>												
Himachal Pradesh	111.35	105.81	108.63	0.05	115.07	104.27	109.77	0.09	111.67	105.67	108.72	0.05
Tripura	111.53	96.80	104.30	0.13	92.71	85.94	89.39	0.06	108.60	95.11	101.98	0.12
Meghalaya	105.71	107.13	106.42	-0.01	94.26	99.34	96.78	-0.04	103.58	105.69	104.63	-0.02
Manipur	120.10	107.00	113.64	0.12	115.49	110.02	112.79	0.05	118.84	107.83	113.40	0.10
Nagaland	68.93	66.32	67.65	0.03	119.83	113.41	116.69	0.06	77.58	74.32	75.98	0.03
Goa	103.15	97.55	100.39	0.05	130.39	122.26	126.38	0.08	114.23	107.60	110.96	0.06
Arunachal Pradesh	110.25	89.21	100.08	0.18	105.38	90.57	98.22	0.13	109.63	89.39	99.84	0.18
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	123.33	117.31	120.36	0.05	116.47	108.43	112.51	0.07	118.94	111.62	115.33	0.07
Chandigarh	85.68	82.71	84.28	0.03	87.20	87.11	87.16	0.00	86.94	86.34	86.66	0.01
Mizoram	136.75	118.99	127.87	0.17	116.76	109.87	113.31	0.06	127.60	114.82	121.21	0.12
Sikkim	120.51	104.68	112.60	0.14	20.65	32.44	26.55	-0.23	111.38	98.07	104.72	0.12
A & N Nicobar	118.40	110.36	114.42	0.07	112.93	102.32	107.68	0.09	116.95	108.22	112.63	0.08
D. & N. Haveli	109.74	73.59	91.85	0.32	199.63	153.80	176.96	2.21	117.36	80.38	99.06	0.33
Daman & Diu	113.22	104.38	108.92	0.08	108.16	101.72	105.03	0.06	110.93	103.18	107.16	0.07
Lakshadweep	127.01	120.27	123.75	0.06	134.22	120.27	127.47	0.13	131.07	120.27	125.84	0.10
India	92.76	71.82	82.65	0.19	82.28	76.74	79.60	0.05	90.04	73.10	81.85	0.15
C.V.	14.98	23.25	17.86		33.65	28.75	31.08		15.54	21.65	17.51	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

repetition and dropouts are serious problems, which could be cited as one of the main reasons for GER in states being more than 100.

On the national front the GER has over the years shown a higher trend in the female population, though there is a decline in growth. In 1986 (Table.3.5) it was 105 %, which fell to 95 % in 2002 for the girl child. The male enrolments show an increasing trend at 77.55 % in 1986 and 93 % in 2002 (Table3.7). But the national averages fell at 92 % and 93% for total GER in the respective years. A higher number GER for girls could mainly be due to late entry into the schools at an older age, and also their neglect as male education in our society is given more importance. In the rural urban front on the national level, the urban areas had a higher GER at 94.59 % in 1986 and 95.16 % in 2002.

High Population:

In the populous states of our country Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh showed an overall high GER, maintaining their ranks in almost the entire time period of the study. Though the ratios have gone above 100 in some cases but the results are favorable. While the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Rajasthan show a low GER, proving a dominance of their rural population and lesser importance attached to education. But in terms of the growth of GER all these states show an upward trend. Where Uttar Pradesh had a GER of only 69.29 % in 1986, which had grown to 88.33 % in 2002.

In the gender distribution of enrolment Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu had high male enrolments at 126 % and 124 % respectively in 1986, with Tamil Nadu having the lowest Disparity ratio at 0.04 %. While Rajasthan and Bihar showed low GER, for both males and females and also the highest gender disparity value at 0.51 % and 0.49 % respectively for both the states. Implying a low status of women in these states and ignorance of the girl child in terms of attainment of basic formal education.

The urban areas in this scenario also show a higher GER, with the states of Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh having a high ratio. A similar trend is followed for the rural areas also. While the states of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan had a low GER.

Table.3.7

GROSS ENROLEMENT RATIO 7th SURVEY (2002)

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
<i>High</i>	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D
Uttar Pradesh	89.43	86.76	88.17	0.02	92.05	85.64	89.04	0.06	89.91	86.55	88.33	0.03
Maharashtra	99.85	97.98	98.95	0.02	108.76	107.07	107.95	0.01	103.39	101.56	102.51	0.02
Bihar	81.34	65.37	73.76	0.15	52.36	55.09	53.65	-0.03	78.68	64.43	71.92	0.14
West Bengal	103.71	104.25	103.97	0.00	88.08	90.51	89.25	-0.02	100.37	101.37	100.86	-0.01
Andhra Pradesh	93.96	95.75	94.84	-0.02	95.93	96.97	96.44	-0.01	94.45	96.06	95.23	-0.01
Tamil Nadu	113.63	113.02	113.33	0.01	119.19	115.86	117.56	0.03	115.98	114.24	115.14	0.02
Madhya Pradesh	90.77	84.79	87.89	0.05	109.20	102.46	106.00	0.06	95.13	88.89	92.13	0.05
Rajasthan	99.02	90.07	94.78	0.08	100.96	94.08	97.73	0.06	99.42	90.88	95.38	0.07
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	108.99	106.43	107.73	0.02	108.85	107.17	108.03	0.01	108.95	106.66	107.83	0.02
Gujarat	113.25	108.26	110.89	0.04	107.56	105.13	106.45	0.02	111.29	107.23	109.39	0.04
Orissa	106.32	100.03	103.25	0.05	89.00	86.46	87.77	0.02	104.03	98.27	101.22	0.05
Kerala	95.56	94.80	95.19	0.01	101.88	103.53	102.69	-0.01	97.13	96.97	97.06	0.00
Assam	86.62	84.19	85.43	0.02	89.24	89.22	89.23	0.00	86.87	84.68	85.80	0.02
Punjab	71.64	77.84	74.45	-0.06	53.39	56.78	54.90	-0.04	65.74	71.21	68.20	-0.05
Haryana	81.24	81.63	81.42	0.00	68.07	67.00	67.59	0.01	77.66	77.76	77.71	0.00
Delhi	72.72	77.19	74.79	-0.04	86.34	88.38	87.29	-0.02	85.35	87.58	86.39	-0.02
Jammu & Kashmir	85.78	73.60	79.82	0.11	76.08	72.09	74.20	0.04	83.75	73.30	78.68	0.10
<i>Low</i>												
Himachal Pradesh	110.67	110.73	110.70	0.00	125.57	119.36	122.74	0.06	112.01	111.44	111.74	0.01
Tripura	122.09	115.70	118.96	0.06	124.26	121.50	122.91	0.03	122.36	116.41	119.45	0.05
Meghalaya	107.19	111.96	109.54	-0.04	118.45	125.35	121.89	-0.06	109.04	114.20	111.58	-0.05
Manipur	125.59	123.26	124.46	0.02	136.20	134.53	135.38	0.02	127.80	125.63	126.75	0.02
Nagaland	53.16	53.26	53.21	0.00	90.95	84.74	87.97	0.05	59.20	58.30	58.77	0.01
Goa	90.47	86.98	88.77	0.03	116.33	111.85	114.15	0.04	104.43	100.40	102.46	0.04
Arunachal Pradesh	106.49	92.00	99.43	0.13	116.14	107.60	111.94	0.08	108.44	95.20	101.98	0.12
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	116.47	110.94	113.77	0.05	114.42	114.45	114.43	0.00	115.13	113.23	114.20	0.02
Chandigarh	92.65	100.53	96.28	-0.07	66.74	64.40	65.67	0.02	69.53	68.36	69.00	0.01
Mizoram	134.25	127.42	130.93	0.07	115.03	113.37	114.22	0.01	125.55	120.98	123.32	0.04
Sikkim	117.73	120.14	118.93	-0.02	61.70	69.47	65.51	-0.08	112.79	115.76	114.26	-0.03
A & N Nicobar	112.71	108.37	110.58	0.04	122.69	115.75	119.27	0.06	115.90	110.75	113.37	0.05
D. & N. Haveli	129.42	111.65	120.61	0.16	134.80	117.43	126.40	0.16	130.64	112.92	121.90	0.16
Daman & Diu	99.52	96.12	97.85	0.03	142.52	131.79	137.36	0.11	115.88	109.39	112.72	0.06
Lakshadweep	108.35	93.66	101.18	0.13	116.50	106.25	111.64	0.09	111.72	98.69	105.43	0.11
India	94.36	89.91	92.23	0.04	96.01	94.23	95.16	0.02	94.76	90.93	92.92	0.03
C.V.	17.56	18.11	17.53		24.37	22.63	23.44		17.90	18.52	17.98	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

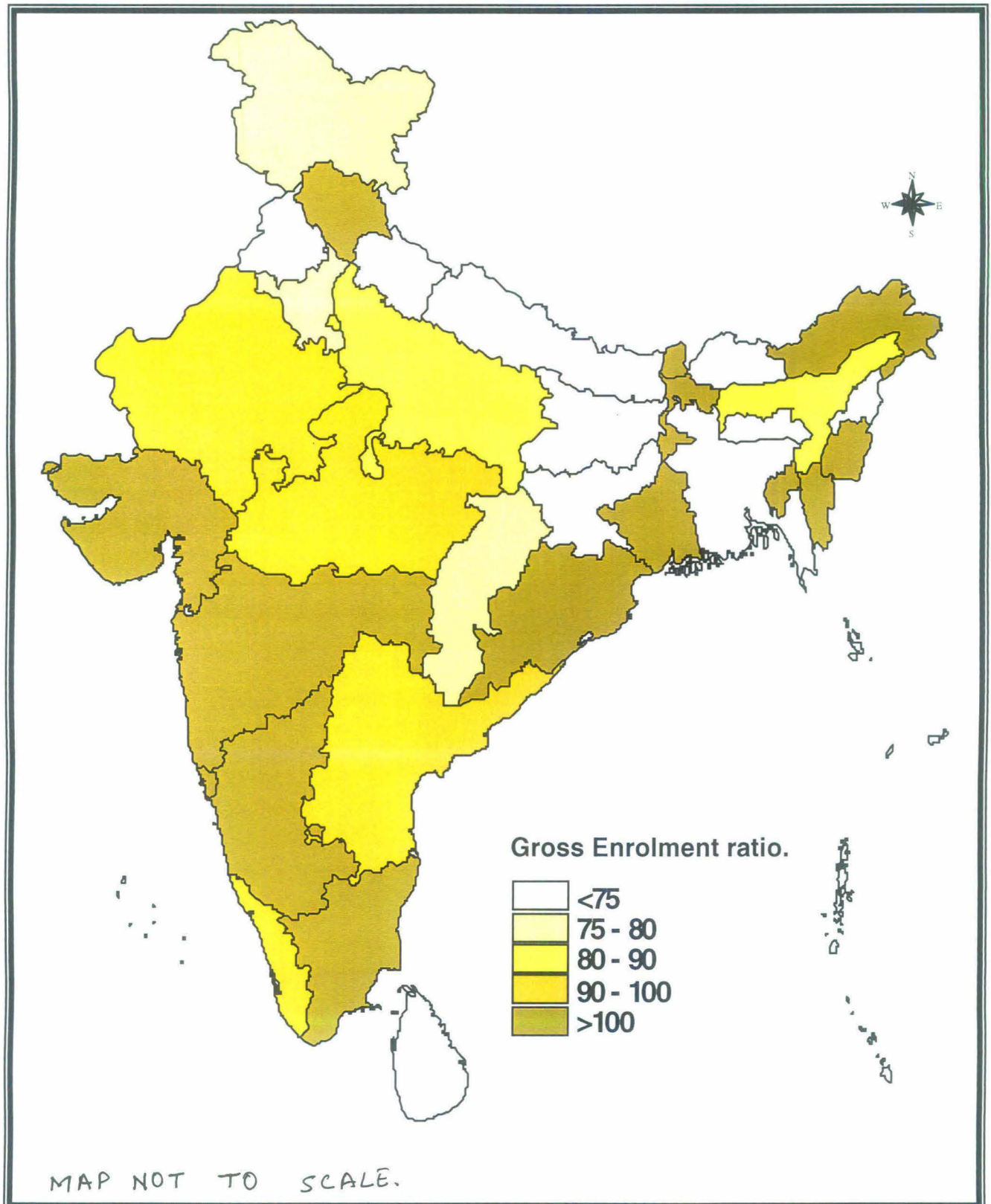
Medium Population:

In the medium populated states Kerala, Gujarat and Karnataka were the better performers, with a higher GER, which was at 105.67 %, 107.86 % and 108.33 % for the respective states in 1986 and 97.06 %, 109.39 % and 106.66 % in 2002 for the same states. While the states which fell on the lower side were the states of Jammu and Kashmir (67.25 %, 1986 & 63.43 %, 2002), Haryana (87.61 %, 1986 & 77.56 %) and Assam (90.10 % in 1986 and 86.41 % in 2002).

Looking into the gender gap in the distribution of enrolment males had a higher ratio, but the disparity in relation to the female sex has been quite low when compared to the high populated states. Where the states of Kerala, Karnataka and Gujarat, which had an overall high GER, again show a higher GER with both the sexes. It is to be observed that the states with a high GER overall show a lower disparity in compared to the states with a low GER. Where Haryana, Jammu and Kashmir and Assam were again the poor performers. But the lowest girl enrolment was seen in the state of Jammu at 67.25 % in 1986, in comparison to Kerala that showed a high ratio of 104.59 % in 1986, and 73.30 % and 107.23 % in 2002 for the respective states.

In terms of residence the distribution does not show a very prominent dominance of the urban areas. The states of Gujarat (109.80 %), Kerala (105.16 %) Karnataka (97%) and Punjab (103.44%) dominated the urban scene in 1986, with not much of a change in their trend in the rural areas also at 103 %, 103.53 %, 108.03 % for the respective states in 2002, except that Punjab showed a major decline in 2002 at only 56.78 % rural enrolment. On the other hand the states of Jammu and Kashmir, Haryana and Assam showed low enrolments in both the fronts. Looking into the rural and urban gender disparity the males in both the cases had a higher GER but the disparity was higher in rural areas. Where the states of Jammu and Kashmir showed the highest disparity value at 0.28 % in 1986 and 0.11 % in 2002. While, the states of Punjab and Delhi showed a higher female enrolment ratio in both the urban and rural areas in the Seventh AIES. This could be mainly because boys are mainly sent to private schools and girls to government run schools and therefore not necessary that females have a high status here.

Gross Enrolment Ratio in Primary Schools in India 2002



Low and Very Low Population:

The states falling in this category emerge to be the overall best performers on a national level. The data clearly reveals that nearly all the states with a low population level fall above the national average in terms of the overall GER's. The national level literacy rates in these states are also higher, accompanied with a comparatively higher status of women in these states. Being small in their population size, policy implementations and measures taken by the government to increase enrolments at primary level is not a very difficult task as compared to the states with a higher population. All the states and UT's show good results but the ones falling lower in line were Manipur, Arunachal Pradesh Chandigarh and Andaman and Nicobar Islands. Which had a GER of 93.50 %, 74.70 %, 80.55 % and 91.72 % in 1986, respectively for the above states. There was an increase in the enrolment ratios of all these states and all of them crossed the 100 % mark, much above the national level in 2002. Considering this fact, the state Nagaland had an enrolment ratio of 107.76 % in 1986 which declined by nearly 50 % to only 58.77 % in 2002 accompanied with Chandigarh which fell to 69 % in 2002, being the lowest in its category.

Enrolment ratios for boys showed a higher value in all the states, with marked positive disparity ratios except in some states in the Seventh AIES, where there was a negative ratio implying that the enrolments for females showed an increasing trend.

C) Net Enrolment Ratio:

Net Enrolment Ratio is the percentage of enrolment in class I-V in the age group 6 to 11 years, to the total child population in the same age group. Unlike GER, it does not take into account overage and underage enrolments and does not include students of pre-primary and middle classes. NER can never be more than 100. In an ideal case it will be 100. NER is the most precise measurement of the functioning of the education sector as it takes quality criteria into account.

It is also the most accurate measure of enrolment at any level, revealed the fact that, though some of the states have achieved high enrolments, the quality of education is not beyond question. A high GER and a low NER goes to suggest that there has been over whelming presence of overage and underage students in a particular stage of

education. This is more discernable in the primary level, mainly due to late enrolment age for pupil in the rural areas and persistence of high repetition rates which bar the students to get promoted to the subsequent level.

The Net Enrolment Ratio's are available only for the Sixth AIES therefore based on this, the national level the country showed an average NER of 64.22 %, with a higher ratio for boys at 79 % and girls at 57.15 %. On the rural urban front, the rural areas were better performers with 65.58 % and the urban areas showed a NER of 60 %. Taking into account the national level gender disparity it has shown a positive value at 0.14 %, with a marked high value in the rural areas at 0.17 % to a mere 0.04 % in the urban areas only signifying that the gender gap has a higher predominance in the rural areas and educating the girl child is still considered a constraint in many areas.

High Population:

The NER as stated earlier gives the most accurate picture of the enrolment system at a particular level of education. In case of the higher populated states Tamil Nadu was the best performer with a NER as high as 78.05 %, followed by Madhya Pradesh at 76.26 % and Maharashtra at 63 %. Whereas the states of Andhra Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar were the states with a lower level of performance, falling much below the national average, and Uttar Pradesh had the least enrolments at only 47.55 %.

Taking the gender disparity Rajasthan showed the highest value at 0.35 % followed by Bihar at 0.31 % and Uttar Pradesh at 0.23 %. The states of Tamil Nadu (0.03 %) and West Bengal (0.07 %) showed the least amount of disparity, implying a better female status in comparison to the other states.

Medium Population:

In this category of states there was almost an equal trend followed, where Karnataka, Assam and Kerala had higher enrolment ratios while the states of Jammu and Kashmir and Haryana comparatively showed lower NER's. Except the state of Jammu and Kashmir, which had a NER of 52.09 %, all the other states fell much above the national average. In the enrolment of boys and girls the boys showed a higher ratio, where the disparity was highest in the state of Jammu and Kashmir at 0.17 % followed by

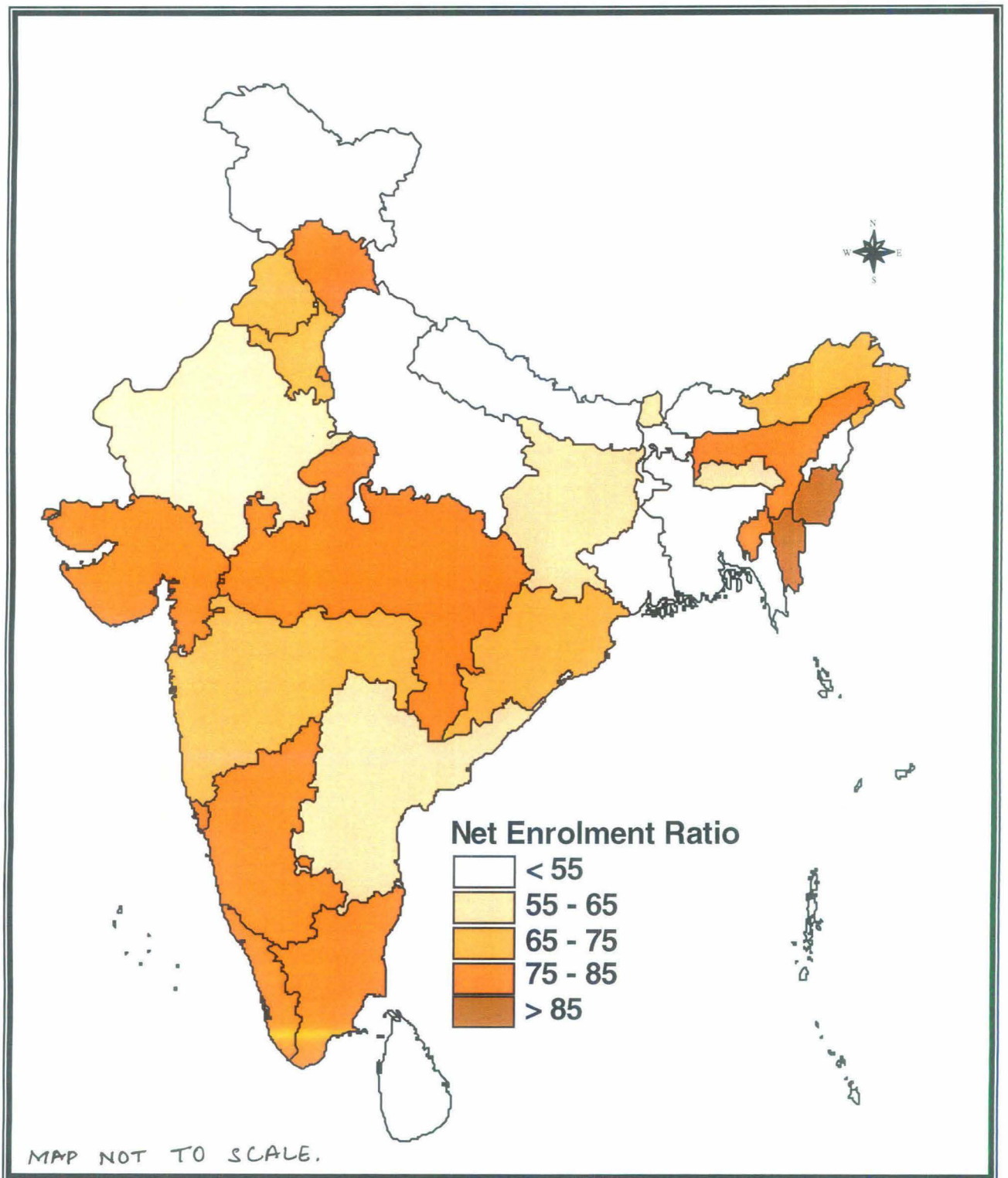
Table.3.8
NET ENROLEMENT RATIO 6th SURVEY (1993)

