"Education is the basic tool for the development of consciousness and reconstitution of society."

— Mahatma Gandhi

Contents

	Education in the Indian Constitution	5
	India: A Demographic Profile	7
CHAPTER I	**Education in India: An Overview**	9
CHAPTER II	**EFA in the Indian Context**	18
CHAPTER III	**EFA and Policy Priorities**	33
CHAPTER IV	**Early Childhood Education:** ***Goals and Strategies***	41
CHAPTER V	**Elementary Education:** ***Goals and Strategies***	44
CHAPTER VI	**Adult Literacy:** ***Goals and Strategies***	63
CHAPTER VII	**EFA and the Media**	72
CHAPTER VIII	**Resources and Expenditure**	76
CHAPTER 1X	**International Cooperation**	91
CHAPTER X	**The Challenges Ahead**	98
	Acronyms and Abbreviations	103
	Glossary	125

'Boxed' Subjects

- Administrative Structure of the States 14
- Centre-States Relationship 15
- A Profile of Socio-Economic Constraints 17
- NPE and State Policies 38
- Impetus to Strategies for Achieving MLL 38
- Operation Blackboard 39
- EFA: New Dimensions, Strategies and Programmes 40
- Learning by All Children : Multisite Action Research Project 59
- Gyana Jyoti: A Teachers' Movement for UPE in Orissa 60
- National Curricular Framework 61
- Decentralisation and Community Involvement 62
- Population Education 69
- A Mahila Samooh 94
- A Unique Distinction 97

List of Tables and Charts in Annexure

TABLE 1	Population Parameters of India 1901-1991	105
TABLE 2	Area Distribution of Population, Sex Ratio, Density and Growth Rate of Population	105
CHART A	Growth Rate of Population, 1971 -1981 and 1981 -1991	106
CHART B	Distribution of Population by Sex, 1991	107
TABLE 3	Key Demographic Indicators for Major Indian States	108
CHART C	Map of Decennial Population Growth Rate, India, 1981-1991	109
TABLE 4	Total Fertility Rate by Educational Level of Women, India, 1981	110
TABLE 5	Number of Deaths by Age 2 per 1000 Live Births	110
TABLE 6	Distribution of Literates and Illiterates among Population aged 7 years and above by Sex and Area, 1981 - 1991	110
TABLE 7	Drop-out Rates in Classes I - VIII	111
TABLE 8	Progress in Universalisation of Elementary Education	112
TABLE 9	Progress in Universalisation of Elementary Education:Annual Growth Rate Percentage	113
TABLE 10	Progress in Universalisation of Elementary Education Enrolment: Gross Enrolment Ratio	114
TABLE 11	Transition Rates from Primary to Upper Primary Stage	114
TABLE 12	Gross Enrolment Ratios in Elementary Education in Selected States: Percentage	115
TABLE 13	Select Characteristics of Primary and Upper Primary Schools in India, 1978 and 1986	116
TABLE 14	Non- Participation in Elementary Education (Age-Group 6-14 years)	116
TABLE 15	Enrolment of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes	117
TABLE 16	Drop-out Rates: Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and All Communities, 1980 - 1989	117
Table 17	Literacy Rates, 1951 -1991	117
TABLE 18	Percent Distribution of Female Literates and Population Aged 0 -6 years by Female Literacy Rate by the District in which they Reside, 1991	118

TABLE 19 Elementary Education: Projected Enrolment for Eighth Plan (1992 - 1997) 118

TABLE 20 Association Between Access and Enrolment 118

TABLE 21 Gross Enrolment Ratios of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in Elementary Education in India: Percentage 119

TABLE 22 Drop-out Rates for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes, 1988- 1989 119

TABLE 23 Percentage Distribution of Total Income (Recurring and Non-Recurring) on all Educational Institutions by Source 119

TABLE 24 Percentage Distribution of Total Income (Recurring and Non-Recurring) on Elementary Education by Source 119

TABLE 25 Public Expenditure on Education as Percentage of GNP in Select Asian Countries 120

TABLE 26 Budget Expenditure on Education and Training in Selected States 120

TABLE 27 Budget Expenditure on Elementary Education in Selected States 121

TABLE 28 Plan Expenditure on Different Sectors of Education : Percentage 121

TABLE 29 Plan and Non-Plan Expenditure on Elementary Education in India 122

TABLE 30 Expenditure on Elementary Education in Seventh and Eighth Five Year Plans in Selected States 123

TABLE 31 Plan Expenditure on Elementary Education in Central and State Sectors 123

TABLE 32 Per Student Expenditure on Elementary Education in India 124

TABLE 33 Expected Flow of External Funding for Elementary Education during Eighth Five Year Plan (1992 - 1997) 124

Education in the Indian Constitution

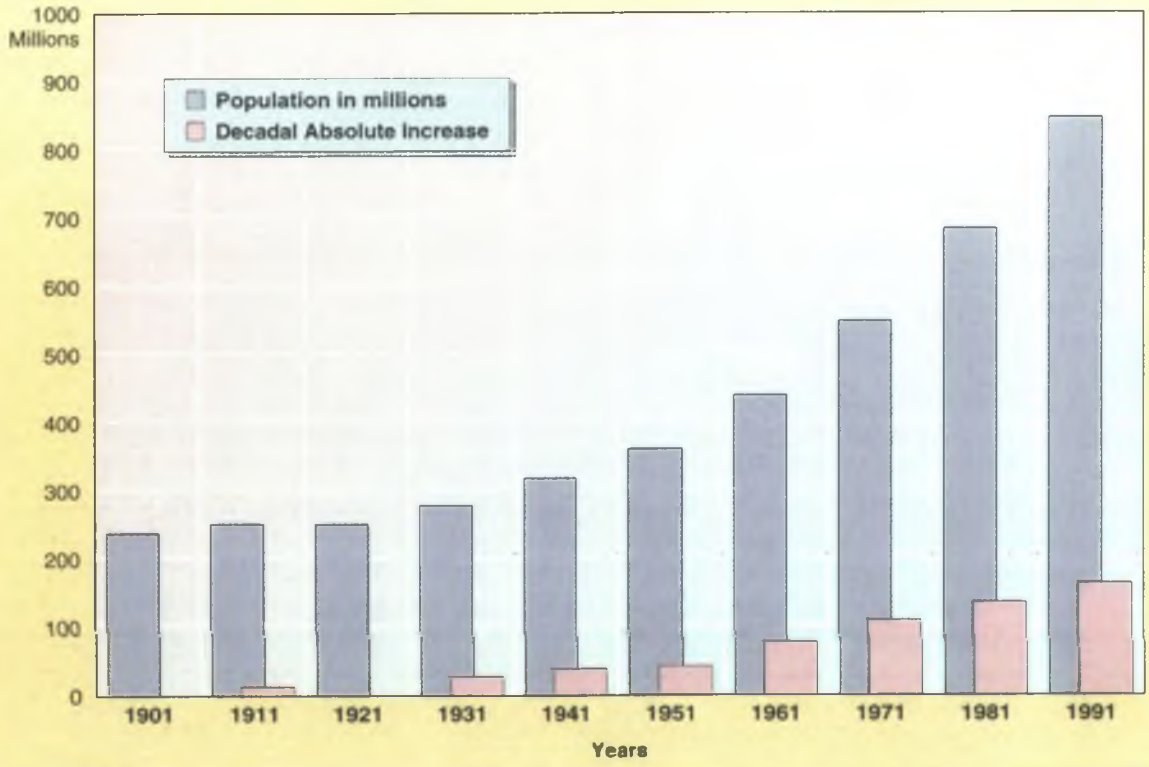
The Directive Principle contained in Article 45 of the Constitution enjoins that "the State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years". The expression "the State" which occurs in this Article is defined in Article 12 to include the Government and Parliament of India, the government and the legislature of each of the states and all local or other authorities within the territory of India or under the control of the Government of India.

Article 29(1) of the Constitution provides that "any section of the citizens, residing in the territory of India or any part thereof having a distinct language, script or culture of its own shall have the right to conserve the same." Article 29(2) lays down that "no citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving aid out of State funds on grounds only of religion race, caste, language or any of them."

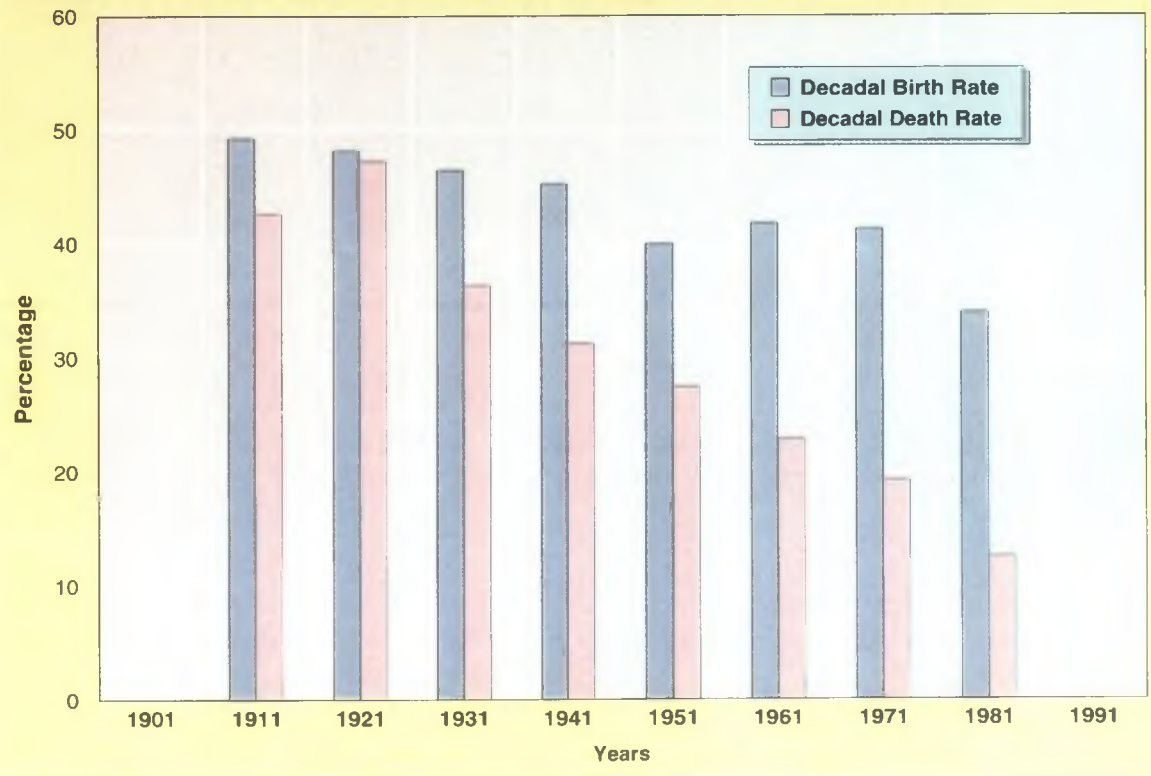
Article 30(1) enjoins that "all minorities, whether based on religion or language shall have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice," while Article 30(2) lays down that "the State shall not in granting aid to educational institutions discriminate against any educational institutions on the ground that it is under the management of a minority, whether based on religion or language." Article 350-A lays down that "it shall be the endeavour of every state and of every local authority within the state to provide adequate facilities for instruction in the mother-tongue at the primary stage of education to children belonging to linguistic minority groups.."

Special care of the economic and educational interests of the under-privileged sections of the population is laid down as an obligation for the State under Article 46. As per this Article "the State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation."

Population of India and Decadal Absolute Increase



Population of India : Decadal Birth and Death Rate



See Table 1 in Annex.

India : A Demographic Profile

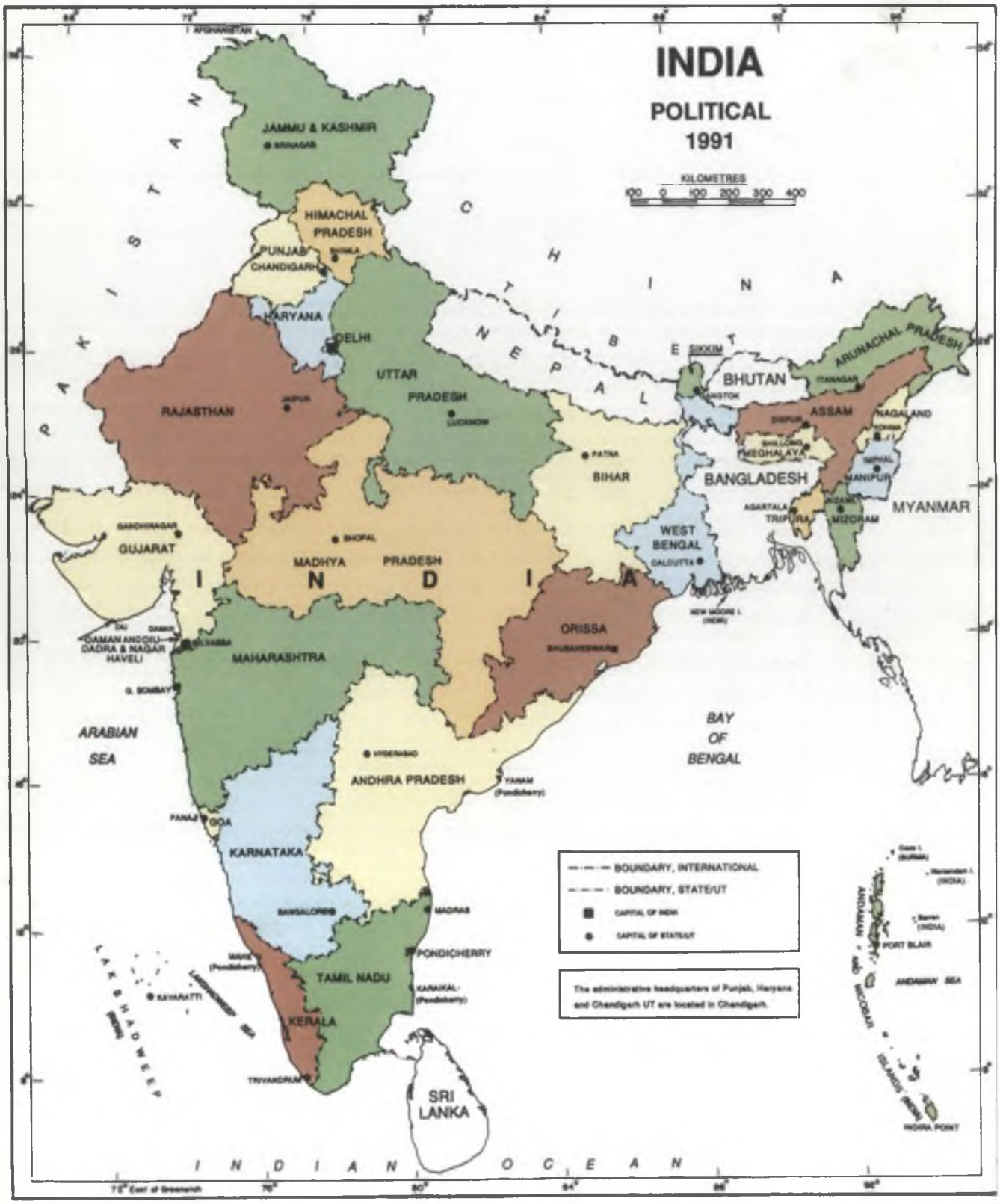
India is the second most populous country in the world with a population of 846.3 million in 1991, accounting for 16 percent of the world population and just 2.4 percent of the total land area of earth. Its share in the total world population has increased from 15.2 percent in 1981 to 16 percent in 1991.

The year 1921 is the year of the great divide in the demographic history of India when mortality started to decline, leading to an acceleration in the rate of population growth.

During the next three decades (1921-51) the rate of population growth continued at a level of over one percent per annum. The slight dip in the growth rate in 1941-51 partly reflects the Bengal famine of 1942-43 and dislocations due to the partition of India in 1947. After Independence the rate of population growth accelerated considerably because of extension of public health services.

The growth rate was at its peak in the period 1961-81 with the population growing at a rate of 2.2 percent per annum. The decade 1971-1981 is a turning point in that fertility started declining and continued to decline every year thereafter. During the decade 1981-91 the rate of population growth declined from 2.2 percent per annum to 2.1 percent. Though the decline is a welcome sign, the pace of decline is not enough to ease the relentless pressure on social services. The population is expected to cross the one billion mark by 2001. There are sharp regional variations.

Another feature of the growth of population in India is the absolute size of its increase. In the decade of 1981-91 India added 163 million people: an incremental population almost equal to the population of Indonesia, the fifth most populous country of the world. India adds to its numbers every year a population almost equal to that of Australia. Given a population increase of this magnitude it would be difficult to provide even rudimentary social services despite the best efforts.



Reference: "Education for All", A graphic presentation, NIEPA–August, 1991

Chapter I

Education in India : An Overview

At the time of Independence in 1947, India inherited an educational system which was not only quantitatively small but was also characterised by striking regional and structural imbalances. Only 14 percent of the population was literate and only one child out of three had been enroled in primary school. The low levels of enrolment and literacy were compounded by acute regional and gender disparities. Recognizing that education is vitally linked wih the totality of the development process,the reform and restructuring of the educational system was accepted as an important area of state intervention. Accordingly, the need for a literate population and universal education for all children in the 6-14 age group was provided with a precisely defined and delineated framework in the Indian Constitution as well as in successive Five Year Plans.

Basic education was one of the goals of India's freedom movement, and Mahatma Gandhi , even while leading the epic struggle against colonial power, evolved an alternative, community based system of education. Rooted in the struggle for Independence,several articles in the Constitution of India bring into focus the general principles governing educational development in the country. The Constitution makes an elaborate legislative, administrative and financial distribution of powers between the state governments and the Union Government (also referred to as the "Centre"or the "Central government").

Structure of the Education System

Decisions regarding the organisation and structure of education are largely the concern of the states (See Boxes).Within the overall policy framework, each state determines independently the educational structures to be adopted .The Indian Parliament was empowered through the 42nd Amendment with the authority to legislate on education concurrently with the states. However, the Centre has been relying on a consensual approach to promote educational development.

The concept of 'concurrency' was given an operational

meaning by the National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986. This policy envisages concurrency as a "meaningful partnership between the Centre and the States" and places on the Union Government a clear responsibility regarding the national and integrative character of education, quality and standards, manpower planning, research and advanced study, culture, human resource development and the international aspects of education. The Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE), set up during the pre-Independence period in 1935, continues to play a lead role in the evolution and monitoring of educational policies and programmes, the most notable of which are the National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986, Programme of Action (POA), 1986, and a revised NPE and POA (1992).

The Union Government has a clear responsibility regarding the quality and character of education.

Resource Institutions

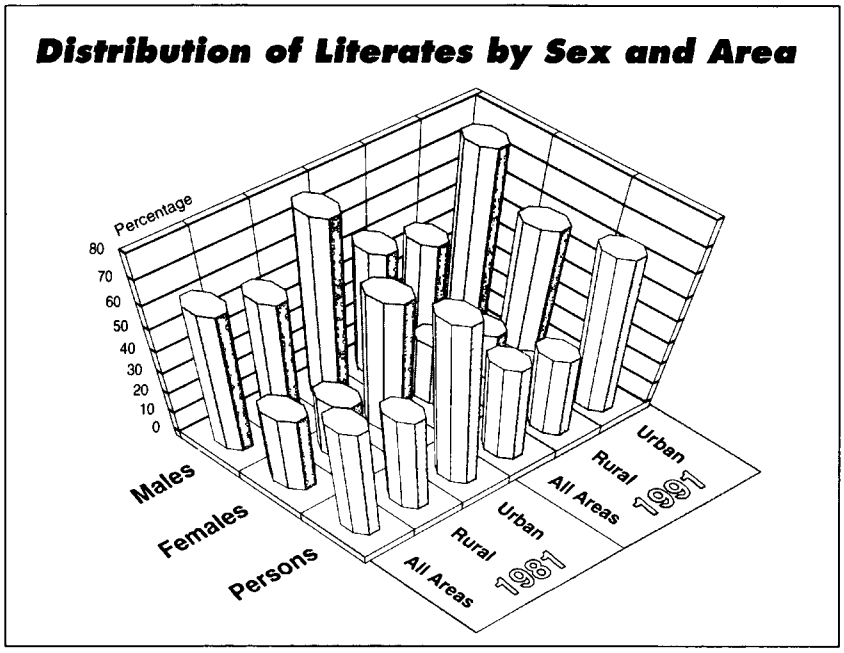
A number of resource institutions have been set up at the national level by the Union Government. Amongst the prominent institutes are the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) which assists and advises the Union and state governments in the formulation and implementation of educational policies and programmes, and the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) which assists and advises the Union and states in the areas of educational planning, administration, and training.

Achievements and Problems in Perspective

A supportive, comprehensive Constitutional and policy framework, backed by a systematic build up of resource capacity at both the national and state levels has led to substantial, noteworthy educational achievements and gains. However, at the same time, significant factors such as a growing population have overshadowed and impeded progress and India continues to face a daunting task educationally. So it is that today, while the elementary education system of India has expanded into one of the largest in the world,the country also possesses the dubious distinction of having the world's largest number of out-of-school children (22 percent of the global total) and adult illiterates (30 percent of the global population) . The target group of the endeavour to achieve Education For All (EFA) in India constitutes about 19 to 24 million children in the age group 6-14 of whom 60 percent are girls, and about 122 million adult illiterates in the age group 15-35 of whom 62 percent are women. Given the demographic pressure the numbers are likely to increase further. It is only by the year 2050 that the population is expected to stabilize.

India's elementary education system is one of the largest in the world.

The projected population in the age group of 6-14 years, the target group for universal elementary education, was 153 million constituting about 18 percent of the total population on



See Table 6 in Annex.

1st March 1991. The projected population in the age group of 15-35 years, the target group for adult literacy programmes, is 254 million, constituting about 30 percent of the population in 1991.

As more and more children move into the school age group, the education sector in India has to contend simultaneously with the challenge of building more and more schools and recruiting more teachers while striving for sustained improvement in the quality of education through better buildings,better trained teachers, learning materials and inputs of all kinds.

The Effects of Diversities and Contrasts

In addition to shouldering the enormous task of meeting at the required pace and scale the educational needs of a burgeoning population, policy makers and planners have to take into account the broad sweep of diversities and contrasts that typify the Indian scene.At one important level, the amazing variety in languages, religions, cultures, geographical and regional variations has contributed to a rich, colourful cultural mosaic. But at another crucial level, the diversities often become indirect causes for acute disparites and tax the ingenuity of planners.

The Indian scene is typified by diversities and contrasts.

For instance, India is predominantly rural, but it also has large urban centres. However, there are wide disparities in the availability of even basic services such as health care, education, communication and information between urban and rural areas. By and large, rural India continues to lag behind in major areas of development. The presence of tribal pockets in the country and the persistence, though in diminishing proportions, of a hierarchical caste system in a number of spheres in both urban and rural settings adds to the complexity of the situation. In several parts of the country, the population is in a state of flux and transition as an outcome of potent factors such as rapid

industrial growth , scientific and technological advances.

There are more than 1000 languages and dialects in the country.

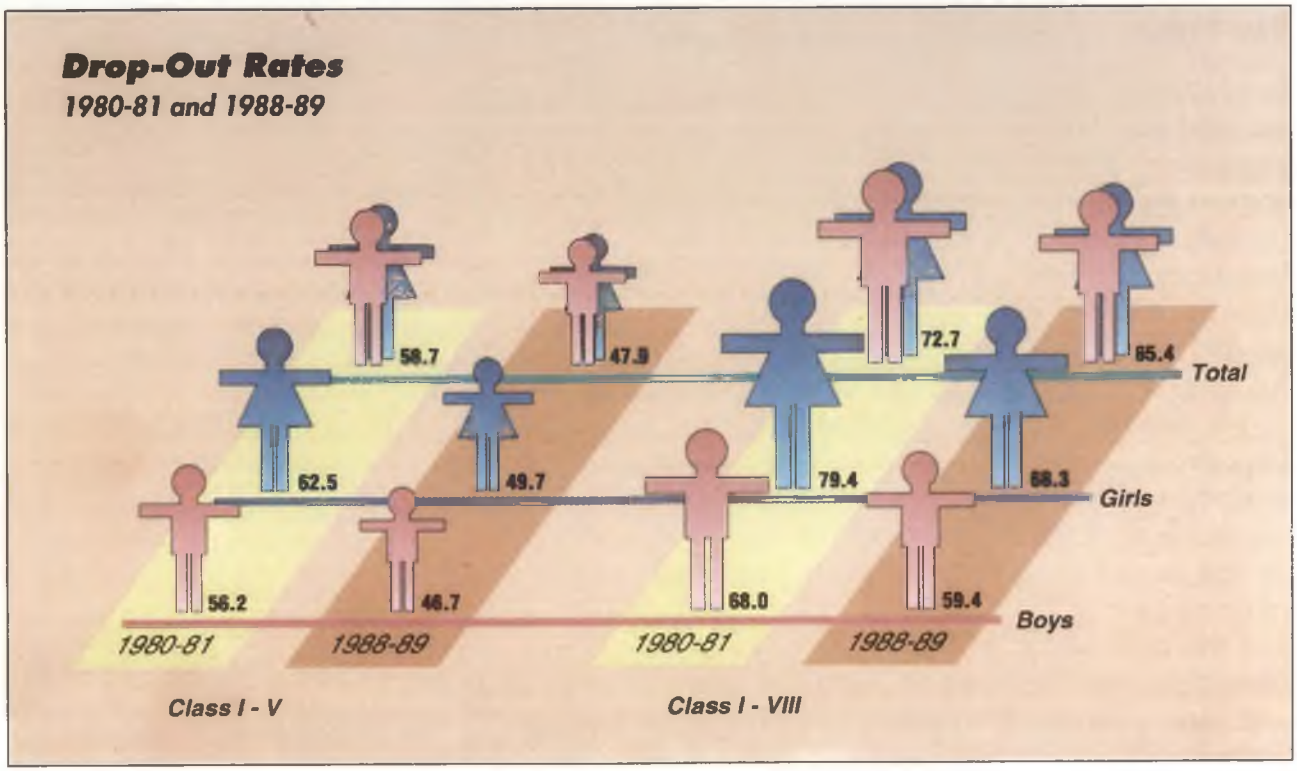
Other features which distinguish the pluralistic society of India and call for special consideration from the educational angle include the existence of a multi-religious, multi-lingual fabric. There are more than 1000 languages and dialects in the country. Of these, 18 are mentioned in the Constitution as national languages while English and Hindi are recognized as official languages.