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
	B	G	T		B	G	T		B	G	T	
<i>High</i>												
Uttar Pradesh	57.50	35.84	47.35	0.27	51.50	44.72	48.32	0.08	56.31	37.60	47.55	0.23
Maharashtra	82.20	75.86	79.11	0.06	62.37	58.90	60.68	0.04	73.36	68.30	70.89	0.05
Bihar	80.28	46.60	64.31	0.34	56.48	52.83	54.75	0.04	77.15	47.42	63.05	0.31
West Bengal	58.30	50.63	54.54	0.08	40.33	38.11	39.24	0.03	53.09	47.00	50.10	0.07
Andhra Pradesh	64.98	52.77	58.95	0.13	56.54	55.55	56.05	0.01	62.71	53.52	58.17	0.10
Tamil Nadu	87.22	82.20	84.75	0.04	64.76	65.41	65.08	-0.01	79.57	76.49	78.05	0.03
Madhya Pradesh	83.83	64.81	74.55	0.18	86.72	77.04	82.00	0.09	84.50	67.62	76.26	0.16
Rajasthan	72.23	35.05	54.57	0.43	64.80	53.31	59.34	0.12	70.53	39.23	55.66	0.35
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	86.19	74.57	80.38	0.11	76.73	70.69	73.71	0.06	83.14	73.32	78.24	0.09
Gujarat	82.64	69.22	76.13	0.12	79.01	73.09	76.14	0.05	81.38	70.56	76.14	0.10
Orissa	83.34	65.04	74.30	0.17	68.43	60.60	64.56	0.08	81.25	64.42	72.94	0.16
Kerala	81.68	78.33	80.02	0.03	69.80	69.12	69.46	0.01	78.54	75.90	77.23	0.02
Assam	84.70	72.00	78.43	0.12	76.70	70.78	73.78	0.06	83.83	71.86	77.92	0.11
Punjab	85.24	81.10	83.29	0.04	47.62	49.08	48.30	-0.02	73.79	71.35	72.64	0.02
Haryana	76.98	71.75	74.53	0.05	46.04	48.39	47.14	-0.03	69.39	66.02	67.81	0.03
Delhi	79.37	82.22	80.71	-0.03	74.89	77.87	76.30	-0.03	75.34	78.31	76.75	-0.03
Jammu & Kashmir	68.35	48.54	58.49	0.21	34.44	31.97	33.21	0.04	59.77	44.35	52.09	0.17
<i>Low</i>												
Himachal Pradesh	83.88	80.36	82.15	0.03	87.22	79.42	83.39	0.07	84.17	80.28	82.26	0.03
Tripura	98.34	87.72	93.13	0.09	87.43	81.15	84.35	0.06	96.63	86.70	91.76	0.09
Meghalaya	54.37	55.75	55.05	-0.01	60.13	64.63	62.36	-0.05	55.44	57.40	56.41	-0.02
Manipur	92.73	86.29	89.55	0.06	92.30	87.04	89.71	0.05	92.61	86.50	89.60	0.05
Nagaland	42.08	40.40	41.26	0.02	76.74	74.45	75.62	0.02	47.97	46.19	47.10	0.02
Goa	70.69	68.37	69.55	0.02	94.49	90.56	92.55	0.03	80.37	77.39	78.90	0.03
Arunachal Pradesh	77.38	62.39	70.13	0.14	84.45	71.53	78.21	0.12	78.28	63.55	71.16	0.14
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	97.53	92.60	95.10	0.04	91.52	84.94	88.27	0.06	93.69	87.70	90.73	0.05
Chandigarh	63.75	62.71	63.26	0.01	66.35	65.64	66.01	0.01	65.90	65.13	65.53	0.01
Mizoram	84.81	75.03	79.92	0.09	75.49	73.35	74.42	0.02	80.55	74.26	77.41	0.06
Sikkim	65.02	55.93	60.48	0.09	15.88	22.96	19.42	-0.18	60.53	52.91	56.72	0.08
A & N Nicobar	84.20	81.24	82.73	0.03	86.01	78.76	82.42	0.07	84.68	80.58	82.65	0.04
D & N. Haveli	78.16	55.18	66.79	0.23	141.39	119.87	130.75	0.21	83.52	60.66	72.21	0.22
Daman & Diu	79.91	76.98	78.49	0.03	83.75	80.91	82.37	0.03	81.65	78.76	80.24	0.03
Lakshadweep	87.81	85.64	86.76	0.02	91.10	85.28	88.28	0.05	89.66	85.44	87.62	0.04
India	73.85	56.72	65.58	0.17	62.23	58.35	60.35	0.04	70.84	57.15	64.22	0.14
CV	0.164	0.234	0.185		0.316	0.283	0.299		0.16	0.22	0.18	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

Net Enrolment Ratio in Primary Schools in India 1993



Orissa at 0.16 %. The national capital of Delhi showed a negative value at -0.03 %, implying that girls had a higher enrolment ratio here.

On the rural urban front the rural areas showed a NER as compared to the urban areas. Where the states of Karnataka, Kerala and Assam had higher ratios and the states of Orissa, Haryana and Jammu and Kashmir showed lower ratios. In terms of gender disparity the values have shown a positive value in both the urban and rural areas. But the states of Punjab and Haryana showed a positive value inspite of having a low sex ratio and low status of women, so the main reason here could be because the data here pertains mainly to government run schools, and boys in these states were admitted to privately run public schools, contributing to an overall ignorance of the female child on a general view.

Low and Very Low Population:

The States and UT's in this population slot showed the highest value in comparison to the larger states of our country, where Pondicherry, Tripura, Daman and Diu, Lakshadweep Andaman and Nicobar and Himachal Pradesh showed a higher NER, above 80 %. While Sikkim, Nagaland and Meghalaya were the poor performers and fell much below the national average, with Nagaland having only 47.10 % NER. In terms of gender disparity it showed a positive value all through except in the state of Meghalaya where it had a very low negative value at 0.02 %.

On the rural urban front the rural areas showed an overall higher NER, where the States of and UT's Tripura, Manipur, Himachal Pradesh, Andaman and Nicobar and Pondicherry had higher enrolment ratios in both the areas in comparison to the other states. In terms of the gender disparity in terms of residence all the States and UT's showed a positive value, indicating a higher enrolment for boys in comparison to the girl child.

The coefficient of variation used to measure the regional disparity of NER's was 0.18 % for total enrolments. Girls on the whole showed a higher regional variation at 0.22 % in comparison to the boys, which fell at 0.16 %. The variation in the urban areas was higher at 0.30 % in terms of its rural counterpart at 0.18%. This could be due to the presence of high number non- governmental schools in urban areas. Although there was

low variation it did exist. The educationally developed regions showed better provisions of getting most of their primary age children into schools.

3.2.2 Gender Disparity in Enrolments:

Education of girls is considered to be the most sensitive index of development, social or national. One of the major stumbling blocks in the path of achieving UEE in our country is the low enrolment of the female sex. Notwithstanding the limited progress that has been achieved in this sphere in the urban areas, the overall picture is still dismal, specially in the rural scene. Education for women, from the very literacy stage, remains a distant dream for a large section of our population. In recognition of the shortfalls and importance of this problem, the NPE, 1986, states – “The removal of women’s illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to, and retention in elementary education will receive overriding priority...”

The reason for low demand of education in India lies in the socio-cultural factors. A set of social institutions and associated beliefs are responsible for this malady. Patriarchal family structure and ideology and a rigid caste system, constraints women from joining formal institutionalized education system. A girl child whether will join school or not are generally determined at three levels- family, school and community levels. At the family level traditional patriarchal ideology has given rise to the perception that women’s role should be confined to the domestic sphere. Girl children as they grow up and reach puberty their activities are restrained. Most of the parents are reluctant to allow their girl child outside the village for schooling. (Derze and Sen, 1996).

Another most important factor is that the education decisions for boys and girls are made on radically different grounds. In case of boys there are strong economic incentives. It is widely regarded that an educated boy has better chances to get non-traditional employment than a girl. On the other hand it is widely perceived that education can make very meager contribution in the quality of life of a girl as she should primarily perform domestic roles, marriage and child bearing- as a result of which parents are reluctant to expenses of their daughters education or send them to far off destinations to study. (Gazdar H, 1996)

The gender gap in different enrolments analysis has been calculated with the help of Sopher's index, which shows that on a national level analysis in any form of enrolment the value exhibited in almost all cases shows a positive value. The disparity levels have declined over the years, the national level value was at 0.24 % in 1986, 0.15 % in 1993 and showed a further decline to only 0.03 % in 2002, and the states of Punjab, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Sikkim, Kerala, Meghalaya and Delhi in 2002-03 showed a negative disparity. Implying that in these states the importance of educating the girl child was growing. The analysis reveals that the educationally developed states showed a lower disparity in comparison to the educationally backward states. The rate of decline in disparity though has been higher within the backward states.

3.2.3 Enrolment of the Minorities:

The access of various social groups to education has been unequal in India, inequalities in education in are a manifestation of disparate level of socio-economic development. The spurious developmental process witnessed during the colonial period contributed significantly to the accentuation of these disparities. Since time immemorial, education and development have been considered mutually interlinked process, therefore the minorities that contribute to a slow process in this development due to lack of provisions to basic education, should be provided with basic schooling facility and incentives to encourage enrolments, specially at the primary level which acts as the foundation for higher education and more towards the whole phenomena of development.

The minorities usually occupy a low position in the society. The roots of inequalities between these minorities and the general population lie in the stratification of Indian society based on caste and class. The age-old philosophy of separation of work from knowledge further accentuated the segregation of these minorities from the process of learning. Therefore, the spread of education among the minorities in society has generally been constrained by social stratification

The minorities in the study include the schedule castes and the schedule tribes, who have the lowest enrolment ratios in relation to the other classes in the social order. Enrolment ratios for SC's/ ST's have been calculated, these enrolment ratios give us a picture of the share of the minorities enrolled to its total population, which is significantly

low in India but does show a favorable increasing trend, which could mainly be attributed to the efforts made by governmental and non-governmental bodies at different levels.

A) Schedule Castes:

In our perception education is essential for all. This is fundamental to our all-round development, material and spiritual says India's National Policy on Education- obviously implying that the education of the Scheduled Castes is fundamental for the development of the people of this caste. India has an old age tradition of learning, the social stratification based on caste generally acted as a barrier on the universal spread of education among the different segments of population. The low castes which by large constitute the present day Scheduled Castes have been alienated from the institutionalization of formal learning since very long. The institutionalized framework of social inequality and an engendered economic disparity have retained the landless working class as a specimen of disguised slavery.

The social system thus operated as a constraint on the universal spread of education and curtailed the capability of education to make an impact on the working classes, which remained by and large outside the avail of institutionalized learning. The contemporary situation continues to be determined by the strains generated by the historically determined factors. The low level of education of the Schedule Castes in general may be attributed to the prevailing social reality explicit in the economic domain.

The GER, amongst the schedule Caste at the primary Stage has shown a varying trend over the years. The data taken from the Selected Education Statistics reveals that the enrolments at all India level in 1986 were 84.8 %, which showed an increase to 93 % in 2001.

Table.3.9
Gross Enrolment Ratios of Schedule Caste students in Primary Schools. 1986-2001.

Year	1986-87	1988-89	1990-91	1992-93	1994-95	1996-97	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01*	2001-02*
Boys	103.8	109.6	125.5	128	106	100.2	96.6	103.6	107.3	103.1
Girls	64.8	76.2	86.2	92.1	79.5	77.4	78	80.5	85.8	82.3
Total	84.8	93.5	106.4	110.5	93.4	89.2	87.9	92.4	96.8	93

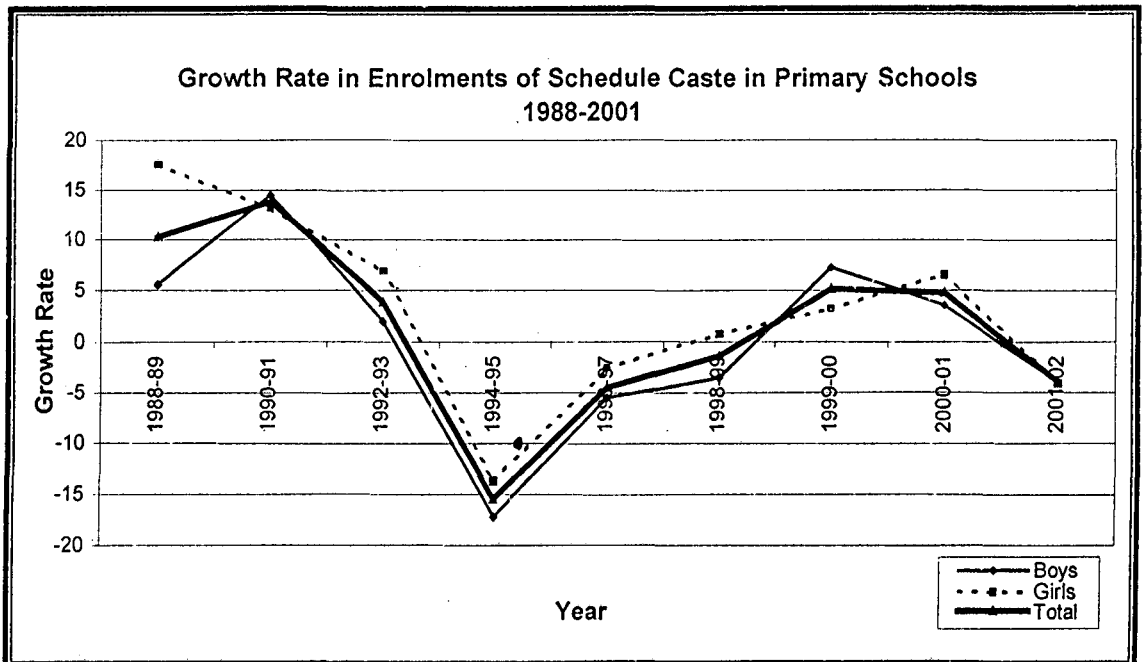
Source: *Selected Education Statistics*, 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

*- Provisional

There has been a very fluctuating Growth in Enrolments within the SC population. The total enrolment showed a growth of 10.25 % in 1988-89, which further

increased by 13.79 % in 1990-91. Showed a declining trend in 1994-95 followed by an increase of nearly 5 % in 1999-2000, which further declined by – 4% in 2001-02.

Fig.3.4



Source: *Selected Education Statistics, 2002*. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

The data available for the states clearly reveal that the GER amongst the Schedule Caste population was comparatively higher when compared to that of the general population on the whole. In most of the states it exceeds 100 percent, showing that the children enrolled exceeded the total child population in that particular age group clearly indicating that there was a very high proportion of overage and under age students in the primary school level amongst this marginalized section of our caste hierarchy. Late entry of children into school or repetition could mainly be associated with poverty and child labour which is very prominent with the Schedule Caste mainly due to low-income status and landlessness.

Looking at the GER amongst the SC population in the Fifth AIES, the national average of the enrolment for the total population was at 84.8 %. The ratio for boys was much higher at 103.78 % than the girls, which fell at only 64.77 %. Showing that the

female education within this marginalized caste group was even meager. Being the more ignored sex, education seemed to be a secondary criterion for these girls.

Taking a closer look at the state level data there was a noticeable variation amongst the vast expanse of the different regions of our country, where caste system is prominent in almost all pockets. The national level data for different states varied from as

Table.3.10
Enrolment Ratio of Primary School Students Belonging to Schedule Castes 1986

States & U.T's	Boys	Girls	Total	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	156	116.05	136.41	0.41
Arunachal Pradesh				
Assam	160.42	152.57	156.63	0.10
Bihar	96.64	34.71	66.03	0.65
Goa	127.61	108.96	146.71	0.17
Gujarat	161.42	126.43	144.31	0.39
Haryana	106	81.16	93.92	0.22
Himachal Pradesh	123.26	98.07	110.82	0.22
Jammu & Kashmir	94.71	65.16	80.29	0.27
Karnataka	93.52	86.25	89.95	0.06
Kerala	130.39	124.38	127.43	0.06
Madhya Pradesh	128.99	71.39	100.98	0.51
Maharashtra				
Manipur				
Meghalaya				
Mizoram				
Nagaland				
Orissa	122.91	80.21	101.74	0.38
Punjab	117.56	98.69	108.64	0.17
Rajasthan	104.16	32.61	69.52	0.75
Sikkim	157.45	121.38	139.66	0.38
Tamil Nadu	154.8	131.73	143.49	0.25
Tripura	164.74	135.08	150.16	0.35
Uttar Pradesh	87.1	39.41	65.72	0.50
West Bengal	107.24	71.23	89.34	0.32
A & N Nicobar				
Chandigarh	57	66.14	61.27	-0.09
D & N Haveli	118.44	104.78	111.86	0.12
Daman & Diu				
Delhi	125.51	117.85	117.85	0.07
Lakshadweep				
Pondicherry	140.67	145.99	145.3	-0.06
India	103.78	64.77	84.8	0.35
C.V	26.58	39.60	31.19	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

Table.3.11

Enrolment Ratio of Primary Schools Students Belonging to Schedule Castes 1993

States & U.T's	Boys	Girls	Total	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	135.62	113.26	124.69	0.21
Arunachal Pradesh	40.94	27.58	34.22	0.21
Assam	259.34	241.81	250.79	-0.12
Bihar	96.86	44.61	71.86	0.51
Goa	109.28	97.47	103.37	0.10
Gujarat	183.45	154.51	169.45	0.51
Haryana	116.12	105.33	110.91	0.09
Himachal Pradesh	134.59	113.61	124.09	0.19
Jammu & Kashmir	112.18	85.6	99.2	0.23
Karnataka	151.42	131.21	141.62	0.21
Kerala	114.48	112.22	113.36	0.02
Madhya Pradesh	110.64	81.21	96.49	0.26
Maharashtra	261.9	240	251.3	-0.15
Manipur	130.92	130.6	130.77	0.00
Meghalaya	290.08	230.91	260.47	-0.37
Mizoram				
Nagaland				
Orissa	155.03	94.46	124.08	0.59
Punjab	129.92	116.3	123.44	0.13
Rajasthan	112.88	40.22	77.55	0.71
Sikkim	132.49	119.33	125.98	0.12
Tamil Nadu	164.08	149.47	156.97	0.19
Tripura	169.06	145.28	157.29	0.31
Uttar Pradesh	86.96	41.4	65.54	0.47
West Bengal	125.85	117.64	121.92	0.07
A & N Nicobar				
Chandigarh	127.22	113.73	120.81	0.12
D & N. Haveli	97.35	87.47	92.64	0.09
Daman & Diu				
Delhi	106.38	104.39	104.86	0.02
Lakshadweep				
Pondicherry	176.88	183.74	180.28	-0.17
India	123.33	91.15	107.81	0.28
C.V.	38.88	46.71	41.64	-0.10

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

high as 157.63 % in the state of Assam to only 66 % in Bihar. This clearly indicates a low status of these Schedule Caste people in the state. The other states, which on the whole had a higher GER, were Tripura, Tamil Nadu, Goa, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Himachal Pradesh and Gujarat. All these states had an enrolment ratio above 100 %, and are comparatively the more developed states and also show a high literacy rate. The main

reason here could be the efforts made by the state government and non-government bodies towards education on the whole. Where the end result is a high enrolment ratio, irrespective of it being above 100 %, which in itself indicates that there are a huge number of overage and underage students enrolled. The states of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Rajasthan, Haryana and Jammu and Kashmir showed the least number of enrolments in the primary section amongst the Schedule Caste. These states categorized as the BIMARU States, have a very prominent dominance of the caste structure, therefore effecting the education system, clearly visible in the data.

Gender bias is customary within the lower caste. Boys are held higher in every field and it's the females who have bare the brunt of being deprived in most activities and rights, for which they are equally at stake with the boys. And education for this section is a very secondary activity as it gets the earning factor much later, and if money is to spent for education, the boy child has the privilege without any question. The Schedule Castes, themselves fall in the lower order of the caste hierarchy, so the status of the women in this section are even lower and pitiable.

According to the fifth AIES, the GER for boys in nearly all states and UT'S, except Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka and the Union Territory of Chandigarh was below 100 %. Rest of the country had a GER of over 100 %, the main reason associated, with such a high enrolment ratio could be a high number of children enrolled belonging to different age groups. The girls on the other hand show a comparatively lower ratio, with the highest being in the states of Assam (152 %), Gujarat (126 %), Sikkim (121 %), Tamil Nadu (138 %), Tripura (132 %) and the UT of Pondicherry (46 %), these were mainly the socially developed states and the overall status of women fall in the higher order when compared to other regions of our country. On the other hand the states of Bihar (34.71 %), Uttar Pradesh (39 %) and Rajasthan (32.61 %) fell amongst the category of states, which showed a very low enrolment ratio. And these figures are irrespective of the overage and underage factor which again has a dominating role to play, overall indicating that the female enrolments in section of our society needs to be looked into with more efforts.

Looking at the GER for the Sixth AIES, there is not much change in the overall picture, but the total figures have increased on all aspects, indicating that there has been

Table.3.12

Enrolment Ratio of Primary School Students Belonging to Schedule Castes. 2002

State / U.T.	Boys	Girls	Total	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	108.52	108.3	108.41	0.00
Arunachal Pradesh				
Assam	107.08	102.92	105.05	0.04
Bihar	78.02	48.69	64.08	0.30
Chhattisgarh	120.95	114.89	117.98	0.05
Goa	114.66	114.53	114.6	0.00
Gujarat	102.23	104.25	103.08	-0.02
Haryana	99.4	92.36	101.82	0.06
Himachal Pradesh	130.53	128.43	129.51	0.02
Jammu & Kashmir	80.6	78.8	79.74	0.02
Jharkhand	81.97	57.46	69.99	0.24
Karnataka	124.36	119.88	122.15	0.04
Kerala	112.78	110.18	111.5	0.02
Madhya Pradesh	119.9	107.77	114.11	0.11
Maharashtra	120.58	117.77	118.94	0.03
Manipur	98.89	96.33	97.64	0.02
Meghalaya	103.08	108.5	105.74	-0.05
Mizoram				
Nagaland				
Orissa	113.94	108.78	111.41	0.05
Punjab	103.04	98.62	104.93	0.04
Rajasthan	130.03	113.08	122.03	0.15
Sikkim	127.29	131.86	129.54	-0.04
Tamil Nadu	90.93	100.88	95.81	-0.09
Tripura	117.39	111.07	114.29	0.06
Uttar Pradesh	86.45	56.93	72.5	0.28
Uttaranchal	108.89	106.67	107.82	0.02
West Bengal	110.2	109.52	109.86	0.01
Andaman & Nicobar Islands				
Chandigarh	62.86	64.57	63.66	-0.02
D & N. Haveli	116.44	118.35	117.39	-0.02
Daman & Diu	122.68	134.38	127.99	-0.11
Delhi	67.7	72.2	69.84	-0.04
Lakshadweep				
Pondicherry	123.96	118.07	121.02	0.05
INDIA	101.4	89.35	95.61	0.11
C.V.	17.89	22.47	19.49	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

an improvement in pulling most children of the Dalits to schools, at primary level. The national average has shown an increase to 107.81 %. For boys it was 123.33 % and

females were still lagging at 91 %. But the girls showed a higher growth rate on the national front for enrolments in comparison to the Fifth AIES.

State level analysis indicates a similar trend in terms of the regional variation, according to this survey also. The states of Assam (250 %), Gujarat (169.45 %), Tamil Nadu (143 %), Karnataka (141 %), Tripura (157.29 %), Maharashtra (251%) and Meghalaya (260%) were among the better performers in comparison to the states of Bihar (72%), Arunachal Pradesh (34.22 %), Uttar Pradesh (65.54 %), and Rajasthan (77.55 %) fell in the lower category. In the male female divide almost all states showed a higher ratio for boys, where the better performing states in terms of overall enrolment were better performers in this category also. The Seventh AIES, showed a decline in the total children enrolled. The total national average falling at 95.67 %, and the boys enrolled again followed the similar trend of being at a higher level, at 101 % though showing a declining trend in comparison to the Sixth Survey amongst the girls there was an increase, but still was low. The state level analysis shows us that Himachal Pradesh emerged as the best performer in regard to the GER amongst the Schedule Caste population followed by Tripura, Rajasthan, Karnataka, Chattisgarh and Karnataka. While on the other hand the states of Bihar, Jharkhand, Uttar Pradesh Jammu and Kashmir and the UT of Chandigarh showed low enrolment ratios.

In the male female GER for the Seventh Survey there was a decline in the disparity ratios between the males and females, although the males in most of the states had a higher GER. In terms of the states a similar trend was followed where the socially developed states with higher literacy levels had a higher enrolment ratio in regard to both the sexes within this minority group.

Therefore the overall analysis of the above discussion is that the enrolments within this marginalized caste group has revealed an upward trend. Implying that efforts to uplift this deprived group of population through education development have been positive in most states visible with a declining Regional Disparity. But on the whole even with the beginning of the 21st century they form a bulk of the uneducated lot in India.

B) Schedule Tribes:

Our constitution gives privileged status to the disadvantaged groups, which include the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Scheduled Tribes in India are known as 'Adivasis'- in the ordinary usage of term. In general it is applied to people who are considered primitive and who live in backward areas. They belong to a chunk of the Indian population, which is generally perceived as socially deprived also. While the Schedule Castes and the other socially lagging groups, such as women, are deprived in their own way, tribal deprivation is a class in itself. It is not a sub-set of the general deprivation since it emanates from an entirely different social and historical context. (Nuna, Raza & Ahmad, 1990).

The origins of the tribal deprivation need to be traced particularly in the context of the renewed concern for the upliftment of the lot of the deprived and the under privileged in contemporary India. For ages the tribal communities of India have lived in the relatively isolated pockets, away from the fertile river-valleys and outside the framework of the peasant formation. The geographical patterns of the tribal communities as observed on the map of India offers clues to the distribution process of social categories within the Indian space, which has great expanse all over the country, and mainly includes extreme locations. These locational constraints have exercised a far-reaching interaction with the neighboring peasant communities.

The present concern for the Schedule Tribes and the question of the tribal-non-tribal inequality in education should be looked at the context of the specifics of the tribal formations. The inequality within the tribal society is not in situ but introduced from outside. Historically, the tribal societies have not nurtured inequalities in the name of sex, age, status, social backwardness or material well-being. The tribes have lived away from Hinduism for long and they could not contact social stratification based on caste hierarchy. The tribal tradition of work has rarely distinguished between the male female components of population. The women were as vitally linked with the social organization of the tribe as men. And yet the male-female inequality in literacy and education among the tribes in the contemporary India are quite significant.

Table.3.13
**Gross Enrolment Ratio of Primary School Students Belonging to Schedule Tribes in India
 1986 – 2001.**

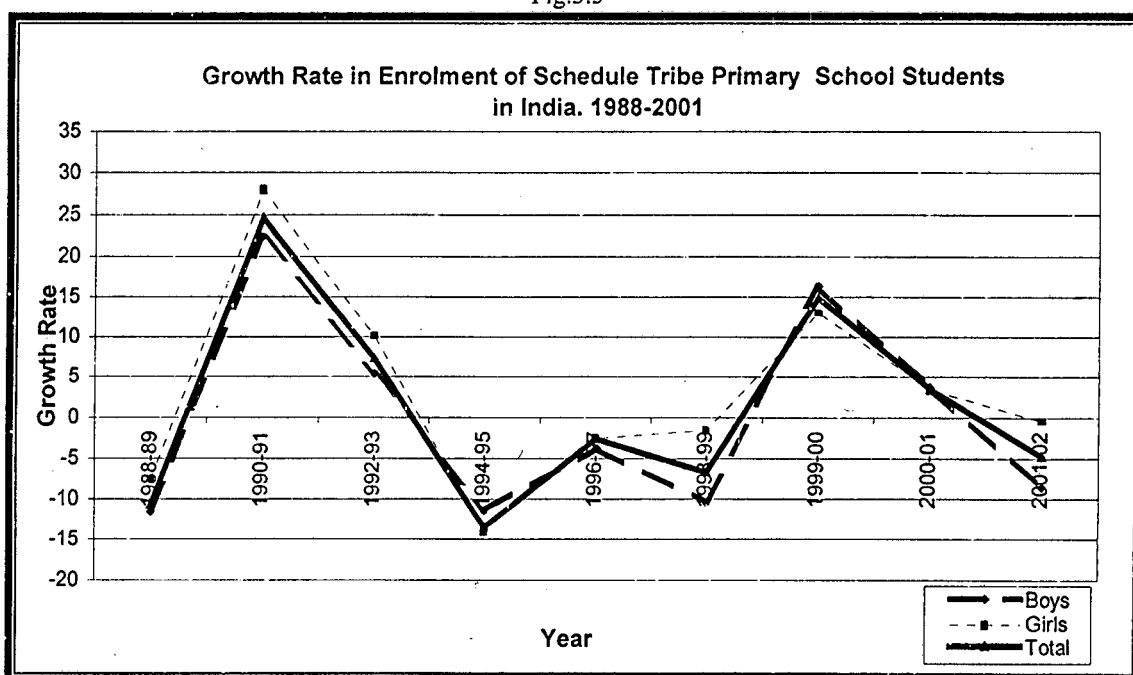
Year	1986-87	1988-89	1990-91	1992-93	1994-95	1996-97	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01*	2001-02*
Boys	111	98.2	120.2	126.7	112.3	108.1	96.9	112.7	116.9	106.9
Girls	68	62.9	80.5	88.6	76.2	74.3	73.2	82.7	85.5	85.1
Total	90.7	81	100.9	108.2	93.6	91.2	85.1	97.7	101.1	96.3

Source: *Selected Education Statistics*, 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

*- Provisional

The national averages of enrolment for the ST population have been considerably high indicating that primary education with this marginalized group is considerably important. The Growth Rates in this case also show a fluctuating trend, with a drop in the late 1980's by nearly 12 %. It showed a high increase in the early 1990's, marked with decline again in the mid 1990's, but the picture towards the end of the century looked more stable. Though 2001-02 showed a decline. This lopsided nature in the growth is mainly attributed to the inconsistent efforts put forth by the education sector in insuring the participation of the tribal children at primary level.

Fig.3.5



Source: *Selected Education Statistics*, 2002. Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

Table3.14

Enrolment Ratio of Primary School Students Belonging to Schedule Tribes 1986

States & U.T's	Boys	Girls	Total	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	124.85	74.18	99.73	0.45
Arunachal Pradesh	122.79	81.53	102.33	0.36
Assam	127.77	109.83	119.1	0.16
Bihar	106.33	52.7	79.82	0.50
Goa	121.44	101.34	112.58	0.18
Gujarat	134.79	95.91	115.78	0.35
Haryana				
Himachal Pradesh	111.99	74.89	93.67	0.33
Jammu & Kashmir				
Karnataka	113.87	95.56	98.56	0.16
Kerala	123.09	113.65	118.44	0.08
Madhya Pradesh	99.02	52.88	76.44	0.44
Maharashtra	122.83	86.13	104.95	0.32
Manipur	170.06	137.31	153.87	0.41
Meghalaya	121.88	113.44	117.64	0.08
Mizoram	145.08	137	141.12	0.08
Nagaland	45.65	43.95	44.82	0.02
Orissa	106.86	52.68	80	0.51
Punjab				
Rajasthan	103.85	30.83	68.49	0.77
Sikkim	145.02	117.29	131.34	0.27
Tamil Nadu	107.24	82.78	95.28	0.21
Tripura	156.78	101.75	129.72	0.54
Uttar Pradesh	111.28	73.49	93.5	0.33
West Bengal	92.72	57.03	74.97	0.34
A & N Nicobar	93.51	77.22	85.36	0.14
Chandigarh				
D & N. Haveli	110.91	81.53	102.33	0.26
Daman & Diu				
Delhi				
Lakshadweep	158.47	149.02	153.83	0.12
Pondicherry				
India	111.05	67.96	90.08	0.38
C.V	26.87	39.19	30.54	-0.20

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi

The data taken from the Fifth AIES, for this document survey shows that the national level averages in 1986 were at 90 % for the total S.T. population. Males showed dominance here also at 115 % and the female enrolments were at 68 %. The averages in comparison to the S.C. population in the same year were higher within the Tribal children. Within the different states in this year the highest enrolments were amongst the

North-Eastern States, which house a huge bulk of our tribal population. Within the North-Eastern, Manipur showed the highest ratio at 153 %, followed by Mizoram at 141 %. Almost all the states here had their GER above 100 %. Nagaland was the only state that showed a low ratio at 45 %. The other States, which had higher ratios, were Gujarat (115

Table.3.15
Enrolment Ratio of Primary School Students Belonging to Schedule Tribes 193

States & U.T's	Boys	Girls	Total	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	134.72	90.26	112.99	0.40
Arunachal Pradesh	140.71	108.48	124.51	0.30
Assam	198.24	173.03	185.94	1.24
Bihar	95.03	63.23	79.82	0.29
Goa	12.47	8.5	10.48	0.18
Gujarat	148	112.4	130.77	0.35
Haryana				
Himachal Pradesh	123.25	94.49	108.89	0.25
Jammu & Kashmir				
Karnataka	150.78	124.7	138.12	0.27
Kerala	123.01	122.59	122.8	0.00
Madhya Pradesh	84.82	54.34	70.17	0.30
Maharashtra	135.13	113.61	124.72	0.20
Manipur	132.97	122.16	127.76	0.10
Meghalaya	83.43	77.69	80.55	0.05
Mizoram	148.26	141.51	144.98	0.07
Nagaland	119.41	109.49	114.53	0.09
Orissa	125.22	58.09	90.92	0.61
Punjab				
Rajasthan	113	40.18	77.59	0.71
Sikkim	119.49	103.82	111.74	0.14
Tamil Nadu	136.52	113.22	125.18	0.22
Tripura	173.29	128.57	151.16	0.56
Uttar Pradesh	97.95	63.97	81.97	0.31
West Bengal	119.78	123.36	121.49	-0.03
A & N Nicobar	67.52	57.26	62.2	0.10
Chandigarh				
D & N. Haveli	133.29	92.62	113.91	0.36
Daman & Diu				
Delhi				
Lakshadweep	168.14	141	154.57	0.34
Pondicherry				
India	123.9	88.8	106.97	0.31
C.V.	30.11	38.13	32.44	-0.12

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi

Table.3.16

Enrolment Ratio of Primary School Students Belonging to Schedule Tribes 2002

State / U.T.	Boys	Girls	Total	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	118.11	113.56	115.9	0.04
Arunachal Pradesh	120.75	108.24	114.62	0.11
Assam	91.39	90.18	90.8	0.01
Bihar	59.6	32.54	46.59	0.34
Chhattisgarh	108.82	94.42	101.65	0.13
Goa	92.86	96.43	94.64	-0.03
Gujarat	111.59	107.87	109.78	0.03
Haryana				
Himachal Pradesh	126.51	122.14	124.34	0.04
Jammu & Kashmir	50.93	31.5	41.42	0.26
Jharkhand	95.55	72.21	84.14	0.21
Karnataka	119.98	107.84	113.96	0.11
Kerala	112.94	107.71	110.35	0.05
Madhya Pradesh	91.93	71.77	82.01	0.18
Maharashtra	116.62	106.4	111.65	0.09
Manipur	116.72	116.85	116.78	0.00
Meghalaya	90.2	92.97	91.57	-0.02
Mizoram	119.72	122.69	120.95	-0.03
Nagaland	72.93	70.9	71.95	0.02
Orissa	103.38	87.33	95.56	0.14
Punjab				
Rajasthan	118.72	106.39	112.79	0.11
Sikkim	129.94	129.92	129.93	0.00
Tamil Nadu	105.69	113.21	109.31	-0.07
Tripura	130.14	116.5	123.53	0.13
Uttar Pradesh	130.96	124.59	127.24	0.06
Uttaranchal	107.56	112.58	110.03	-0.04
West Bengal	108.07	94.55	101.43	0.12
A & N Islands	104.54	107.82	106.42	-0.03
Chandigarh				
D & N Haveli	108.94	109.48	109.21	0.00
Daman & Diu	122.14	115.74	119.03	0.06
Delhi				
Lakshadweep	111.89	95.77	104.09	0.14
Pondicherry				
INDIA	104.8	92.25	98.67	0.11
C.V.	17.93	23.59	20.19	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT. New Delhi

%), Goa (112 %) and the UT of Lakshadweep (154 %). The states that were poor performers on the national level were Rajasthan (68.45 %), Madhya Pradesh (76.44 %), Bihar (79.81 %), Himachal Pradesh (93.67 %) and Orissa (80 %).

Looking at the enrolment ratios amongst the males and females, it was the North-Eastern States that showed a higher ratio, along with Gujarat, Goa, Kerala, Andhra

Pradesh and in this category Uttar Pradesh also emerged with a high ratio amongst the males at 111 %. The BIMARU States that showed a lower GER, for both the girls and boys enrolment ratios.

The Sixth AIES, shows us that there was a considerable increase in the national average of the Schedule Caste enrolments, the total average for GER at the primary level within this backward section was comparatively quite high at 107 % in 1986. It was as high as 124 % for boys, the girls had a lower ratio of enrolment at 89 %. Within the states it was the North-Eastern, population that showed a high GER at the primary level, along with Gujarat , Karnataka, Kerala, Himachal Pradesh and Maharashtra. The BIMARU states of India showed a very enrolment ratio along with Goa, Orissa, and Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

According to the latest Survey, the data tells us that education seemed to have gained a significant importance with this section of our population, as there was not much of regional variation and all states showed a considerable increase. The national averages though showed a decline in comparison to the earlier year and fell at 98.67 % for the total ST population in the 6-11 age group. While the boys had a higher ratio at 104 % and girls again fell on the lower side with only 92.25 % being enrolled. Within the states Uttar Pradesh in this Survey showed a higher GER at 127 %, other sates with a high ratio were Himachal Pradesh (124.34 %), Uttaranchal (110.03 %), Karnataka (114 %), Kerala (110 %), and the UT of Daman and Diu (119 %). The North-Eastern States showed a slight decline in comparison to the previous survey with Assam, Nagaland and Meghalaya falling even below the national average of 98 %. The other states which showed a low Ger were Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, Madhya Pradesh and Jharkhand, which all showed their GER to be below the national average.

The regional variation for enrolment of the ST children within the different states of India can be seen with the coefficient of variation, which over the time period of the study shows a declining value. The c.v. for 1986 was 38.54 %, with a reduced variation at 20 % in 2002. The variation among the boys was lower at 26.87 % in 1986 and 17 % in 2002, while the regional variation for the enrolment of girls was higher with a c.v for 39.19 % in 1986 and 23 % in 2002. Overall the variations were high within the tribal population.

3.2.4 Gender Disparity in Enrolments of Minorities:

As stated earlier that the females are a deprived sex within the patriarchal system with a dominance of the caste structure in our Indian society. The gender disparity index compiled here is a clear indication of that. The minority sections, for which education falls as a less important criterion in life, girls show a still meager picture. The gender disparity over the years has shown a considerable decline with both the S.C and S.T population, indicating that they are being regarded equally important as any other caste and the minorities too realize the importance of enrolling into schools, but the difference still remains.

The gender disparity within the SC children was as high as 0.35 % in 1986, but showed a considerable decline to only 0.11 % in 2002, which is an achievement in its own way and also a clear indication that the gender gap in regard to enrolment of the SC children has and is declining with time. But the values are yet positive and far from a perfect zero or equality yet on a national level. The disparity within the states vary from as high as 0.30 % in Bihar and 0.24 % in Jharkhand to an equal value in Andhra Pradesh and Goa and a negative value thereby indicating a higher female GER for the SC population in Tamil Nadu Meghalaya, Delhi, Sikkim, Dadar and Nagar Haveli and Chandigarh in 2002. But the overall state disparities have shown a considerable decline on the whole in terms of the previous years.

Looking at the ST population the disparity shows a higher decline from 0.38 % in 1986 to 0.11 % in 2002. The state level values tell us that there has been a decline in the gender gap with this section of the population also where Bihar showed the highest value of 0.34 % followed by Jammu and Kashmir at 0.26 % in the year 2002. Almost all states had a reduction in their gender difference in enrollment but the states of Goa, Meghalaya Uttaranchal, Tamil Nadu and Manipur showed a negative value of having an enrolment higher for girls.

3.4 Retention at Primary Schools:

In the earlier section of this chapter we dealt with getting all children to school, we looked into the pattern of enrolments across different states. This section deals with how many of these enrolled students retain themselves in Primary Schools or up till grade

V, which determines the strength at the higher educational levels. Equally important as participation of students at any level of education is retention of these students and completion of their schooling in the stipulated time period. If universal retention is not ensured the goal of UEE will remain elusive. It is of no use if the students withdraw from the school system in the middle of the education system.

The term wastage is used to refer to the phenomenon of drop-outs and repetition, while drop-out means premature withdrawal of the pupil from the school system, repetition refers to continuance of the student in the same grade for more than a year due to unsatisfactory progress. This is also called stagnation or retardation. The government has introduced the policy of non-detention so that every child completes one grade in a year and gets promoted to the next grade at primary level. In order to implement that system, evaluation has been made disaggregated and goes on simultaneously with teaching and learning procedures. This method has been termed as continuous comprehensive evaluation (Mishra, N. 2001).

Children mainly drop out due to economic constraints of their families. Child labour today is considered as one of the greatest hindrances in the path of educational development. Most child-rights organizations are very clear about one thing, that free, compulsory and quality in the primary education is the first and most important step in the fight to eradicate child labour, which will further enhance the rate of enrolments and also continuation of their education. Widespread dropouts and repetition actually leads to insufficient use of resources spent on education and it enhances the input out ratio in the education cases. This leads to the decline in obtainable from the meager resources spent on primary education. (Gupta, P. 2003).

In the present study focus is limited to retention at the primary school level, which is complementary to the concept of wastage or dropout. Retention in this study has been taken as the percentage of enrolments in class V in relation to the enrolments in class I. This is a very crude indicator of retention at the end of the primary stage (Sixth AIES, Main Report, 1997). The rate of repetition has been ignored as government is following the non-detention policy in basic education and as a result of that rate of repetition is negligible (Gupta, P. 2003)

3.4.1 Regional Disparity in Retention:

Therefore based on this crude measure the retention ratios in India show an increasing trend in the time period of the study. The national level averages in the Fifth AIES, was 49.39 %, which declined to 40.78 % in the Sixth AIES and there was an increase again in the Seventh AIES at 62.30 %. Retention ratios among girls were lower in comparison to their male counterpart. In 1986 (Table.3.17) the female retention ratio at primary level was 45.03 %, while 52.55 % of the males completed their primary schooling. According to the Seventh AIES, this ratio had further increased to 60.15 % for girls and 64.24 % for the boys at primary schools. Indicating that educational importance was growing with time, as with increased participation grade completion was showing a rise. On the rural urban front, retention ratios in the rural areas show a lower rate, at 45.14 % in 1986 and 56.69 % in 2002 (Table.3.19). In the urban areas along with a higher ratio had a higher growth in the retention ratios, at 65.59 % in 1986 and 83.69 % in 2002.

High population:

Within the high populated states of India the states of India Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra and Madhya Pradesh showed a higher ratio in all the three years taken for the study. With a retention ratio of 89.86 %, 89.89 % and 84.42 % in the respective states in the Seventh AIES. While the state of Bihar had the lowest retention ratio, which also shows a decline in the trend over the years, the ratio was at 34.15 % in 1986 and 28.76 % in 2002. Followed by Rajasthan where there has been a growth but the ratio was still low at 40.01 % in 2002.

The retention ratios of the male section of our population show a higher rate. Where the states of Madhya Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra again show a better performance while Bihar, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh and West Bengal showed low retentions at primary level in respect to both the sexes.

Medium Population:

In the medium populated states Kerala (98.84 % in 1986 & 106 % in 2002) had the maximum number of students who continued their studies at primary level followed by states of Punjab (65.15 % in 1986 & 92 % in 2002) and Haryana (68.52% in 1986 &

Table.3.17

Retention Ratios of Primary School Children in India, 1986

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
	<i>High</i>	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T
Uttar Pradesh	64.27	51.48	59.88	0.14	51.81	56.37	53.59	-0.05	42.65	38.94	40.65	0.05
Maharashtra	53.12	40.55	47.32	0.15	73.90	65.43	69.90	0.08	59.79	48.77	54.67	0.12
Bihar	35.40	28.29	33.00	0.12	49.91	44.59	47.60	0.06	36.67	30.33	34.47	0.10
West Bengal	35.36	29.03	32.58	0.10	65.56	62.26	64.06	0.03	40.57	35.09	38.15	0.08
Andhra Pradesh	37.24	28.59	33.48	0.14	62.16	58.81	60.57	0.03	41.38	34.36	38.28	0.10
Tamil Nadu	68.10	58.16	63.46	0.10	82.01	78.30	80.22	0.03	71.61	63.51	67.79	0.08
Madhya Pradesh	71.74	44.26	60.69	0.29	77.38	71.91	74.97	0.05	73.04	51.39	64.14	0.22
Rajasthan	29.02	14.63	24.78	0.33	36.18	38.36	36.96	-0.03	30.53	20.87	27.55	0.19
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	46.14	32.06	39.47	0.20	70.47	65.70	68.21	0.05	52.93	41.45	47.50	0.14
Gujarat	48.97	36.63	43.41	0.16	72.77	67.07	70.10	0.05	55.05	44.82	50.40	0.12
Orissa	47.55	39.63	44.10	0.10	76.05	74.23	75.22	0.02	50.21	43.09	47.10	0.09
Kerala	98.76	94.67	96.76	0.04	117.13	109.57	113.33	0.07	101.03	96.59	98.84	0.04
Assam	35.94	30.30	33.42	0.09	87.86	84.55	86.37	0.03	39.51	34.10	37.09	0.08
Punjab	64.88	61.35	63.27	0.04	75.08	71.75	73.48	0.03	66.70	63.36	65.15	0.03
Haryana	77.26	57.52	68.82	0.19	68.94	65.33	67.20	0.04	75.87	59.09	68.52	0.16
Delhi	53.36	48.02	51.06	0.06	83.62	63.52	74.11	0.19	78.57	61.29	70.51	0.17
Jammu & Kashmir	68.25	55.91	63.30	0.13	73.06	67.04	70.07	0.06	69.04	58.42	64.59	0.11
<i>Low</i>												
Himachal	68.52	63.52	66.20	0.05	77.49	77.68	77.58	0.00	69.20	64.59	67.06	0.04
Tripura	37.57	34.84	36.33	0.04	88.28	98.80	93.19	-0.09	40.06	38.10	39.16	0.03
Meghalaya	19.01	19.11	19.06	0.00	47.61	53.45	50.44	-0.07	21.59	22.08	21.83	-0.01
Manipur	52.43	45.61	49.13	0.08	88.70	86.42	87.66	0.02	60.13	53.59	57.00	0.07
Nagaland	27.19	27.73	27.45	-0.01	54.03	57.97	55.75	-0.04	30.72	31.22	30.95	-0.01
Goa	95.28	89.80	92.63	0.05	121.04	88.13	103.86	0.29	101.36	89.36	95.44	0.10
Arunachal	31.27	26.57	29.33	0.08	38.92	44.28	41.29	-0.07	31.79	27.92	30.18	0.07
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	86.31	77.04	81.78	0.08	87.32	81.63	84.57	0.05	86.83	79.38	83.21	0.07
Chandigarh	55.81	51.54	53.85	0.05	78.36	77.08	77.78	0.01	75.17	73.39	74.36	0.02
Mizoram	29.51	30.99	30.20	-0.03	46.93	47.28	47.10	0.00	33.74	35.32	34.49	-0.02
Sikkim	32.80	32.77	32.79	0.00	55.92	70.73	62.70	-0.15	33.92	34.67	34.26	-0.01
A & N. Islands	83.36	79.00	81.29	0.04	93.12	83.35	88.52	0.09	85.85	80.10	83.13	0.05
D & N. Haveli	56.88	36.88	48.16	0.25	111.05	91.76	101.94	0.17	61.95	42.74	53.51	0.22
Daman & Diu	99.06	90.81	95.21	0.07	135.83	121.46	129.03	0.14	110.67	100.65	105.97	0.09
Lakshadweep	75.04	76.34	75.67	-0.01	73.72	60.14	67.00	0.13	74.46	68.95	71.77	0.05
INDIA	49.08	39.52	45.14	0.12	66.70	64.24	65.59	0.02	52.55	45.03	49.39	0.09
CV	40.11	45.39	41.43		30.64	25.91	27.93		38.45	40.44	38.67	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