Socio-Economic Imbalances

There is no discrimination in admission to educational institutions, but socio-economic factors often contribute to several segments of the population remaining socially and educationally backward. Generally, groups vulnerable to social discrimination also suffer from economic deprivation. It was estimated in the early eighties that 37 percent of the population in the country is below the poverty line, with almost 40 million working children in different regions.

Dropout rates of girls at the primary and upper primary stage are higher than those of boys.

Amongst the deprived sections of the population, women are doubly disadvantaged — suffering from an unequal status in the family as well as in society. Facilities for education are equally available for both boys and girls, yet there is a significantly lower level of utilisation of facilities by girls and women.The dropout rates of girls at the primary as well as the upper primary stage are higher than those of boys, with girls accounting for 46 percent of the enrolment at the primary stage and 38 percent at the upper primary stage.



See Table 7 in Annex.

The literacy rate for women is at the same level as that of men three decades ago. There are besides, wide regional variations in female literacy ranging from near universal literacy in the state of Kerala to a paltry 21 percent in Rajasthan state.Gender disparities and regional imbalances at both the state and the urban-rural levels are thus among the major factors that continue to operate in the sphere of education.

The Goals of EFA in India

Against the background of the demographic implications and the complex ground realities of the Indian scene,the goals of Education For All (EFA) in India constitute:

1. *Expansion of early childhood care and development activities* especially for poor, disadvantaged and disabled children, through a multi-pronged effort involving families, communities and appropriate institutions.

2. *Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE),* viewed as a composite programme of:

   - access to elementary education for all children upto 14 years of age;
   - universal participation till they complete the elementary stage through formal or non-formal education programmes;
   - universal achievement at least of minimum levels of learning.

3. *Drastic reduction in illiteracy,* particularly in the 15-35 age group, bringing the literacy level in this age group to at least 80 percent in each gender and for every identified disadvantaged group, besides ensuring that the levels of the three R's are relevant to the living and working conditions of the people.

4. *Provision of opportunities* to maintain, use and upgrade education, and provision of facilities for development of skills to all persons who are functionally literate and those who have received primary education through formal and non-formal channels.

5. *Creation of necessary structures,* and the setting in motion of processes which could empower women and make education an instrument of women's equality.

6. *Improving the content and process* of education to relate it better to the environment, people's culture and with their living and working conditions, thereby enhancing their ability to learn and cope with the problems of livelihood and environment.

Evidently, the magnitude of the task facing the country and the need for objectivity in its endeavour to achieve EFA call for urgent, concerted action. As India moves forward in quest of EFA, the existing sound foundations based on a combination of Constitutional safeguards and an indepth, critical analysis of the quantative and qualitative factors which distinguish the Indian educational scene will go a long way towards facilitating the process of innovative planning and implementation. The real challenge in achieving the goals of EFA lies in bridging the gaps between policies and realities, between planning and implementation. ❑

Administrative Structure of the States

India, a union of states, is a parliamentary democracy with a federal structure. There are 25 states and 7 Union Territories in the country. Within a state there is generally a four-tier structure of administration: region/zone/range, district, taluka/block/mandal, and villages. Urban areas have local bodies such as municipalities and municipal corporations. Traditionally, the district has been the most important unit of administration and planning. Many states have introduced the system of Panchayati Raj, generally a three-tier structure of local self government in rural areas at the village, block and district levels. These structures are creatures of state legislations; their patterns, powers and functions vary widely. Two landmark Constitutional Amendments were recently enacted which bestowed on the local bodies in rural and urban areas constitutional status and specific functions including primary education. These amendments are expected to promote decentralised management of primary education.

Centre-States Relationship

The Seventh Schedule to the Constitution has three lists: the Union List with 97 entries in respect of which the Parliament has exclusive power to legislate; the State List with 66 entries in respect of which the state legislatures have similar powers and the Concurrent List with 47 entries where the Parliament as well as state legislatures have concurrent legislative powers. Should there be a state as well as a Central legislation on a matter enumerated in the Concurrent List, the Central legislation would prevail unless the state legislation was reserved for the prior consideration of the President and had received such an assent.

Normally the executive powers of the Union and the states are co-extensive with their legislative powers. However, in respect of matters in the Concurrent List the executive powers remain with the states, unless the Constitution or Parliament, by law, expressely provides otherwise. Though the Constitution creates a dual polity based on divided governmental powers, the division is not water tight; it is flexible. Apart from the large concurrent sphere several entries in the State List interface with the Union List. Adequate mechanisms exist for sharing of resources and responsibilities between the Union and the states for harmonious exercise of their powers in the larger national interest.

Substantial resources devolve from the Centre to the states through institutional mechanisms such as the Finance Commission and the Planning Commission; about 60 percent of the state budgets as a whole are financed by Central devolution. Since the First Five Year Plan, which was launched in 1951, planning has emerged as a vital function of the government. The salience of Indian planning lies in that it operates in a democratic polity and within a mixed economy. The states have considerable freedom for planning.

Reconciling Planning Priorities

Therefore a major challenge in national planning is to reconcile the planning priorities of states with the national plan frame. The National Development Council (NDC), set up in April 1952, imparts a national character to the entire process of planning. The NDC consists of the Prime Minister, all ministers of the Union Cabinet, the chief ministers of states, and members of the Planning Commission. It is assigned the three important functions of reviewing the working of the National Plan from time to time, of considering important questions of social and economic policy affecting national development, and recommending measures for the achievement of aims and targets set out in the national plan.

In individual sectors similar bodies exist in which a national consensus is forged and emerging frictions resolved through an interactive and interaction process involving the Centre and the states.

Percentage Distribution of Persons Aged 6 and above Never Enroled as Students and Reasons for Non-Enrolment

All India : NSS: 42nd Round, July 1986-July 1987

Reasons for non-enrolment	*Rural*			*Urban*		
	Male	*Female*	*Persons*	*Male*	*Female*	*Persons*
1. Too young to go school	5.70	3.88	4.61	6.71	3.63	4.73
2. Schooling facilities not available	9.94	10.46	10.25	5.86	9.00	7.89
3. Not interested	25.18	32.32	29.46	23.46	33.90	29.55
4. For participation in household/ economic activity	18.87	9.04	12.98	17.11	6.83	10.48
5. Other economic reasons	31.12	23.56	26.59	34.76	22.59	26.91
6. Attending domestic chores	1.27	9.87	6.42	0.90	10.70	07.22
7. Waiting for admission	0.96	0.51	0.69	1.36	00.80	01.00
8. Other reasons	6.96	10.37	9.00	9.83	13.56	12.23
All reasons	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

From : B. S. Minhas: Educational Deprivation and its Role as a Spoiler of Access to Better Life in India, Technical Report No. 9104.
Source : National Sample Survey (1989), Draft Report No. 365, Department of Statistics, GOI, New Delhi (mimeographed), P. 38

Percentage Distribution of Drop-outs by Reasons for Discontinuance

All India NSS: 42nd Round, July 1986-June 1987

Reasons for discontinuance	*Rural*			*Urban*		
	Male	*Female*	*Persons*	*Male*	*Female*	*Persons*
1. Not interested in education/ further study	26.57	33.25	26.26	23.62	28.47	25.60
2. Participated in household/ economic activity	26.80	9.38	19.17	22.80	06.71	16.28
3. Other economic reasons	20.63	14.97	17.11	24.15	15.42	20.58
4. Domestic chores	02.01	14.25	05.54	02.20	15.93	07.77
5. Failure	18.43	16.68	16.29	21.28	18.77	20.27
6. Others	05.56	11.47	15.63	05.95	14.70	09.50
All	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

From : Minhas, op. cit.
Source : National Sample Survey (1989), Draft Report No. 365, Department of Statistics, GOI, New Delhi (mimeographed)

A Profile of Socio-Economic Constraints

The 42nd round of the National Sample Survey (July 1986-June 1987) provides valuable information on the reasons for non-enrolment and drop-out. Nonavailability of schooling facilities seems to account for only about 10 percent of the "never enroled" in rural India and about 8 percent in urban India; the difference between the sexes is very small in rural areas but somewhat larger in the urban sector.

However, nearly 30 percent of the persons surveyed, both in rural and urban India, gave the reason for "never enroled" as being "not interested". The difference between the sexes here is large: a larger proportion of "never enroled" females gave this reason in comparison with the males. The reason for being "not interested" could be considered as a demand side constraint to access: some authorities however, consider it as a supply side constraint rooted in poor facilities and quality of education.

Domestic Restraints

About 52 percent of urban males and 29 percent of urban females could not avail of the educational services because of participation in household economic activity and other economic reasons. Attending to domestic chores restrained around one percent of the males, both in rural as well as urban India, from ever enroling as students. Nevertheless, this reason was one of the major demand side constraints on access to education for the females: for 9.9 percent of them in the rural and 10.7 percent of them in the urban sector. Most of the young females are denied access to education because they look after their siblings besides performing a variety of domestic, housekeeping chores.

Significantly,the proportion of currently "not enroled" decreases with the increase in per capita household income.

A little over one-fourth of all "drop-outs" in rural as well as urban India gave "not interested in education/further study" as the reason for discontinuance of education — with the proportion among females being somewhat higher — 33.3 percent as against 26.5 percent for males in rural areas and 28.5 percent as against 23.6 percent for males in urban areas. Another 16.3 percent of rural and 20.3 percent of urban "drop-outs" cited 'failure' to pass examinations as the reason for discontinuance. Again, it is a moot point whether this is a supply side constraint due to the poor quality of education services or a demand constraint, or a combination of both.

Chapter II

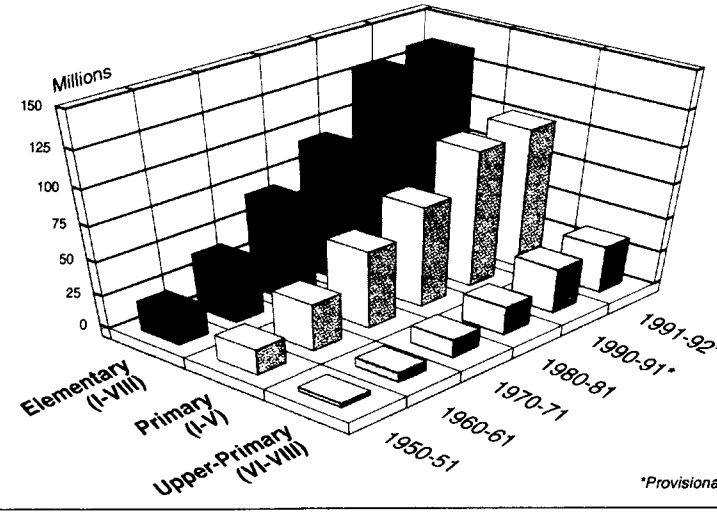
EFA in the Indian Context

The aims and objectives of EFA in the Indian context can be understood more fully by taking a close, detailed look at the impressive expansion of the educational infrastructure and the challenges and realizations that this has brought in its wake.

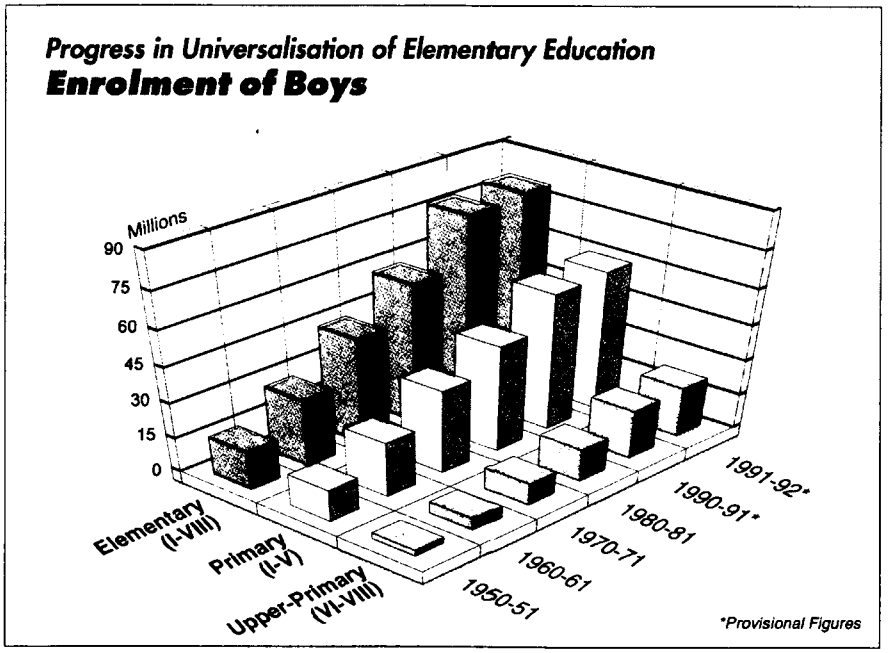
In the sphere of early childhood care and development activities the number of pre-primary schools has increased from 303 in 1950-51 to 3500 in 1965-66 to 4500 in 1986-87. The corresponding increase in enrolment has been from 28,000 to 250,000 to 1.3 million children. In 1991-92, the estimated number of institutions rose to 13,515 while enrolment figures registered a rise to 3.9 million children. Unfortunately, a considerable proportion of pre-primary institutions are sub-standard. Many of them attempt to cater to the preference of the urban-middle class for English education.

However, pre-primary schools are not the only models for imparting early learning. The Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) Scheme — the world's single largest outreach

Progress in Universalisation of Elementary Education
Enrolment of Boys and Girls



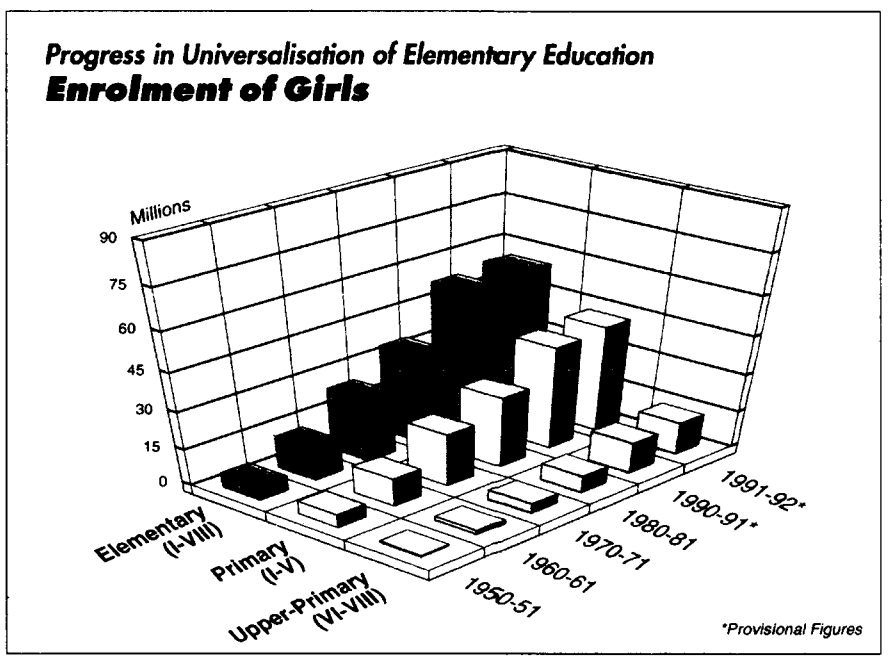
*Provisional Figures



programme with the most comprehensive package of services for meeting the total development needs of children in the 0-6 age group, covered by 1993 approximately 15 million children through 339,000 centres spread out in rural, tribal and urban (slum) areas.

Primary Schools: Facilities, Accessibility and Enrolment

There has been a marked expansion in elementary education during the post-Independence period. The number of primary schools increased from 209,671 in 1950-51 to 565,786 in 1991-92; the corresponding increase in upper primary schools was from



See Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 in Annex.

13,596 to 152,077. These 717,863 schools together with 270,000 non-formal education centres enroled 136 million children as compared to approximately 23 million in 1951. Univeral provision of education has been achieved in substantial measure at the primary stage (classes I - V). Enrolment at the primary stage jumped almost five fold from 20 million to 102 million in 1991-92; the increase in the upper primary stage is far higher — from 3 million to 35 million.

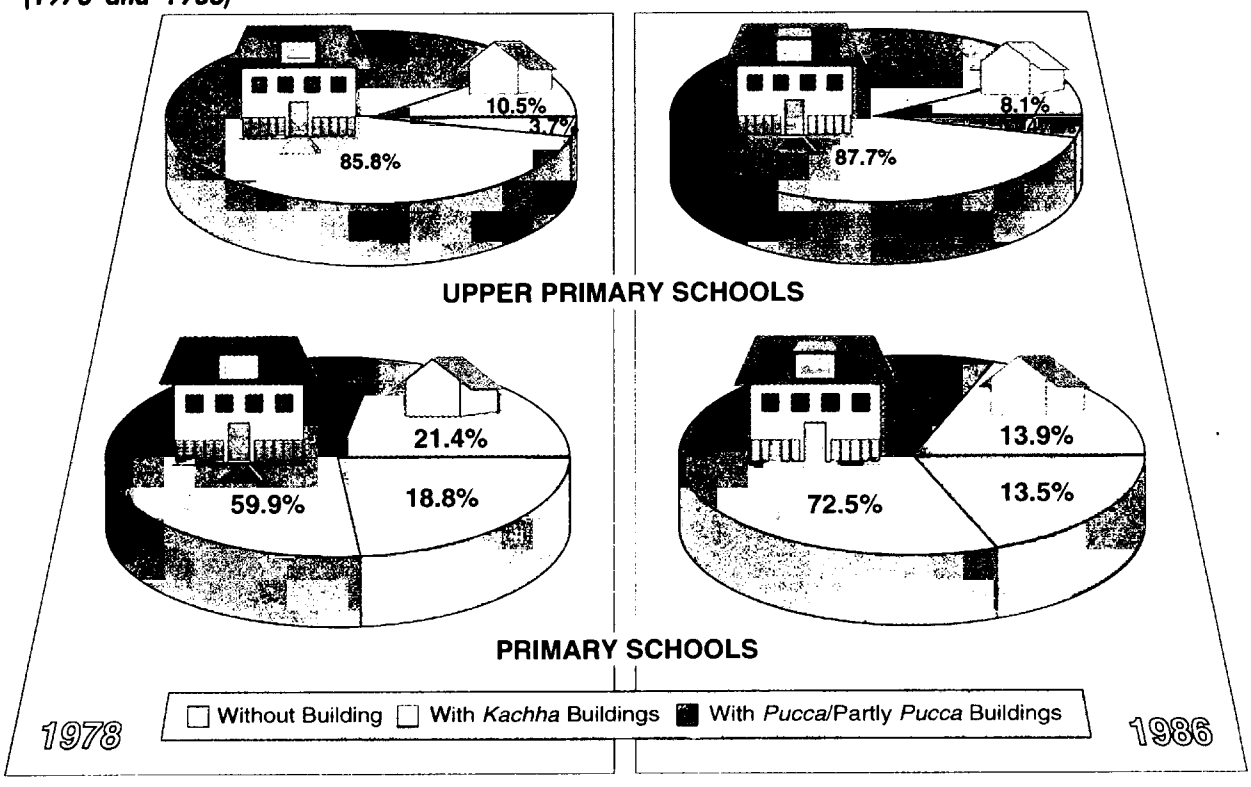
Large scale expansion has resulted in widely varying quality in educational facilities.

Large scale expansion has resulted in the establishment of educational facilities with widely varying quality in terms of institutional infrastructure, teaching-learning processes as well as the 'quality' of students passing out of these institutions. A sizeable number of schools do not have minimum facilities required to impart good quality education to all. According to the Fifth All India Education Survey (1986), more than 70,000 primary schools and about 17,000 upper primary schools, i.e. 14 percent of the primary schools and 8 percent of the upper primary schools were being run in *kachha* (make-shift) buildings.

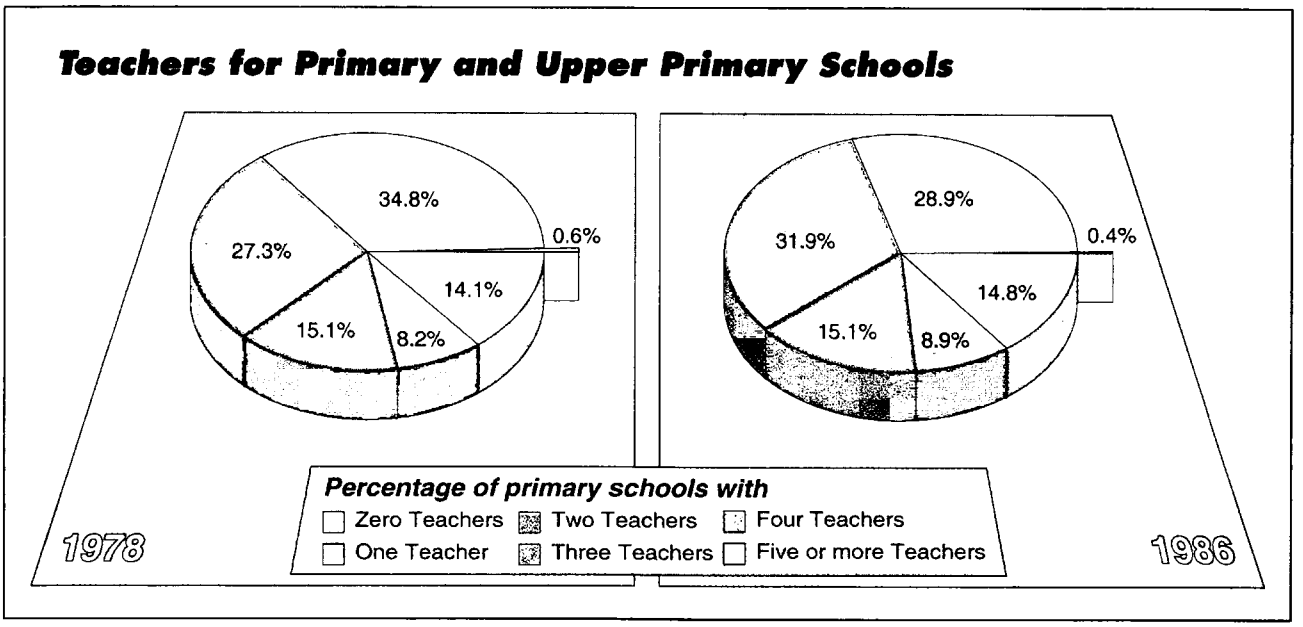
A Vital Shift in Focus

A disaggregated analysis of the 1986 survey data establishes clearly that a high level of access does not necessarily lead to a high level of enrolment. Hence, since NPE, 1986, the focus of attention has shifted from mere provision of schooling facilities to improvement of facilities, universal enrolment and

Kind of Buildings for Primary and Upper Primary Schools in India
(1978 and 1986)



See Table 13 in Annex.