Table.3.18

Retention Ratio of Primary School Children in India, 1993

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
	<i>High</i>	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T
Uttar Pradesh	49.18	39.68	45.60	0.12	59.42	57.41	58.56	0.02	21.97	43.58	30.34	-0.35
Maharashtra	66.33	56.45	61.61	0.10	90.39	85.06	87.86	0.05	64.86	66.66	65.72	-0.02
Bihar	39.28	32.17	36.69	0.11	62.49	55.98	59.45	0.07	39.75	34.92	19.18	0.07
West Bengal	42.55	35.44	39.23	0.10	80.89	72.86	77.02	0.07	48.29	42.45	35.28	0.07
Andhra Pradesh	42.76	35.60	39.46	0.10	75.81	73.44	74.65	0.02	48.23	43.36	35.33	0.06
Tamil Nadu	83.96	80.01	82.06	0.04	90.79	94.87	92.81	-0.04	88.95	84.13	65.65	0.04
Madhya Pradesh	63.12	51.54	58.08	0.12	74.52	72.07	73.40	0.02	65.26	56.83	44.98	0.09
Rajasthan	34.29	20.66	29.55	0.25	47.86	44.11	46.24	0.05	28.91	26.84	22.01	0.04
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	56.38	44.55	50.67	0.14	80.55	79.65	79.64	0.01	60.69	54.26	57.12	0.07
Gujarat	62.78	52.32	58.07	0.11	84.72	80.21	82.62	0.04	52.43	61.35	56.49	-0.10
Orissa	51.12	43.71	47.75	0.09	75.45	73.96	74.76	0.01	54.18	46.77	29.35	0.09
Kerala	112.00	108.00	110.00	0.04	122.10	120.52	121.31	0.01	112.65	110.76	82.94	0.02
Assam	33.53	31.35	32.53	0.03	84.60	78.33	81.63	0.06	40.61	34.48	21.64	0.09
Punjab	76.17	69.89	73.26	0.06	70.45	71.84	71.11	-0.01	80.25	70.33	49.33	0.09
Haryana	83.05	74.16	78.95	0.08	79.06	75.70	77.47	0.03	77.32	74.46	50.69	0.03
Delhi	72.88	69.94	71.45	0.03	74.62	68.90	71.82	0.05	133.02	69.01	101.68	0.58
Jammu & Kashmir	62.27	54.76	59.06	0.08	81.01	81.81	81.39	-0.01	62.35	59.07	38.02	0.03
<i>Low</i>												
Himachal Pradesh	73.73	68.74	71.30	0.05	87.60	88.28	87.92	-0.01	72.36	70.22	41.27	0.02
Tripura	41.81	39.89	40.93	0.03	80.72	82.52	81.57	-0.02	47.81	44.16	28.57	0.04
Meghalaya	30.46	29.38	29.92	0.02	60.58	63.56	62.09	-0.03	38.21	33.91	24.72	0.06
Manipur	49.17	47.52	48.40	0.02	83.38	80.82	82.13	0.02	57.52	55.10	44.89	0.03
Nagaland	37.56	39.83	38.64	-0.03	74.60	79.13	76.72	-0.04	52.68	48.32	40.17	0.05
Goa	103.38	94.67	99.18	0.08	109.64	99.30	104.65	0.09	100.96	96.81	98.96	0.04
Arunachal Pradesh	38.94	37.23	38.19	0.02	65.05	68.04	66.39	-0.03	49.65	40.34	24.78	0.12
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	109.24	110.54	109.11	-0.01	110.67	108.34	109.55	0.02	138.57	109.17	124.44	0.27
Chandigarh	66.78	58.33	62.84	0.09	83.69	88.62	85.97	-0.04	136.05	82.88	111.44	0.48
Mizoram	41.61	39.19	40.47	0.03	50.47	51.03	50.74	-0.01	41.40	44.22	42.74	-0.04
Sikkim	47.41	53.57	50.22	-0.07	102.50	93.49	97.23	0.08	56.37	54.40	26.30	0.02
A & N. Islands	78.34	78.98	78.64	-0.01	82.64	80.33	81.55	0.02	86.35	79.32	59.04	0.06
D & N. Haveli	44.64	33.35	39.87	0.16	76.28	81.79	78.62	-0.05	48.32	39.31	27.32	0.11
Daman & Diu	86.91	83.20	85.22	0.03	116.55	112.48	114.68	0.04	95.64	94.98	93.83	0.01
Lakshadweep	95.70	88.37	92.20	0.06	92.61	80.97	87.01	0.10	102.27	84.26	93.63	0.16
INDIA	51.75	45.21	48.94	0.08	81.54	74.01	77.89	0.07	58.31	51.90	40.78	0.07
CV	37.53	41.84	38.93		21.26	20.80	20.82		84.79	36.91	55.68	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

Table.3.19

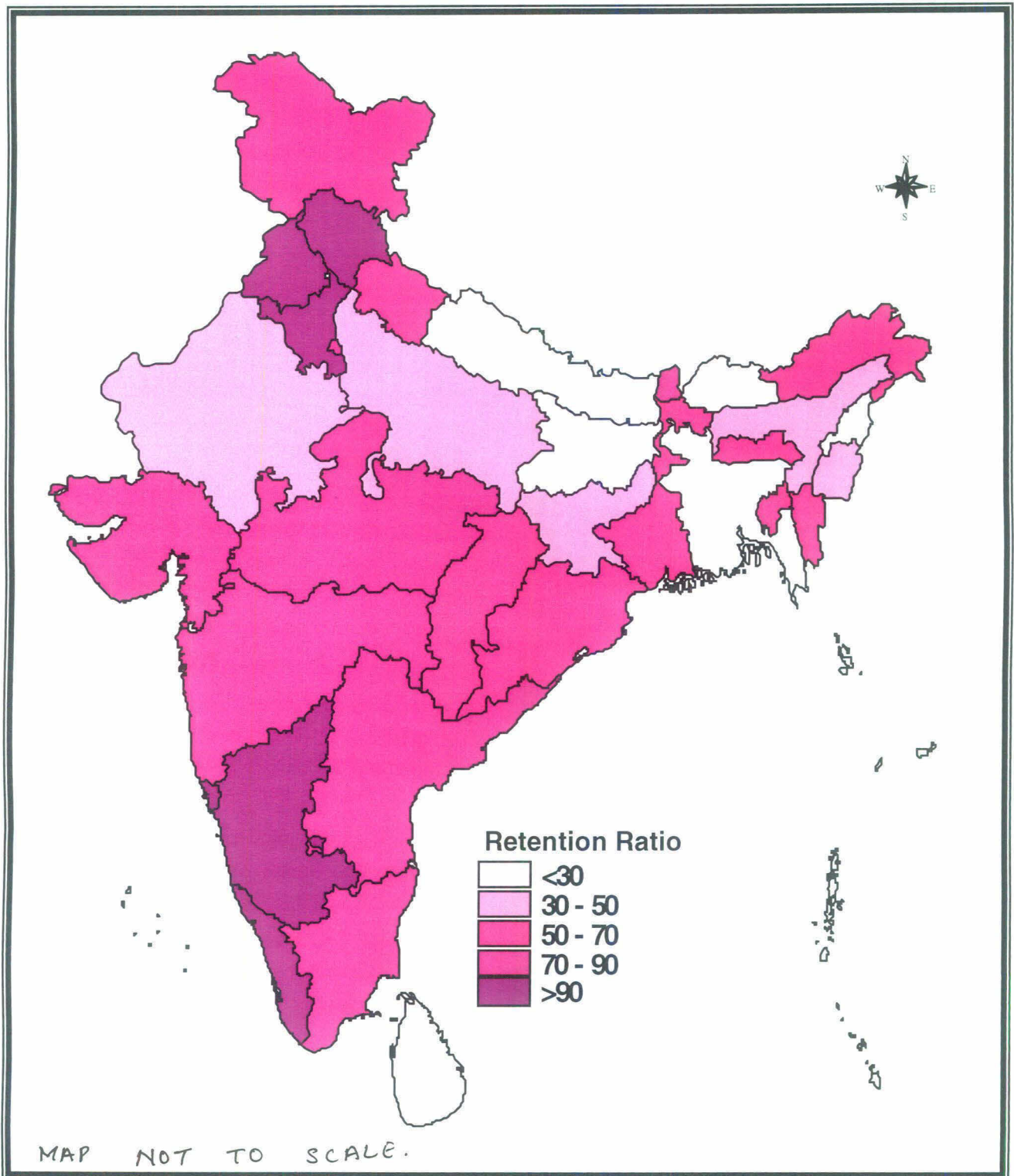
Retention Ratios of Primary School Children 2002

STATES & UT'S	RURAL				URBAN				TOTAL			
	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D
<i>High</i>												
Uttar Pradesh	48.75	44.84	46.92	0.05	62.93	63.77	63.30	-0.01	51.23	47.92	49.69	0.04
Maharashtra	85.94	85.32	85.64	0.01	96.43	94.11	95.33	0.02	90.22	88.89	89.59	0.01
Bihar	30.41	24.21	27.66	0.11	49.12	46.83	48.00	0.03	31.34	25.55	28.76	0.10
West Bengal	61.49	59.07	60.31	0.02	109.26	102.24	105.79	0.06	68.86	65.81	67.36	0.03
Andhra Pradesh	79.95	75.58	77.78	0.04	84.85	86.73	85.77	-0.02	81.17	78.28	79.74	0.03
Tamil Nadu	89.36	89.29	89.33	0.00	90.21	90.93	90.55	-0.01	89.73	90.00	89.86	0.00
Madhya Pradesh	87.02	76.10	81.81	0.10	93.33	90.17	91.87	0.03	88.69	79.66	84.42	0.08
Rajasthan	46.53	27.99	37.23	0.27	54.09	49.01	51.76	0.06	48.08	31.74	40.01	0.22
<i>Medium</i>												
Karnataka	99.84	97.10	98.51	0.02	92.43	94.58	93.46	-0.02	97.41	96.28	96.87	0.01
Gujarat	75.10	63.67	69.63	0.11	89.59	87.55	88.67	0.02	79.69	70.75	75.48	0.08
Orissa	58.21	52.82	55.61	0.06	78.42	75.14	76.84	0.03	60.19	55.02	57.70	0.05
Kerala	105.57	100.66	103.15	0.04	115.07	112.34	113.71	0.02	108.03	103.72	105.90	0.04
Jharkhand	34.78	28.55	31.93	0.10	71.12	67.43	69.31	0.04	38.51	33.06	36.00	0.08
Assam	37.84	35.47	36.69	0.03	90.70	94.61	92.59	-0.03	41.33	39.35	40.37	0.03
Punjab	88.69	94.63	91.47	-0.05	91.43	96.52	93.73	-0.04	89.42	95.11	92.06	-0.05
Haryana	92.04	90.88	91.51	0.01	97.71	98.76	98.17	-0.01	93.40	92.66	93.06	0.01
Chhattisgarh	66.46	60.53	63.55	0.06	94.08	90.15	92.19	0.03	70.72	64.97	67.91	0.06
Delhi	88.55	80.64	84.70	0.07	89.32	84.00	86.77	0.05	89.27	83.79	86.64	0.05
J & K	70.59	68.49	69.64	0.02	85.18	87.49	86.24	-0.02	73.09	71.76	72.48	0.01
<i>Low</i>												
Uttaranchal	61.76	60.40	61.09	0.01	78.46	78.55	78.50	0.00	65.36	63.90	64.65	0.01
Himachal Pradesh	93.80	94.80	94.28	-0.01	102.78	106.96	104.61	-0.04	94.66	95.80	95.21	-0.01
Tripura	62.03	60.86	61.47	0.01	102.09	103.51	102.78	-0.01	65.97	65.14	65.57	0.01
Meghalaya	26.79	28.86	27.82	-0.04	84.10	88.53	86.34	-0.04	33.54	36.14	34.84	-0.04
Manipur	44.95	43.54	44.26	0.02	67.89	64.32	66.12	0.04	49.27	47.57	48.44	0.02
Nagaland	46.49	43.43	45.02	0.04	94.23	99.08	96.47	-0.04	55.87	53.75	54.86	0.02
Goa	166.28	158.49	162.51	0.11	135.91	131.40	133.75	0.04	146.83	141.23	144.14	0.06
Arunachal	49.15	49.86	49.47	-0.01	79.02	78.89	78.96	0.00	54.63	55.77	55.15	-0.01
<i>Very Low</i>												
Pondicherry	102.64	94.47	98.68	0.07	103.99	102.30	103.16	0.01	103.51	99.54	101.57	0.03
Chandigarh	88.93	92.95	90.86	-0.04	102.43	105.14	103.63	-0.02	100.43	103.11	101.64	-0.02
Mizoram	42.13	42.41	42.26	0.00	63.10	62.36	62.74	0.01	50.10	50.27	50.18	0.00
Sikkim	66.58	75.47	70.94	-0.08	112.02	99.75	105.63	0.11	68.44	76.58	72.44	-0.08
A & N Islands	104.09	95.95	100.07	0.07	104.39	102.40	103.43	0.02	104.19	98.04	101.18	0.05
D & N Haveli	59.40	36.11	47.57	0.28	66.01	73.33	69.21	-0.07	60.83	42.50	51.77	0.21
Daman & Diu	100.00	107.99	103.80	-0.07	83.76	78.36	81.30	0.05	91.97	93.92	92.88	-0.02
Lakshadweep	114.90	123.58	118.66	-0.08	146.81	117.31	132.66	0.29	127.79	120.76	124.61	0.06
INDIA	58.99	54.15	56.69	0.05	83.76	82.90	83.35	0.01	64.24	60.15	62.30	0.04
C.V	39.14	42.67	40.55		23.00	20.96	21.75		34.57	36.69	35.40	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

Retention Ratio in Primary Schools in India 2002



94 % in 2002). While the states of Assam and Orissa showed low levels of retention, which fell even below the national averages in all the three survey years. The retention ratios were at 40 % and 57 % for the respective states.

With gender as a criterion the males again showed dominance in retention, indicating that the association between females and schooling in India is still lagging behind. It was the states of Orissa, Karnataka and Assam that showed a low ratio with both the sexes while the developed states of Kerala, Punjab, Haryana and Delhi that had higher retention ratio.

Low and Very-Low Population:

In the smaller States and UT's of India there has been a particular trend followed where the North-Eastern states show a very low retention ratio all through the time period of the study, and the other states which show a high retention ratio include Goa, Himachal Pradesh, and the UT's of Chandigarh, Lakshadweep, Pondicherry, Andaman & Nicobar. Where Goa had the highest national average at 144 % followed by Lakshadweep at 124.62 % in 2002.

The rural areas in all the states in this category again showed a lower retention ratio, implying that child labour could be one of the main reasons for children not completing their education at the primary level. Girls too show a low ratio, which could be associated with domestic help required, and an overall low female status and an even lower attachment to the importance of education.

The regional variation in the retention ratios in the different states shows an increasing trend over the years. For the total population it had a c.v. of 38.68 % in 1986, 40.78 % in 1993 and 62.30 % in 2002. The increasing trend could be mainly because of higher enrolments due to various policy initiatives and efforts to increase enrolments, with not many provision made to keep these children in schools, which leads these children to leave schools before completion of their basic education.

3.4.2 Gender Disparity In School Retention:

Sopher's Index clearly indicates there exists a disparity in male female retention even at the primary level, but the disparity is very low and also shows a declining trend

over the years. It showed a value of 0.09 in 1986, 0.07 in 1993, which further declined to .004 in 2002, indicating that the gap although low was still existent.

The regional disparity within states in 1986 varied from a negative value in the North Eastern States of Sikkim, Meghalaya, Manipur and Nagaland, which had a higher female retention ratio. To the States of Punjab, Kerala, and Himachal Pradesh showed a lower disparity index. While on the other hand Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Delhi and Dadar and Nagar Haveli showed a higher gender gap in retention. The Seventh AIES, overall shows a very low disparity value. But the states of Bihar, Rajasthan, Gujarat and Dadar and Nagar Haveli show high gender gaps.

3.5 Retention Within the Minorities:

Attending schools comes as hurdle for the minorities as they fall in the lower economic category and earning comes as better option than education, and earlier the better. Many parents of children at the elementary school level think it is a wastage of time in sending children to school. And children also find the school curriculum boring and unattractive and tend to dropout of school or do not enroll at all. Stagnation and repetition is much higher within this section as the home environment and illiterate parents reduce the child's interest in studies and continuation of further studies, overall leading to a low retention ratio within the minor sections of our society.

A) Schedule Caste Retention:

The Schedule Castes in India have been deprived education from time immemorial, they have been mainly confined to jobs that required only physical labour and education was always considered a secondary option. The scene today has changed considerably in regard to them attending school but, on the whole their presence in the entire educational cycle or completion of schooling is still very low. Though the government has made enormous efforts to ensure that the students belonging to this marginalized caste participate and more so complete their basic education, economic constraints along with certain social problems and difficulty in managing studies force the students to leave school early.

The data taken from the AIES's clearly shows us that even though there was a high enrolment ratio within this section of society, the retention ratios are very low when compared with the whole population. According to the Forth AIES, the national level averages for SC retention were as low as 26 %, which meant that only one fourth of the

Table3.20
Retention Ratios of Students Belonging to Schedule Caste 1978

States & U.T's	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	15.99	11.33	13.99	0.16
Arunachal Pradesh	25	14.29	23.08	0.27
Assam	26.43	20.57	23.93	0.12
Bihar	17.86	8.41	15.71	0.35
Goa	47.47	25.55	39.71	0.33
Gujarat	31.82	21.03	27.7	0.21
Haryana	30.73	29.93	30.21	0.01
Himachal Pradesh	58.2	44.43	52.94	0.16
Jammu & Kashmir	40.23	27.43	35.62	0.20
Karnataka	44.11	8.05	27.9	0.83
Kerala	89.22	83.43	86.43	0.05
Madhya Pradesh	32.92	15.29	23.62	0.38
Maharashtra	26.42	14.4	21.32	0.29
Manipur	16.69	11.83	14.52	0.16
Meghalaya	13.74	8.04	11.11	0.25
Mizoram				
Nagaland				
Orissa	30.56	18.25	25.83	0.25
Punjab	39.84	26.42	24.98	0.21
Rajasthan	46.52	29.85	36.32	0.24
Sikkim	13.61	7.83	10.2	0.25
Tamil Nadu	59.34	42.61	51.75	0.19
Tripura	19.66	17.12	18.62	0.07
Uttar Pradesh	37.35	19.25	32.82	0.33
West Bengal	15.71	12.18	14.32	0.12
A & N Nicobar				
Chandigarh	50.4	51.75	51.05	-0.02
D & N. Haveli	50	38.55	38.58	0.14
Daman & Diu				
Delhi	42.67	35.07	39.71	0.11
Lakshadweep				
Pondicherry	62.79	35.8	51.44	0.32
India	29	19.25	25.93	0.20
C.V.	54.63	70.72	58.38	-0.16

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

Table.3.21

Retention Ratios of Students Belonging to Schedule Caste 1986

States & U.T's	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	35.36	2.95	32.89	1.16
Arunachal Pradesh	46.77	30.77	39.47	0.22
Assam	35.72	39.35	37.33	-0.05
Bihar	31.96	24.63	29.86	0.13
Goa	61.15	44.13	52.74	0.19
Gujarat	58.64	48.23	54.02	0.12
Haryana	63.03	44.09	54.35	0.21
Himachal Pradesh	61.82	57.19	59.75	0.05
Jammu & Kashmir	63.76	58.65	61.62	0.05
Karnataka	39.95	27.86	34.32	0.19
Kerala	98.2	93.72	95.64	0.04
Madhya Pradesh	72.49	44.08	61.23	0.30
Maharashtra	59.13	44.12	52.24	0.17
Manipur	29.48	25.54	27.46	0.07
Meghalaya	44.7	49.74	47.19	-0.06
Mizoram				
Nagaland				
Orissa	44.84	33.94	40.2	0.15
Punjab	56.85	49.9	53.77	0.08
Rajasthan	27.08	13.04	23.33	0.35
Sikkim	31.26	29.77	30.57	0.03
Tamil Nadu	68.62	56.54	62.92	0.12
Tripura	40.24	33.68	37.7	0.09
Uttar Pradesh	58.55	40.82	52.69	0.21
West Bengal	32.44	24.65	29.1	0.14
A & N Nicobar				
Chandigarh	77.43	69.71	74.09	0.07
D & N. Haveli	93.94	61.11	78.99	0.30
Daman & Diu	85.94	97.87	90.99	-0.10
Delhi	69.55	54.45	62.26	0.15
Lakshadweep				
Pondicherry	78.85	71.55	75.04	0.07
India	47.98	37.84	43.88	0.13
C.V.	35.84	47.14	37.05	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

students who enrolled completed their primary schooling. The scene showed an even meager picture with the female students of which only 19 % completed schooling while 29 % of the males managed reaching grade V. Within the states Kerala had the highest percentage of students who completed their schooling at the primary level at 86.43 %, followed by Himachal Pradesh (52.94 %) and Tamil Nadu (51.75 %). While the states of

Bihar (15.71 %), Andhra Pradesh (14 %), Meghalaya (11.11 %) and Sikkim showed low retention ratios.

In the Fifth AIES, the national level averages for the SC population showed an increase to 43.88 %. Wherein the states of Kerala had a retention ratio of 95.64 %,

Table.3.22

Retention Ratios of Students Belonging to Schedule Caste 1993

States & U.T's	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	Gender Disparity
Andhra Pradesh	35.58	26.39	31.35	0.15
Arunachal Pradesh	39.42	18.75	31.55	0.38
Assam	40.43	38.27	39.44	0.03
Bihar	30.2	21.02	27.09	0.18
Goa	73.17	47.18	60.5	0.27
Gujarat	69.26	56.8	63.5	0.13
Haryana	66.86	58.52	63.5	0.08
Himachal Pradesh	64.41	57.67	61.2	0.07
Jammu & Kashmir	55.93	50.47	53.46	0.06
Karnataka	42.35	26.76	34.79	0.24
Kerala	124.9	120.9	122.9	0.04
Madhya Pradesh	57.47	42.74	51.12	0.17
Maharashtra	63.85	32.51	45.39	0.38
Manipur	43.39	54.5	48.64	-0.13
Meghalaya	61.07	49.58	55.6	0.13
Mizoram				
Nagaland	32.35			
Orissa	47.98	36.43	42.73	0.15
Punjab	62.49	54.45	58.8	0.08
Rajasthan	30.78	13.62	25.34	0.40
Sikkim	33.85	36.35	35.01	-0.04
Tamil Nadu	77.89	72.25	75.16	0.05
Tripura	44.2	40.14	42.29	0.05
Uttar Pradesh	44.89	30.38	39.57	0.21
West Bengal	33.39	24.1	29.38	0.17
A & N Nicobar				
Chandigarh	67.83	51.4	60.38	0.17
D & N. Haveli	72.22	65.29	66.37	0.07
Daman & Diu	92.86	111.54		-0.16
Delhi	71.13	69.87	70.55	0.01
Lakshadweep				
Pondicherry	111.53	132.9	121.75	-0.20
India	45.54	36.09	41.52	0.13
C.V.	40.21	61.04	48.80	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

followed by Tamil Nadu (62.92 %) and Madhya Pradesh (61.62 %) had high ratios along with the UT's. On the other hand a higher number of students in the states Bihar (29 %), Rajasthan (27.46 %) and Manipur (27.46 %) left school much before the completion of their primary education.

The Sixth AIES, shows us there was a decline in the national level averages of retention ratios in comparison to the Fifth Survey, which fell at 41.52 %. Within the states Kerala showed the highest ratio at 122 %, followed by Tamil Nadu at 75.16 %. The other states, which had a high retention ratio, were Gujarat, Goa, Haryana, Himachal and the UT's. On the contrary Rajasthan (25.34 %), Bihar (27 %) West Bengal (29 %) showed low rates of students retaining themselves in schools. The regional variation too showed a declining trend, where it had a c.v of 58.38 % in 1978 to 48.80 % in 2002.

B) Schedule Tribe Retention:

The Tribal Population is mainly confined to the remote locations of our country, and not all tribal areas have schools even today. Difficulty in terms of connectivity to these remote locations makes it more difficult for the government to ensure their participation; therefore completion of primary schooling is a secondary question.

The AIES's taken over different periods of time clearly indicate that the national averages show a consistent growth. 20.51 % of the ST population in the Fourth Survey completed their primary schooling. Which had gone up to 34 % in the Sixth Survey. The female retention ratios were very low at only 12.73 % in 1978, but the ratio had increased to 27 % in 1993, which is still a very low number, and this could mainly be due to non-availability of proper schooling facilities and distance in the tribal areas which force the girls to leave school before even completion of their basic primary education. Boys though had a slight higher retention ratio in relation to the females, but the averages were still low, at 17.62 % in the Fourth Survey and 31.44 % in the Sixth Survey.

Within the states, there were huge variations across the different Tribal regions of India, overall showing a very low rate of school continuation. Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Manipur, Andaman and Nicobar, Lakshadweep and Himachal Pradesh were amongst the regions that had higher retention ratios in comparison to the states of Bihar, Andhra Pradesh, Dadar and Nagar Haveli and Arunachal Pradesh showed low levels of retention ratio at

Table 3.23												
Retention Ratios of Primary School Students Belonging to Schedule Tribes												
States & U.T's	1978				1986				1993			
	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D	B	G	T	D
Andhra Pradesh	10.4	6.08	8.77	0.24	22.58	15.71	19.93	0.17	19.95	12.98	17.05	0.20
Arunachal Pradesh	15.07	11.08	14.04	0.14	28.24	27.83	28.08	0.01	36.03	34.9	35.53	0.02
Assam	23.61	15.78	20.13	0.19	32.35	28.82	30.7	0.06	29.75	25.74	27.82	0.07
Bihar	12.96	8.69	11.62	0.18	30.15	20.56	26.55	0.19	31.62	25.09	29.01	0.12
Goa	11.75	4.27	8.93	0.46	27.54	14.29	10	0.32	62.5	54.32	81.25	0.09
Gujarat	20.3	13.45	17.55	0.20	38.71	27.81	33.88	0.17	47.57	37.75	43.01	0.13
Haryana												
Himachal Pradesh	58.3	31.66	47.94	0.34	57.55	41.15	50.6	0.19	66.55	6.52	13.09	1.17
Jammu & Kashmir									52.44	43.32	48.53	0.11
Karnataka	23.23	14.49	20.97	0.23	43.03	27.78	36.03	0.23	53.42	30.77	37.58	0.30
Kerala	49.75	47.49	48.81	0.03	68.84	71.83	70.24	-0.03	95.03	97.97	96.46	-0.03
Madhya Pradesh	26.71	14.1	23.11	0.31	45.44	33.18	36.94	0.17	42.69	39.21	41.25	0.05
Maharashtra	17.38	10.37	14.67	0.24	34.67	22.57	29.48	0.22	42.85	31.06	37.38	0.17
Manipur	22.25	20.91	21.64	0.03	35.59	31.6	33.7	0.06	34.52	33.79	34.18	0.01
Meghalaya	17.2	14.43	15.83	0.08	18.75	17.7	18.23	0.03	28.96	28.63	28.8	0.01
Mizoram	31.65	27.91	29.84	0.06	29.51	30.99	30.2	-0.03	41.37	39	40.3	0.03
Nagaland	27.2	25.2	26.29	0.04	27.19	27.73	27.45	-0.01	37.39	39.58	38.43	-0.03
Orissa	18.84	9.32	15.56	0.33	24.96	15.79	21.28	0.22	29.22	18.82	24.75	0.22
Punjab												
Rajasthan	36.32	27.4	32.98	0.15	20.07	6.65	16.47	0.51	23.44	10.34	19.24	0.39
Sikkim	17.95	11.73	15.33	0.20	36.11	33.23	34.75	0.04	43.15	58.28	49.84	-0.17
Tamil Nadu	44.71	34.77	40.33	0.14	62.94	57.47	60.54	0.06	62.44	60.62	61.61	0.02
Tripura	16.76	12.61	18.33	0.13	24.23	19.34	22.12	0.11	30.9	26.65	28.99	0.08
Uttar Pradesh	44.93	24.61	38.16	0.31	49.38	29.56	41.63	0.28	49.91	38.77	45.41	0.14
West Bengal	14.31	9.24	12.52	0.20	29	18.29	24.73	0.23	29.72	17.74	24.45	0.25
A & N Nicobar	54.67	43.48	49.92	0.13	122.9	95.3	108.6	0.24	59.11	62.35	60.37	-0.03
Chandigarh												
D & N. Haveli	14.87	5.6	10.93	0.45	51.94	30.51	42.7	0.29	43.01	30.06	37.6	0.19
Daman & Diu					64.62	70.81	67.42	-0.06	89.56	72.39	78.64	0.16
Delhi												
Lakshadweep	94.36	72.64	84.44	0.19	72.34	75.77	74.09	-0.03	95.89	88.09	92.13	0.07
Pondicherry												
India	20.51	12.73	17.62	0.23	33.11	23.23	29.14	0.18	34.67	27.17	31.41	0.13
C.V.	80.66	76.66	80.07	0.04	74.56	65.90	66.44		50.91	67.06	53.12	

Source: Calculated from All India Education Survey NCERT, New Delhi

B- Boys; G-Girls; T- Total; D- Gender Disparity.

primary schools. The coefficient of variation calculated for regional disparity over the years has been very high. Where the c.v in 1978 was at 80 %, showing a very high disparity, which considerably declined to a c.v of 53 % in 1993, but was still quite high.

3.3.4 Gender Disparity in Retention of Minorities:

Tribal areas have a very low percent of their students continuing or even completing primary education, due to various physical, economic and social hindrances. The state of females, in even meager within this minority class, in the Fourth AIES, the national level gender disparity value was .23, where Goa, Himachal, Orissa, and Dadar and Nagar Haveli showed a higher gender gap indicating that a high proportion of the males retaining, whereas the Manipur, Kerala, Nagaland and Mizoram showed a lower disparity ratios.

There was a marked declined in gender disparity in the sixth survey where the national level averages showed a value of .18 wherein the North-Eastern states and the UT's showed a low level of disparity with Sikkim, Nagaland, Kerala, and Andaman and Nicobar showed a negative value, indicating that females had a higher retention ratio. While on the other hand Rajasthan, West Bengal, Orissa, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka had a higher gender disparity.

3.4 Colclusion:

From the above stated analysis and related arguments we can conclude that enrolments and retentions across the different regions of India present a varying picture. Even after over 50 years of independence the state has not been able to ensure an education system that has attracted all schooling going children, especially at the primary level which forms the foundation of the education network.

The analysis of this chapter overall reveals that, the ASER's though have increased over time it still fails to show the desired results. No state in India showed 100 % ASER of children in the age group 6- 11 years in school. The GER's in a few states were over 100 % implying that there most of the students were over age and under age in this section of schooling. The NER which implicitly measures the efficiency of the education system is also low, further indicating that there are huge number of dropouts, stagnation or repetition indicating high wastage, specially in the rural areas and more explicitly in the educationally backward states.

Differentiations along gender and caste lines were evident to a large extent, specially in the rural areas and educationally backward states. Only implying that even

after 50 years of planned development women and the SC and ST population was still alienated in our society from the attainment of basic formal education. Thus posing as a major hindrance in the path of universal enrolment.

CHAPTER IV

DISTRIBUTION OF RESOURCES AND PROGRAMME INITIATIVES FOR THE EDUCATION SECTOR

4.1 Introduction:

This section is divided into two parts, the first section deals with the financial allocations to the education sector and the second briefly looks into the programs and initiatives furnished for the development of primary education. Education, the most crucial investment in Human Development is an instrument for developing an economically prosperous society. It is also an indispensable decisive factor for ensuring equity and social justice. Development of human resource through education needs resources. Directing more resources to it means reduction in other levels of physical investment, hence forth, the way resources are used has direct impact not only on the development of education but also on the economy as a whole. Therefore the financial resources that are being poured into the education system are important, since they are investments in human capital. The mechanism of financing has a significant bearing on the outcomes, and therefore it has to be based on sound principles to get desired results. (Shiva Reddy, 1991)

Several factors constrain the capacity of India's education system to meet the needs of a liberalized and fast growing economy by rapidly expanding and improving coverage, quality and efficiency, particularly in primary education. An important one is the availability and optimal use of the financial resources. The central government, which has some constitutional role in the direct provision of education, has expanded its activities in recent years through centrally sponsored schemes, and further expansion of its role may be appropriate. But the onus of financing primary education of responsible quality for all India's children rests mainly with the state governments. Trends in state public finance suggest that in several states the necessary finance will not be available unless the governments enhance revenue yields and alter the structure of their expenditure (Aggarwal, D.2002)

4.2 Pattern of Financing Education in India:

Despite recognizing education as a critical investment for national survival, the pattern of financing education in India during the post independence period has not been satisfactory. The pattern of financing in education in an economy can be judged in terms of adequacy, equity, and efficiency. On all the three counts India's performance has been mixed, featuring impressive achievements on one hand and conspicuous failures on the other. On the whole, the Indian education system is characterized with severe degree of underinvestment.

India like many other developing countries had experienced rapid expansion of education expenditures in the halcyon years of 1950's and 1960's. It was a challenge to the planners and policy makers to invest these resources effectively across each level of education in order to ensure the largest possible returns from it. The flow of resources to education started somewhat dwindling in 1970's. It was mainly due to the presence of large educated unemployment, the tie between education and economic development was also questioned. But the situation changed in 1980's, as education was attributed to be the most important tool for Human Resource Development (Tilak, 2000).

The decade of 1990's again experienced a backlash with the advent of stabilization and structural reform programmes. It had an impact on the public finance structure in the form of displacement of funds from social sector, including education, as a part of orthodox stabilization packages for the solution of economic crises (Ramachandran, Rawal and Swaminathan, 1997). Education sector was badly shot as it was regarded as soft target for resources squeeze (Prakah and Choudhary, 1994).

A nation's priority to education is reflected in the proportion of national income devoted to education. The increase in expenditure on education in India after the independence is very impressive: the educational expenditure increased from Rs.191 crores in 1950-51 to Rs.84179 crores (Revenue Estimates) in 2001, it showed an increase of almost 440 times in absolute current price. The proportion has shown an impressive increase from 1.2 % in 1950-51 to about 4.02 % in 2001-02. But it can be noted that this proportion is less than the requirements of the system. To provide reasonable levels of quality education to all students enrolled and to provide universal elementary education to children between the age group of 6-14, and consequent growth in secondary and

higher education. This proportion is also much less than the recommendations of the National Policy of Education and education commissions to invest 6 % of the national income on education.

An analysis into the intrasectoral allocation of resources in education clearly reveals that, during the plan period there was a lopsided emphasis on not only elementary education, but also other layers of education. In the first Five-Year plan, 58 % of the total plan resources to education were allocated to elementary education. The relative importance given to education declined to 35 % in the Second Plan, to 34 % in the Third Plan and gradually 32 % in the Sixth Plan. The formulation of NPE in 1986 marked the beginning of renewed emphasis on elementary education as a result of which elementary education allocations increased significantly. Of which, the results were evident in the Seventh and Eighth Plans where allocations increased substantially, though the Eighth Plan allocation was still less than the corresponding one in the First Plan, in percentage terms at 48 %. The Ninth Plan allocation too showed an increase to 65.7 %, this boost was primarily because of the POA, initiated in 1992. The Tenth Plan outlay also exhibits a high share of 65.6 % for the elementary sector. The share of elementary education in GNP had grown considerably from 0.50 % in 1950-51 to 2.39 % in 2001-02 (Budgeted Expenditure).

Further the resources for quality inputs is meager, the capital expenditure on buildings, libraries, equipments, furniture, etc. forms a very small proportion, though it has shown an increase to 6 %, of total expenditure on elementary education in 2002. That many schools are run in open spaces, kachcha buildings, inadequate rooms, etc, is a clear reflection of the severe degree of underdevelopment in education. Expenditure on fixed capital such as buildings, however increases with increase in levels of education, on the whole, formation of fixed capital in this human capital industry takes place at a slow pace. Of the recurring expenditure on education, particularly primary education, teachers salaries amounted for 83 % in 2002 and the expenditure on non-teaching staff form the next largest proportion at 8 %. All other items including teaching learning material receive negligible amounts. This phenomenon poses a bottleneck in form of resource crunch in expansion and of effective functioning of education infrastructure at primary schools level.

Therefore to achieve universalization of elementary, this current trend of educational finance has to be raised. Therefore based on this backdrop an attempt has been made to analyze the regional dimensions of financing education in India.

4.3 Regional Disparity in Financing Educational Expenditure:

Universalization of elementary education has been one of the most laudable and ubiquitous professed goals in political rhetoric in India since independence. But in the economic front indifferences of policy makers have been proved inimical to the spread of education in India, as resources allocated for this purpose is grossly inadequate. Dismal performance in the field of basic education is largely due to insufficient budgetary and extra budgetary allocations in this sector (Gupta, P.2003). The sources, level and distribution of resources for education are the results of a complex set of factors. State governments, households and the central government are the main providers of financing in the order. (Aggarwal,D.2002). The disparity in resource mobilization capacity of the different states and variation in resource allocation to education further accounts for an increased regional disparity.

The ability of state governments to fund this sector depends on their willingness and ability to raise revenues, the centrally raised revenues transferred to them through the finance and planning commissions, and the priority given to competing demands for expenditure. The central government provides small direct expenditures; it also allocates tied grants to states at each level of education. Therefore prevalent adhocism in resource allocation in the field of education has led to absence of any consistent trend across time and space. Based on this data from three different points of time post NPE (1986) have been used.

4.3.1 Share of Education in Total Budget Across States

The importance of education for a country can be reflected in the resources allocated to it in terms of the total budget of a country. The total revenue expenditure on education in India shows a declining trend in terms of the data used for the study. In 1986, budgeted expenditure on education to the total country's budget was 16.8 % that saw a decline to

Table.4.1

Percentage Share of Total Expenditure on Education to Total Budget.

States & U.T's	1986	1993	2002
Andhra Pradesh	15.5	14.17	10.52
Arunachal Pradesh	17.5	11.37	7.61
Assam	18	21.08	20.12
Bihar	18.2	19.31	17.69
Chhattisgarh			11.17
Goa	12.7	14.1	8.34
Gujarat	18.2	17.49	10.94
Haryana	12.7	9.38	11.65
Himachal Pradesh	13.8	15.93	12.77
Jammu & Kashmir	16	11.56	9.38
Jharkhand			11.17
Karnataka	15.1	16.47	12.7
Kerala	26.2	24.08	15.75
Madhya Pradesh	12.6	14.94	10.8
Maharashtra	14	14.25	16.49
Manipur	18.4	20.51	10.06
Meghalaya	12.8	15.18	10.41
Mizoram	9.6	19.44	11.1
Nagaland	10.7	10.72	8.05
Orissa	15	15.29	12.05
Punjab	15.4	9.91	9.14
Rajasthan	19.2	16.45	14.29
Sikkim	12.7	6.95	6.25
Tamil Nadu	17.8	18.67	14.74
Tripura	13.3	15.26	14.16
Uttar Pradesh	19.5	14.86	14.28
Uttaranchal			9.86
West Bengal	20.8	21.11	12.8
A & N Islands	8.4	10.47	9.91
Chandigarh	19.1	18.16	14.98
D & N Haveli	13	11.9	5.08
Daman & Diu		12.92	6.5
Delhi	18	13.13	13.02
Lakshadweep	11.2	7.54	7.81
Pondicherry	18.5	11.67	10.73
INDIA	16.8	15.97	12.64
C.V	24.01	27.94	28.85

Source: Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on Education. Dept. of Education., Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

15.97 % in 1996 and a further decline to 12.64 % in 2002. This is mainly associated with increase in the allocation to other sectors. The state level analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on education from the total budget allocation, which is an inclusion of the Revenue Account, the Capital Account and Loans for the states in the year 1986-87 reflect that, India spent 16.8 %. Within the states educationally developed states of Kerala and West Bengal allocated the highest share of their budget to education at 26 % and 21 % respectively. While Anadaman and Nicobar and Lakshadweep, which were economically weak and located in isolation showed the lowest budget allocation, in 1986-87.

The trend in budgetary allocation in 1996-97 shows a decline on the national level at 16 %. The states that had a higher allocation in 1986 showed a declining trend in total share of the education budget, while the states, which had a lower share, reflect an increased proportion, indicating the emphasis on development of education. The states that saw a considerable rise in education budget were Assam, Bihar, Goa, Manipur and Himachal Pradesh.

The share of the education budget in 2002-03 further declined in terms of the total budgetary allocation, where the national level averages fell to a 12.6 %. One can notice that the educationally developed states invested a higher proportion into education than the economically developed states.

On the whole the trend can be judged as lopsided, investments need to be increased on order to increase the share of total elementary expenditure, which has a further impact on that allocated to the primary section.

4.3.2 Share of Education in Relation to State Income and Budget:

Efforts exerted by a nation or the states for the development of education can be measured with the aid of a few selected indicators. Most important among them is the share of education and training in the Net State Domestic Product (NSDP). The allocation amounts are very low and the national level averages of total NSDP have showed a decline, from 4.6 % in 1986 –87 to 3.74 % in 2002-03.

State level analysis shows us that in 1986-87, the North-Eastern States of Sikkim (13.6 %), Arunachal (9.3 %), Manipur (9.9 %), Nagaland (8.3 %) and Meghalaya (7 %) had had canalized a significant proportion of their state income to education including

Table.4.2

Expenditure on Education in Relation with State Income and State Budget

States & U.T's	% of Total Budget (R.E)		% of Total Budget (R.E)		% of Total Budget (R.E)	
	% of NSDP		% of NSDP		% of NSDP	
	1986-87		1993-94		2002-03	
Andhra Pradesh	4.7	24.42	4.1	23.4	3.59	19.68
Arunachal Pradesh	9.3	12.3	8.2	15	8.38	14.17
Assam	4.8	23.1	5.9	28.6	6.89	29.37
Bihar	4.2	27.1	4.9	22.1	6.43	23.54
Chhattisgarh						22.44
Goa	4.9	20.6	7	23.2	3.79	12.14
Gujarat	5.4	28.3	4.5	21.5	3.28	15.16
Haryana	3.3	22.3	3	15.8	2.92	17.13
Himachal Pradesh	7.2	18.2	8	20.9	6.69	16.89
Jammu & Kashmir	6.7	19.4	10.3	20.2	7.06	14.77
Jharkhand						
Karnataka	5.2	22	4.2	22.1	3.67	19.19
Kerala	6.5	31.7	6.7	29.4	3.97	23.67
Madhya Pradesh	4.2	21	4.6	23.4	4.41	20.07
Maharashtra	3.5	22.4	3.3	22.9	4.34	27.41
Manipur	9.9	25.8	12	28.6	10.85	21.25
Meghalaya	7	15.3	9.9	21.7	6.93	18.43
Mizoram			13.5	17.3	11.47	16.73
Nagaland	8.3	12.3	8.9	12.4	6.99	13.79
Orissa	4.7	22.2	5	22.6	5.23	18.2
Punjab	3.3	23.9	2.8	17.9	3.12	15.44
Rajasthan	4.6	26.4	5.5	22.6	4.68	20.46
Sikkim	13.6		13.6	19.7	13.47	7.26
Tamil Nadu	4.6	27.4	4.8	23	3.88	19.97
Tripura	6.9	13.4	13.2	26	8.09	25.24
Uttar Pradesh	3.3	21.8	3.8	19.9	4.07	18.89
Uttaranchal						
West Bengal	3.5	25.8	4	25.1	3.96	24.29
A & N Islands						
Chandigarh						
D & N Haveli						
Daman & Diu						
Delhi	3.6	34.4	0.9	28.4	1.83	26.44
Lakshadweep						
Pondicherry	5.5	21.4				
INDIA	4.6	24	3.6	12.7	3.74	12.51
C.V	42.67	25.63	53.90	19.21	49.65	25.99

Source: Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on Education. Dept. of Education., Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

educationally developed states of Himachal (7.2 %) and Kerala (6.5 %). On the other hand the states of Bihar (4.2 %), Orissa (4.7 %) Uttar Pradesh (4.6 %) and Andhra Pradesh (4.7%) that are considered as educationally backward comparatively had low allocation in terms of the state income. On the other and economically developed states of Maharashtra (3.5 %), Punjab (3.3 %) and Haryana (3.3 %) also showed low allocations to education expenditure.

Data for the year 1996-97 reveals that the North-Eastern States had a higher allocation in this year also and there was an increase in the share in relation to 1986-87. The educationally developed states of Himachal (8 %), Kerala (6.7 %) and Goa (7 %) showed a high percentage of NSDP devoted to education. On the other hand the resource allocation of the economically developed states of Maharashtra (3.3 %), Punjab (2.8 %) and Haryana (3 %) had further declined.

The data for the year 2002-03 reveals that the total share budget allocation to the state income in most of the states had declined. It was the educationally less developed states of Bihar (6.43 %), Uttar Pradesh (4.07 %) and Orissa (5.23 %) that showed an increase in the budget allocation. On the other hand, the educationally developed states of Kerala, Goa and Himachal showed a decline in 2002-03.