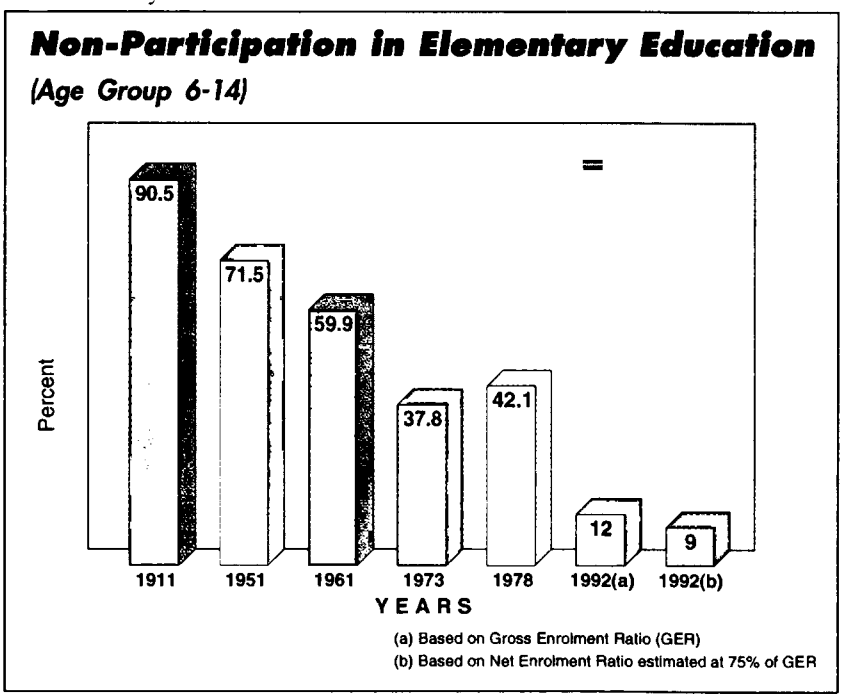
See Table 13 in Annex.

participation and achievement of satisfactory levels of learning.

The growth ratios of enrolment which declined up to 1980-81 began to increase thereafter. The gross enrolment ratios of children in the age group 6-11 increased from 46 percent in 1950-51 to 102 percent in 1991-92. Likewise, the gross enrolment of 11-14 age group increased from 13 percent in 1950-51 to 62 percent in 1991-92. An analysis of the enrolment data reveals that the population of children moving up from the primary to upper primary stage has been increasing steadily, from 17 percent in 1950-51 to 34 percent in 1990-91.

Regional and Gender Disparities

While the gross enrolment ratios (GER) at the primary stage in the country as a whole and in most of its states exceed 100

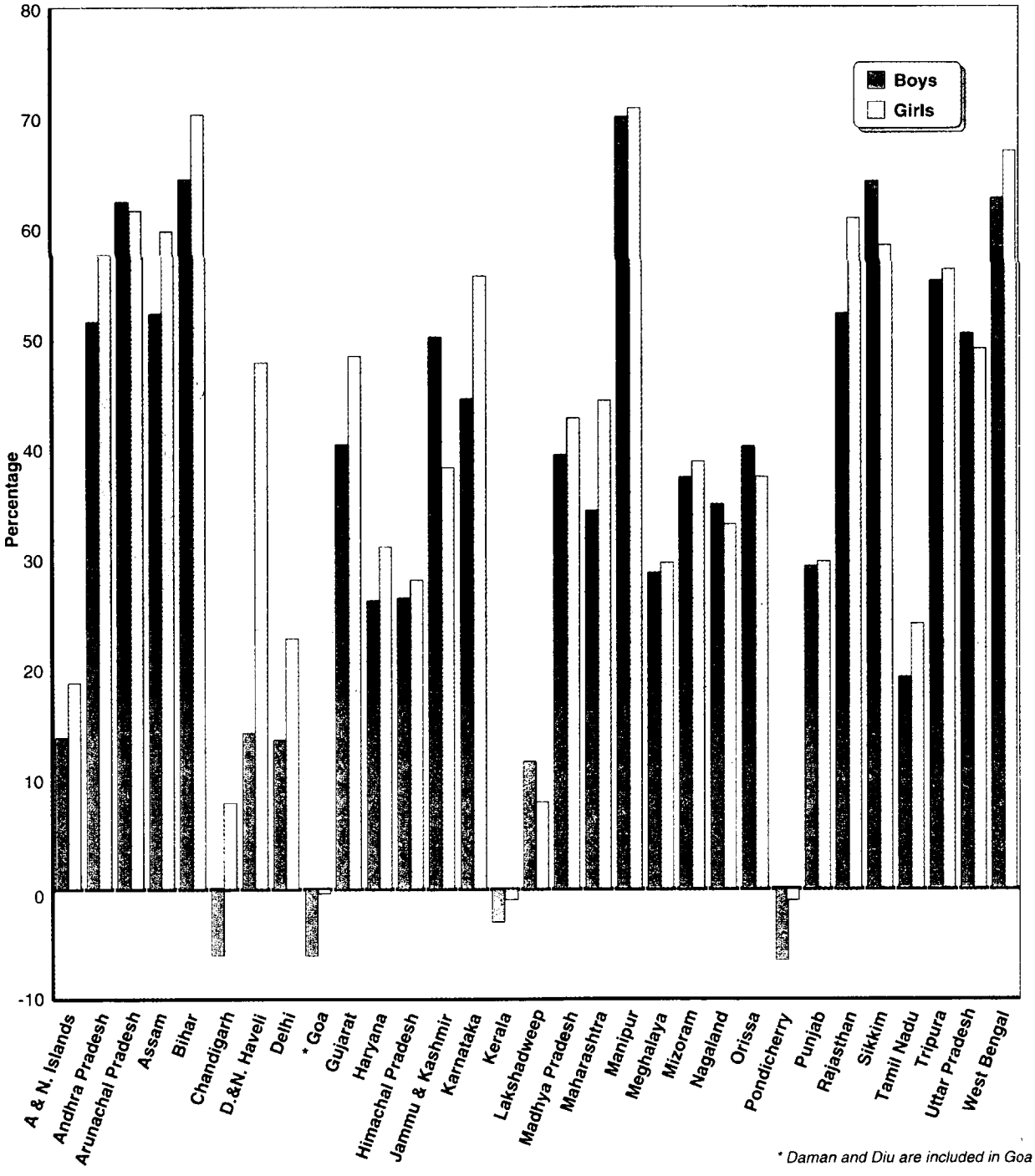


See Table 14 in Annex.

There are regional and gender disparities in enrolment and retention.

percent there are quite a few states where the ratio is considerably lower. The problem becomes more complicated by the persistence of high drop-out rates, in spite of a declining trend. Nearly half the children who entered Class I drop out before reaching Class V, and two-thirds of the children drop out before reaching Class VIII. Regional disparities abound in drop-out rates, and both regional and gender disparities are conspicuous in regard to enrolment and retention. There is an inverse correlation between existing literacy levels of states

Drop-out Rates in Classes I-V in 1988-89 in selected States/UTs



* Daman and Diu are included in Goa

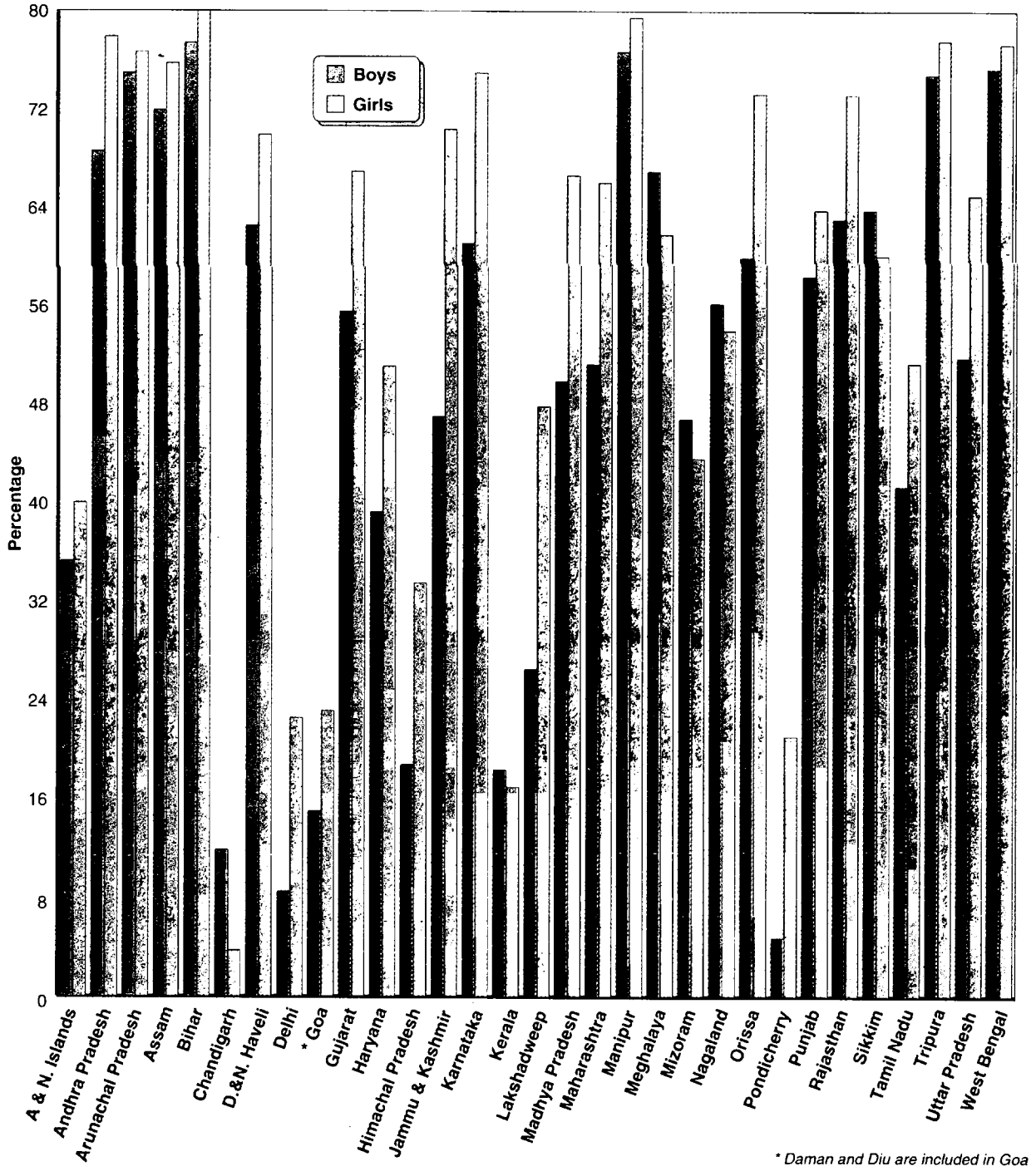
See Table 7 in Annex.

and drop-out ratios: the higher the literacy level, the lower the drop-out rate.

Girls Enrolment

Girls enrolment at the primary stage has grown appreciably from 6 million in 1950-51 to 43 million in 1991-92 and at the upper primary stage from 0.5 million to 13 million. The growth rate of girls enrolment has been higher than that of boys but disparities still remain.

Drop-out Rates in Classes I-VIII in 1988-89 in selected States/UTs



See Table 7 in Annex.

Enrolment Ratio of Girls at the Elementary Stage by States/UTs ranked by Female Literacy Rate

Rank	State/UT with literacy rate greater than 50 percent	Literacy rate 1991		Index of gender equality	Enrolment ratio 1991-92			
					Primary		Upper primary	
		Female	Male		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Group A States								
1.	Kerala	87	94	96	100	98	106	104
2.	Mizoram	78	84	93	140	133	76	73
3.	Chandigarh	74	83	94	61	59	57	57
4.	Lakshadweep	71	87	93	157	135	118	97
5.	Goa	68	86	89	106	97	112	96
6.	Delhi	68	83	89	87	88	88	80
7.	A&N Islands	66	80	89	100	85	88	76
8.	Pondicherry	66	84	88	148	136	135	117
9.	Daman & Diu	61	86	83	—	—	—	—
10.	Nagaland	56	66	96	114	104	70	68
11.	Himachal Pradesh	52	75	83	125	109	125	96
12.	Tamil Nadu	52	75	82	142	128	109	86
13.	Maharashtra	51	75	80	132	119	92	67
14.	Tripura	50	70	83	144	122	90	71
15.	Punjab	50	64	87	102	95	79	66
Group B States (40-50 percent)								
16.	Manipur	49	73	80	117	104	67	59
17.	Gujarat	49	73	80	142	111	85	59
18.	West Bengal	47	67	82	140	108	74	56
19.	Sikkim	47	64	84	127	113	49	48
20.	Meghalaya	45	52	93	67	63	64	54
21.	Karnataka	44	67	79	115	107	66	47
22.	Assam	44	62	82	117	109	69	55
23.	Haryana	41	68	78	94	79	75	51
Group C States (below 40 percent)								
24.	Orissa	34	62	71	120	87	65	38
25.	Andhra Pradesh	34	56	75	123	90	61	43
26.	Arunachal Pradesh	29	51	71	128	91	57	37
27.	Madhya Pradesh	28	57	65	119	89	74	36
28.	D & N Haveli	26	52	65	116	87	56	35
29.	Uttar Pradesh	26	55	63	105	67	68	33
30.	Bihar	23	53	60	105	56	53	21
31.	Rajasthan	21	55	54	107	50	66	23
33.	Jammu & Kashmir	—	—	—	102	71	76	47

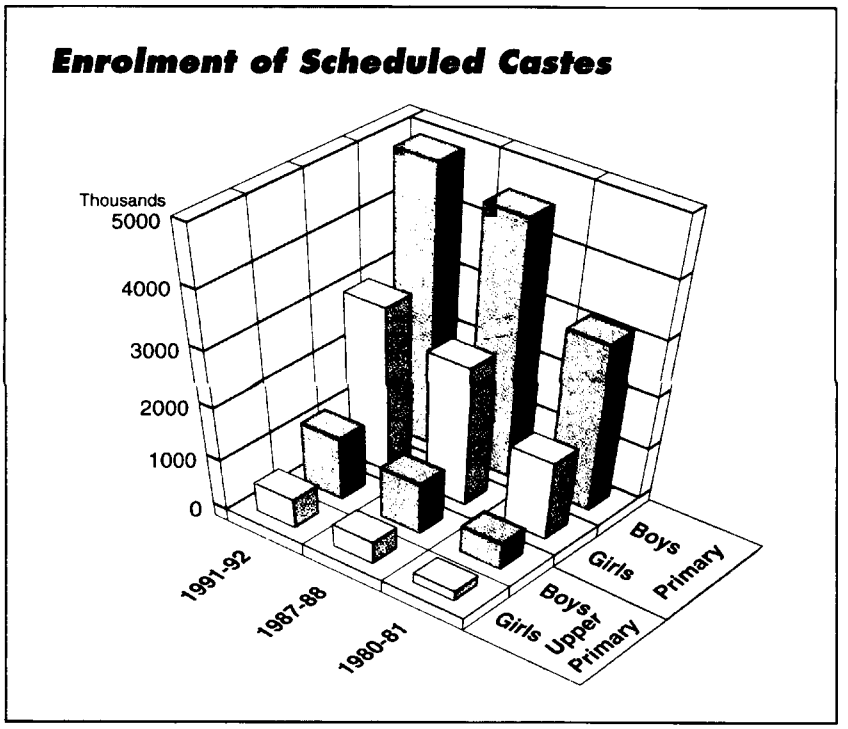
From : Usha Nayyar: Universalisation of Primary Education of Rural Girls in India, NCERT, New Delhi, 1993

Source : 1. Literacy figures are from Statistical Database for Literacy, National Institute of Adult Education, New Delhi,1992

2. Enrolment data is from Selected Educational Statistics, 1990-91, Department of Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, New Delhi, 1993.

Distinct Groups

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes constitute the officially recognized weaker sections of society and form a distinct target group under the existing pattern of planning. According to the 1991 census, the population of Scheduled Castes was 139 million (17 percent) and that of Scheduled Tribes 68 million (8 percent) of the country's population. The affirmative policies of the government have resulted in a considerable increase in the enrolment of SCs and STs at the primary stage.



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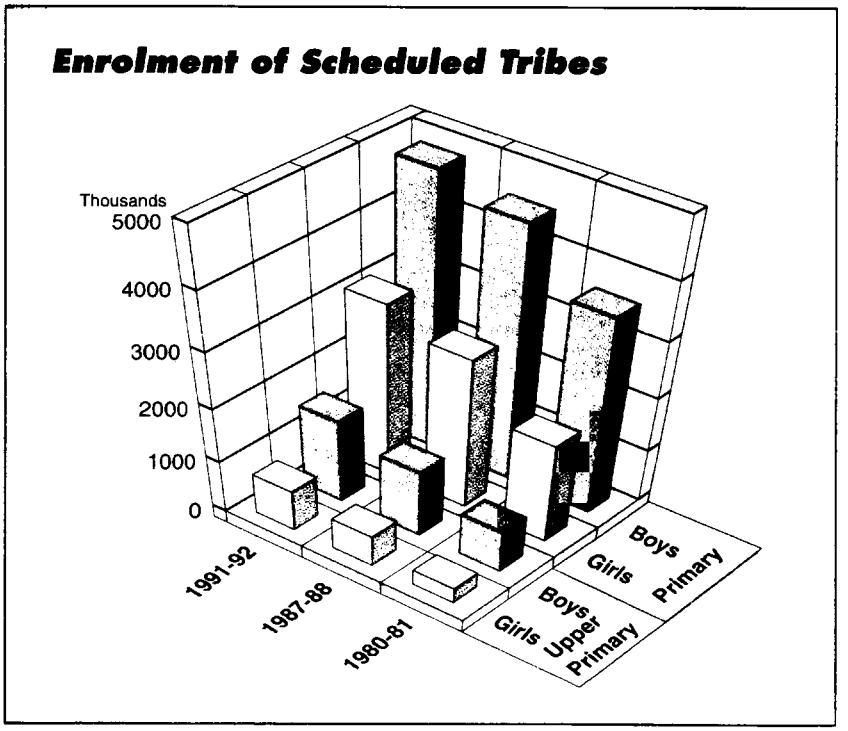
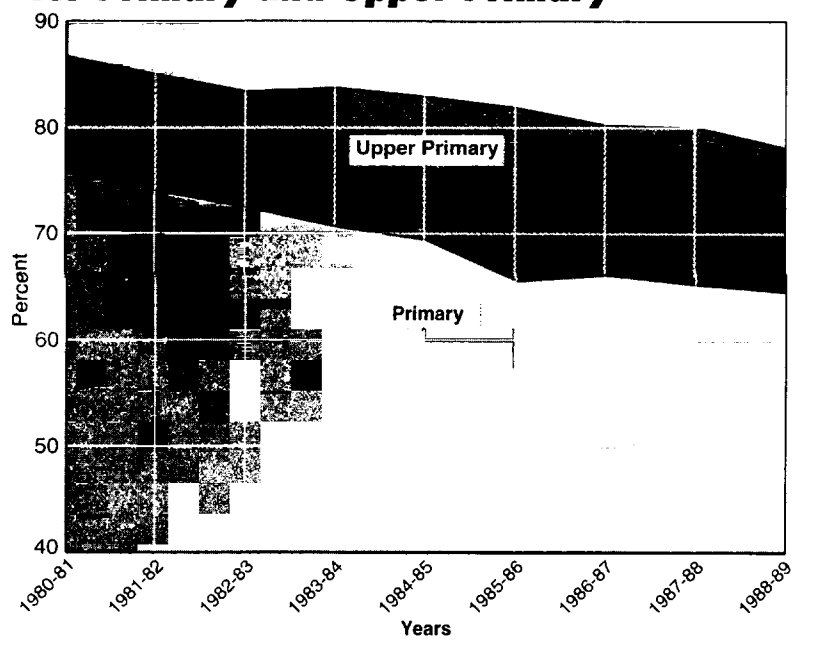


However, wide regional variations are to be found in both SC and ST groups. SC girls in the state of Kerala, for instance, are likely to be better informed than non-SC boys in some of the more backward states and districts.

The participation of SCs and STs at the primary level is now more or less in proportion to their percentage share in the population. As in other groups,drop-outs amongst SCs and STs declined over the years, but are still significantly large with marked gender disparities in participation. Thus in observance, universal participation is still elusive.

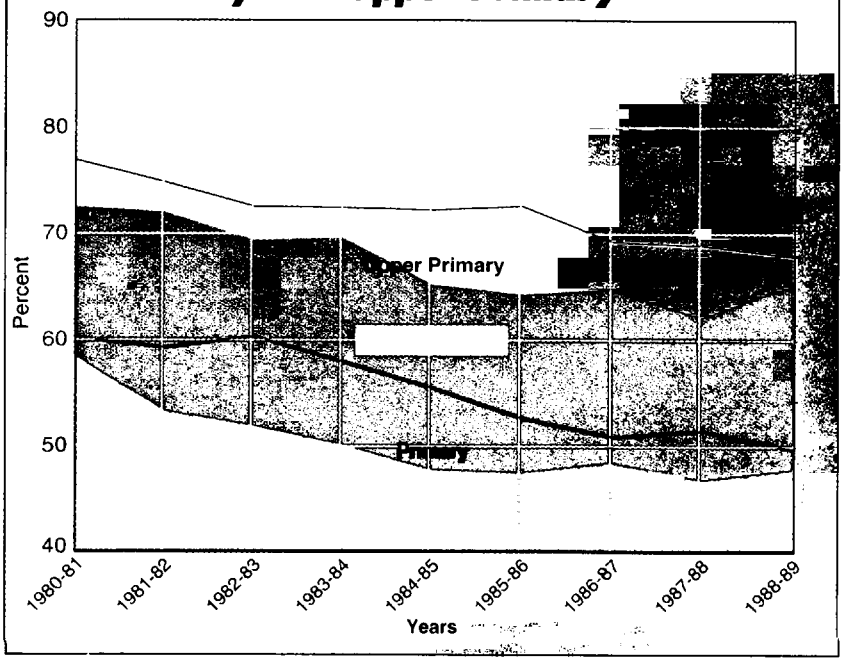
Universal participation is still elusive.

Drop-out Rates Among All Communities for Primary and Upper Primary



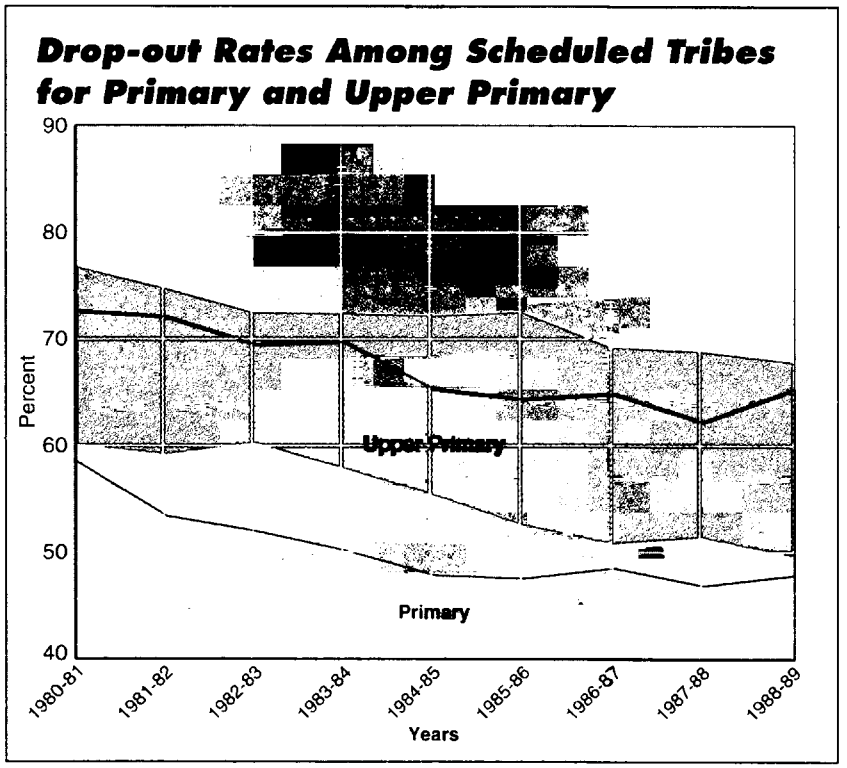
See Table 16 in Annex.

Drop-out Rates Among Scheduled Castes for Primary and Upper Primary



See Table 16 in Annex.

Drop-out Rates Among Scheduled Tribes for Primary and Upper Primary



See Table 16 in Annex.

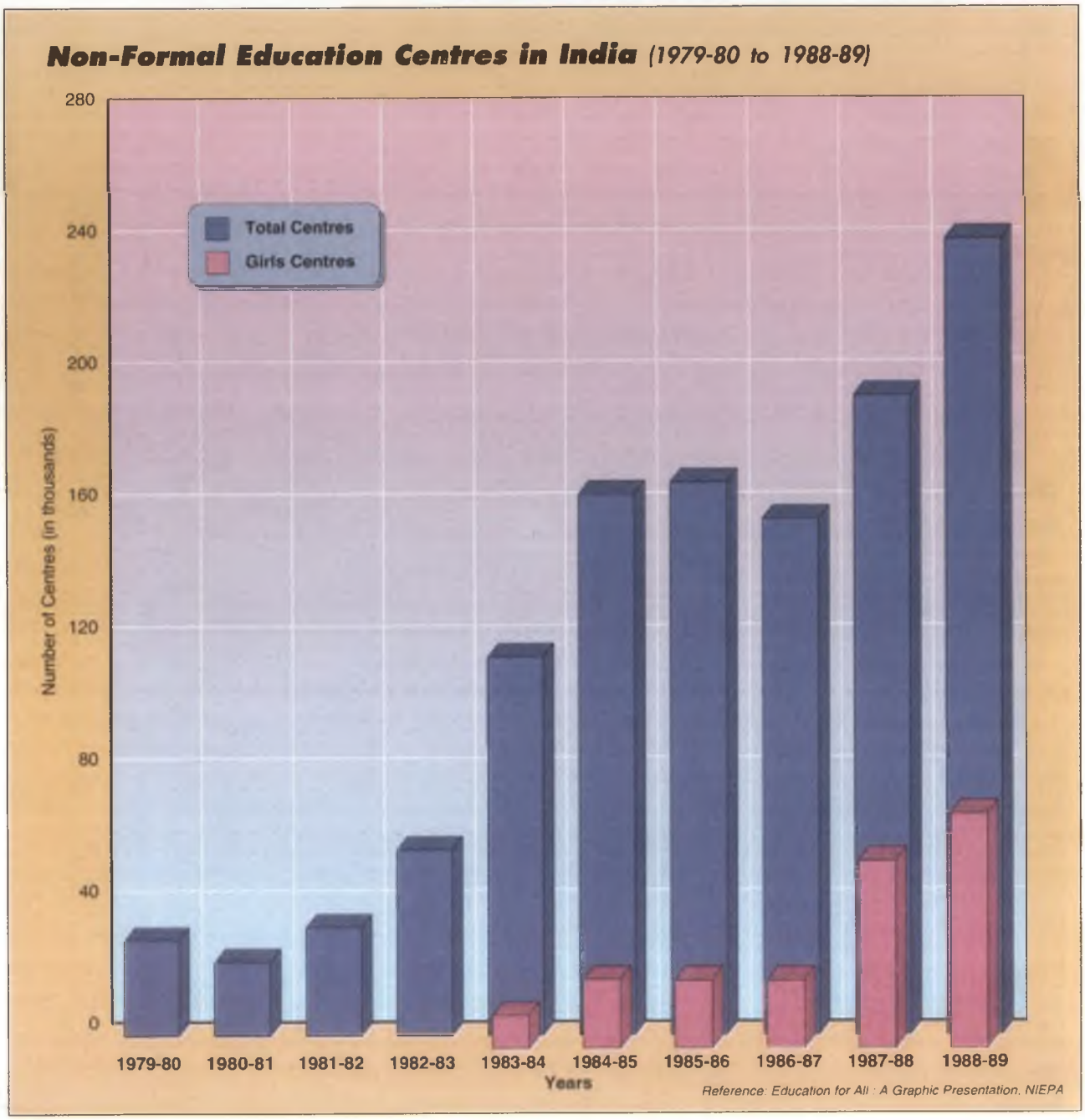
NFE: An Important Alternative Channel

Non-formal education (NFE) focuses on out-of-school children in the age group of 9-14 years and has become an important alternative channel for the large number of children who do not attend full time schools. Inbuilt flexibility and equivalence are important components of NFE design.

238,000 NFE centres were functioning in the country by March 1993.

Along with a special focus on the ten educationally backward states — Andhra Pradesh,Arunachal Pradesh, Assam,Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal — the centrally sponsored scheme of NFE covers urban slums, hilly, tribal and desert tracts and areas with a concentration of working children in other states as well .

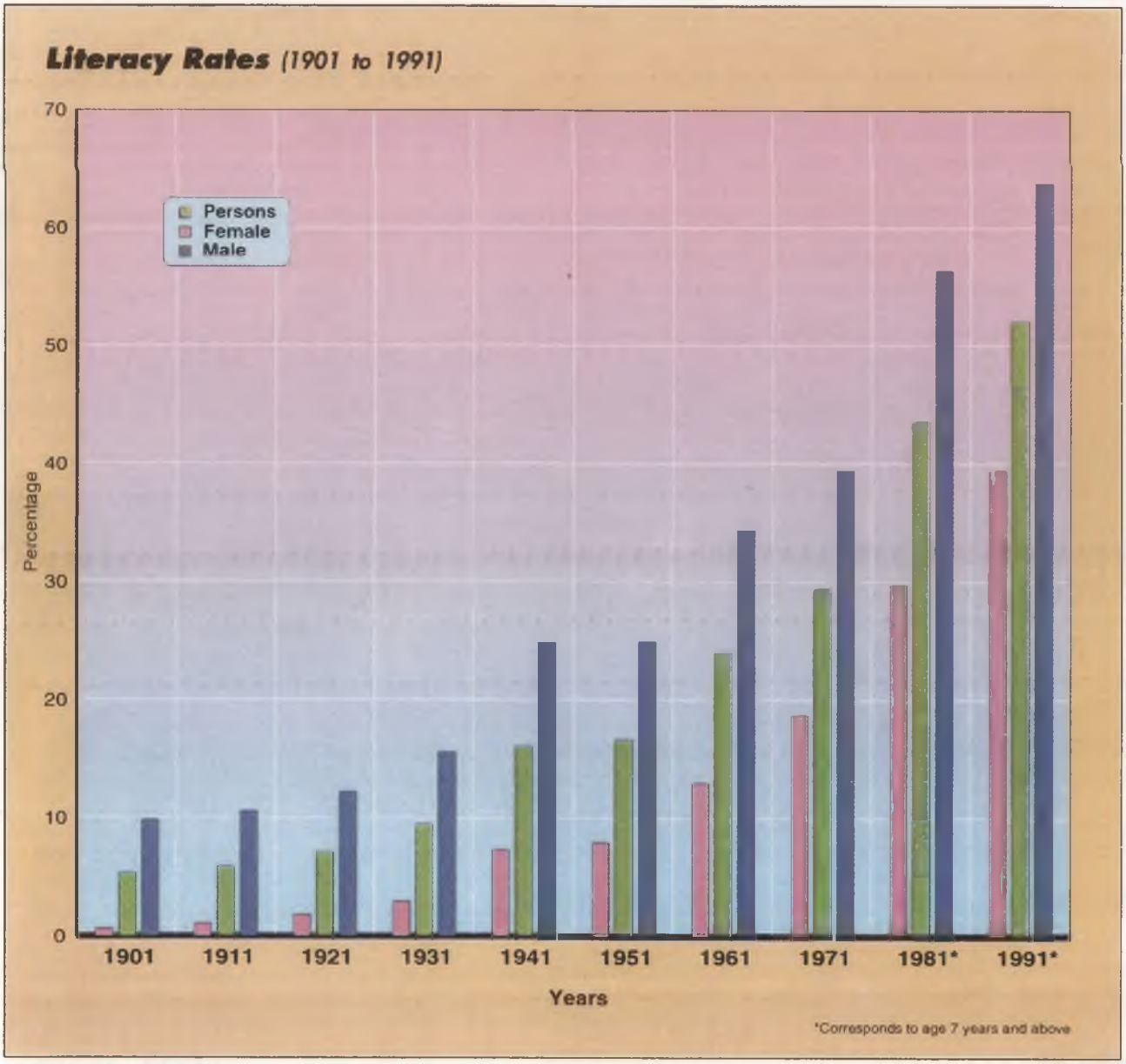
The number of NFE centres in the country increased from



126,000 in 1986 to 238,000 by March 1993, with girls centres increasing from 20,500 to 79,000. Within the same period, enrolment rose from 4 million to 6 million. Over 400 voluntary agencies are participating in the NFE programme. 22 district resource units have been set up for NFE and 36 experimental projects are underway as part of the NFE programme.

New Landmarks and Challenges in Literacy

The decennial census of 1991 augurs well on many counts. For the first time, the number of literate persons in the country was higher than the number of illiterates. Moreover, female literacy increased at a faster pace (10 percent)than male literacy (8 percent). Overall, the literacy rate has recorded an increase from



See Table 17 in Annex.

about 19 percent of the population aged 5 and above in 1951 to 53 percent of the population aged 7 and above in 1991. The rate of female literacy also rose noticeably from 9 percent of the population aged 5 and above in 1951 to 40 percent of the population aged 7 and above in 1991.

The literacy rate among SCs has increased from 22 percent in 1981 to 38 percent in 1991; correspondingly the literacy rate among STs has increased from 17 percent in 1981 to 30 percent in 1991. Inspite of these increases the levels of literacy among SCs and STs are distinctly lower than that of the population as a whole (52 percent). The gender disparity is conspicuous among SCs and STs.

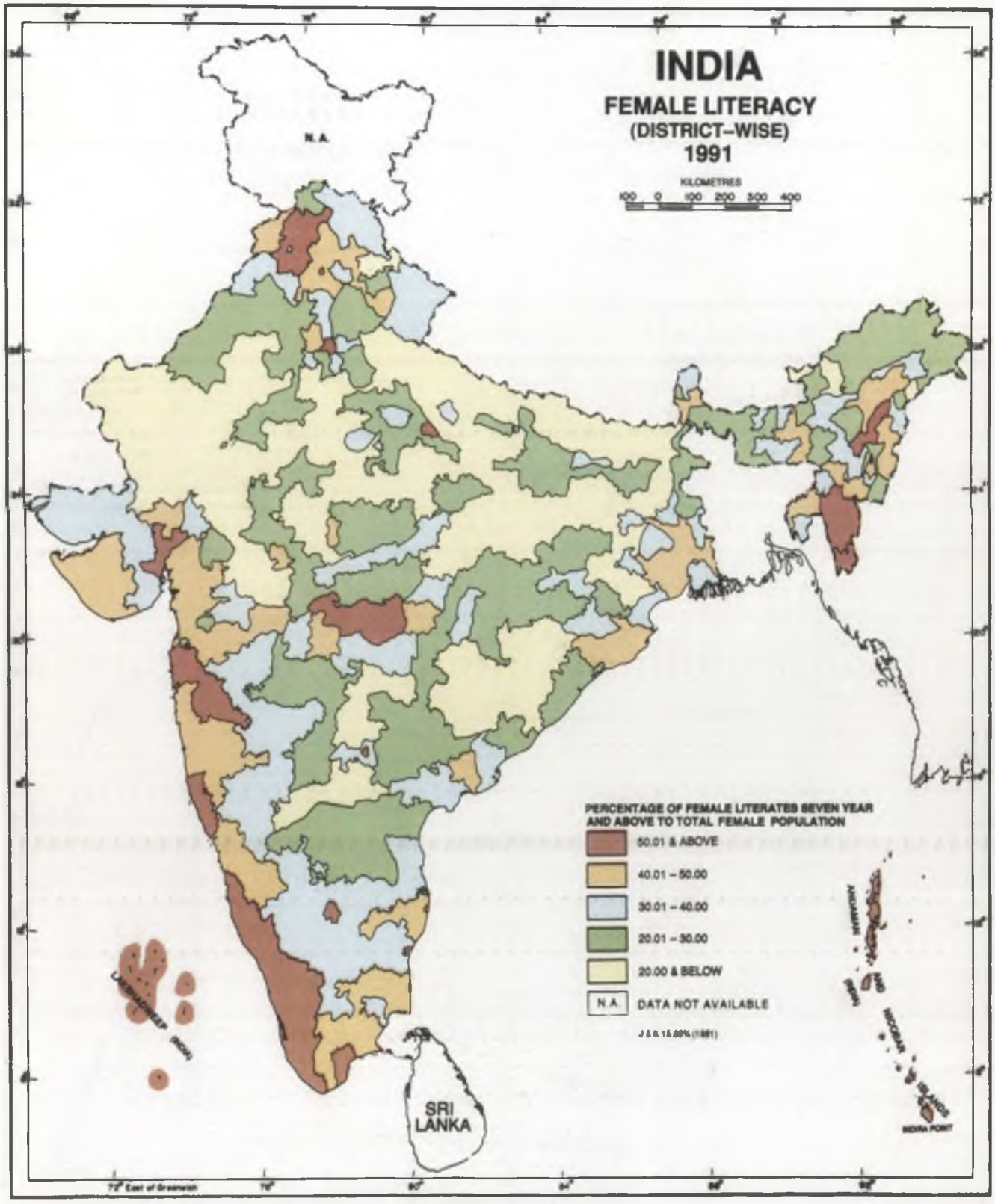
Decade-wise, the index of gender equality, i.e. the proportion of

$$\frac{\text{ratio of female literates to total literates}}{\text{ratio of female population to total population}}$$

which should ideally be 100, improved from 69 in 1981 to 76 in 1991. The rural-urban differential in male literacy declined from 27 percent in 1981 to 26 percent in 1991. However, it is a matter of concern that the rural-urban difference in female literacy has increased. Female literacy varies from 8 percent in Barmer district of Rajasthan to 94 percent in the Kottayam district of Kerala.

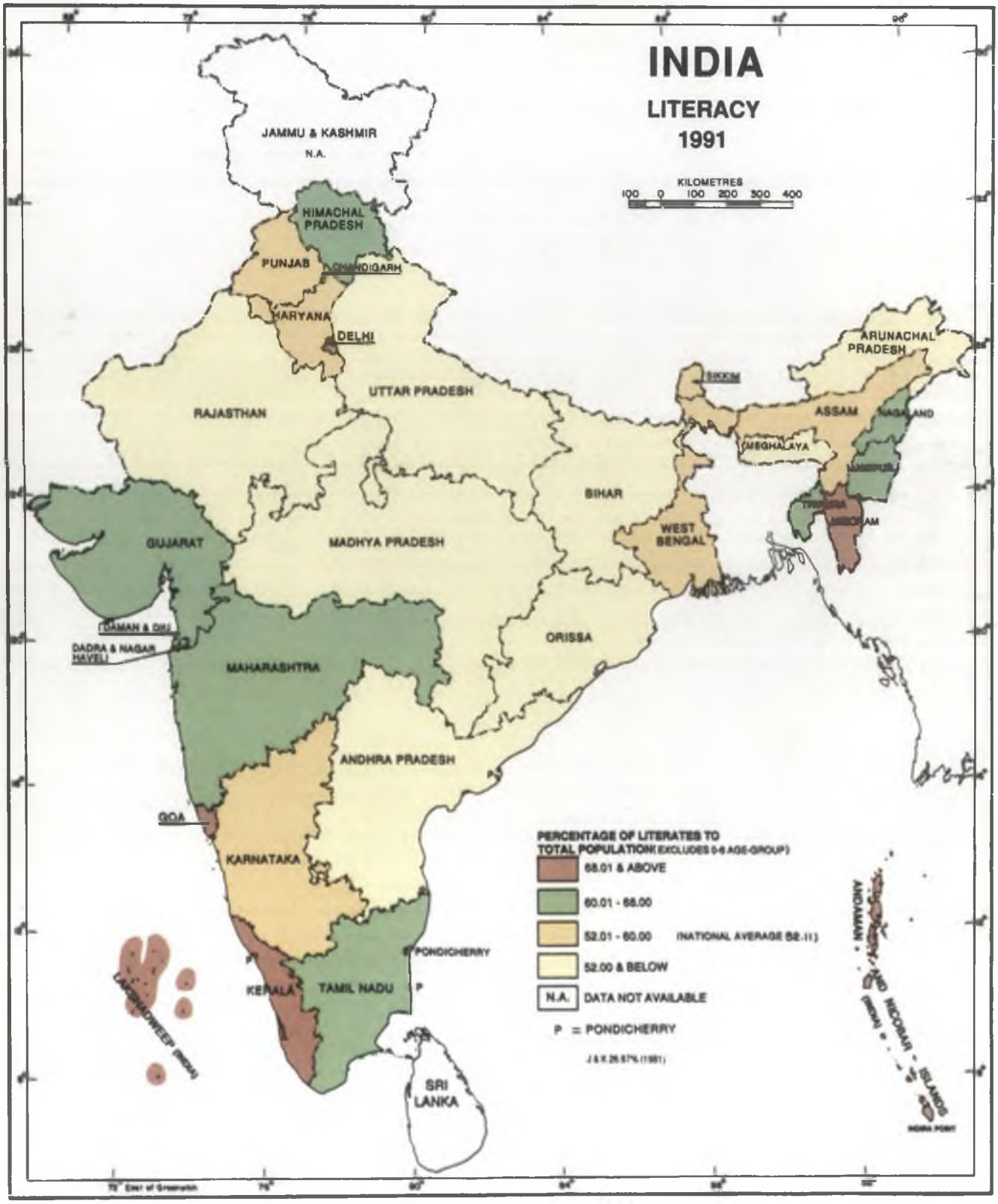
The rural-urban difference in female literacy has increased.

A special focus on the backward states,removal of gender and regional disparities and a sustained emphasis on improvement of facilities,universal enrolment, participation and satisfactory levels of learning rather than the mere provision of facilities are thus pivotal in the endeavour to achieve EFA in the Indian context. ❑



Reference: "Education for All", A graphic presentation, NIEPA–August, 1991

Chart C



Reference: "Education for All", A graphic presentation, NIEPA—August, 1991

Chapter III

EFA and Policy Priorities

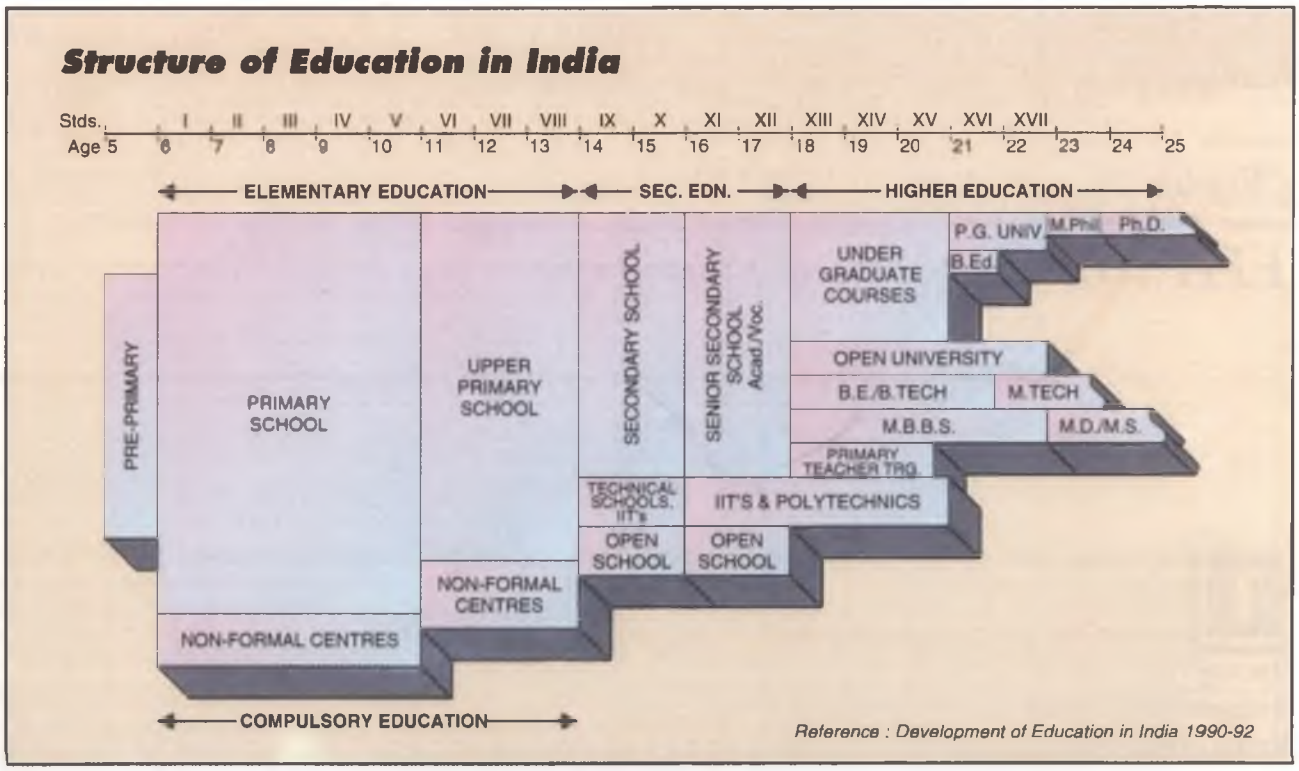
The National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986 is a milestone in Indian education. Based on an in-depth review of the Indian educational system and evolved through a consensual process it provides a comprehensive framework to guide the development of education. The operational effectiveness of the NPE was enhanced by a Programme of Action (POA) incorporating a detailed strategy of implementation, along with the assignment of specific responsibilities and financial and organisational support. The Policy and its POA were updated once again in 1992 through a consensual process involving all state governments, resource organisations and educationists.

Existence of A Fairly Uniform Pattern

The foundations and structure for the prevailing broadly uniform educational pattern all over the country had already been envisaged in the earlier NPE (1968). Eight years of elementary school education are followed by two years of higher secondary education and three years of education for obtaining the first degree. A child is normally admitted to Class I at the age of six and is expected to complete Class V at the age of +11 years, class VIII at the age of +14 years, class X at the age of +16 years and class XII at the age of +18 years.

Some variations in the educational structure can, however, still be found at the school stage. The common structure for the elementary stage, which comprises the primary and upper primary or middle stages, consists of five years of primary schooling followed by three years of upper primary/middle school education. However,in a few states classes I-IV form the primary stage followed by the upper primary stage consisting of classes V-VII. The upper primary stage may be an independent unit or combined with the primary or secondary stages of learning or both.

Five years of primary schooling followed by three years of upper primary school education is a common structure.



Priority to UEE

19 million children are still outside the elementary school system.

The NPE, 1986 policy and its POA give unqualified priority to UEE, adult literacy and education for women's equality; this priority is reflected in the budget allocations during the current Five Year Plan (1992-97). The policy advocates a 'dual track' approach, aimed at simultaneous promotion of adult literacy and primary education, with a pronounced focus on girls, and disadvantaged groups.

Moreover, it shifts the emphasis from enrolment per se to enrolment as well as retention and achievement. As the POA, 1986 pointed out: "enrolment by itself is of little importance if children do not continue beyond one year, many of them not seeing the school for more than a few days".

Despite the outstanding increase in the GER the number of children outside the elementary school system is still 19 million as compared to 49 million in 1951 and 44 million in 1911.

While the sharp decline in non-participants in the post-1978 period coupled with the upward trend of enrolment growth rates are welcome developments, a note of caution has to be struck as the GERs are not adjusted for over-and under-aged children in schools. As a result, even a gross enrolment ratio of more than 100 percent does not mean that primary education is actually universalised.

According to earlier estimates, gross enrolment ratios are about 25 percent higher than net-enrolment ratios that are adjusted for over-and under-aged children at primary level. Hence it may be legitimately argued that the actual enrolment ratio in elementary education may presently be only about 75-

80 and that the out-of-school children in the age group 6-14 can be as high as 24 million. In fact, this could be a plausible estimate given the number of working children as estimated by the 1981 census.

The estimated figures of working children below 14 years of age is 15 million comprising 6 percent of the total child population. The labour participation rate is 6.3 percent in rural areas and 2.5 percent in urban areas. Further over 0.47 percent of children categorised as main workers and 13 percent of marginal workers were attending schools. Effective participation could be lower if one takes consistent attendance into account. As age-specific enrolment is essential for decentralised planning of UEE, efforts are underway to collect age-specific enrolment data through sample surveys as well as through progressive installation of computerised data management systems which would collect age-specific enrolment data also.

Achieving UEE in entirety

Taking a realistic view of the enormous task of achieving UEE in its entirety (access, retention as well as achievement), the NPE envisages free and compulsory education of satisfactory quality for all children up to 14 years of age before the commencement of the twenty-first century.

The NPE also seeks to address the more difficult aspects of access. It was for the first time, in 1986, that an educational policy admitted that the school would not reach all children,particularly millions of girls and working children whose participation in the school system is thwarted by socio-economic parameters. The policy called for a large and systematic programme of Non-Formal Education (NFE) as an integral component of the strategy to achieve UEE. Most of the 31,815 habitations with a populaton of 300 or more but without a primary school within a walking distance of 1 kilometre are situated in educationally backward states such as Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh,Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Assam and Arunachal Pradesh. NFE should, the policy stresses, have quality comparable with formal education but with enough flexibility to enable the learners to learn at their own pace.

NFE has been viewed as an integral strategy to achieve UEE.