In order to get an insight into the matter of education finance across states, these figures should not be accepted at their face value. For example some of the states like Bihar and Orissa, who had moderately high values for the aforesaid indicator had very low state income. At times the state income had shown a declining trend, so even a small and inadequate expenditure on education can have a greater percentage share in NSDP. In the same way, educationally developed states like Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Punjab had allocations relatively lesser to the share of NSDP on education, did not suggest that education in these states were inadequately funded. The denominator or the state income was high as they were high achievers in the economic front also. States like Himachal and Goa, which had healthier education scenario, actually diverted considerable amount of resources to this sector inspite of the fact that they did not have a vibrant economy.

The share of the budgetary resources to education is low. The revenue account expenditure on education has shown a higher proportion relatively to that of the total budgeted expenditure to education taken previously. The national level values over time

have shown a declining trend from 24 % in 1986, to 12.7 % in 1993 and 12.52 % in 2002-03. The North Eastern States along with West Bengal, Sikkim and Andhra Pradesh had a low share of budgeted expenditure spent on education. The case of Northeastern States deserves some different treatment as the private players of missionaries largely meet the needs to UEE in this part of the country. So, prevalence of governmental apathy does not lead to dismal performance in education in these states.

The resource allocations of finance to education in the educationally developed states show a decline over the years. Kerala had a share of 31 % in 1986, which declined to 29.4 % in 1993, and 23.7 % in 2002 and Himachal had a share of 20.9 % in 1993-93 that declined to 16.89 in 2002-03. Bihar on the other hand showed an increase in 1993-94 from 22 % to 24 % in 2002-03. Another noticeable fact is that some of the economically developed states of Maharashtra and Haryana also increased their resource allocation to education in 2002-03 in comparison to the previous years.

In some cases the states that had a higher share of NSDP, showed a lower budget allocation to education. This discordance between the two indicators for some states actually reveals the fact that the states that had low / moderate income, had very high percentage of NSDP allocated for education was actually spurious, as even small expenditure made in reality had high percentage value as the denominator was very small.

The broad conclusion that can be drawn from the above mentioned analysis is that, there is no strong correlation between the economic health of the states and its efforts to support education. Not necessarily the economically stronger states will divert more resources for development of education the need for resources vary across states. Therefore to improve the education scenario at all levels of education the requirement and allocation of resources should be met up with.

4.3.3 Capital Account Expenditure on Elementary Education

Within the budget framework resources flow in two forms- capital account expenditures and revenue account expenditures. In total budget allocation on education, share of capital account was infinitesimally small. As a lion's share of revenue account expenditure is spent on personnel cost, very little amount is left to be spent on

Table.4.3

Capital Account Expenditure on Education

State / U.T.	% of Total Expenditure on Education to Total Budget	% of Expenditure on Elementary education to Total Expenditure	% of Total Expenditure on Education to Total Budget	% of Expenditure on Elementary education to Total Expenditure
	1993-94		2002-03	
Andhra Pradesh	0.06	57.13	0.14	100.00
Arunachal Pradesh	7.87	0	4.32	18.30
Assam	0	0	0.04	0.00
Bihar	0.44	0	1.60	84.10
Chhattisgarh	0	0	0.54	4.17
Goa	2.63	21.7	3.10	31.85
Gujarat	1.38	3.86	0.08	0.00
Haryana	5.9	3.3	0.83	0.00
Himachal Pradesh	1.72	32.62	2.68	75.68
Jammu & Kashmir	0	0	2.33	56.48
Jharkhand			0.29	0.00
Karnataka	0.52	1.31	0.13	0.00
Kerala	0.76	95.75	2.92	0.00
Madhya Pradesh	0.39	22.76	0.79	68.14
Maharashtra	1.92	0	0.15	0.00
Manipur	0.72	26.53	0.25	6.41
Meghalaya	2.95	0	0.49	64.52
Mizoram	0.72	20.6	0.02	25.00
Nagaland	4.96	8.95	1.76	38.33
Orissa	1.81	70.81	0.81	93.57
Punjab	6.49	0	0.23	99.85
Rajasthan	1.77	33.69	0.91	74.62
Sikkim	4.55	0	8.61	36.65
Tamil Nadu	1.65	0.67	0.04	55.94
Tripura	2.66	2.57	4.73	55.24
Uttar Pradesh	4.06	0.7	2.29	0.58
Uttaranchal	0	0	0.60	0.00
West Bengal		25.8	1.30	0.00
A & N Islands	6.09	13.91	7.85	29.85
Chandigarh	6.7	0	2.68	12.14
D & N Havell	10.62	0	4.17	0.00
Daman & Diu	7.46	0	4.03	0.00
Delhi	5.6	0	8.70	20.14
Lakshadweep	5.45	0	2.34	0.00
Pondicherry	4.01	0	5.90	23.25
INDIA	2.1	15.93	1.00	34.17

Source: Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on Education. Dept. of Education., Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

instructional items and administration. In order to extend the net of formal education to every nook and corner of the country, it is important to increase the share of capital expenditure in the budgetary allocation.

Though capital account expenditure on education forms a meager share of the total budget the allocations have shown a declining trend in its share for the elementary section. On the national level the total share has declined from 2.1 % in 1993-94 to only 1 % in 2002-03. Showing a picture of an even meager share to the primary section.

Within the states Assam showed the highest allocations in 1992-93 at 7.87 %, followed by Punjab at 6.49 % and Madhya Pradesh had the lowest allocations at .39 % followed by Bihar at .49 % in the same year. The allocation in 2002-03 showed a considerable decline with most of the smaller states of the North East and the UT's that had a higher share.

Looking into the growth pattern, it was the educationally developed states that saw a rise in share of the total capital account expenditure on elementary education. Where, Goa had a share of 2.63 % in 1992-93 it increased to 3.10 in 2002-03, allocations in Himachal increased from 1.72 % to 2.68 5 and Kerala from 0.76 % to 2.92 for the respective years. Whereas on the other hand, economically developed states saw a further decline in resource allocations. Where the share of elementary education was 1.92 % in 1993-94 for Maharashtra it further declined to .015 % in 2002-03. And Punjab too showed a decline from a share of 6.49 % in 1993-94 to only 0.23 % in 2002-03, followed by Haryana where the allocations declined from 5.9 % to 0.83 %, for the respective years.

Of the resources given to education on the whole, the elementary education share has shown an increase to 34.17 % in 2002 from only 15.93 % in 1993-94. Most of the educationally developed states of Kerala, Himachal and Goa diverted a high percent of their education expenditure from the capital account to elementary education, in comparison to the educationally backward states.

Therefore we can conclude that the allocation of resources to primary education from the capital account expenditure budget is further very low, specially terms of the total budget allocation, and hence forth emphasis should be laid to increase this distribution in order to achieve quality of educational infrastructure to the reach of all

segments of the Indian population within the primary level. This will further reduce the large and varying regional disparity across India.

4.3.4 Revenue Account Expenditure on Elementary Education and its Primary Share:

The allocation of expenditure for the primary section of the formal education pattern is allotted out of the elementary budget. Therefore emphasis placed on the development for primary education can be delineated through the analysis of percentage of expenditure on elementary education to total expenditure on education, in the revenue account of the budget.

The share of elementary education in total revenue expenditure on education has remained stable for all India level since mid-1980's, after the adoption of the NPE in 1986. The national level averages of elementary education budget to total education budget have shown a trend over the years, in 1986-87 India had an average allocation of 46.6 % to elementary education, which rose to 48.94 % in 1993-94 and 49.68 % in 2002-03.

In most of the states there has been very fluctuating trend over the allocation of resources to the elementary education. Most of the educationally backward states showed an increase except Uttar Pradesh that showed a declining trend from 49.91 % in 1986-87 to 46.69 % in 2002-03. The educationally developed states of Goa, Karnataka Gujarat, Tamil Nadu and Kerala too showed a reduction in the share of the elementary budget. This could mainly be attributed to the already existent developed face of education in these states.

One noticeable features in the growth of allocation of resources to elementary education is that, there was a higher growth rate in resource allocation between 1986-87 and 1993-04, in comparison to the second phase, between 1993-94-2002-03. The rise in the first time period was in order to the proposition made in NPE for UEE, but this emphasis given to elementary education could not be sustained and agenda to implement UEE took a backseat to give priority to technical and higher education to cater the need of trained manpower to compete in a globalized regime.

Table.4.4

Percentage Share of Budgeted Expenditure Elementary Education and its Primary Share.

State / U.T.	% share of Total Education Budget on Elementary Education	% share of Total Elementary Expenditure on Govt. Primary Education.	% share of Total Education Budget on Elementary Education	% share of Total Elementary Expenditure on Govt. Primary Education.	% share of Total Elementary Expenditure on Govt. Primary Education.	
					1986-87	1993-94
					2002-03	
Andhra Pradesh	40.3	7.1	42.37		44.14	
Arunachal Pradesh	43.8	96.1	63.4		63.49	
Assam	41.62	73.6	61.13	84.55	60.05	87.53
Bihar	61.05	88.5	64.7		65.49	91.2
Chhattisgarh					69.1	82.45
Goa	31.8	93	28.34		23.27	73.64
Gujarat	59.12		53.96		53.77	84.85
Haryana	10.41	94.4	45.76	88.65	47.96	89.54
Himachal Pradesh	36.82	79.3	52.89	90.79	57.52	92.25
Jammu & Kashmir	43.14	92.7	46.02	93.36	46.78	95.13
Jharkhand					75.12	91.55
Karnataka	55.26	83.6	52.42		50.32	85.39
Kerala	53.28	36.9	46.6	38.24	41.12	35.44
Madhya Pradesh	45.12	87.8	60.73	83.04	64.88	81.74
Maharashtra	44.26		44.37		44.41	97.22
Manipur	51.06	71.9	45.43	74.54	48.53	61.68
Meghalaya	39.96		53.67	4.77	54.19	47.72
Mizoram	36.5	69.1	57.16	62.98	53.37	77.97
Nagaland	61.05	94.1	71.41	99.49	63.21	98.7
Orissa	40.72		57.25	91.17	60.36	93.36
Punjab	32.62	96.8	32.61	95.99	26.42	94.83
Rajasthan	52.16	60.7	53.32	55.42	57.23	47.95
Sikkim	26.56	89.7	56.65		57.34	90.98
Tamil Nadu	51.83		47.3	61.59	43.55	61.09
Tripura	37.84	85.1	39.91	88.43	54.33	89.94
Uttar Pradesh	49.91		48.16		46.69	
Uttaranchal					57.59	
West Bengal	34.05	84.35	34.79	90.27	33.36	92.53
A & N Islands	59.8	86.6	55.75	87.62	48.6	83.17
Chandigarh	20	89.6	20.37		22.86	
D & N Haveli	63	83.5	63.7		65.98	
Daman & Diu			44.37		42.98	
Delhi	21.2		26.38		21.53	
Lakshadweep	48.3	99.7	49.65	99.82	4.37	100
Pondicherry	46.8	90.7	43.13		38.31	76.83
INDIA	46.6	34.6	48.94	36.71	49.66	57.28
C.V	29.74	55.11	23.99	57.81	31.60	54.04

Source: Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on Education. Dept. of Education., Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi.

India has the financial potential to provide all its children with primary education of higher quality. But having the financial potential does not mean it will be easy. Many states in India still have a long way to go before all children are in school. To provide better universal primary schooling will require substantial increase in state spending on primary schooling.

Because of the diversity across India's states, the challenges of providing reasonable quality of primary schooling for all children vary across states. Primary Education accounts for a high percent of the total share of the elementary budget, which shows a varying degree across regions in India. The national level averages show an increase over the years but are low because there is large variation across states. It was at 34.6 % in 1986-87, increased to 36.71 % in 1993-94 and a further increase in 2002-03 to 54.20 %, due to reduced regional disparity.

The state level trends show an increase in the total allocations, except in the educationally and economically developed states of Kerala, Goa, Haryana and Punjab that showed a decline in the primary education budget. Where Goa had the highest decline from a share of 93 % in 1986-87 to 73.64 % in 2002-03. The main reason that could be asserted here again for the decline could be an already established primary school system in these states. But a noticeable fact in the data taken from the budgeted expenditure reveals that, the states of Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Delhi and Karnataka had an enormously low proportion of their elementary budget spent on primary education. And these states also showed a low share in terms of the elementary budget to the total budget.

So from the above analysis it can be asserted that the share of resources for primary education budget across most states to its elementary share was reasonably fare in most states, but on the whole this amount is still low to achieve universal primary schooling. Therefore the total share of finance allocation to elementary education need to be raised to have a better picture at the lower elementary level.

4.4 Programmes and Initiatives at Primary School Level:

The mark that our education system has reached today from what it was at the time of independence could not have been possible without policy interventions and

initiatives taken by various government and non- government agencies. Provision of elementary education to all children in the age group of 6-14 years has been a stated goal of the government of India since independence. Although Universalization of Elementary education (UEE) has not yet been achieved, the Government has affirmed its commitment to this goal through various measures. Plan allocation for this sector for the tenth five year Plan period [2002-07] is Rs.28,750 crore, which is 75per cent higher than the allocation for the Ninth Plan.

The passing of the 86th Constitutional Amendment Act, has been an important milestone on the path towards uiversalization. Free and compulsory education for all children in 6-14 year age group is now a justifiable Fundamental right under article 21-A of the constitution. The enabling legislation to enforce this right is currently under discussion in the public domain, and is expected to be introduced in parliament soon. Once enacted, this legislation would provide the supporting statutory mechanism for universalization of elementary education.

A) Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA):

The scheme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) was launched in 2001. The goals are as follows:

- All 6-14 age children in school/ Education Guarantee Scheme Center/ bridge course by 2003.
- All 6-14 age children complete five-year primary education by 2007.
- All 6-14 age children complete 8 years of schooling by 2010.
- Focus on elementary education of satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life.
- Bridge all gender and social category gaps at primary stage by 2007 and at elementary education level by 2010.
- Universal retention 2010.

The assistance under the programe of SSA was on a 85:15 sharing arrangements during the Tenth Plan, and 50:50 sharing there after between the Central Government and State Government.

The programme covers the entire country and addresses the needs of 192 million children in 11 lakh habitations. 8.5 lakh existing primary and upper primary schools and 33 lakh district teachers would be covered under the scheme. The program seeks to open new schools in habitations which do not have schooling facilities and strengthen existing school infrastructure through provision of additional classrooms, toilets, drinking water, maintenance grant and school improvement grant. The SSA has a special focus on girls and children of weaker sections. A number of initiatives including free textbooks, target these children under the programme. The SSA also seeks to provide computer education even in rural areas to bridge the digital divide.

During 2003-04 the SSA approved 67,190, new schools 3,98,189 appointment of new teachers, 40,960 construction of school buildings, 68, 779 additional classrooms, construction of 46,272 toilets and provision of Drinking Water for 33,161 schools, EGS facilities for 47,04,400 children, AIE for 64,18,238 children, IED for schools and teacher grant for 29,67,053 teachers against annual district elementary education plan for 596 districts. A sum of Rs.2,698.38 crore was released by the Central Governments to the States/ UT's

B) Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education:

Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative Innovative Education (EGS and AIE) is an important component of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) to bring out-of-school children in the fold of Elementary Education. The scheme envisages that child-wise planning is undertaken for each out-of-school children.

EGS addresses the inaccessible habitation where there is no formal school within the radius of one km and at least 15-25 children of 6-14 years age group who are not going to school are available. In exceptional cases remote habitations in hilly children even for 10 children an EGS school can be opened.

Alternative Education Interventions for specific categories of very deprived children for example, child labor, street children, migrating children, working children, children living in difficult circumstances and older children in the 9+ age group especially adolescent girls are being supported under EGS and AIE all over the country.

Sizeable number out-of-school children are in the habitations where schooling facility is available but these children either did not join the school or dropped out before completing their schooling. These children may not fit into the rigid formal system. To bring such children back to school camp and bridge courses strategies have been implemented.

C) District Primary Education Programme (DPEP):

The District Primary Education (DPEP) is a centrally – sponsored scheme for holistic development of primary education covering classes I-V. the three major objectives of DPEP are to (i) reduce drop out rates to less than 10 percent (ii) reduce disparities among gender and social groups in the areas of enrolment, learning achievements, etc. to less than 5 percent and (iii) improve the level of learning achievement compared to the baseline surveys.

The programme components include construction of classrooms and new schools, opening of Alternative Schooling Centers, appointment of new teachers, setting up early education centers, strengthening of State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERTs)/ District Institutes of Educational Training (DIETs), setting up of Block Resource Centers / Cluster Resource Center, teacher training, development of teaching-learning material, special interventions for education of girls of SC/ST, working children, etc. Initiatives for providing integrated education to disabled children and distance education for teacher training have also been incorporated in the DPEP scheme.

DPEP is based on the principle of 'additionally' and is structured to fill in the existing gaps by providing inputs over and above the provisions made under central and State Sector Schemes for primary education.

DPEP is an externally aided project. 85 percent of the project cost is met by the Central Government and the remaining 15 percent is shared by the concerned state Government. The Central Government share is resourced through external assistance. At present, DPEP is in operation in 9 states covering 129 districts. DPEP at its peak, was operational 273 districts in 18 states. However, with the progressive closure of different phases of the programme, it now exists 129 districts only.

D) Operation Blackboard:

The scheme of Operation Blackboard (OBB) was launched in 1987-88 with the aim of improving human and physical resource available in primary schools of the country. Provision of at least two reasonably large rooms, at least two teachers and essential teaching/ learning materials for every existing primary schools were the components of the scheme. However OBB could not cover the entire spectrum of schools. The SSA will qualitatively improve and expand the existing structure. No fresh teacher recruitment will take place under OBB once SSA programme became operational.

The scheme has subsumed in SSA from 2002-03, however, the Planning Commission had decided that as special case the central government would meet the committed expenditure of teachers salaries in North – East States only under the OBB scheme for one more plan period i.e., Tenth Plan period from SSA funds with the sharing ratio of 75:25 between Central and State Governments during Tenth Plan.

E) Mid-day Meals:

The National Proof Nutritional Support to Primary Education (NP-NSPE), popularly known as the Mid-Day Meal Scheme, was formally launched on 15 August 1995 with the objective of giving a boost to universalization of primary education through improving the nutritional status of students in primary classes of government, local body and government-aided schools. The programs were extended to children studying in EGS and other alternative learning centers in October 2002. Central Support is provided Food Corporation of India in terms of food grains (wheat and rice) @ 100 gm per child per school day where cooked / processed meals are served and @ 3 kg per student per month (subject to a minimum attendance of 80 percent) where food grains are being distributed. The service of cooked / processed meals as improved in the states after the orders of Supreme Court of India in 2001 regarding provision of cooked meals. Cooked / processed meals are currently being served, either partially or across the state in 29 States and UT's. While 14 States and 5 UT's are providing cooked meals to all eligible children, the programme is being partially implemented in Bihar (2,579 schools), Meghalaya (12 districts), Orissa (157 tribal blocks), Punjab (17 blocks (, West Bengal (1,900 schools)

and Delhi (1,924 schools). The programme covers a total of 10.56 crore children (in 2003-04), of which approximately 5.74 crore children are getting cooked meals, while the rest receive food grains.

15 percent of Central assistance under the Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojna (PMGY) of Planning Commission is being earmarked from the year 2004-05, more meeting cooking cost of mid-day meals in rural schools. This will further help state governments in providing cooked meals in rural primary schools.

F) Janshala (GOL-UN) Programme:

Janshala (gol-UN) Programme is a collaborative effort of the government of India and five UN agencies –UNDP, UNICEF, UNESCO, ILO and UNFPA–to provide programme support to the ongoing efforts towards achieving UEE. Janshala, a community based- primary education programme, aims to make primary education more accessible and effective, specially for girls and children in deprived communities, marginalized groups, SC/ST/ Minorities, working children and children with specific needs. A unique feature of Janshala is that it is a block based programme with emphasis on community participation and decentralization. The blocks have been selected on the basis of different indicators such as low female literacy, incidence of child labour, and concentration of SC and ST population

UNDP, UNICEF and UNFPA have committed a contribution of US \$ 20 million for the programme, while UNESCO and ILO have offered technical know-how. This is the first ever programme in the world where five UN agencies have collaborated and pooled resources to support an initiative in education.

The programme covers 139 blocks including 10 cities in 30 districts of nine states. Nearly 20,000 habitations/ schools have been covered under this activity so far. More than 3000 alternative schools opened under the programme in unserved habitations in rural areas and slums in urban areas provide access to nearly 120 thousand children. Approximately 3 million primary school children were expected to have benefited from the programme, and nearly 58,000 teachers have been provided with at least one or two rounds of training on different pedagogical aspects and also provided resources for preparation of improved teaching-learning materials. About 18,000 schools under the programme areas have been

provided resources for infrastructural improvements in the programme, which concluded in December 2004 and

The Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-07) has reorganized the immediate need to enhance the level of girls' participation in education if the country has to achieve universal elementary education in the stipulated timeframe. Two new programmes, one targeting formal schools, the other targeting girls in remote habitations, have been launched to include girls in elementary education.

G) National Programme for Education of Girls at the Elementary Level (NPEGEL):

The programme, launched in September 2003, provides additional components for education of girls at the elementary stage, especially from disadvantaged communities. The NPEGEL will be implemented under the SSA. The programme will provide some additional components under SSA, such as the development of a model upper-primary school in each cluster; offering material incentives such as stationery; introducing additional interventions like awards, remedial teaching, and bridge courses; encouraging mobilization and community monitoring; developing appropriate teaching-learning material; strengthening planning, training and management support. Special attention is paid to adolescent girls through the proposed development of supplementary teaching material that will include material on women achievers, nutrition, sanitation, environment, gender and legal issues. Curricular enhancement in this context will include classes on self-defense and self-image building. NPEGEL will be implemented in 2,656 educationally backward blocks (EBBs) in 21 states, where the female literacy rate is less than the national average and the gender gap is above the national average. It will also be implemented in blocks of districts, which are not covered under EBB but have at least 5% Scheduled Caste/Tribe population and where Scheduled Caste/Tribe female literacy rate is below 10% and also in urban slums.

H) Kasturba Gandhi Swatantrata Vidyalaya (KGSV):

Girls residing in hard-to-reach, small and scattered habitations that lie at a distance from the nearest school will be reached by the Kasturba Gandhi Swatantrata Vidyalaya.

The scheme will ensure access and quality education to girls through the provision of up to 750 residential schools and boarding facilities in girls' upper-primary schools up to elementary level. Residential schools are proposed in areas with:

- concentration of tribal population, with low female literacy and where a large number of girls are out of school;
- concentration of SC, OBC and minority population, with low female literacy and a large number of girls are out of school;
- low female literacy; and
- a large number of small, scattered habitations that do not qualify for a school.

The above mentioned programs gives us birds eye view of the programs initiated at the national and state levels. These have shown tremendous results in ensuring the educational infrastructure and participation at the elementary level, with more importance attached to the minority groups and the rural areas. The different measures taken under these initiatives have yielded fruitful results, clearly evident in our positively expanding education system

4.4 Conclusion:

Even after realizing the importance of education as the main tool for development of a nation, the picture that we can draw from the above brief analysis of the financial allocations to the education sector is that, the resources are meager. The plan interventions call for a higher share of the GDP to be allotted to education. Inadequate amount of resources for supporting primary education, as well as lopsided financing structure both are responsible for dismal performance in this sector. The initiatives taken by the government to the Universalization of Elementary Education have been enormous. It is thus a collective effort of resource allocation and programe initiatives that help build the capacity of infrastructure in schools and enhance not only the quality of schooling, but also improve the learners achievements.

CHAPTER V

INFRASTRUCTURE AS A DETERMINING FACTOR IN PRIMARY SCHOOL PARTICIPATION AND RETENTION

5.1 Introduction:

School infrastructure, plays a distinct role in determining the participation of school children at any level of education. The previous chapters analyzed the extent of the available infrastructure, participation and sustenance at primary school level over a period of time. The relationship between these factors can be determined by the analysis of their interdependence on each other. This chapter focuses on infrastructure as a determining factor in the participation and retention of primary school children.

Universalization of Elementary Education has been the prime focus of all programmes and policies initiated and implemented for education with free and compulsory schooling for children between the age group 6 to 14 years. Even with innumerable measures taken by the governments in providing basic primary school facilities to all sections of society not all children have been able to enter the basic structure of formal schooling. Which is clearly evident from the rates of enrolment within the initial years of schooling. Even though the levels of participation have increased, the rate of children completing their primary schooling is still low.

5.2 Identification of variables:

Infrastructure is the availability of basic facilities, which have been categorized into physical and instructional. Physical infrastructure includes the availability of primary schools, accessible within the habitation with a basic structure, as shelter for children. It also includes the facilities offered to students at the institution like the library, playground, drinking water, toilets etc. Therefore it overall, constitutes the basic existence of a school.

It is the availability of these facilities that, to a certain extent determine the level of participation of school children and further influence the retention of these students to the next grade. The availability of **Schools within the Habitation (hbt)** plays an important role, as distance in certain cases may be considered as a factor for non-

participation or wastage specially for this younger age group. The structure of schools influences the environment of learning. If knowledge is imparted in a shed or under a tree with no proper shelter for the student it reduces the eagerness to learn. Therefore **Pucca School Buildings (pbl)**, too plays an equally important role in attracting children to school, especially in the initial years of schooling.

The instructional infrastructure constitutes the teachers and teaching aids at primary school level. These have a greater role in increasing the school participation and grade completion of students and also influence the achievement levels of students. In rural areas, parents usually feel insecure in sending a girl child to school with no **Female teachers (fet)**, therefore female teachers also play a significant role in school attendance of the rural girls in schools. The density of students in a class effects the learning achievements of a student, which to an extent may lead to stagnation or repetition in a grades, therefore the **Teacher Pupil Ratio (tpr)** may also influence the rate of participation specially at the initial years of schooling. Teaching aids such as blackboards, chalk, books etc. form one of the basic requirements of an education system especially in the formative years of schooling.

Therefore the physical facilities such as drinking water, toilets, libraries, playgrounds etc. and instructional facilities such as books, blackboards, chalk etc. along with incentives such as Mid-day Meals, uniforms and textbooks given to students are influencing factors in determining school participation. Therefore a composite index calculated for these available **Facilities (fcl)** has been used as variable to determine the rate of participation.

Enrolments into schools determine the level of achievements of an education system. Participation has been calculated with different measures of enrolment: The Gross Enrolment Ratio- is a very crude measure of enrolment as it includes a high proportion of over and under age children. The Net Enrolment Ratio- which is regarded as the most explicit measure could not be used due to data constraints, therefore the **Age Specific Enrolment Ratio (aser)**, is the most significant measure of enrolment to see the participation of a selected age group, which has been taken as the variable to measure participation of primary school children.

Enrolling into schools alone does not fulfill the requirements of education, equally and more important is the procedure of completing the cycle of schooling. Children dropping out before attaining their basic formal education is one of the most serious problem that has plagued our education system. Therefore wastage in education, which has become a bottleneck, can be calculated with Dropout, Repetition and Retention Rates. **Retention Ratio (ret)**, these are the number of children who continue schooling till the final stage of primary schooling, it gives us a fare picture of the proportion that has dropped out. Therefore retention ratio has been taken as a variable to check wastage in primary schooling

Within the frame work of participation and wastage lies Gender Disparity, which is one of the biggest contributing factors in the failures of initiated efforts to the development of education. Therefore **Gender Disparity in Enrolment (aedis)** and **Gender Disparity in Retention (rtdis)** of primary school students form an important indicator of determining enrolments and retentions at this level of schooling.

Correlation analysis has been conducted to determine the interdependency analysis for of the selected variables of physical and instructional infrastructure with that of enrolment and retention ratio. The analysis for the variables have been conducted in two sections, for the Fifth All India Education Survey, 1986 and the Sixth All India Education Survey, 1993. To show the variation in interdependency over a given period of time, correlation has been conducted for the Fifth AIES and Sixth AIES.

5.3.1 Fifth Survey's, result for the analysis indicate:

- **Schools within the Habitation (hbt):** The government has made enormous efforts to have a primary schools located in every nook and corner of our country today, and this gives the right to every child of our population even located in remote rural areas to avail the facility of these schools. But the relationship of primary schools being located within the habitation, with enrolment and retention at primary school is positive but not significant in this analysis.
- **Pucca School Buildings (pbld):** Enrolment to primary schools in this year was significantly related with the presence of school buildings. But the relationship of buildings with retention showed a higher significance, indicating that proper primary

school structures act as a major tool for children to continue their education, as it creates an environment in which learning is more conducive. And many studies have indicated the students have higher achievement levels with, the presence of separate classrooms for different grades, which is mainly available in pucca structure, therefore pucca building is an important physical infrastructure in school participation and retention as it shows a positive significant relationship.

- **Facilities (fcl):** School facilities available do not show a very significant relationship with the school participation levels, but do have a positive influence on both enrolment and retention.
- **Female teachers (fet):** Teachers to a great extent determine the rate of participation in education. The presence of female teachers showed a positive relationship with enrolments, but a highly significant relationship with retention. School dropouts are higher among girls and in the rural areas, where orthodox minded people have dominance. They feel female teachers should teach girls, which is clearly indicated in the results that a higher number of female teachers influence the continuation of schooling more than enrolment. Also evident is that it had a highly significant negative correlation with gender disparity in both enrolments and retentions. Therefore indicating that, to decrease the disparity an increase in the number of female teachers is necessary.
- **Teacher Pupil Ratio (tpr):** The numbers of teachers present in an institute influences the quality of education. Therefore a lower number of teachers indicates a higher Teacher Pupil Ratio, and also leads to multi grade teaching, further influencing the classroom environment that determine the participation and continuation of education. The analysis indicates that TPR's have a negative relationship with retention but it was not significant. Implying that congested classrooms force children to withdraw before time.
- **Disparity in Enrolment (aedis) & Gender Disparity in Retention (rtdis):** Looking into the relationship of gender inequalities with retention and enrolment in education, it does not show any significant correlation. Indicating that gender did not influence retention and participation in these primary schools. It would be wrong to infer that the issue was gender neutral. Discrimination against girls was not very existent at the

primary level and boys of similar age were also influenced by factors that led to their enrolment or an early withdrawal.

5.3.2 Sixth Survey's Results indicate:

- **Schools within the Habitation (hbt):** The analysis for the Sixth Survey indicates that there is a highly significant correlation between schools located within the habitation with enrolments and retentions. This was a period post NPE and POA, which emphasized on the improvement of physical facilities at primary school level and universal enrolment. This period saw a rise in the total number of schools in all the states. Therefore making it evident that if distance to a school is reduced it will show higher participation. One striking feature evident here is that distance of primary school showed a highly significant negative relationship with gender disparity, implying that as distance to schools increased the gender gap of enrolment and retention both increased. So distance effected girls more in primary school participation and also led to a higher amount of wastage.
- **Pucca School Buildings (pbld):** The nature of the building did not show a very significant relationship with participation in this year compared to the previous year. This is mainly because by early 1990's most of the schools had pucca buildings even in the rural areas, and a negligible proportion of the 6 to 11 year age group was out of schools.
- **Facilities (fcl):** School facilities show a significant relationship with retention, at the primary level. This is mainly an outcome of policy initiatives taken by the government to supply all schools with incentives and physical facilities such as mid-day meals, uniforms, textbooks, drinking water, toilets etc. within the school premises to encourage minimum amount of wastage.
- **Female teachers (fet):** The correlation of female teachers with enrolment and retention show a highly significant relationship, in this analysis also. But the degree has a higher value as compared to the previous year indicating the growing importance of female teachers in the system of formal education, specially in the rural areas.

5.4 Conclusion:

Therefore the above stated analysis reveals clearly to us that infrastructure, both physical and instructional play an important role in determining the rate of participation and school attendance at primary level. But one cannot take only these aspects as the main controlling factors in school participation. Various social, political and economic attributes affect the participation levels of students. As the age group that is evolved at the primary school, cannot decide for themselves of whether to attend school or not.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Education is regarded as the key to development, and Universalization of Elementary Education has been the focal point of our National Policies. Therefore importance has always been attached to primary education, as it forms the foundation of the any education system. In all its dimensions, primary education has traveled miles forward since India's independence, but even with the utmost efforts put forth by governments and non government agencies the required results have not been achieved. As most of the children of the school going age are still out of school.

School facilities are identified as a very decisive indicator of the numbers of students that involve themselves within the education set-up and its continuance to higher levels. The study looked into the regional imbalances in the deliverance and involvement of students at primary schools across the diverse regions of India. Overall the analyses signify an unrelenting inequality across regions, breaching the disparity along the lines of gender and caste hierarchies.

The **second chapter** dealt with the infrastructural facilities provided at the primary school stage. Where we could conclude that they are inadequate, as even after fifty-five years of independence not all regions of India are facilitated with a basic school within their habitation. The number of primary schools however has increased over the years, but they have not been able to magnetize all children in the lower age group. Pucca and partially pucca category of school buildings comprise a very low proportion in many states, dilapidated nature of the available structures, non-availability of enough classrooms to teach, etc., all have an cumulative effect in the school participation and termination before grade completion.

The analysis revealed that the proportion of primary schools to total schools were ironically higher in the educationally less developed states of Uttar Pradesh, Jharkhand, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Assam and Chattisgarh, in comparison to the developed states, this could mainly because the educationally developed states have an upper primary or secondary school section, in continuation with the primary school. One noticeable feature is that the total number of primary schools have shown a declining

proportion in most regions, in comparison to total schools which have increased indicating that primary schools had incorporated higher levels of education.

An important finding is that the facilities provided in schools such as playgrounds, library, urinals, drinking water etc. Along with incentives given to children are highly scarce. The states that furnish a higher quantity of these amenities have a more enhanced educational output, in the form of higher enrolments and fewer dropouts. The states, which provided better facilities to students, were the educationally developed states of Delhi, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Mizoram, Gujarat and Maharashtra. These states also invested a high proportion of their resources to improve facilities in order to have maximum number of students participating in the education system. The educationally less developed states along with some small hill states of the North East showed a low level of facilities provided. Which is a clear indication that education achievements have a close relationship with the level of facility provided which indirectly is related to the resource allocation for building up infrastructure.

Teachers act as the foremost driving power in withholding the number of children who participate in the school organization, and are also responsible for the achievement and performance levels of students. Our analysis indicates that there is a serious dearth of teachers in primary schools and the scarcity lies more with female teachers present in schools, leading to high teacher pupil ratios, consequence of which are cramped classrooms, overall effecting the learning environment for the child. Which may further lead to lack of interest at class and children may also withdraw before completion of the cycle. The central regions of India which included the BIMARU States along with West Bengal, Orissa, Assam and Arunachal showed a major dearth of teachers and specially female teachers. Whereas the states of Gujarat, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Himachal and Punjab had a higher number of teachers. Overall reflecting a higher teacher pupil ratio in states with low number of teachers, such as Bihar where the ratio was at 83 students per teacher in accordance to the Seventh Survey. Indicating that the rise in the number of teachers has not kept with the rise in enrolments due to enormous efforts made by the government and non-government agencies. Therefore the number of teachers represents a vital component in the school framework, especially in the primary schools and their

numbers should be raised to have not only quantitative boost but also enhanced quantitative outcomes.

Therefore overall we could conclude that the picture is even meager in the rural areas, and provisions of most of these facilities only satisfy the well-equipped urban schools. The need therefore is to initiate comprehensive measures for equipping every primary school with minimum facilities. In this regard one has to examine the role of private and government agencies. Private schools are an urban phenomenon and these schools generally provide the minimum requisite facilities. It is essentially the government schools functioning mainly in rural areas that fall far short of the minimum requirement. Therefore it becomes an elusive requirement of the government to ensure that every new school opened has the above stated minimum facilities and initiate necessary action to improve the facilities in schools which are already functioning.

In the **Third Chapter**, we looked into a broader parameter of the education structure, which incorporates the student participation. Availability of infrastructural facilities alone does not guarantee the participation of all students. There are many social and economic associations attached with school participation, which have a varying effect over regions. Therefore based on the cumulative effect of these factors our analysis revealed an unstable picture of school participation and retention in primary education across the different states of India.

The enrolments in schools have increased considerably over the years but they still fail to represent the required amount of having all children in schools. The analysis of this chapter overall reveals that, the ASER's though have increased over time it still fails to show the desired results. No state in India showed 100 % ASER of children in the age group 6- 11 years in school. But some educationally developed states of Kerala, Himachal, Manipur and Goa showed comparatively a higher ASER. In relation to Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand Rajasthan and West Bengal that showed low ASER's.

The GER's in a few states were over 100 %, which included the states that had a higher ASER, implying that most of the students were over age and under age in this section of schooling. But on whole it was the Northern region that showed a lower GER in comparison to the Southern Indian region. This is mainly because education has over

the years shown a higher nuance in the South Indian States. Which is clearly visible with a higher enrolment ratio in these sates.

The NER, which implicitly measures the efficiency of the education system, is also low, further indicating that there are huge numbers of dropouts, stagnation or repetition indicating high wastage. A low NER was visible in the rural areas and more explicitly in the educationally backward states, which included the states of Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, Rajasthan and Karnataka. Whereas the educationally developed states of Tripura, Tamil Nadu, Himachal and Kerala showed a higher NER's.

The retention rates are also low which imply that the students' dropout from the education system before completing their formal education, this could be mainly due to system being unattractive or rather there could be other social constraints associated. The educationally developed states, which had a higher enrolment ratio, also showed a higher retention ratio, implying that efforts to retain students in schools in these states were maintained simultaneously with that of enrolment.

Differentiations along gender and caste lines were evident to a large extent, specially in the rural areas and educationally backward states. Illuminating the fact that, even after 50 years of planned development women and the SC and ST population was still alienated in our society from the attainment of basic formal education. Thus posing as a major hindrance in the path of universal enrolment.

Therefore we could conclude that the main cause of concern for educational planners and policy makers are the non-participants and students who dropout. Hence forth steps need to be taken on priority basis to increase the number of enrolments and reduce the dropout rates at least till elementary level. The dropouts have to be zeroed and enrolment increased to 100 % to achieve the set goals of UEE.

The **Fourth Chapter** included the resource allocation and programe initiatives to the education sector. Finance available to the education sector has been remarkable, but it is much less than what it should be i.e. 6 % of the GDP, as recommended by the Education Commission. The available finances are inadequate in meeting and improving the minimum education needs. The government is bearing the major burden in financing the education services and private sector role has declined drastically. Allocation of

resources illustrate that the share of education, has gone down in both planned and non-planned funds in most of the states.

Allocation of resources did not have a consistent picture across regions, the variation was mainly controlled by the income of a particular state. It was the educationally and economically developed states Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Punjab, Maharashtra, and Haryana that invested a lower share of their resources, which could be mainly due to an already existing strong educational infrastructure in these states. While the allocation of the budget share to elementary sector was diverted more in the backward states of Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, Chattisgarh, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. It was these states that showed an inadequate condition of education development, which called for a higher resource allocation. It is also true that none of the states in India have been able to achieve the goal of UEE, so it cannot be denied that financial commitments should be made on their part to implement constitutional obligation of sending every child to school.

Therefore we could conclude that a serious resource crunch is felt in a developing country like ours, and the cost of getting every child in India into schools in the coming years are large and vary across states, depending upon the current achievement levels. Resource alone cannot transform conditions without appropriate socio-political changes and commitments from government teachers and parents of the students. At the same time to make the universal primary schooling more meaningful, the magnitude of the financial commitments need to be increased.

In the **Fifth Chapter** we tried to establish an affiliation between the availability of infrastructural facilities and school participation. The analysis revealed that most of the facilities show a considerable positive relationship with school participation with a few variables such as pucca school building, a school within the habitation and female teachers showing more significant relationships with enrolments and retentions at the primary school level. Therefore the gaps in school participation can be filled in most states with an improvement in the supply side factors, to achieve a better quantitative and qualitative output.

The gaps between the educational attainments of rural and urban population and the males and females continue to be strikingly high even though the differential rates

and patterns of educational development have been leading towards the regional and gender convergence in education. Education has now come to be viewed more as an investment than a consumer good. The process of industrialization, modernization, urbanization and a greater degree of equalization of educational opportunities have loosened the grip of gender bias, on one hand and the supply side constraints on access to education and employment operating in rural areas, on the other. Therefore the above stated analysis highlight the urgency of the need for the universalization of elementary education for furnishing a sound and broad base for the development of higher education and in order to strengthen the process of modernization and development of our nation.

Policy Implications

Based on the above affirmed discussion the subsequent strategies need to be taken to overall improve the educational infrastructure and increase the participation rate at primary schools.

- All primary schools should be equipped with compulsory basic minimum facilities, such as playgrounds, drinking water and urinals. A pucca school structure should be the mandatory in all regions, with guaranteed timely maintenance and resource allocation for maintenance of these primary school structures.
- While opening new schools in interior rural and tribal areas it should be kept in view that location of the school may be such that maximum children can avail the facility without inconvenience. Further the school timing should be adjusted according to the convenience of children and thus no hard and fast timing for school should be imposed.
- Scholarships should be given to students specially in rural areas and children belonging to Below Poverty Line families, to encourage participation and continuation to higher levels of education. They should also be rewarded for meritorious performance at any level of schooling.
- Another component of strategy is to reduce absenteeism among teachers. In the bigger schools, as can be found in urban localities, it is possible to make alternative arrangements when a particular teacher is absent. However in

small schools with only one or two teachers, it becomes a serious problem in single teacher schools functioning in remote rural areas. Therefore more strict measures should be taken against absenteeism and also that all no school should have a single teacher.

- It is found that one of the biggest handicaps for most of the government schools affecting the work climate as well as efficiency of functioning is the absence of an effective mechanism of internal monitoring. Most government schools remain institutions without any effective academic leadership, with no arrangement for internal monitoring and consequently without any accountability. This is one of the aspects demanding serious attention for effecting any improvement in school quality.
- Possession of textbooks has undoubtedly emerged as a pre-requisite for effective classroom teaching-learning. Therefore strategists to mobilize resources for ensuring that every child in school gets the prescribed textbooks without any charge, whether the child is in a government or private school should be looked into. It is only with such an approach that one can visualize the provision of comparable education for all.
- Incentives such as uniforms and mid-day meals scheme should be increased as they have proved to be successful in the states where implemented. But due care is needed to retain children in class for the total school time rather than attracting them to come to school only at the time when meals are served or period when uniforms are distributed. Strict vigilance by teachers may ensure real success in reducing the dropouts through such schemes.
- As recommended by various commissions and endorsed in policies on education, the medium of instruction at primary level should be made in mother tongue and the courses and lessons more interesting according to the local conditions. As in rural and tribal areas children do not go to school after a week or so of their admission mainly because of their inability to understand the language spoken by the teachers in the class.

- The resource allocations to the education sector and elementary education in particular, should be increased, as development of education is curtailed without adequate financial inputs.

The above stated proposals, if commenced at an appropriate time in all regions, will, in many ways facilitate the situation of infrastructure and school participation in India, and also assist us in accomplishing the long anticipated target of Universal Elementary Education for all.

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Appendix I
Total Number of Primary Schools in India.