Integration of the Gender Perspective in Planning

The policy postulates integration of the gender perspective in all aspects of planning. There is a pronounced policy shift from an equalisation of educational opportunity to education for women's equality. The policy enjoins that the national education system should play a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women, foster the development of new values through redesigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of

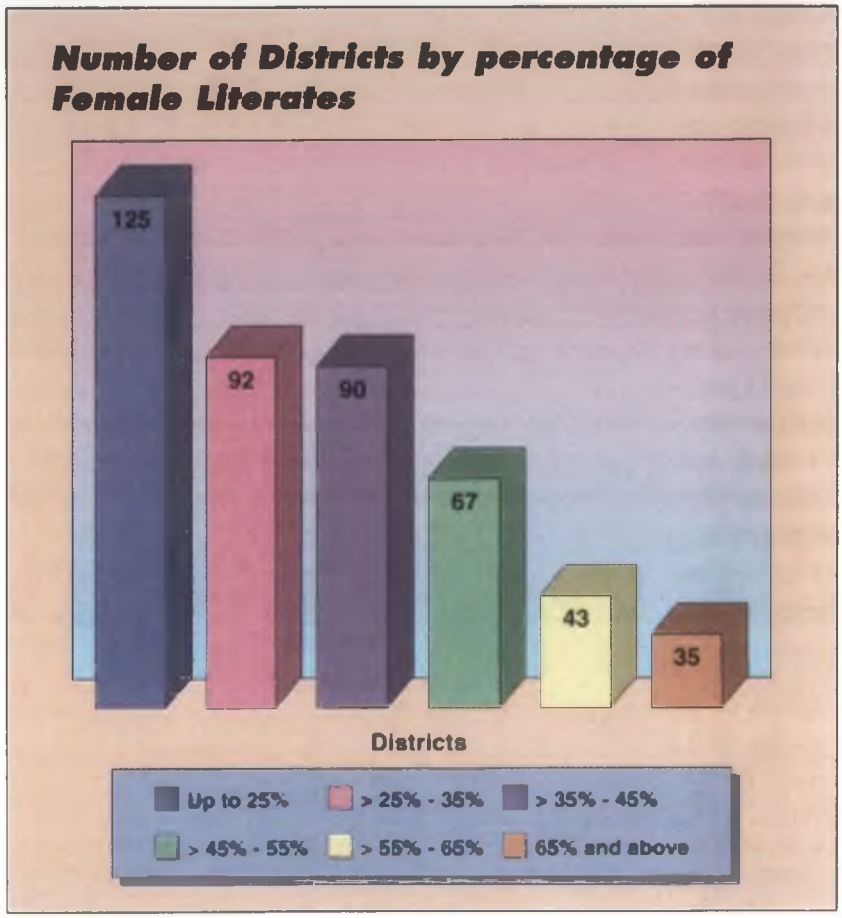
teachers, decision makers and administrators, and the active involvement of educational institutions. The removal of women's illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to, and retention in, elementary education are accorded overriding priority.

Girls Education and Literacy

The NPE, 1986 underlines the need for greater attention to the correlation between girls education and literacy. High female literacy states (above 50 percent) such as Kerala, Goa, Pondicherry and Lakshadweep have by and large universalised primary enrolment among girls. Even in regard to upper primary enrolments these states fare very well. In states with medium female literacy rates (40-50 percent) the enrolment of girls appears to be satisfactory at the primary level but there is a steep fall at the upper primary level. The situation in low female literacy states (20-40 percent) is cause for concern, particularly as more than half of the country's population is to be found in these states, with just four of them (Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan) accounting for 40 percent of the country's population.

Low female literacy states hold more than half the country's total population.

Attention is also drawn in the NPE, 1986 to social segments and regions such as states with relatively low gross enrolment ratios which are more difficult to reach and require a higher intensity of effort, more systematic planning and implementation. Uttar



See Table 18 in Annex.

Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Haryana, Jammu & Kashmir, and Meghalaya are among the states with low GERs. At the upper primary stage too these states, along wth Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa and Sikkim have GERs lower than the national average. Most of these states have literacy rates lower than the national average.

Highlighting Specific Areas of Importance

Important linkages and assertive courses of action are implicitly highlighted by the NPE, 1986:

i. UEE is contextual; contextuality entails local area planning with disaggergated target-setting and decentralised participative planning. The focus shifts from educationally backward states to educationally backward districts.

ii. While financial resources are important and necessary they are not sufficent for achieving EFA. A host of measures, both on the supply side and the demand side, mobilisation of community support and enlisting NGOs are essential for supplementing a higher financial outlay.

The focus has shifted from educationally backward states to educationally backward districts.

iii. The policy recognises an unattractive school environment, unsatisfactory condition of buildings and insufficiency of instructional material as demotivating factors for children and their parents. The policy, therefore, called for a concerted improvement drive for primary schools and provision of support services.

iv. The NPE, 1986 commended the adoption at the primary stage of a child-centred and activity-based process of learning.

v. The NPE, 1986 and its POA postulated a large programme of restructuring of teacher education, pre-service as well as in-service.

vi. The total literacy campaigns (TLCs) with their unique social mobilisation wherein a broad based yet close alliance is forged between the district administration, NGOs and social activists are to be the main vehicle for promoting adult literacy.

vii. The policy shifts from sectoral to a multisectoral approach with convergence of all developmental inputs; the resultant synergy is expected to improve the delivery of services and enhance the efficiency of resource utilisation. Thus in primary education convergence is sought between schooling, child services, nutrition and primary health care and other basic services. In non-formal education and adult literacy, convergence is sought between education and important themes such as population education, immunisation, nutrition and afforestation. ❑

Efforts are being made to combine a multi-sectoral approach with convergence between all development inputs.

NPE and Staite Policies

Statepolicies closely follow the national policies as the states have been closely associated with the formulation of the NPE and its POA. A significant ddevelopment of the 1992 review of NPE and POA has ben thatstates have undertaken to formulate statees POAs aligning the situational imperatives with the ntional policy framework. Several states have alrready come up with their own POAs. In the spirit of cocurrency, states have been associated in thhe formulation and implementation of national progmmes such as Total Literacy Campaigns, Operration Blackboard, teacher education and the new District Prinary Education Programme.

At the Five Year and annual Plans of states have aa minimum needs component which includes adult literay and lementary education. The release of Cerntral assistance for state plans is linked with the perfomance n the minimum needs component.

Incetive Schemes in the State Sector

Incerive schmes of different kinds are already a well eestablished feature of the elementary school system. Thesare alnost entirely in the state sector. The coverrage as revealed by the Fifth All India Educational Survy (1986) indicated that of about 0.53 million primmary schools, no less than about 0.15 million schools werevroviding mid-day meals of some sort to about 144 million children. About 0.25 million schools were provling fre uniforms to 11 million children and aboout 20 million children were getting free textbooks in 0.5 millm schools. At the upper primary level, a little over 10 million children were getting free book. 4 millon were getting free uniforms and 7 milillion some sort of mid-day meal. Education is free for grls up o class XII. Other incentives, includingg scholarships, also exist in different places.

Impetus to Strategies for Achieving MLL

Signficant fforts towards specification of Minimuum Levels of Learning (MLLs) were made by the NCERT durng 1978 in connection with UNICEF-asssisted projects on 'Primary Education Curriculum Renwal' and 'Development Activities in Communiity Education and Participation'. As part of these projcts, a 'Minimum Learning Continuum' was drawn indicating the learning outcomes expected to be ahieved by all children completing classes II, IIII, IV and V. The Primary Education Curriculum Renwal Project was evaluated in 1984 using a set of achievement tests developed for all the primary classes basedon the competencies specified in the Miniimum Learning Continuum. Utilising the empirical evidnce colected through this evaluation study thhe NCERT prepared a useful doucment entitled 'Minimum Levels of Learning at the Primary Stagee'.

Theattempto lay down Minimum Levels of Learning and to take concerted steps to achieve these levels in ustitutions received a fillip after the NPE, 19886. Further impetus was provided by the World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien in March 1990, which emphasised learning achievement. TheReport of a committee set up by the governmennt in 1991 under the Chairmanship of Professor R. H. Dave provides a framework and a coherent strategy for achieving MLLs.

In 1991-92, experimental and innovative projects were taken up for testing the strategies for achvemen of MLL. These cover 3,000 schools anad 250,000 students.

Operation Blackboardd

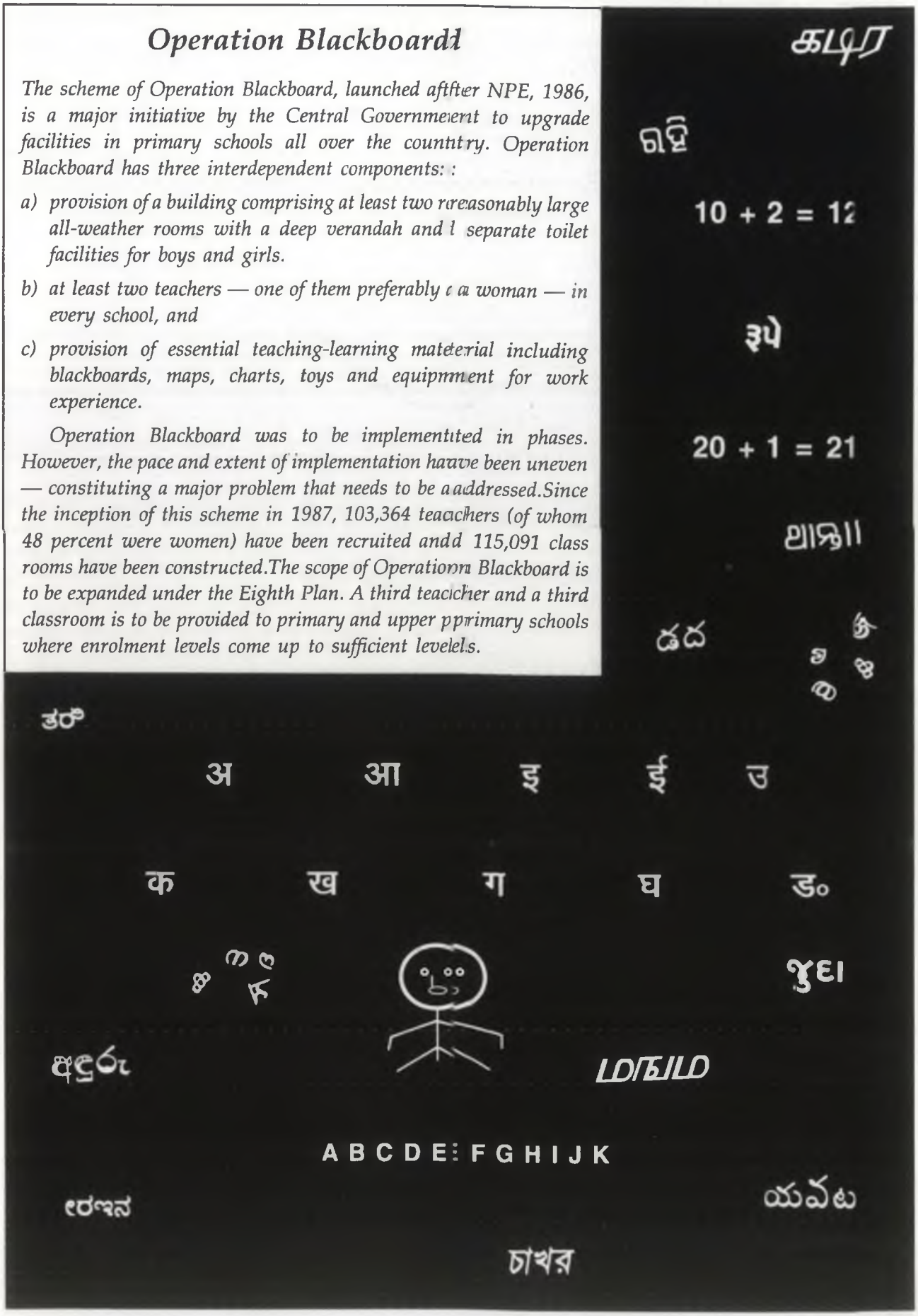
The scheme of Operation Blackboard, launched aftfter NPE, 1986, is a major initiative by the Central Governmeent to upgrade facilities in primary schools all over the countitry. Operation Blackboard has three interdependent components: :

a) provision of a building comprising at least two rreasonably large all-weather rooms with a deep verandah and l separate toilet facilities for boys and girls.

b) at least two teachers — one of them preferably a woman — in every school, and

c) provision of essential teaching-learning mateerial including blackboards, maps, charts, toys and equipmment for work experience.

Operation Blackboard was to be implementted in phases. However, the pace and extent of implementation haave been uneven — constituting a major problem that needs to be aaddressed.Since the inception of this scheme in 1987, 103,364 teaachers (of whom 48 percent were women) have been recruited andd 115,091 class rooms have been constructed.The scope of Operationn Blackboard is to be expanded under the Eighth Plan. A third teaicher and a third classroom is to be provided to primary and upper pprimary schools where enrolment levels come up to sufficient levelels.



EFA - New Dimensiooonns, Strategies and Prograammmmes

NPE, 1986 imparted a sense of urrggeennccy to the long-cherished but elusive goals of UEE, and universaal ll lititeracy, particularly in the age group 15-35. It also broke awayy ff fromm stereotyped confines of thinking and promoted thoughtfull ll intttrospection with a depth and vision that:

(i) transcends institutional preoooccuupations and an exclusive concern for the school systemm, ı, ', anmd

(ii) instead adopts a broader fumcıcıctioomal view of education, as a wide diversity of learning c ooppportunities, as a dynamic, cumulative lifelong process, apppppllyying to all people, but laying special stress on girl childrem ı ı annıd youth, particularly of the disadvantaged sections of socıcıcietyy.

It is this broad-based conceptualissaaatioom of education that underlay its strong emphasis on:

(i) UEE as an urgent priority

(ii) a large, systematic programmue e e of f Non-Formal Education with quality comparable with formmaal ı æducation,

(iii) linkages between ECCE, primaaaryy ıeducation, adult literacy and post-literacy and continuing e e eduuucation,

(iv) professional upgradation of tteeeeachhers, and

v) forging an alliance of teachers,, ı, ı NGOs, voluntary agencies and communities to further the ccaaausseee of elementary education.

Important strategies that have lbbbeeenn developed in recent years include:

(i) the shift to the district as the umiıiiit ooff planning for implementation of elementary education and a aadlulit literacy,

(ii) an increasing reliance on socıaıaal ı mobilisation to promote basic education, and

(iii) integration of adult literacy amnnd ı mon-formal programmes with vital themes such as smalll llll ffamily norms, health care, environment and nutrition.

Chapter IV

Goals and Strategies

Early Childhood Eduuccation

In recent years,the objective of Early Clhhilddldhood Care and Education (ECCE), as stated in the NIPPE,3,3, 1986, has been focused on the total development of ttlthee e young child in the age group 0-6, with special emphasis on cchhililddlcdren belonging to underprivileged groups and first generattitioonm learners. The NPE views ECCE as an important programmeee iiin its own right. The role of ECCE is also envisaged in the ccoontttatext of :

- preparation of children for primary schocobl
- support service for girls in UPE, and
- support service for working women in loww-i-i-income groups.

Holistic in approach, ECCE is aimed att t aatattending to all aspects of the child's development. The comnteerent of ECCE, in addition to the vital and central inputs off f hhhealth care and nutrition, consists of a programme of structuureeced and unstructured play activities, play materials and leaarrniiiing experiences which promote the social, emotional, mentttalll,l,, physical and aesthetic development of the child. The entiree eefeffort is directed towards providing and ensuring a natural, emjajoyyyyable and joyful environment for the child with emphasis on thee nnecessary inputs for proper development and growth.

Early Childhood Education : Enrolment

Year	*Erott*
1950-51	2,0
1965-66	25,0
1986-87	1,27,0
1991-92 (estimated)	3,90,0

Target Groups

The target groups identified by the POA incchluadidle :

- very poor urban slum communities;
- ecologically deprived areas where childreeen a are required to fetch fuel, fodder, water and do other hoouseseehold chores;
- working children in the unorganised sectoor;;
- itinerent, or seasonal labour, who have a mobbiliille and transient life-style, such as road workers;
- construction workers in urban and rural aareeeas;
- landless agricultural labour;
- forest dwellers and tribals in remote areaas;
- residents of remote, isolated hamlets.
- disabled children

The main vehiccle for ECCE is the ICDS, which has the largest outreach and whiich, with planned expansion, will be able to reach 80 percent cof the vulnerable population by the end of the Eighth Plan. The ffollowing steps are being taken to enhance the impact of ICDS :

- Strengthening the pre-school education component of ICDS.
- adapting its loocation, duration and other elements in order to serve as a ssupport service for enrolment, particularly of girls in elemerntary education; and
- adapting its loocation, duration and other elements in order to serve as aı support service for low income working mothers.

Strategies

Strategies to achiieve ECCE objectives are of two types:

a) those concermed with the development of specific ECCE structures andd programmes, and

b) those with appproaches that cut across all programmes and seek to achiewe a convergence of services. Various models based on strructural and organisational approaches and incorporating additional inputs combined with adaptation of the existing prrogammes have been suggested for the deliverry of ECCE.

Various models have been suggested for delivery of ECCE.

(i) ECCE mocdel (0-6 years) attached either to a primary school or tco an NFE centre. In most cases this is, in fact, an ICDS ceentre.

(ii) ECE modeels (3-6 years). This model is mostly found attached tco a primary school, utilising the infrastructure of the schcool system.

(iii) Primary sochool preparation model. This model is an 'applicatiom' of ECE to the existing primary school programmae either through a summer school readiness programmae or a "first month project" covering the new entrants im class I.

Convergence of Services : An Importantt Step

An important step towards strengthening the ECCCE component of the on-going schemes has been to attain a convergence of services between various government departmeents. Apart from the ICDS programme, there are also Balwadiis and day-care schemes managed by the Departments of Woomen and Child Development/Social Welfare and voluntary oorganisations, as well as pre-primary schools run by local boodies and state governments. With a view to achieving syneergies from this convergence the state governments have been reequested to take the following steps :

a) Coordination of timings between primarry schools and Anganwadis/Balwadis centres;

b) Primary school buildings to be used forr Anganwadis/ Balwadis activities wherever possible;

c) Primary school teachers to visit Anganwwadis/Balwadis centres to ensure better enrolment at primaary schools level;

d) Organisations such as The State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT) to be identiified to draw-up pre-school materials and curriculum in localal languages and locally acceptable techniques which could boe used in ECCE activities;

e) Personnel imparting early childhood educatiion to be trained specifically in ECCE component by SCERT and other organisations;

f) To identify institutions which could run ECCE training courses and to provide recognition to thesee courses; and

g) To impress upon all employers to open ECCEE centres at work sites wherever women are employed.

The broad approaches being implemented through diverse institutions and services to enhance emphasis on ECCE include:

(i) The use of mass media to create awareeness about the significance of ECCE and ways of ppromoting child development.

(ii) The involvement of older children in health care and education of younger children through child-to-child activities, including making of toys, participating in creative activities for mental stimulattion, promoting healthy habits, cleanliness and nutritionaal awareness.

These activities are taken up in primary schools, health centres, NFE centres, Bal Bhavans, voluntaary agencies and community centres.

(iii) The involvement of mother/other familyy adults through home-based activities for children's deveelopment. ❑

Broad approaches are being implemented through diverse institutions and services.

Chapter V

Goals and Strategies

Elementary Education

Valuable experience gained in the late eighties while pursuing UEE has led to the formulation of potentially powerful strategies with incisive thrusts and programmes with new dimensions. In the process of evolving effective strategies for UEE, the following factors were recognized:

(i) target setting needs to be comprehensively specified in terms of access, participation and learner's achievements.

(i) national and state targets are not specific enough, and that disaggregated targets need to be set for each district, block and village.

(iii) within each area specific units of planning targets should be set separately for girls and disadvantaged groups.

(iv) ideally the targets should emanate from the grassroots.

Identification of Targets

UEE targets in the Eighth Plan have been identified as:

Access

(i) Universal enrolment of all children, including girls and persons belonging to SCs/STs;

(ii) Provision of primary school for all children within one kilometre of walking distance and the facility of non-formal education for school drop-outs, working children and girls who cannot attend schools;

(iii) Improvement of the ratio of primary school to upper primary school from the existing 1:4 to 1:2, this being a pre-condition for the larger opportunity of widening girls participation at the upper primary stage.

Retention

(iv) Reduction of drop-out rates between classes I to V and I to VIII from the existing 45 percent and 60 percent to 20 percent and 40 percent respectively.

(v) Improvement of school facilities by revamped Operation Blackboard, to be extended to upper primary level also.

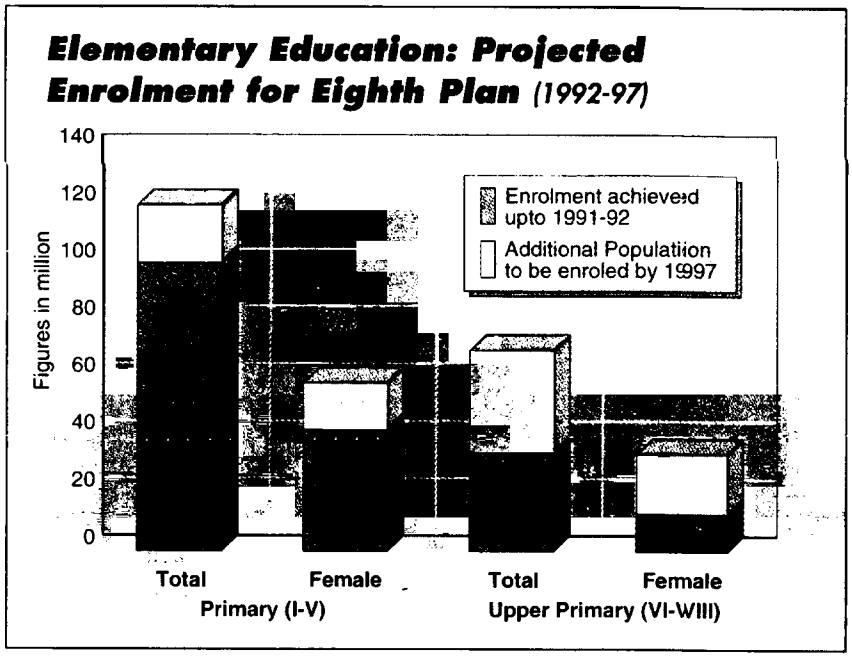
Attainment

(vi) Achievement of minimum levels of learning by approximately all children at the primary level, and introduction of this concept at the upper primary stage on a large scale.

Monitoring

(vii) Local level committee, with due representation to women and teachers, to assist in the working of primary education to oversee its functioning;

(viii) Improvement of the monitoring system for UEE to see to the achievement of the above-mentioned goals.



See Table 19 in Annex.

Planning and Strategies

National experience with the pursuit of UEE has established the following :

The contextuality of UEE varies widely across the country.

(i) UEE is contextual. The contextuality varies widely across the country. Even in states such as Kerala where participation is near universal much requires to be done in respect of quality and achievement. In such states the pursuit of UEE would be mainly in the areas of quality, facilities and achievement. In other states participation and demand aspects need more attention.

(ii) Contextuality entails local area-planning with disaggregated targets and decentralised planning and management. Planning for UEE had hitherto been mainly at the national and state-level. Barring some states and Union territories, these entities are too large and heterogenous for effective planning; they cannot provide contextuality. Ideally the planning should be from below, right from the village upwards but given the objective conditions, a beginning has to be made with the district as the unit of planning. The district plans are to be prepared through an intensive process of interaction with the local bodies, teachers and NGOs so that it is "owned" by all who are to be associated in implementation and so that it reflects the ground-level realities.

(iii) Resources are an important but insufficient condition for achieving UEE.. A host of measures, financial and non-financial, both on the supply side and on the demand side, need to complement higher allocation of resources.

(iv) The strategies for UEE have hitherto emphasised mainly access in terms of construction of classrooms and appointment of teachers. This has been inadequate and needs to be augmented by:

There is a focus on achieving UEE in the specific context of the district.

a. a holistic planning and management approach which goes beyond implementation of a disjointed set of individual schemes, perceives the task of UEE in its totality, integrates all the measures needed to achieving UEE in the specific context of the district;

b. this holistic planning should incorporate a gender perspective in all aspects of the planning and implementation process and be an integral part of all measures needed to achieve UEE.

c. addressing the more difficult aspects of access, particularly access to girls, disadvantaged groups and out-of-school children;

d. improving school effectiveness;

e. strengthening the alternatives to schooling, particularly the non-formal education system;

f. stressing the participative processes whereby the local community facilitates participation,, achievement and school effectiveness;

g. toning up teacher competence, trainiing and motivation;

h. stressing learning competence and acchievement;

i. stressing the need for improved teachhing/learning materials;

j. overhauling of planning and managgement in respect of both routine and innovative areas

k. convergence between elementary edtucation and related services such as ECCE and school heealth.

Consequently, the strategies for the Eiighth Plan adopt a disaggregated approach, with the focus on preparation of district-specific, population-specific plans ffor UEE within the broad strategy frame of micro-planning; through people's participation and introduction of MLLs in schools to improve learner achievement. Micro-planning will provide the framework of universal access and universal particcipation while MLLs would be the strategy frame for universal achievement.

A disaggregated approach has been adopted in strategies for the Eighth Plan.

Micro-Planning: A Framework for UUniversal Access and Participation

Acknowledging that the programme specific approach towards UEE planning has led in the past to a situation in which individual programme targets have taken pprecedence over the basic goals of EFA, micro-planning aims at "a family-wise and child-wise design of action" by which "ewery child regularly attends school or a NFE centre, continues his/her education at a pace suitable to him/her, and completes aat least five years of schooling or its equivalent at the non-formal centre." Basic to such an intensive programme strategy is :

(a) the concept of participative planning, im which the community is mobilised to take responsibilityy for identifying its own needs and is given an assertive rrole in ensuring the successful implementation of programmes, and

(b) a decentralisation of administrative ffunctions to enable local educational personnel to take deccisions in respect of their areas and respond with flexibilityy to the demands of the community.

Steps have been detailed for operationalising micro-planning.

Micro-planning necessarily implies area-sspecific planning, in which the area is ideally a revenue villagge, but practically a block, taluk or district. Within this area, tthe steps by which micro-planning will be operationalised are : :

(i) mobilising community participation through environment building activities,

(ii) decentralising educational administration so that it is accountable to the local community,

(iii) re-orienting and strengthening local level administrative and resource support systems,

(iv) ascertaining educational requirements of the area,

(v) bringing to school all children who can be enroled and providing NFE programmes or other innovative and supportive measures for those who cannot,

(vi) seeing that all children, particularly girls and those belonging to disadvantaged groups, regularly and actually participate in primary education, and

(vii) planning for the improvement of schools or NFE centres so that effective learning can take place.

Pre-eminence has been accorded to participatory approaches .

The primary instrument of organising microlevel planning at the village level would be the Village Education Committee (VEC). In states such as Maharashtra where the Panchayati Raj system has taken root the VEC has been functioning as a committee of the Panchayat and could potentially take on the tasks of micro-planning. The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments hold out the possibility of similar institutional arrangements evolving in rural and urban areas in all the states of the country. It needs to be ensured that these structures are not legalistic but participative, and that they genuinely provide 'voice' to women, persons belonging to SCs and STs, and 'educational functionaries'. Similar village participation structures at the block/taluk level, and at the district level would be the instruments of planning at higher levels of aggregation. The report of CABE Committee on Decentralised Management of Education (1993) has suggested guidelines to the states on the constitution of participative structures.

Decentralisation of the education system holds out the possibility of introducing greater flexibility in the school system through measures such as shifting of school timings and adjusting the school/calender timings to suit the local socio-economic conditions and of improving school effectiveness through community support.

District Planning

The Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) departs from the earlier plans in that the district would be the unit of planning for UEE instead of the state. District specific plans would be developed by the state governments as projects with specific activities, clearly defined responsibilities, definite time--schedules and specific targets. Each district project would be prepared within the major strategy framework and would be tailored to the specific needs and possibilities in the district. Apart from effective UEE, the goals of each project include the reduction of existing disparities in educational access, the provision of alternative systems of comparable standards to the disadvantaged groups, a substantial improvement in the quality of schooling facilities, obtaining a genuine community involvement in the running of schools, and building up local level capacity to ensure effective decentralisation of educational planning. The overall goal of the project is reconstruction of primary education as a whole in selected districts instead of a piecemeal implementation of schemes. Such an integrated approach is expected to achieve synergies among different programme components.

Piecemeal implementation of schemes has been discarded.

Broadly, districts are divided into three categories:

(i) High literacy districts, in which access and enrolment are almost universal and community awareness of the need for education is already high;

(ii) Districts in which total literacy campaigns have been successful leading to an enhanced demand for elementary education; and

(iii) Low literacy districts in which the provision of education facilities is unsatisfactory, the delivery system inadeqauate and community awareness low.

The strategies with regard to access, participation, achievement, environment building, and community particpation are different for the three categories of districts. In the high literacy districts the emphasis is on mopping up the residual unenroled children and on quality and achievement. In districts where TLCs are or have been operational, the strategies to achieve UEE would build upon the community awareness generated in the districts. In low literacy districts the strategies would also cover environment building.

The District Primary Education Programme was launched in 1993.

The District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) launched in 1993 seeks to operationalise the strategy of district level planning. The Programme builds upon the experience gained in:

(i) the implementation of the Bihar Education Project (with UNICEF assistance) and the Lok Jumbish Project (with SIDA assistance);

(ii) the planning of Basic Education Project in Uttar Pradesh (with IDA assistance)

(iii) the implementation of the Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project (with ODA assistance), Shiksha Karmi Project (with SIDA assistance) and Mahila Samakhya (with assistance from the Government of the Netherlands).

In the BEP as well as the UP projects, investment is concentrated in the chosen districts and district specific investment is complemented by a few state level interventions such as strengthening of state level institutions. The Programme goes beyond the UP and Bihar projects in:

(i) placing emphasis on local area planning with the district plans being formulated in their own right rather than being derived from a state plan project document;

Emphasis is being laid on more focused targetting.

(ii) emphasising greater rigour and infusion of professional inputs in planning and appraisal;

(iii) more focused targetting in that the districts selected would be :

a. the 247 educationally backward districts with female literacy below the national average; and

b. districts where TLCs have been successful leading to enhanced demand for elementary education;

(iv) more focussed coverage in that the Programme would initially concentrate on the primary stage (classes I-V and its NFE equiivalent), with stress on education for girls, and for socially disdvantaged groups; and

(v) emphasis on capacity building and networking of district, state and national level institutes in the fields of education, managmentt and social sciences to provide the resource support for the programme.

To begin with, projects are being formulated in 43 districts in the eight states of Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Assam, Haryana, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Kerala. The objective is to gradually extend the coverage to all the districts which satisfy one of the twin criteria for coverage. The attempt would be to start the Programme in at least 110 districts in the Eighth Plan with an estimated outlay of Rs. 195 million of which Rs 172 million are proposed to be drawn from external sources.

APPROACHES FOR NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

NFE programmes, as a major government sponnsored effort, are comparatively new to elementary education, having started in the Sixth Plan (1980-85). Following the NPE, 19986 the scheme of non-formal education was revised. NFE has beeen visualised as a child-centred and environment-oriented syssstem to meet the diverse educational needs of the comparativeely deprived geographical areas and socio-economic sections oof society; it also seeks to provide for organisational flexibilitity, relevance of curriculum, diversity in learning activites to rrelate them to the learners' needs and decentralised management.t. The programme is being implemented on a project basis, generrally co-extensive with the community development block, eachh project having about 100 NFE centres. Many measures are bbeing adopted to further strengthen this Scheme. These includee :

NFE is being implemented on a project basis. Each project covers abot 100 NFE centres.

(i) linking the setting up of NFE with micro-pblanning exercises and effective decentralisation of project nmanagement;

(ii) involvement of the community in the setting-up and supervision of NFE centres, in the identificcation of the NFE instructors within the community, with a preference being given to women instructors;

(iii) strengthening training component and crreation of a training infrastructure through networking. (Training responsibility will be shared by NFE project, distrtrict level institutions such as District Institutes of Educatition and Training (DIETs) and District Resource Units (DRRUs), state level institutions such as SCERT, and National I Institutes such as National Council of Education Researcch and Training (NCERT) and National Institute of Educaational Planning and Administration (NIEPA);

(iv) relating pupil evaluation to MLLs;

(v) facilitating lateral entry for students of the NFE stream into the formal stream;

(vi) linkages between non-formal courses witlth open schools;

(vii) providing avenues of continuing educatiion through linkages with the public libraries and Jana Shhiksha Nilayams.

Some experimental and innovative NFE projects are being carried out by NGOs.

The emergence of Total Literacy Campaigns s has provided an important alternative avenue of non-formaal education for children in the age group 9-14; the efficacy of this avenue can be related to the intense social mobilisation. Thirty nine NGOs are engaged in experimental and innovative projects of NFE. Two innovative projects of NFE stand out :

a. the Shiksha Karmi project which seeks to taackle the problem of teacher 'absenteeism' in remote villages iin Rajasthan state by substituting primary school teachers with a team of voluntary education workers or Shiksha Kaarmis selected by the community.

b. An interdisciiplinary, action-reasearch project, PROPEL (Promoting Primary and Elementary Education), is an experiment to liberate the creative energies of the rural masses for an integrated local effort towards development. Conducted by the Indian Institute of Education, Pune, PROPEL covers 137 contiguous villages, about 18,000 households and 110,000 population. 'Transparency' in all educational operations is the core of this community mobilisation project which has been selected by UNESCO as a 'show-case' project for Asia.

MLLs: Framework for Universal Achievement

Basic education learning outcomes are being laid down at a realistic, relevant and functional level.

The strategy to improve learning acquisition in school focuses attention on what is happening in the classroom, and seeks to bring the principles of equity and quality to bear upon it. The strategy aims to lay down learning outcomes expected from basic education at a realistic, relevant and functional level, prescribes the adoption of measures that would ensure that all children who complete a stage of schooling achieve these outcomes. These outcomes define the Minimum Levels of Learning common to both school and the equivalent NFE programme.

The main steps by which MLLs are being introduced in schools are:

(i) an assessment of the existing level of learning achievement;

(ii) a definition of the MLLs for the area and the time-frame within which it will be achieved;

(iii) reorientation of teaching practices to competency-based teaching;

(iv) an introduction of continuous comprehensive evaluation of student learning;

(v) review of the textbooks and their revision, if required;

(vi) the provision of inputs as necessary including provision of physical facilities, teacher training, supervision and evaluation, etc.,, to improve learning acquisition to the MLLs.

The endeavour is to monitor learning achievement to direct greater resources where levels of learning are lower, and to consciously accelerate the pace of development in the needy areas, thereby to reduce disparities, equalise standards and govern inputs for quality improvement by the performance of the system.

STRATEGIES FOR THE DISADVANTAGED

The general strategies and programmes of UEE need to be supplemented by those specially designed for target groups such as girls, SCs and STs, and the physically handicapped.

Girls: Bridging the Gap

The gap between boys and girls participation in elementary education is the biggest single gap that needs to be filled for universalisation. The problem of UEE is, in essence, the problem of the girl child. The gender disparity, particularly in the rural areas, reflects the discriminatory social attitude to the girl child. While the solution for this problem does not lie entirely in the educational system, education can and should play a positive interventionist role in the improvement of women's status. Both demand and supply side interventions are called for to improve girls participation. The interventions have to be attitudinal as well as monetary. The main demand side interventions have been:

Both demand and supply side interventions are called for to improve girls participation

(i) Programmes for awareness generation among women, amongst which the most successful and reputed is the Mahila Samakhya — a women's empowerment project which does not aim at service delivery but seeks to bring about a change in women's perception about themselves and that of society in regard to women's 'traditional roles'.

The programme is being implemented in 14 districts, spread over the four states of Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Gujarat and Andhra Pradesh. Mahila Samakhya has played a lead role in the Total Literacy Campaign in the districts of Gujarat and Karnataka and is engaged in providing alternattive avenues of education such as NFE in Uttar Pradesh.

(ii) incentive schemes which reduce the direct costs of education. Incentive schemes of different kinds are already a well established feature of the elementary school system. These are almost wholly funded by the states. The coverage and extent vary widely. In all states, education is free up to class XII for girls. Many states also provide incenttives by way of uniforms, free textbooks and stationery and attendance allowance. A remarkable scheme for mobilising community support is the Savitri Bhai Phule Foster Child Scheme in Maharashtra;

(iii) linkages between schools with ECCE centres and creches.

The main supply side interventions have been :

(i) Gender sensitisation of the education system and its functionaries so that gender concern is reflected across the board in all educational programmes, more particularly in the area of basic education. The Department of Women's Studies of the NCERT has been playing a commendable

role in gender sensitisation; it is actively associated with the revision of school textbooks for elimination of gender bias.

(ii) Recruitment of more female teachers: The proportions of women teacherss have been increasing gradually. In 1986-1987, 40 percemt of the primary school teachers were women as compared to 15 percent in 1950-1951. The corresponding proportions for the upper primary stage were 31 and 15 percent respectively. Under the Operation Blackboard scheeme, 59 percent of the teachers appointed were women. There is, however, a concentration of women teachers in urban areas and inter-state disparities are conspicuous. In 1986-87 the proportion of women elementary teachers was about 21 percent in rural areas as compared to about 56 percent in urban areas. At the primary stage, the percentage of female teachers in rural areas ranged from 10 percent in Madhya Pradesh to 61 percent in Kerala among major states. At the upper primary stage, the corresponding range was 8 percent in Orissa to 58 percent in Kerala. The problem is more basic as rural girls do not gett as far as secondary education to become eligible for entry into primary teachers training institutions. In 1986-87, for every 100 rural girls in class I only one was in class XII. Appropriate policies should be applied to increase secondary education and teacher-training opportunities for rural girls.

Urban areas tend to have more women elementary teachers than rural areas.

(iii) Effective NFE programmes.

Equalising Educational Opportunities for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

The central focus in the SCs' educational development is their equalisation with the non-SC population at all stages and levels of education, in all areas and in all the four dimensions — rural male, rural female, urban male and urban female.

The measures contemplated for this purpose include :

(i) Incentives to indigent families to send their children to school regularly till they reach the age of 14;

(ii) Pre-matric scholarship scheme for children of families engaged in occupations such as scavenging, flaying and tanning to be made applicable from class I onwards. All children of such families, regardless of income levels will be covered by this scheme and time-bound programmes targetted on them will be undertaken;

(iii) Constant micro-planning and verification to ensure that the enrolment, retention and successful completion of courses by SC students do not fall at any stage, and provision of remedial courses to improve their prospects for further education and employment.

(iv) Recruitment of teachers from Schedulled Castes;

(v) Provision of facilities for SC students iin students hostels at district headquarters, according to a ı phased programme;

(vi) Location of school buildings, Balwadis s and adult education centres in such a way as to facilitate fulll participation of the Scheduled Castes;

(vii) Constant innovation in finding new ı methods to increase the participation of the Scheduled Castttes in the educational process.

The following measures would be taken ı urgently to bring the Scheduled Tribes on par with others :

(i) The socio-cultural milieu of the STs's has its distinctive characteristics including, in many caseees, their own spoken languages. This underlines the need to c develop the curricula and devise instructional materials in triribal languages at the initial stages, with arrangements for swswitching over to the regional language. The Central Insititute e of Indian Languages, Mysore and the Tribal Research Institutees in many states have been playing an important role in this ı area.

Special measures have been designed to bring Scheduled Tribes on par with others.

(ii) Educated and promising Scheduled TTribe youths will be encouraged and trained to take up teaaching in tribal areas.

(iii) Residential schools, including Ashraam schools, will be established on a large scale as their effffectiveness has been demonstrated in many states.

(iv) Incentive schemes are being formulatted for the Scheduled Tribes, keeping in view their special nneeds and life styles. Scholarships for higher education will e emphasise technical, professional and para-professional coourses. Special remedial courses and other programmes ı to remove psychosocial impediments will be provideed to improve their performance in various courses.

(v) Anganwadis, non-formal and adult eeducation centres are being opened on a priority basis in aareas predominantly inhabited by the Scheduled Tribes.

(vi) The curriculum at all stages of educatiion is being designed to create an awareness of the rich culultural identity of the tribal people as also of their enormouus creative talent.

Steps for Universal Enrolment of Disabled Children

POA, 1992 seeks to achieve universal enrolment of disabled children by the end of the Ninth Plan :

- in general schools wherever possible
- in special schools
- in special sections of general schools for c children who require such special education.

It also envisages reduction of dro-pout rates among disabled children to bring them on par with general drop-out rates by :

- adjustment and adaptation of curriculum and teaching to the special needs of the children and
- reorienting pre-service and in-service teachers training programmes.

Education of disabled children is a component in the training of educational planners, administrators, pre-service and in-service teachers.

The strategy of area-specific and population-specific micro-planning for UEE is equally relevant for this disadvantaged group. Planning for UEE and adult literacy at all levels — centre, state, district, block and project — should provide for the educational needs of disabled children.

Education of children with disability is a component in the training of educational planners and administrators as well as pre-service and in-service teachers. (DIETs), Colleges of Teacher Education (CTEs) and Institutes of Advanced Study Education (IASEs), which have been provided facilities for this component, pay particular attention to this aspect of teacher training. While drawing up schemes for strengthening SCERTs, constitution of cells for education of the handicapped will be considered as envisaged in Integrated Education for the Disabled Children (IEDC).

All the DIETs to be established by the end of the Eighth Plan are to have a resource room and trained faculty to teach the essential component of education of children with disability. They would allso run orientation programmes for teachers from lab areas and practising schools to establish field demonstration of IEDC programme. The SCERTs would support field demonstrations under the scheme of IEDC. Similar action is suggested for the 250 CTEs and 50 IASEs. The budget provision is available in the scheme itself. The pre-service training curriculum would induct essential components in these areas, wherever it has not been done so far.

All in-service teachers should receive awareness inputs on education of children with disability in orientation programmes. In each area/institution where IEDC is implemented all teachers receive orientation as envisaged in the scheme of IEDC. The heads of institutions and educational administrators would also receive training. Considering the large numbers to be covered, the Indira Gamdhi National Open University and NCERT should plan credit courses on special education to equip general teachers to meet special needs. The NCERT will provide training to the IEDC cell staff. Multi-category training of resource teachers would be encouraged in UGC supported programmes.

Curriculum Flexibility for Disabled Children

Curriculum flexibility is of special significance for disabled children. The special needs of these children will be met if child-centred education is practised. The curriculum adjustment and

adaptation of teaching methods and material wouuld be worked out, field-tried and provided to the users. The foollowing steps have been taken :

(i) Guidelines for child-centred education, incl:luding special needs in the class room, are being developed ; at the NCERT.

(ii) Guidelines for adjustment of curriculum andd instructional material and methods for visually and hoearing handicapped at primary level have been developed. These would be made available to teachers. Work for uppeer primary and secondary school level will be started and commpleted by the end of 1994.

(iii) The achievement of Minimum Levels of ' Learning by children with mild disabilities are being enssured through resource support and alternative learning maaterial, wherever needed.

(iv) The Boards of Examination would make addjustment and adaptations in examination for the handicappped children.

(v) Study of more than one language should noot be compulsory for deaf children.

(vi) Special efforts are being made by the Nationaal Institute of Handicapped (NIH) and the NCERT to deveelop an action programme to improve access of disabled chhildren to the important areas of Science and Mathematicss.

(vii) Child-to-child help in education of children wwith disability is an effective resource in view of largee classes and multigrade teaching. NCERT would develop aa package and make it available to teachers by the end of 11993.

(viii) The special learning aids and equipment suuch as braille books, braille kit and audiovisual materiaal are being developed and made available to schools bby NIHs and NCERT.

An action programme is being developed to improve access of disabled children t) the important area; of Science and Mathematics.

Integrated Education for Disabled Children ((IEDC) is the main scheme for promoting work of disabled children in selected schools. The POA, 1986 target of increasiring enrolment of children by 25 percent per year was achieved ; as enrolment of disabled children in general schools increased fifrom 15,000 to 30,000. Subject to availability of resources, thee cumulative enrolment would reach 50,000 by the end of the Eighth Plan. An additional 100,000 children with mild disabilitiies are being provided resource support from teachers and learrning aids and equipment.

TEACHER TRAAAINING

Teacher performaiannnce is the most crucial input in the field of education.In the uiltihltimate analysis policies have to be interpreted and implemeted dd by teacherrs, as much through personal example as throughlglglh teaching-learning processes. Teacher selection and training, cc competence, motivation and the conditions of work have a directctct effect on tteachers' performance. The NPE, 1986 calls for a stustubstantial improvement in the conditions of work and the quaiaiality of teachhers' education. The policy also emphasises the ttetteachers' accountability to the pupils, their parents, the commmmunity and tto their own profession.

A major institutuutional interwention, after NPE, 1986 was the setting up of Diisisistrict Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) to providlelde quality pre-service and in-service education to elementary teaaeaachers and functionaries engaged in adult education and NINFE. Eventuallly DIETs are expected, in their jurisdiction, to prorcrovide academic and resource support to basic education and alssosco to engage iin action research and innovation. As of now, DIETss s s are being sett up in 346 districts out of the 462 districts in the cc country; in 190 districts DIETs are already conducting trainiiniiing programmes. It is proposed to set up 450 DIETs by the endl d l of the Eighth Plan (1997-98). Efforts are afoot to strengthen the SCERTs so that they can provide the resource back up.

District Institutes of Education and Training have been setup to provide quality pre-service and in-service education to teachers and functionaries.

A Bill is uncddder consideration of Parliament to vest the National Councill d l of Teacher Education (NCTE) with statutory powers for deterrermination amd maintenance of standards of teacher educationorm. This meassure is expected to improve the quality of pre-serrervice trainingg, and upgradate the syllabi and curricula of teachhher training programmes.

Expansion anddd 'Upgradation' of Facilities

The existing plaiannning norms envisage provision of a primary school within omeone kilometre's walking distance of habitations with a populationorm of 300; in remote, hilly and desert areas the population norm in a is lowered to 200. It is estimated that according to these norms 33 35,000 new schools need to be established in unserved habitattitations during the Eighth Plan.

Populations iinirin very small habitations where schools would not be viable wouoould be reached by alternative channels such as NFE centres, vovoluntary schools operated by NGOs, para-teachers as in tthe Shiksha Karmi scheme and provision of residential schoolobls facilities. Opening of residential schools is an important strateeeegy in tribal tracts with scattered miniscule habitations.

In order to imncrease enrolments at the upper primary stage, the infrastructurerre at this stage will be expanded. The existing norm of providlidiling an upper primary school within 3 kms of

walking distance is generally inconvenient for poor girls. This norm will be relaxed progressively so that the ratio between primary and upper primary schools will be 2:1.

Taking evaluation studies into account the Operation Blackboard Scheme was revised in the NPE (1992) so as to :

(i) provide flexibility to schools in providing teaching-learning materials relevant to their curriculum and local needs;

(ii) dovetail the scheme with microplanning wherever undertaken, so that supply of inputs is matched by demand side interventions to promote participation;

(iii) intensify training in the use of teaching-learning equipments;

(iv) extend the scheme to upper primary schools. ❑

Learning by All Children Multisite Action Research Project

The teacher educators and selected school principals were provided five-day training in active learning approaches using the material developed for the teacher education resource pack. It was followed by one day's practice with new material. On the seventh day action research projects were planned in three contexts:

(a) Pre-service training context

(b) In-service training context

(c) Whole school improvement

(i) with external intervention

(ii) without external intervention

The teacher educator and principals used the active learning approach in training teachers and simultaneous use of the approach in classrooms. The teachers assessed perceptions of children about learning-teaching in the classroom and learning achievements. The action research coordinators assessed learning-teaching attitude of teachers and the transfer of the learnt active-learning-based approach to classroom practice.

The significant outcomes of the multilevel Multisite Action Research Project were:

1. *The process of teaching can be changed through continuous inservice training accompanied by action research.*
2. *The active learning approach changes attitude of teachers and pupils to learning and teaching.*
3. *The pupils's change in perceptions about learning teaching improves learning achievement significantly.*
4. *Inservice gains and innovative practices can be institutionalised through multilevel action research.*

Multisite Action Research Project Report, NCERT, New Delhi, 1993

GYANA JYOTI

A Teachers' Movement for Universalising Primary Education in Orissa

'Gyaan Jyoti" — the 'flame of knowledge', the 'torch of wisdom' — was an innovative movement spearheaded by Teachers Associations in the state of Orissa. The statewide movement, launched in 1992, was aimed at:

- creating awareness among the teachers community and the general public about the importance of achieving universalisation of primary education and
- mobilising them to contribute towards attaining the goals of universalisation of primary education in Orissa.

After series of discussions, the office bearers of sixteen Teachers Organisations committed themselves to work jointly for universalisation of primary education in the state. As a first step, the teachers organised a state level convention on Teachers Day, 5th September, 1992. Five thousand delegateachers attended the Convention and took a pledge to work hand in hand to universalise primary education by the year 2000, and to enrol an additional 500,000 children in primary schools by the end of 1993.

The 'Gyana Jyoti'" was lit at the Convention, and carried by teachers, began a journey which ultimately covered five thousand kilometres spanning seventeen districts in Orissa. Everywhere, the torch received a warm and enthusiastic welcome from thousands of people — children, teachers and the local populace. More than five hundred public meetings were conducted enroute. At these meetings, leaders of the Teachers Organisations appealed to the public to enrol their children in primary schools, ensure regular attendance and completion of at least five years of primary schooling. The leaders also called upon everyone to participate actively in environment building activities and support the drive to attain the goals of EFA/PE.

The state government extended full support to the Gyan Jyoti movement, encouraging both children and teachers to participate in the movement, while the media provided extensive coverage. Perhaps the most striking feature of the movement was the support it received from the industrial and the political sectors.