	1978			1986			1993			2002		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Andhra Pradesh	36713	2983	39696	40801	3345	44146	44412	4729	49141	53916	7251	61167
Arunachal Pradesh	723	12	735	932	20	952	1109	37	1146	1263	74	1337
Assam	20698	905	21603	24309	1564	25873	27584	1306	28890	28630	1415	30045
Bihar	48922	2012	50934	48715	2262	50977	34697	1990	36687	38428	2083	40511
Chhattisgarh							19843	1155	20998	22477	1474	23951
Goa	848	103	951	906	87	993	821	207	1028	745	292	1037
Gujarat	9771	1187	10958	11422	1287	12709	12081	1501	13582	5862	1383	7245
Haryana	4961	423	5384	4413	436	4849	4680	526	5206	8510	1109	9619
Himachal Pradesh	4332	84	4416	6717	187	6904	7470	251	7721	10614	254	10868
Jammu & Kashmir	6222	487	6709	7182	554	7736	8091	652	8743	9745	743	10488
Jharkhand							15193	943	16136	16164	895	17059
Karnataka	20705	1823	22528	21032	1191	22223	20198	1758	21956	23450	2804	26254
Kerala	5410	623	6033	5479	617	6096	4727	1192	5919	5251	1446	6697
Madhya Pradesh	49822	3750	53572	57745	6344	64089	44153	7074	51227	47383	6850	54233
Maharashtra	29643	4151	33794	33136	4931	38067	34732	5217	39949	34560	6290	40850
Manipur	3244	193	3437	2397	360	2757	2590	441	3031	2175	377	2552
Meghalaya	3504	71	3575	3575	117	3692	3919	180	4099	5439	368	5807
Mizoram	457	59	516	823	182	1005	663	280	943	938	314	1252
Nagaland	946	23	969	1071	30	1131	1181	44	1225	1288	64	1352
Orissa	30655	1448	32103	32411	1767	34178	34221	2085	36306	34541	2136	36677
Punjab	12352	1058	13410	11799	1039	12838	11605	1134	12739	12042	1298	13340
Rajasthan	18568	2254	20822	25064	3039	28103	29168	4181	33349	29438	3515	32953
Sikkim	291	8	299	466	2	468	524	0	524	497	-	497
Tamil Nadu	22621	4967	27588	25844	3424	29268	26620	3465	30085	26341	7053	33394
Tripura	1513	60	1573	1869	58	29268	1942	87	2029	1996	58	2054
Uttar Pradesh	61590	6532	68122	66346	40724	29268	64989	11568	76557	96331	17215	113546
Uttaranchal							9094	888	9982	12466	1436	13902
West Bengal	36222	6437	42659	40724	7732	48456	40435	8122	48557	41845	8006	49851
A & N Islands	156	4	160	172	5	177	181	7	188	197	10	207
Chandigarh	11	28	39	9	35	44	14	28	42	8	18	26
D & N Haveli	134		134	121	3	124	123	2	125	123	3	126
Daman & Diu				24	8	32	25	5	30	33	17	50
Delhi	342	1278	1620	331	1507	1838	304	1664	1968	222	1889	2111
Lakshadweep	17		17	13	5	18	7	5	12	3	1	4
Pondicherry	209	71	280	218	121	339	185	150	335	170	149	319
India	431602	43034	477636	476066	83.13	559079	507581	62874	570455	573091	78290	651381

Appendix II

Number of Children Enrolled in Class I-V (1978)

States & U.T's	RURAL			URBAN			TOTAL		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Andhra Pradesh	2290954	1501154	3792108	610371	523005	1133376	2901325	2024159	4925484
Arunachal Pradesh	31535	14573	46108	2021	1280	3301	33556	15853	49409
Assam	985414	704805	1690219	103460	87977	191437	1088874	792782	1881656
Bihar	4055366	1541037	5596403	426926	284679	711605	4482292	1825716	6308008
Goa	59757	48292	108049	19916	17878	37794	79673	66170	145843
Gujarat	1700361	1043576	2743937	523342	502020	2375360	1177019	1545596	368577
Haryana	672611	289541	962152	114954	95918	210872	787565	385459	1173024
Himachal Pradesh	269274	187164	456438	21055	17244	38299	290329	204408	494737
Jammu & Kashmir	246484	112709	359193	59070	55341	114411	305554	168050	473604
Karnataka	1662821	1199280	2862101	666452	569864	1236316	2329273	1769144	4098417
Kerala	1391871	1296556	2688427	236186	223916	460102	1628057	1520472	3148529
Madhya Pradesh	2390798	929302	3320100	641576	488270	1129846	3032374	1417572	4449946
Maharashtra	3021453	2082856	5104309	1500853	1268113	2768966	4522306	3350969	7873275
Manipur	94736	73064	167800	16876	15602	32478	111612	88666	200278
Meghalaya	84317	81910	166227	9778	9691	19469	94095	91601	185696
Mizoram	29826	27303	57129	5419	5385	10804	35245	32688	67933
Nagaland	55605	44355	99960	5224	4109	9333	60829	48464	109293
Orrisa	1449469	873839	2323308	161927	126763	288690	1611396	1000602	2611998
Punjab	927397	738375	1665772	206973	177871	384844	1134370	916246	2050616
Rajasthan	1528031	359283	1887314	420806	267261	688067	1948837	626544	2575381
Sikkim	18939	11257	30196	4140	3246	7386	23079	14503	37582
Tamilnadu	2015105	1567449	3582554	1362305	1176136	2538441	3377410	2743585	6120995
Tripura	109027	74774	183801	42720	12528	162806	66307	87302	20995
Uttar Pradesh	5389345	2121728	7511073	864317	613423	1477740	6253662	2735151	8988813
West Bengal	2577855	1798664	4376519	771936	629136	1401072	3349791	2427800	5777591
A & N Nicobar	9505	7797	17302	3618	3020	6638	13123	10817	23940
Chandigarh	2374	1915	4289	31524	13596	45120	33898	15511	49409
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	8274	5037	13311	21098		21098	29372	5037	34409
Daman & Diu									
Delhi	46998	33201	80199	291885	251030	542915	338883	284231	623114
Lakshadweep	3829	3076	6905				3829	3076	6905
Pondicherry	21612	16885	38497	19356	16171	35527	40968	33056	74024
India	33150943	18790757	51941700	9200051	7460473	16660524	42350994	26251230	68602224

Number of Children Enroled in the Age Group 6 - 11 Years. (1978).

States & U.T's	RURAL			URBAN			TOTAL		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Andhra Pradesh	1790494	1147117	2937611	503269	421701	924970	2293763	1568818	3862581
Arunachal Pradesh	20604	9533	30137	1804	1089	2893	22408	10622	33030
Assam	873858	629838	1503696	90796	77909	168705	964654	707747	1672401
Bihar	2792161	1332571	4124732	301070	202750	503820	3093231	1535321	4628552
Goa	39319	32488	71807	13385	12294	25679	52704	44782	97486
Gujarat	1180969	751653	1932622	472353	394944	867297	1653322	1146597	2799919
Haryana	571867	251513	823380	94880	78441	173321	666747	329954	996701
Himachal Pradesh	206702	147606	354308	16826	13868	30694	223528	161474	385002
Jammu & Kashmir	217771	100063	317834	50607	46434	97041	268378	146497	414875
Karnataka	1367249	1013047	2380296	529200	459433	988633	1896449	1472480	3368929
Kerala	1173872	1104208	2278080	202046	195921	397967	1375918	1300129	2676047
Madhaya Pradesh	1809315	740305	2549620	515021	391844	906865	2324336	1132149	3456485
Maharashtra	2213036	1571296	3784332	1145105	982069	2127174	3358141	2553365	5911506
Manipur	60455	45780	106235	12195	11395	23590	72650	57175	129825
Meghalya	41127	10244	51371	7638	37589	45227	48765	47833	96598
Mizoram	18233	16885	35118	4169	3965	8134	22402	20850	43252
Nagaland	26688	21152	47840	3121	2494	5615	29809	23646	53455
Orrisa	993378	605020	1598398	124688	96411	221099	1118066	701431	1819497
Punjab	789597	642948	1432545	172123	152512	324635	961720	795460	1757180
Rajasthan	1182681	285740	1468421	318960	202023	520983	1501641	487763	1989404
Sikkim	9678	6399	16077	2722	2095	4817	12400	8494	20894
Tamilnadu	1576428	1218171	2794599	1128276	956542	2084818	2704704	2174713	4879417
Tripura	98593	68451	167044	13447	12571	26018	112040	81022	193062
Uttar Pradesh	4245194	1591397	5836591	773430	508147	1281577	5018624	2099544	7118168
West Bengal	2152434	1512174	3664608	648737	532092	1180829	2801171	2044266	4845437
A & N Nicobar	6778	5738	12516	2719	2334	5053	9497	8072	17569
Chandigarh	1862	1529	3391	13322	10716	24038	15184	12245	27429
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	5114	3271	8385	0	0	0	5114	3271	8385
Daman & Diu									
Delhi	37632	26011	63643	251411	206105	457516	289043	232116	521159
Lakshadweep	2519	2174	4693	0	0	0	2519	2174	4693
Pondicherry	16777	13235	30012	14184	12905	27089	30961	26140	57101
India	25522385	14907557	40429942	7427504	6028593	13456097	32949889	20936150	53886039

Appendix IV
Number of Children Enrolled in Class I-V (1986)

States & U.T's.	RURAL			URBAN			TOTAL		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Andhra Pradesh	2809775	2032400	4842175	725622	652058	1377680	3535397	2684458	6219855
Arunachal Pradesh	48293	32182	80475	4232	3322	7554	52525	35504	88029
Assam	1342584	1024319	2366903	141387	119344	260731	1483971	1143663	2627634
Bihar	4680979	2199174	6880153	524401	382889	907290	5205380	2582063	7787443
Goa	60471	54518	114989	18514	16777	35291	78985	71295	150280
Gujarat	1982080	1441763	3423843	827353	693650	1521003	2809433	2135413	4944846
Haryana	781156	521509	1302665	139579	125883	265462	920735	647392	1568127
Himachal Pradesh	321981	270762	592743	27004	23747	50751	348985	294509	643494
Jammu & Kashmir	322762	195039	517801	64115	60179	124294	386877	255218	642095
Karnataka	1919974	1505239	3425213	870384	768879	1639263	2790358	2274118	5064476
Kerala	1362519	1292156	2654675	193095	189905	383000	1555614	1482061	3037675
Madhya Pradesh	3295954	1898073	5194027	977362	760349	1737711	4273316	2658422	6931738
Maharashtra	3362094	2659618	6021712	1834317	1600878	3435195	5196411	4260496	9456907
Manipur	71696	61718	133414	25189	21231	46420	96885	82949	179834
Meghalaya	109844	108407	218251	16557	16694	33251	126401	125101	251502
Mizoram	40268	35655	75923	14206	13915	28121	54474	49570	104044
Nagaland	56331	51203	107534	10422	8856	19278	66753	60059	126812
Orrisa	1705891	1215804	2921695	217740	182746	400486	1923631	1398550	3322181
Punjab	852192	700767	1552959	186185	168849	355034	1038377	869616	1907993
Rajasthan	2377082	783572	3160654	655606	400788	1066394	3042688	1184360	4227048
Sikkim	32096	25934	58030	2027	1898	3925	34123	27832	61955
Tamilnadu	2909452	2402236	5311688	1048997	965033	2014030	3958449	3367269	7325718
Tripura	186646	148251	334897	15598	14274	29872	202244	162525	364769
Uttar Pradesh	6048637	2943839	8992476	1205436	827784	2033220	7254073	3771623	11025696
West Bengal	3030805	2278101	5308906	834545	690460	1525005	3865350	2968561	6833911
A & N Nicobar	13825	12078	25903	4919	4288	9207	18744	16366	35110
Chandigarh	3215	2662	5877	24911	21223	46134	28126	23885	52011
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	7398	4996	12394	958	742	1700	8356	5738	14094
Daman & Diu	4835	4321	9156	2673	2384	5057	7508	6705	14213
Delhi	58541	46524	105065	380531	320990	701521	439072	367514	806586
Lakshadweep	2416	2171	4587	1930	1681	3611	4346	3852	8198
Pondicherry	22869	21147	44016	23515	21673	45188	46384	42820	89204
India	39824661	25976138	65800799	11029310	9083369	20112679	50853971	35059507	85913478

Appendix V
Number of Children Enrolled in the Age Group 6 - 11 Years. (1986)

States & U.T's	RURAL			URBAN			TOTAL		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Andhra Pradesh	2250070	1591461	3841531	634632	564989	1199621	2884702	2156450	5041152
Arunachal Pradesh	31407	21732	53139	3229	2596	5825	34636	24328	58964
Assam	1209674	932951	2142625	115044	98970	214014	1324718	1031921	2356639
Bihar	4166597	2117139	6283736	495698	373338	869036	4662295	2490477	7152772
Goa	37224	33692	70916	12368	10867	23235	49592	44559	94151
Gujarat	1365145	1035252	2400397	599573	504219	1103792	1964718	1539471	3504189
Haryana	678913	455872	1134785	120449	106269	226718	799362	562141	1361503
Himachal Pradesh	252226	213861	466087	21560	19086	40646	273786	232947	506733
Jammu & Kashmir	307716	185895	493611	58988	54537	113525	366704	240432	607136
Karnataka	1528609	1222555	2751164	683510	617644	1301154	2212119	1840199	4052318
Kerala	1103249	1053084	2156333	167886	167150	335036	1271135	1220234	2491369
Madhya Pradesh	2822437	1662684	4485121	807431	639783	1447214	3629868	2302467	5932335
Maharashtra	2392220	1955484	4347704	1285692	1189505	2475197	3677912	3144989	6822901
Manipur	59866	52934	112800	22002	18938	40940	81868	71872	153740
Meghalya	52718	51762	104480	12156	11901	24057	64874	63663	128537
Mizoram	23133	21691	44824	8902	8804	17706	32035	30495	62530
Nagaland	27220	27180	54400	5987	5241	11228	33207	32421	65628
Orrisa	1298690	912631	2211321	181186	150463	331649	1479876	1063094	2542970
Punjab	770486	648245	1418731	158511	144544	303055	928997	792789	1721786
Rajasthan	1989140	644813	2633953	497842	321957	819799	2486982	966770	3453752
Sikkim	15969	12973	28942	1281	1187	2468	17250	14160	31410
Tamilnadu	2141430	1748872	3890302	974681	891598	1866279	3116111	2640470	5756581
Tripura	170792	136656	307448	14877	13575	28452	185669	150231	335900
Uttar Pradesh	5203938	2475721	7679659	1111638	936357	2047995	6315576	3412078	9727654
West Bengal	2805914	2116029	4921943	760061	632819	1392880	3565975	2748848	6314823
A & N Nicobar	10693	9503	20196	4424	3888	8312	15117	13391	28508
Chandigarh	2542	2111	4653	20303	17540	37843	22845	19651	42496
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	4909	3443	8352	752	599	1351	5661	4042	9703
Daman & Diu	2479	2316	4795	1595	1498	3093	4074	3814	7888
Delhi	47662	37470	85132	313732	268289	582021	361394	305759	667153
Lakshadweep	1546	1449	2995	1261	1218	2479	2807	2667	5474
Pondicherry	17334	15781	33115	18821	17341	36162	36155	33122	69277
India	32791948	21403242	54195190	9116072	7796710	16912782	41908020	29199952	71107972

Appendix VI
Number of Children Enrolled in Class I-V (1993)

States & U.T's	RURAL			URBAN			TOTAL		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Andhra Pradesh	2931521	2354032	5285553	915536	875917	1791453	3847057	3229949	7077006
Arunachal Pradesh	62321	47203	109524	8690	6990	15680	71011	54193	125204
Assam	1451422	1200817	2652239	158668	141475	300143	1610090	1342292	2952382
Bihar	4983129	2607905	7591034	530217	447303	977520	5513346	3055208	8568554
Goa	37122	34184	71306	32182	29385	61567	69304	63569	132873
Gujarat	2042848	1584909	3627757	1047960	904089	1952049	3090808	2488998	5579806
Haryana	821470	671627	1493097	174050	159155	333205	995520	830782	1826302
Himachal Pradesh	335104	307276	642380	32742	28631	61373	367846	335907	703753
Jammu & Kashmir	350742	249448	600190	61949	56843	118792	412691	306291	718982
Karnataka	2249885	1928215	4178100	997662	915071	1912733	3247547	2843286	6090833
Kerala	1149134	1081165	2230299	349586	340117	689703	1498720	1421282	2920002
Madhya Pradesh	3562265	2527583	6089848	1173233	982968	2156201	4735498	3510551	8246049
Maharashtra	3541965	3076182	6618147	2194651	1962657	4157308	5736616	5038839	10775455
Manipur	104096	90326	194422	37889	35155	73044	141985	125481	267466
Meghalya	116738	116613	233351	23736	24657	48393	140474	141270	281744
Mizoram	34814	30294	65108	25059	23580	48639	59873	53874	113747
Nagaland	52278	48262	100540	18606	16896	35502	70884	65158	136042
Orrisa	2001419	1557303	3558722	261075	226887	487962	2262494	1784190	4046684
Punjab	911343	751240	1662583	237789	213055	450844	1149132	964295	2113427
Rajasthan	2590687	1144146	3734833	761218	563349	1324567	3351905	1707495	5059400
Sikkim	33668	29245	62913	581	913	1494	34249	30158	64407
Tamilnadu	2368430	2170532	4538962	896676	878655	1775331	3265106	3049187	6314293
Tripura	194712	162755	357467	29891	26688	56579	224603	189443	414046
Uttar Pradesh	6631522	3713060	10344582	1535836	1168917	2704753	8167358	4881977	13049335
West Bengal	3379258	2813598	6192856	959283	862682	1821965	4338541	3676280	8014821
A & N Nicobar	17284	15760	33044	5973	5294	11267	23257	21054	44311
Chandigarh	5923	5084	11007	28572	25381	53953	34495	30465	64960
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	9562	6282	15844	1611	1215	2826	11173	7497	18670
Daman & Diu	3872	3383	7255	3049	2718	5767	6921	6101	13022
Delhi	65594	61110	126704	544193	510733	1054926	609787	571843	1181630
Lakshadweep	1970	1750	3720	2683	2255	4938	4653	4005	8658
Pondicherry	20555	19013	39568	34523	31253	65776	55078	50266	105344
India	42062680	30410302	72472982	13085369	11470884	24556253	55148049	41881186	97029235

Appendix VII
Number of Children Enrolled in the Age Group 6 - 11 Years. (1993)

States & U.T's	RURAL			URBAN			TOTAL		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Andhra Pradesh	2446467	1895910	4342377	842177	798945	1641122	3288644	2694855	5983499
Arunachal Pradesh	44062	33240	77302	7150	5649	12799	51212	38889	90101
Assam	1316850	1093517	2410367	148515	133219	281734	1465365	1226736	2692101
Bihar	4980634	2606843	7587477	530256	447304	977560	5510890	3054147	8565037
Goa	27439	25951	53390	25352	24226	49578	52791	50177	102968
Gujarat	1499812	1181994	2681806	758862	660401	1419263	2258674	1842395	4101069
Haryana	737991	603007	1340998	151997	138255	290252	889988	741262	1631250
Himachal Pradesh	259932	239789	499721	26521	23638	50159	286453	263427	549880
Jammu & Kashmir	293004	205962	498966	50202	45927	96129	343206	251889	595095
Karnataka	1803868	1555879	3359747	778895	716451	1495346	2582763	2272330	4855093
Kerala	979229	923587	1902816	304309	295723	600032	1283538	1219310	2502848
Madhya Pradesh	3444552	2385548	5830100	975098	831640	1806738	4419650	3217188	7636838
Maharashtra	3109556	2376410	5485966	1725129	1543727	3268856	4834685	3920137	8754822
Manipur	82602	74921	157523	31533	29381	60914	114135	104302	218437
Meghalaya	60991	61671	122662	15737	16810	32547	76728	78481	155209
Mizoram	22002	19565	41567	16766	16331	33097	38768	35896	74664
Nagaland	32593	30139	62732	12331	11487	23818	44924	41626	86550
Orrisa	1606832	1222862	2829694	224865	193186	418051	1831697	1416048	3247745
Punjab	79499	674281	753780	202082	188340	390422	281581	862621	1144202
Rajasthan	2002457	872654	2875111	543580	404382	947962	2546037	1277036	3823073
Sikkim	18383	15803	34186	452	653	1105	18835	16456	35291
Tamilnadu	1842061	1683467	3525528	706263	691722	1397985	2548324	2375189	4923513
Tripura	171814	147603	319417	28229	25224	53453	200043	172827	372870
Uttar Pradesh	5167358	2814459	7981817	1157916	881412	2039328	6325274	3695871	10021145
West Bengal	2280809	1870057	4150866	686735	615852	1302587	2967544	2485909	5453453
A & N Nicobar	12665	12059	24724	4731	4267	8998	17396	16326	33722
Chandigarh	4553	3975	8528	23322	20512	43834	27875	24487	52362
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	7023	4857	11880	1272	1042	2314	8295	5899	14194
Daman & Diu	2889	2708	5597	2585	2493	5078	5474	5201	10675
Delhi	49768	46209	95977	414294	386139	800433	464062	432348	896410
Lakshadweep	1431	1315	2746	1908	1677	3585	3339	2992	6331
Pondicherry	16398	15115	31513	27898	24863	52761	44296	39978	84274
India	34405524	24701357	59106881	10426962	9180878	19607840	44832486	33882235	78714721

Appendix VIII

Number of Children Enrolled in Class I-V (2002)

State / U.T.	RURAL			URBAN			TOTAL		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Andhra Pradesh	3264699	3184521	6449220	1099479	1066909	2166388	4364178	4251430	8615608
Arunachal Pradesh	73298	60081	133379	20231	18182	38413	93529	78263	171792
Assam	1457264	1354210	2811474	163507	154005	317512	1620771	1508215	3128986
Bihar	5083334	3686672	8770006	330595	313045	643640	5413929	3999717	9413646
Chhattisgarh	1177131	1092276	2269407	251037	231129	482166	1428168	1323405	2751573
Goa	23286	21348	44634	35130	32162	67292	58416	53510	111926
Gujarat	2290590	1959914	4250504	1142983	941911	2084894	3433573	2901825	6335398
Haryana	879491	748442	1627933	275347	220904	496251	1154838	969346	2124184
Himachal Pradesh	338387	313928	652315	38167	30360	68527	376554	344288	720842
Jammu & Kashmir	484134	398012	882146	113336	95457	208793	597470	493469	1090939
Jharkhand	1403293	1083591	2486884	223943	208963	432906	1627236	1292554	2919790
Karnataka	2214726	2077321	4292047	1029750	964658	1994408	3244476	3041979	6286455
Kerala	943602	896046	1839648	332324	324128	656452	1275926	1220174	2496100
Madhya Pradesh	3016422	2615609	5632031	1124114	954213	2078327	4140536	3569822	7710358
Maharashtra	3323493	3037323	6360816	2389349	2149868	4539217	5712842	5187191	10900033
Manipur	143556	133411	276967	41003	38829	79832	184559	172240	356799
Meghalaya	159441	161507	320948	34479	36303	70782	193920	197810	391730
Mizoram	40912	36654	77566	28983	27601	56584	69895	64255	134150
Nagaland	66524	61226	127750	21641	18581	40222	88165	79807	167972
Orissa	2109339	1887693	3997032	268604	244057	512661	2377943	2131750	4509693
Punjab	737604	666376	1403980	262451	223582	486033	1000055	889958	1890013
Rajasthan	3408292	2794146	6202438	902060	742003	1644063	4310352	3536149	7846501
Sikkim	37438	37659	75097	1899	2062	3961	39337	39721	79058
Tamil Nadu	1893035	1758111	3651146	1459884	1357227	2817111	3352919	3115338	6468257
Tripura	205560	186904	392464	29385	27616	57001	234945	214520	449465
Uttar Pradesh	9943281	8602965	18546246	2284063	1881998	4166061	12227344	10484963	22712307
Uttaranchal	454178	440406	894584	142020	119113	261133	596198	559519	1155717
West Bengal	4042166	3900155	7942321	934850	897372	1832222	4977016	4797527	9774543
A & N Islands	13622	12615	26237	6981	6407	13388	20603	19022	39625
Chandigarh	5140	4781	9921	30688	24874	55562	35828	29655	65483
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	13520	11458	24978	4129	3369	7498	17649	14827	32476
Delhi	46535	42418	88953	705936	630619	1336555	752471	673037	1425508
Lakshadweep	2296	1892	4188	1737	1428	3165	4033	3320	7353
Pondicherry	17681	16057	33738	32434	31005	63439	50115	47062	97177
India	49317841	43289959	92607800	15766538	14023377	29789915	65084379	57313336	122397715

Appendix IX
Correlation Analysis Between Infrastructure and School Participation. (1986)

	fet	tpr	pblid	hab	rtdis	agdis	fcl	ret	ager
fet	1								
tpr	-0.08	1							
pblid	0.513**	0.43*	1						
hab	0.252	0.101	0.205	1					
rtdis	-0.144	0.565**	0.439*	-0.005	1				
agdis	-0.591**	0.444	0.023	-0.229	0.507	1			
Fcl	0.462**	0.165	0.409	0.363*	0.078	-0.406	1		
ret	0.675**	-0.039	0.581**	0.028	0.142	-0.394	0.26	1	
ager	0.224	0.228	0.446*	0.031	0.363	-0.227	0.163	0.63**	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix X
Correlation Analysis Between Infrastructure and School Participation.(1993)

	fet	tpr	pbl	hbt	rtdis	aedis	fcl	ret	aser
fet	1								
tpr	-0.086	1							
pbl	0.329	0.562**	1						
hbt	0.805**	-0.081	0.261	1					
rtdis	-0.472**	0.042	-0.053	-0.666**	1				
aedis	-0.638**	0.359	0.235	-0.589**	-0.321	1	o		
fcl	0.553**	-0.121	0.189	0.511**	0.193	-0.483**	1		
ret	0.804**	-0.094	0.351	0.927**	0.503**	-0.553**	0.413*	1	
aser	0.272	-0.119	0.042	0.470**	0.206	-0.358**	0.31	0.470**	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