Historical in Many Ways

The movement can be considered to be a historical one in many ways. After travelling for seventy days, from 5th September to 14th November, 1992, the Gyan Jyoti reached Bhubaneswar, the capital of Orissa. A massive function attended by over fifty thousand school teachers and female health workers was organised in the capital on 14th November. For the first time, both health workers and teachers joined hands and expressed a desire to work jointly to achieve the goals of Universalisation of Primary Education and Health for All by the year 2000.

A detailed 'future action plan' subsequently prepared by the Teachers Organisations was finalised at a workshop held in December 1992. The plan was focused on:

- the need to create greater awareness about universalisation of primary education by organising state level Conventions involving primary school teachers, health workers and panchayat leaders;
- house to house surveys to enumerate the number of children in the school going age group and to enrol them in schools by the next academic year.

The action plan also included steps on how to arrest teachers 'absenteeism' and drop-out rates, how to achieve minimum levels of learning and measures for creating a congenial appropriate learning environment in primary schools. Stress was laid in the plan on issues such as strategies and interventions required for improving enrolment, retention and learning rates among Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and girl children in primary schools.

The major challenge in the period ahead lies in sustaining and keeping the "Gyan Jyoti" movement alive — amongst the teachers community and the general public in rural Orissa — till every child in the state is enrolled in primary schools and completes at least five grades with minimum levels of learning. If the movement meets this challenge, it could be the precursor of similar movements in other states as well.

National Curricular Framework

The NPE, 1986 envisaged a national system of education based on a national curricular framework containing a common core along with the academic components. The NPE/POA envisaged a child-centred approach to education to promote universal enrolment and universal retention of children up to 14 years of age and substantial improvement in the quality of education in the school. In pursuance of NPE/POA, the NCERT brought out in 1988 a National Curricular Framework for all stages of school education. The revised curriculum took into account the need for reduction of curriculum load, keeping in view the requirements for modernisation and relevance.

Following the guidelines in the National Curricular Framework, the NCERT revised the entire school syllabi and brought out revised textbooks for classes I to XII. Based on the national curricular framework and the NCERT syllabi/textbooks, the state and Union Territories have also undertaken measures of curriculum renewal and development of new textbooks for different stages of school education for their introduction into the school system in a phased manner.

Curriculum transaction uses child-centred approach using play material. Science and mathematics kits have been developed and are supplied to schools. These, along with locally available learning material, form teaching resource in schools.

An innovative project for meeting educational needs of all children in the class room has been evolved as a design model of in-service training with in-built transfer of training effects to classroom practice and the effective use of action research as means of institutionalisation of an innovation. The Multisite Action Reserch Project (MARP) evolved the concept of inclusive school, the school which effectively responds to the educational needs of all children. The project was conducted in 22 locations involving 338 experienced teachers, 248 pre-service teachers and 9866 pupils in 115 schools. The experience gained from this project is being incorporated in the basic education projects. These are also finding a place in the teacher training programmes.

Environmental Studies

For the first five years of schooling, comprising primary education, a specific subject of environmental studies has been introduced in the national curriculum framework. This subject includes rudiments of Geography, Science and other natural phenomena relevant to the surroundings of the child. From the sixth to the eighth year of schooling (upper primary category), environment is taught as a distinct subject in some states while in most other states teaching of the subject is an integrated enterprise with environmental concerns infused in various subjects. This 'orientation' approach is invariably in vogue at the higher stages of schooling and college and university sectors.

In the field of adult and non-formal education, in preparation of reading and learning materials, special emphasis is laid on including environmental information.

Decentralisation and CCCommunity Involvement

With the enactment of the 73rd and 74th AAAmeemdment Act (Panchayati Raj Act), 1992, the focus is now concentrated on democraticaxaallyy elected bodies at the district, sub-district, panchayat and municipal levels. These Panchchhayyati Raj bodies, which are to have adequate representation of women, Scheduled Castes s s anaal Scheduled Tribes, minorities, representatives of parents, educationists, and appropriatte institutions, will have the responsibility of preparing development plans and implololdemnenting educational programmes besides dealing with subjects closely related to educatitattionn such as health, social welfare and women and child development.

Action at the State Level

State governments have initiated the estctataablliishment of structures for decentralised planning and management and are in the prprroccess of drawing up appropriate legislation which provides for Panchayati Raj Committeteeees for Education. Comprehensive guidelines are being finalised to spell out clearly the rrreelaationship between states and district level bodies in relation to administrative and finmmaanacial control, personnel management, and recruitment of teachers.

The breadth and scope of the Panchayati i i Raaji Act provides an exceptionally 'enabling' framework for viable strategies and interverrnntiooms that could play a commanding role in promoting EFA.The responsibilities vested wwwithh the district level body, for instance, cover planning which includes, inter alia, area ddddevoeelopment, spatial planning, instituitional planning, administrative and financial contitrtrol l and personnel management with respect to primary, middle, secondary and higher secccccconadlary schools and educational programmes.

The district level body will also implemmmmenntt, supervise and monitor all educational programmes, including non-formal and adululult education. Besides it will draw upon the expertise of DIET and other institutions for r r s sulubstantive curricular and pedagogic inputs into district level programmes of EE, NFE d d anadl AE. From the district level, the process of decentralisation percolates to the village e e levvel.

Village Education Committees

The Panchayati Raj Act envisages the formmmuatiiom of panchayats for a village or a group of villages. The panchayats will have electctctedd representatives. Each panchayat would constitute a Village Education Committee e e (VVIEC) which would be responsible for the administration of education programmes at t t thae village level. The major responsibility of the VECs would lie in operationalisation of f f micro-level planning and school mapping in the village through systematic house to hcioioousse surveys and periodic discussions with parents. Ensuring participation in primary e e eeduccation of every child in every family would be one of the prime aims of the VECS.

Chapter VI

Goals and Strategies

Adult Literacy

Recent years have witnessed unprecedented activity on a massive scale in the sphere of adult literacy. Following NPE 1986 the Central Government set up the National Literacy Mission (NLM) in 1988 for eradication of illiteracy in the target age-group of 15-35 years. NLM was conceptualised after a critical assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the earlier adult education programmes, including the Farmer's Functional Literacy Programme, Functional Literacy for Adult Women (FLAW), Non-Formal Education for the Youth, and the National Adult Education Programme.

After NLM was established the most significant development was the launching of a mass campaign for total literacy in Ernakulam district of Kerala on 26 January 1989. Spearheaded by the Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad and actively supported by the District Administration, the Ernakulam campaign created a mass upsurge for literacy, brought together voluntary agencies and all sections of society and swiftly became a historic trend-setter for Total Literacy Campaigns. Ernakulam district was declared fully literate on 4 February 1990. The Ernakulam success led to the launch of a Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) for the whole of Kerala state. Campaigns for total literacy in the Union Territory of Pondicherry, in Goa, and in select districts of West Bengal, Karnataka, Maharashtra and Gujarat followed in quick succession. Besides Kerala and Pondicherry, the districts of Burdwan, Midnapore, Hooghly, Birbhum in West Bengal, Dakshin Kannada in Karnataka, Wardha and Sindhudurg in Maharashtra and Gandhinagar, Bhavnagar and Kheda in Gujarat have been declared fully literate.

The literacy wave i now reaching all pt of the country.

The literacy wave which started from the southern and eastern states is now beginning to reach practically all parts of the country. So far, 216 TLC projects have been approved involving 240 districts (either fully or partially) in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, , , Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. Currently, approximately 31 million learners in the 9-45 age group are learning with the help of about

4 million volunteerss.s.. TThey are in different stages of learning but it is estimated that abooooouut 15 million of them have already acquired the threshold levell l ((cofof literacy and numeracy. Post-literacy and continuing educatioorrnn (activities are being launched even as TLCs make signficant prooppggeess in an area. The objective is to cover 345 districts during thee e : EEighth Plan and make 100 million people functionally literate: : . .

The Consequentt t IDDemand for Elementary Education

The mass literacy caarannmpaigns and the consequent awakening and recognition of the vvvvalhlue of education among the general public has led to a strongg g ; ddemand for universalising primary education. In several TLCCCC c districts such as Hooghly in West Bengal, Class I admission fiigiggguures have registered a sharp increase. In the case of Hooghly, mcaoorre than 30 percent of the upward swing has been attributed to t t thhe impact of the TLC in the district.

Out-of-school chhhhiilddren in the 9-14 age group are covered by the TLCs in most cddddistricts. Future accretions to adult illiterates are expected to decclcliirine to the extent that the target group of 9-14 years is effectiwveeelyly reached by TLCs. On the conclusion of TLCs in an area it iisiss pproposed to take care of the future learning needs of children ofofof tlthe target group through an expanded NFE programme as weelelll as through post literacy and continuing education centres.. .

Characteristics ((off Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs)

There are certain (cchaaracteristic features of TLCs which make them unique in relalalatition to other programmes :

(i) These campaiigiggnns are area-specific, timebound, volunteer-based, cost-effffffeccctive and outcome oriented.

(ii) They are impobbleemented through the district level literacy committees wlvlhiich are registered under the Societies Registration Act a aas s independent and autonomous bodies to provide a uminiifiied umbrella under which a number of individuals aannnd l organisations work together. The leadership to this boood yy is provided by the District Collector/Chief Secretary, Zillalaa FParishad (District Council). All sections of society are giivivveen due representation in the planning and implementatiooom ı of programmes.

(iii) No targets aree e : ffixed from the top. The targets emanate from the grass-roottstss level on the basis of a detailed door-to-door survey which ı i i is 6 conducted by volunteers. This survey is not only a head-ccccouunting exercise, but also a tool of planning, of mobilisatiooom ı of people and of environment building.

'argets are based on ctailed door to door srveys conducted by volunteers.

(iv) The success ofofof tlthe campaign rests on mass mobilisation of all sections ofofof tlthe society.

(v) The campaigggnn is delivered through voluntarism which implies that aa a ı ldarge number of functionaries contribute of

their own volition, time, energy anndd resources to the campaign without any expectation of freewward or incentives.

(vi) Communication is yet another importaant t characteristic of the campaign; it is also a pre-condition forr itits success. Communication has to be open, direct, and convi/inccing. Its implications are two-fold. Elements of the oral cultlturrre and tradition are harnessed to convey messages on the gaainnms of literacy and the disadvantages of illiteracy to sensitise t thoose who are literate and educated, and for motivating andd mobilising potential learners.It is also a two-way channel of inffformation, ensuring continuous participation of all strata of society in the campaign and provides for continuous corrrection on the basis of information so received.

The campaign is outcome oriented rather than enrolment oriented.

(vii) The management information system in a campaign is based on the twin principles of participattition and correction. It has,besides, to be accountable and credible. Instead of being enrolment oriented, the campaaign is outcome-oriented. Every learner enroled in the campaign is expected to achieve certain predetermined and measurable levels of literacy and numeracy at the end of thee campaign.

(viii) To enable every learner to achieve thhese levels, a new pedagogy known as "Improved Paceee and Content of Learning" (IPCL) has been conceptualisised and translated into action in the shape of a set oof multi-graded and integrated teaching learning materials and training.The learner is placed at the focal point iin the entire process which, through compact duration and continuous ongoing evaluation, helps to heighten learners' motivation and improve the pace of learning.

(ix) Training of all functionaries involvedd iin the campaign is crucial to the success of the campaign. Training has to be primer-specific; it has also to be participaative, communicative and a tool of continuous correctionn, upgradation and human resource development.

(x) Though the TLC is meant to impart fufunnctional literacy, it also disseminates a 'basket' of otheer socially relevant messages such as universal enrolmentt and retention of children in schools, immunisation, propppagation of small family norms, promotion of maternityy and child care, women's equality and empowerment, ppeace and communal harmony, etc.

A BROAD APPRAISAL OF THE TOTTAL LITERACY CAMPAIGN

An analysis of the Total Literacy Campaiign reveals that the greatest strength of the successful campaigns lies in providing a forum for political parties, representativees of the people and

all sections of the society to work together and pledge their unqualified solidarity and support to the campaign despite their ideological differences. TLCs have also proved that age and disability, social and cultural heterogenity, class, caste, creed and gender divides do not constitute a barrier to learning; in the TLC framework, participants can learn with self-confidence, joy and excitement. They can sense for themselves the pace and progress of learning and retain and apply the benefits of learning to real life situations. Campaigns for total literacy can, in this sense, promote social integration, linguistic integration and communal harmony. The teaching-learning process in the campaigns has created and reinforced an awareness of needs, rights and obligations. Significantly, this awareness has manifested itself in enrolment and retention of children in the school system, immunisation of pregnant mothers and children, health, hygiene, environmental conservation, maternity protection, child care, ORT, the observance of a small family norm, and other related benefits.

Women are participating in much larger numbers than men.

A major strength of the campaign is that women are participating in the teaching-learning process in much larger numbers and with much greater enthusiasm than men. They have become more articulate and assertive of their needs than ever before. In the process, their self-image and self-confidence have received a tremendous boost. A number of grass-root level institutions are emerging, such as village and panchayat level committees through which the learners can transform themselves from passive beneficiaries to the status of active participants in a cumulative process and manage their own affairs with strength, courage and confidence.

A Confluence of Creative Forces

TLCs have produced a unique confluence of creative forces and energies on a large scale. Creative writers, thinkers, artists, environmentalists, educationists, social workers and women activists have come together to write songs, slogans, *nukkad nataks* and role-plays and deliver them dramatically in large parts of the country. Every activity in the campaign in general and in the learning centres in particular acquires the shape of a festival and every such occasion is fully harnessed for the promotion of literacy.

The weaknesses in TLCs arise when the factors conducive to the success of the campaign are not uniformly spread across the districts. In districts where it is difficult to sustain continuity of leadership the campaign falters and subsequent restoration presents difficulties. Despite these weaknesses TLCs have emerged as an effective model and for the first time universal adult literacy appears to be an achievable objective.

POST-LITERACY AND CONTINUIIIIIING EDUCATION

Peoples' centres of learning (*Jana Shiksha NNNNilayams*) are a part of the strategy of post-literacy (PL) and continnirirnuing education (CE). They have been opened in several TLC dd:d ddistricts and are fully operational. Each centre caters to five villagagagages with a population of about 5,000 and provides for a libraryyryryy, a reading room, a forum for discussion, evening classes for r r r upgradation of skills etc. The centres also attempt to offer simplblplple and short duration training programmes in agriculture, aniiniiiimal husbandry and veterinary science, soil management, sericicicidculture, fisheries and other self-employment programmes, cultututtural and recreational activities — thus providing a single windowwwww for information and communication.

With a shift in the strategy for impartitirtrtiting literacy from the traditional centre-based approach to the nm n nmass approach, other modalities are coming to the fore. The mcmmmost acceptable model which has been adopted by the TLC CC districts envisages implementation of the programme with t h the help of a three-legged administrative structure consisting c c c c of people's participatory committees, the district administraraaraation, and full-time functionaries. Learning centres covering c o e c of 30-40 neo-literates are formed under the supervision of 3-3-3-3-5 volunteers. These centres are serviced by rural libraries whiiihihhich could also act as resource and training support centres. Unlililililike JSNs these centres are purely volunteer-based. It is expected thth th that the value of these centres would become increasingly evidddddent not only to the identified neo-literates but also to the commmmmmunity at large. It is therefore envisaged that that these centreeeeeees would eventually become community-owned.

Convergence of Services

The Post-Literacy Campaigns (PLCs) aimmmm at taking the neo-literates from a dependent to a self-guideeeeeed learning stage and promoting the development of income geeeeeeneration skills in the process. The centres will be a nodal pointtttnnnt for convergence of messages and services for all developmeeeeeent, health and social welfare departments and schemes. The ceeeeeentres will thus act as an 'information window' to create awareneeeeeess about the schemes for economic development, environment t t t t conservation, social empowerment, health, small-family norm, ı, ı, ı, ı, child care, nutrition and hygiene and legal entitlements. To the e e e e extent feasible, PLCs will attempt, through convergence of vavavvarious development schemes such as TRYSEM, to provide t t t t training for income generation skills.

Convergence of schemes will provie training for incom generation skills.

With a view to securing the transition c c c c of neo-literates from guided learning to self-learning and stabbibibbilising their literacy levels, a bridge primer (post-literacy I) hasasaaas been developed in different regional languages. This would reeeeeeequire 30-40 hours of

instructor-dependent learning and further lessons for self-learning. The bridge primer would be supplemented by further reading materials — graded books, periodicals, newspapers, etc. suitable to the learning needs and interests of neo-literates. Adequate opportunity would be provided simultaneously for unstructured learning through creation of a learning environment comprising wall-writing, posters, hoardings, and so on, and by opening up avenues of distance learning through open schools, radio/TV programmes, etc.

Districts such as Chittoor, Nellore, Burdwan and Midnapore have opened post literacy centres which provide specially designed newspapers, supplementary readers (graded materials for neo-literates) and other reading materials (periodicals, neo-literates' newsletter, etc.) the content of which is a mix of functionality, awareness generation, and recreation through light fiction or humour.Many of the processes in PL and CE have been initiated fairly recently and would require considerable reinforcement and strengthening. ❑

Population Education

Population education is a relatively new component in the education system. Some of the first population education programmes initiated in the late sixties and early seventies were undertaken in India. Based on two primary concerns — for the family and the individual, and for the major demographic trends, population education emphasises consistently the vital importance and necessity of integrating women in development activities. Many of the learning experiences and teaching materials in population education have been designed to eliminate stereotypes which perpetuate gender discrimination. Population education also highlights vital correlations and their impact.

Empirical evidence establishes a strong negative correlation between female literacy on the one hand, and infant and child mortality rates on the other. About one third of the population in the age group of 0-6 years is concentrated in 125 districts which have only 13.5 percent of the female literates in India. The higher the educational level of women, the lower is the total fertility rate and the lower the number of deaths by age 2 per 1000 live births.

Analysis of data for 15 major states accounting for 96 percent of the total population of the country shows that female litearcy and education are positively associated with population growth rates. Given this correlation, the National Family Welfare Programme as well as the Total Literacy Campaign incorporate the cardinal principle that fertility regulation cannot be a matter of mere promotion of contraception but has to promote socio-economic factors such as female literacy and education which strongly influence fertility behaviour .

National Population Education Programme

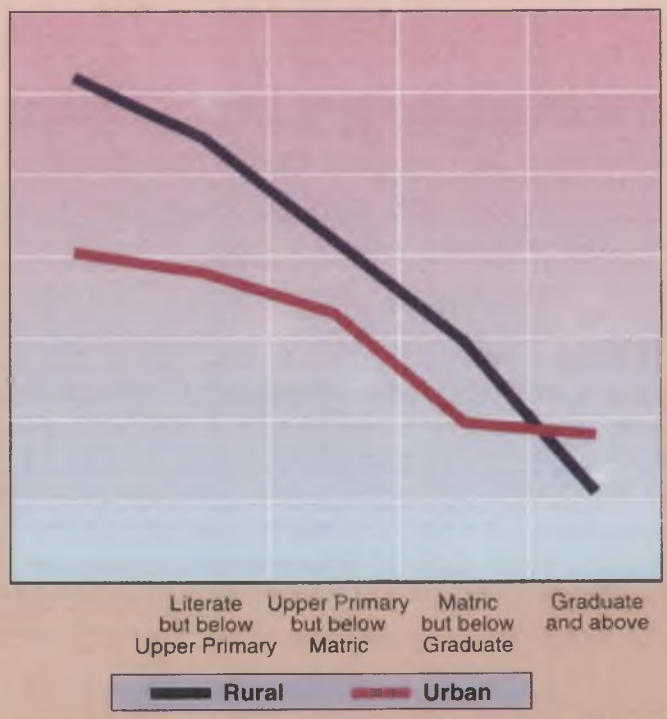
The NPE, 1986 specified observance of the small family norm as one of the core curricular elements at all stages of education. The objectives of inculcating the message of small family norms and other population-related issues in the minds of school and college students and those availing of adult and non-formal education are being achieved through the National Population Education Programme (NPEP). The NPEP is now being implemented through three stages of school and non-formal education, higher education and adult education. Population education contents have been integrated in the syllabi from classes I to XII. A national steering committee coordinates the implementation of the NPEP which has become an integral part of basic education.

Institutionalising Population Education

Since its inception is 1980, NPEP has made considerable headway in achieving its main objective of institutionalising population education in the school education system. During the second cycle (1986-1990), the main focus has been on consolidation of the project's multi-dimensional activities and further expansion of its network. During the Eighth Plan, it is proposed to substantially and systematically direct the NPEP activities towards the non-formal sector. A different strategy for curriculum material development and facilitators orientation for the non-formal sector with emphasis on local specificity and participation will be adopted. The efforts will be coordinated effectively with the voluntary agencies and local self-government institutions. Modules on population education for National Open School have been prepared. Video programmes have also been prepared for training programmes. The population education components have been dovetailed into the existing training/orientation programmes of teachers.

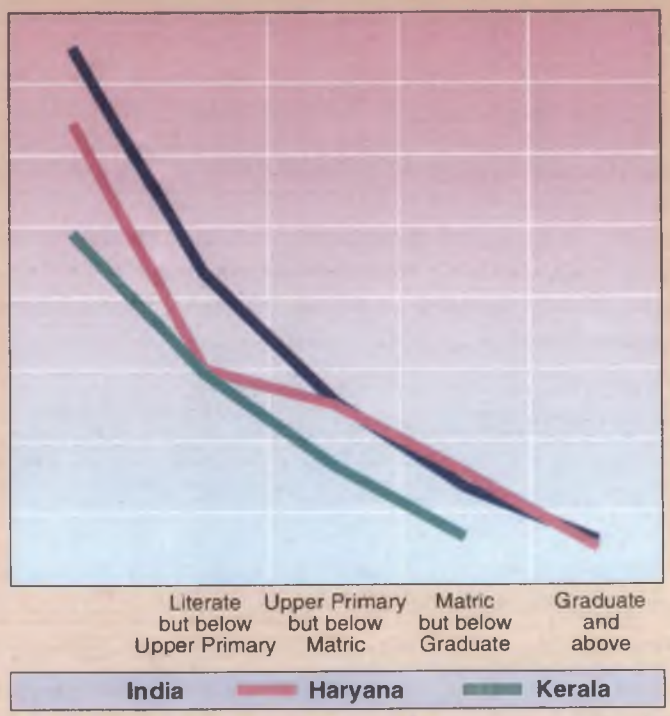
The government is implementing a UNFPA funded population education project as an integral part of the adult education programme through the academic and technical support of 15 State Resource Centres. Instructional and follow-up materials have been brought-out on themes such as small family norms, right age of marriage, and population and development.

Infant Mortality Rate by Educational Level of Mother, 1981



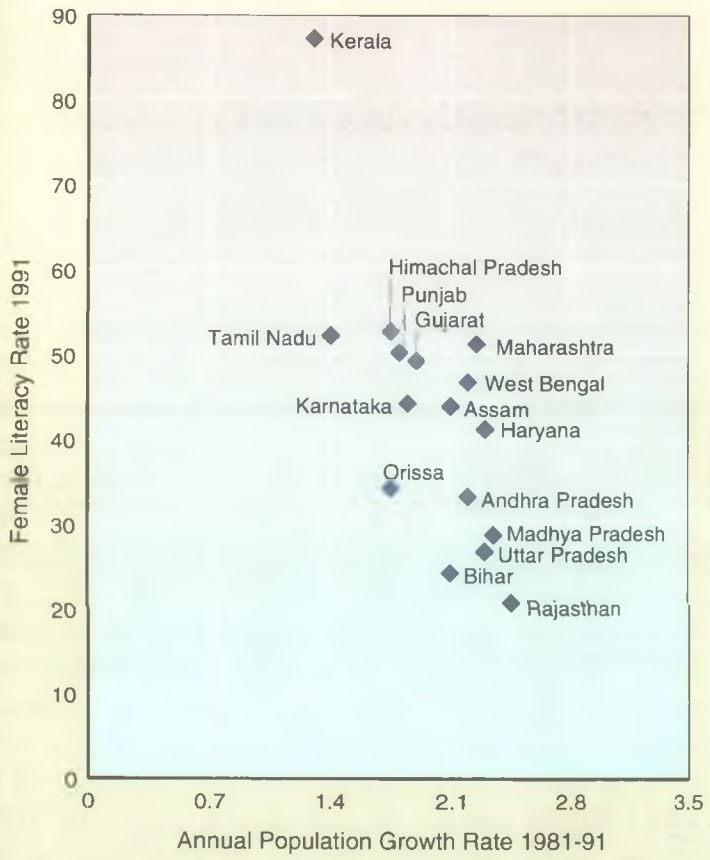
Reference : Universal Primary Education of Rural Girls in India. NCERT-1990.

Child Mortality Rate by Educational Level of Mother, 1981



Reference : Universal Primary Education of Rural Girls in India. NCERT-1990.

Female Literacy and Annual Population Growth (in major states)



Reference : Universal Primary Education of Rural Girls in India NCERT-1990

Chapter VII

EFA and the Media

The rapidly increasing availability of new, improved channels of communication has contributed to a coordinated spurt in efforts to tap and harness the vast potential of the media in promoting the goals of EFA. In a country such as India — so replete with challenging regional, cultural and linguistic diversities — the role of the media as an immensely powerful tool which can be used to penetrate cultural and attitudinal barriers and reach communities in the shortest possible time acquires a significance that is doubly important.

At present, All India Radio (AIR) covers 93 percent of the population, and virtually the entire rural belt of India. Doordarshan — the official TV network — potentially covers more than 72 percent of the population. Both AIR and Doordarshan are fast expanding their networks and augmenting their already considerable reach,while the popular ingress of satellite-beamed programmes of privately owned TV companies based outside India has opened up a wealth of possibilities and opportunities for educational programmes.

Several innovative projects have already demonstrated the combined impact of radio, television, films, the print and traditional folk media in bringing about attitudinal changes and mobilising society to participate and support more fully the efforts to achieve EFA. In the process, the media has emerged as a multi-faceted, popular vehicle for disseminating knowledge and meeting basic learning needs — an essential, highly effective complement to formal and non-formal education.

Folk media is highly effective in changing attitudes and mobilising society towards greater participation.

India has a large pool, particularly at the regional and local level, of writers, singers and performing artistes in all the major languages and dialects spoken in the country. Individually and together, they constitute valuable resource units with an impressive repertoire of appealing programmes at the grass roots level.

The TLC approach has demonstrated that the folk media is a highly effective instrument for sensitising and mobilising public opinion and consequently sparking off a number of desirable effects such as :

- promoting community participation in literacy efforts
- creating a demand for literacy amongst learners, both for themselves and their children
- inspiring and spurring educated sections of society to contribute to the literacy effort by participating as volunteer instructors
- motivating teachers towards more intensive efforts in enroling, retaining and teaching children
- minimising drop-outs amongst volunteer instructors and learners.

A number of desirable effects have been sparked off.

TLCs continue to rely intensively and exhaustively on the folk media as an integral component of their motivation and mobilisation strategy.

India's well entrenched print and electronic media have also played a lead role, generally supportive and often pioneering, in sensitisation and mobilisation — raising levels of consciousness by highlighting educational matters and relevant issues and linkages and placing them before the people. Between them,they are also fulfilling the important task of meeting the information needs of neo-literates. An evaluation of the media campaign established that the high level, intense attention paid over sustained, extended periods to the NLM and TLCs in the national media had the valuable effect of creating greater awareness about TLCs and the need for education besides placing literacy several notches higher on the political and social agenda.

The print and electronic media are playing a supportive role.

Recognition of the inherent scope and flexibility of the media and the wide range of related benefits such as demand creation, widening of access to knowledge, mass mobilisation and upgradation of levels of learning that can be operationalised in the endeavour to achieve EFA are reflected in the POA (1992) when it recommends that :

a. Media support should be developed and fully utilised for conveying to the parents and the community the significance of ECCE. This calls for media orientation and training of personnel in ECCE.
b. Radio and television are being used in a limited way both for advocacy and education focused on disabled children. The CIET, State Institutes of Educational Technology (SIETs), NIHs and other organisations would develop a variety of programmes so that they can be regularly telecast/broadcast. The Ministry of the Human Resource Development (MHRD) would approach the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting for providing adequate time for this purpose.

The CIET, SIETs and NIHs would also develop software in non-telecast mode and make it available to DIETs, other training centres and NGOs working with disabled persons.

Field publicity units would be utilised by states for advocacy

Software is being developed in all major languages.

programmes. Newspapers and magazines have started popular advocacy and educational writing in this area. NCERT and the NIHs would develop packages and hand them over to journalists in workshops.

c. Attention should also be paid to the development of stimulating programmes for children. Concerted efforts will be made by all concerned organisations such as Doordarshan, AIR, NCERT in developing software in all major regional languages.

d. The electronic, print and traditional media will be used to create a climate for equal opportunities for women and girls. It will thus play a complementary and supportive role in awareness generation, dissemination of information and communication. Given the fact that almost all rural areas are covered by radio, special efforts will be made to utilise this medium to reach out to women.

Effective Utilisation of the Media

A number of initiatives have been launched as part of a comprehensive strategy to utilise all available forms,modes and channels of communication under the media umbrella. However,while different forms, modes and channels are being tapped, the majority of programmes developed so far fall into the arena of literacy.

A TV serial, 'Chauraha' (Crossroads), of 40 fifteen-minute episodes was telecast by Doordarshan every week in a bid to teach the Hindi alphabet through animated puppets and a drama narrative. Produced by the Directorate of Adult Education, the serial was televised with the aim of facilitating the process of adult literacy. Production of software is one of the major tasks taken up by the Directorate of Adult Education in collaboration with select agencies. Apart from 'Chauraha', a large number of video films have been produced, mostly as video documentation of TLCs in the districts. U-matic master cassettes of some of the TLC films have been supplied to Doordarshan for nationwide telecast. In addition, prime time spots were produced for both radio and TV.

Closed circuit TV systems in selected railway stations are being utilised for media campaigns. Outdoor publicity is organised through DAVP hoardings bearing National Literacy Mission messages, wall paintings and banners. Postal stationery, railway tickets and railway time tables were also used to advertise NLM messages.

PREAL (Project on Radio Education for Adult Learners) spanned four Hindi speaking states — Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh. Two-in-one receivers were given free by the Government to approximately 3500 adult education centres where more than 100,000 women, it has been estimated, listened to the weekly radio lessons put on the air by eight broadcasting stations. The aim of the broadcasts was to emphasise functional literacy and reinforce instruction at adult education centres. Programmes are also recorded on audio cassettes and sent out for use in 'non-broadcast' areas.

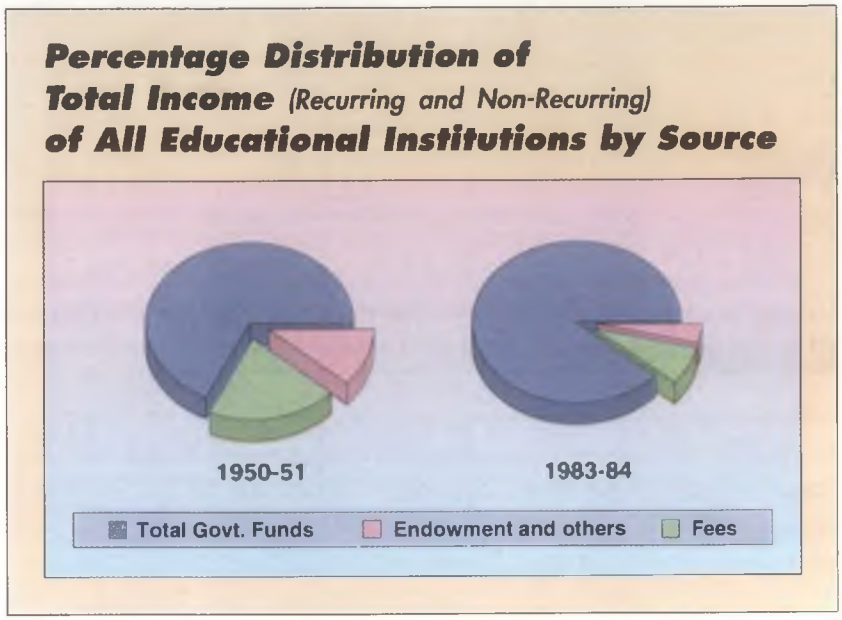
As part of the EFA effort, puppetry, folk songs, street theatre and other forms of theatre are being harnessed in new, innovative ways to sensitise and mobilise communities. ❑

Instruction is reinforced through radio broadcasts.

Chapter VIII

Resources and Expenditure

Budgetary expenditure in India is classified broadly into two categories: plan expenditure covering mainly developmental activities, and non-plan expenditure chiefly covering maintenance. Education is funded largely by the Central and state governments — the post-Independence contribution of non-governmental sources of funding dwindling from about 32 percent in 1950-51 to 11.2 percent in 1983-84. Elementary education is funded almost wholly by the Government.



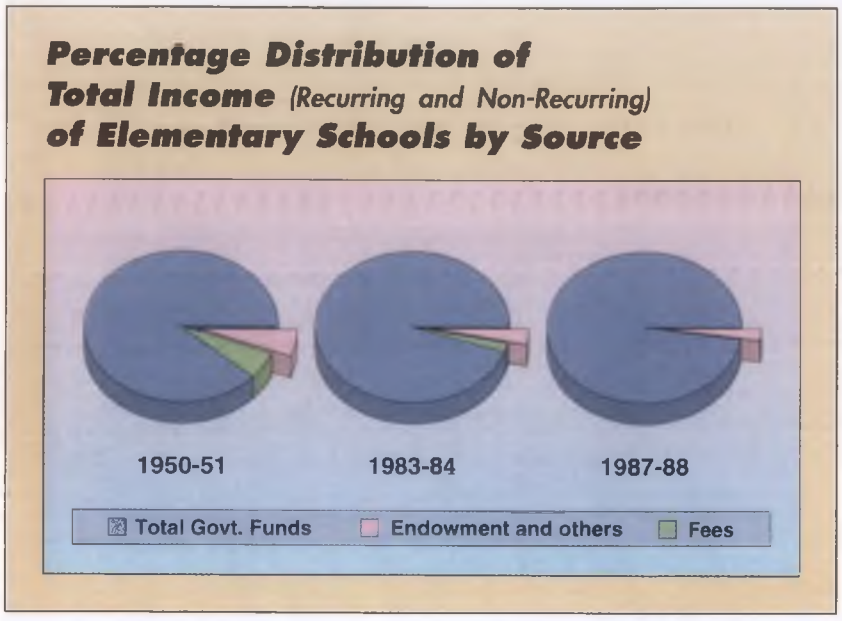
See Table 23 in Annex.

Public Expenditure on Education as a share of GNP

(Percentage)

Year	*Total*	*Primary*	*Upper Primary*	*Elementary*
1950-51	1.2	0.40	0.08	0.48
1960-61	2.5	0.45	0.31	0.76
1970-71	3.1	0.65	0.47	1.12
1980-81	3.1	0.71	0.48	1.19
1989-90	3.9	-	-	1.72

Source : NIEPA, *Education for All by 2000*, New Delhi, and Department of Education, MHRD.

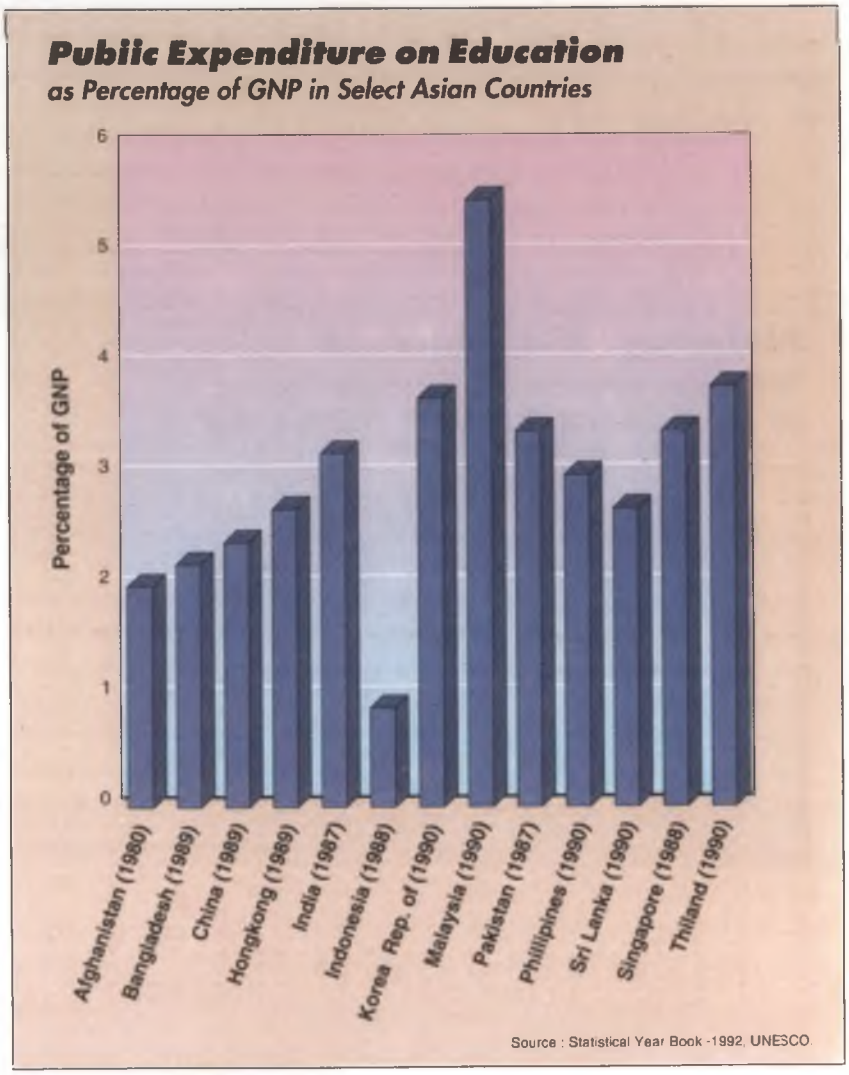


See Table 24 in Annex.

Public Expenditure on Elementary Education in Relation to GNP

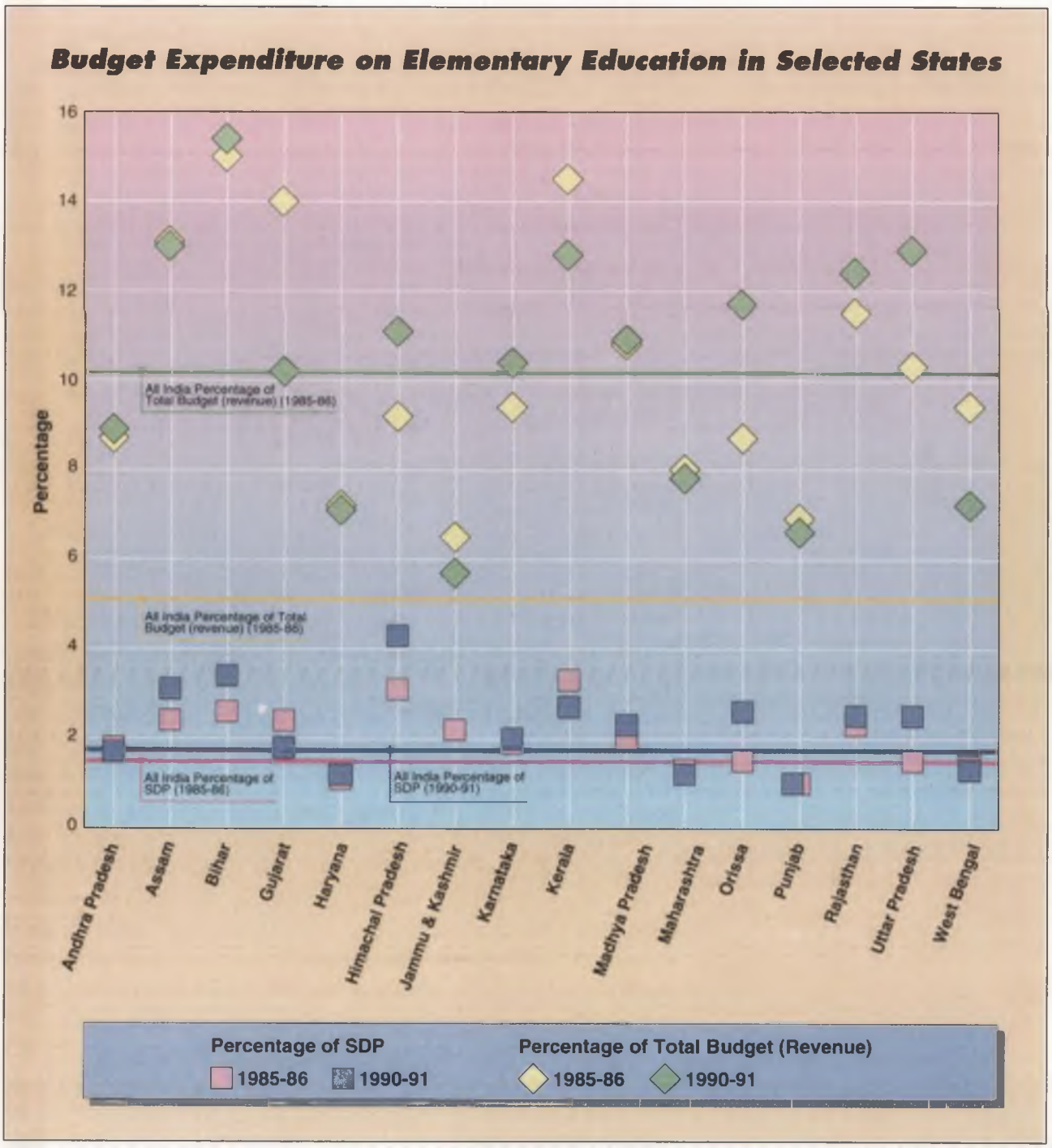
After the inception of planning in 1950-51, spending on education as a proportion of GNP increased steadily from about 1.2 per cent to about 3.9 percent. While the increase was significant, the availability of resources was inadequate due to financial constraints and competing priorities. The aspiration articulated time and again from 1966 onwards that the public expenditure on education should be at least 6 per cent of the GNP has remained unfulfilled.

Expenditure on elementary education increased from 0.46 per cent of GNP in 1950-51 to 1.72 per cent in 1989-90. At a macro-level, India's expenditure on education as a proportion of GNP compares favourably with that of the peer group of Asian developing countries . Only some countries such as Korea and Thailand allocate a higher proportion of their education expenditure to elementary education.



See Table 25 in Annex.

At the state level,there has been a substantial increase in the proportion of public expenditure on education in relation to State Domestic Product (SDP) . In several states, the increase has been more than four percent; in many other states, public expenditure on elementary education is more than two percent of the SDP. States also allocate a quarter or a third of the states' revenue budget to education.



See Table 27 in Annex.

An Analysis of Trends in Expenditure on Elementary Education

Historically, almost all the public expenditure on education was on recurring maintenance costs .

Expenditure on Elementary Education, by Items, 1983-84

In percentage

Item	*Primary*	*Upper Primary*	*Elementary*
Recurring Expenditure			
Salary of teaching staff	93.6	90.4	92.2
Salary of non-teaching staff	2.8	3.8	3.3
Maintenance of buildings	0.6	0.7	0.7
Maintenance of equipment, furniture	0.2	0.3	0.2
Apparatus, chemicals, etc.	0.1	0.1	0.1
Libraries	0.0	0.1	0.1
Scholarships and other aids	0.5	1.7	1.0
Games and Sports	0.1	0.1	0.1
Hostels	0.1	0.2	0.1
Other items	1.9	2.7	2.3
Total recurring	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(12887)	(9124)	(22011)
Non-Recurring Expenditure			
Libraries	0.8	2.9	1.7
Buildings	55.8	46.5	51.9
Equipment	6.1	7.0	6.5
Furniture	7.1	6.9	7.0
Other items	30.0	36.7	32.9
Total non-recurring	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(266)	(194)	(460)
Distribution of the Grand Total			
Recurring expenditure	98.0	97.9	98.
Non-recurring expenditure	2.0	2.1	2.0
Grand total	100.0	100.0	100.0
	(13153)	(9318)	(22471)

Note : Figures are Rs. in ten millions

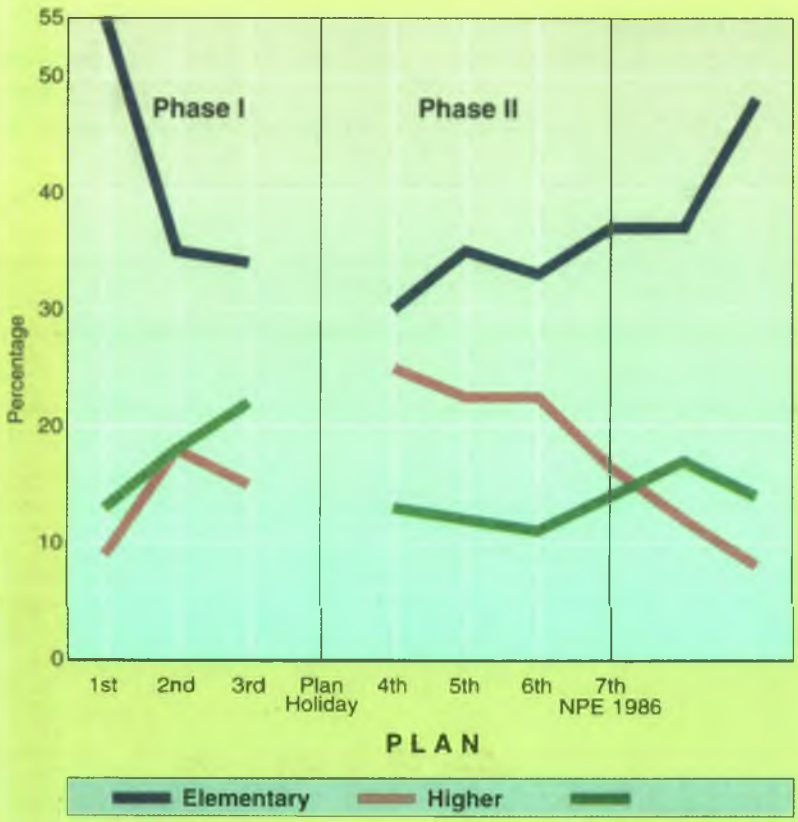
Source : Based on Education in India 1983-84, Department of Education, MHRD.

Marked jump in public expenditure on elementary education.

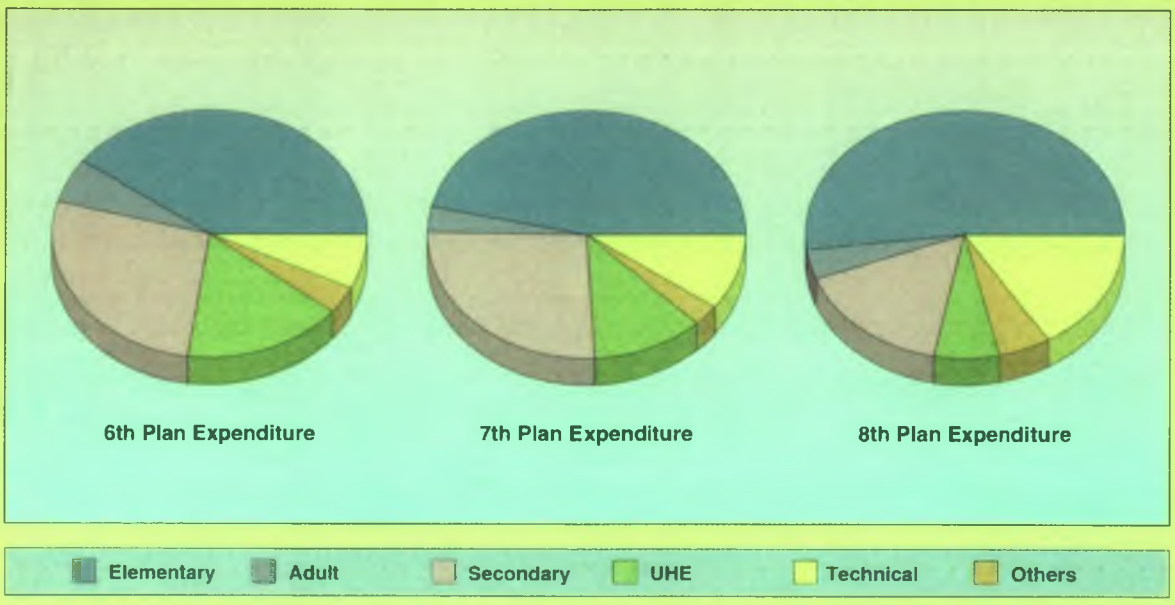
An intra-sectoral analysis of the plan expenditure on education brings into sharp focus two distinct periods since planning began in 1950-51, with the plan holiday (1964-69) as the transition period. In the first phase, expansion of higher and technical education received a higher *inter se* priority. This was legitimate given the manpower needs of an economy which was breaking free from the stagnation of the colonial period and considering the development paradigms then regnant the world over. Two things happened by the end of the first phase. One, there was a realisation that the network of higher and technical education institutions was sufficient to meet the anticipated manpower needs. Secondly, elementary education came to be perceived as a minimum need. During the 1980s alone, the public expenditure on elementary education increased by 4.5 times from Rs.15,373 million at the beginning of the decade to Rs. 68,883 million in 1989-90. Elementary education began to receive a higher proportion of plan allocation on education. This trend which received an appreciable boost after NPE, 1986, has become still more pronounced during the Eighth Five Year plan.

Sector-wise Expenditure

(in Five Year Plans)

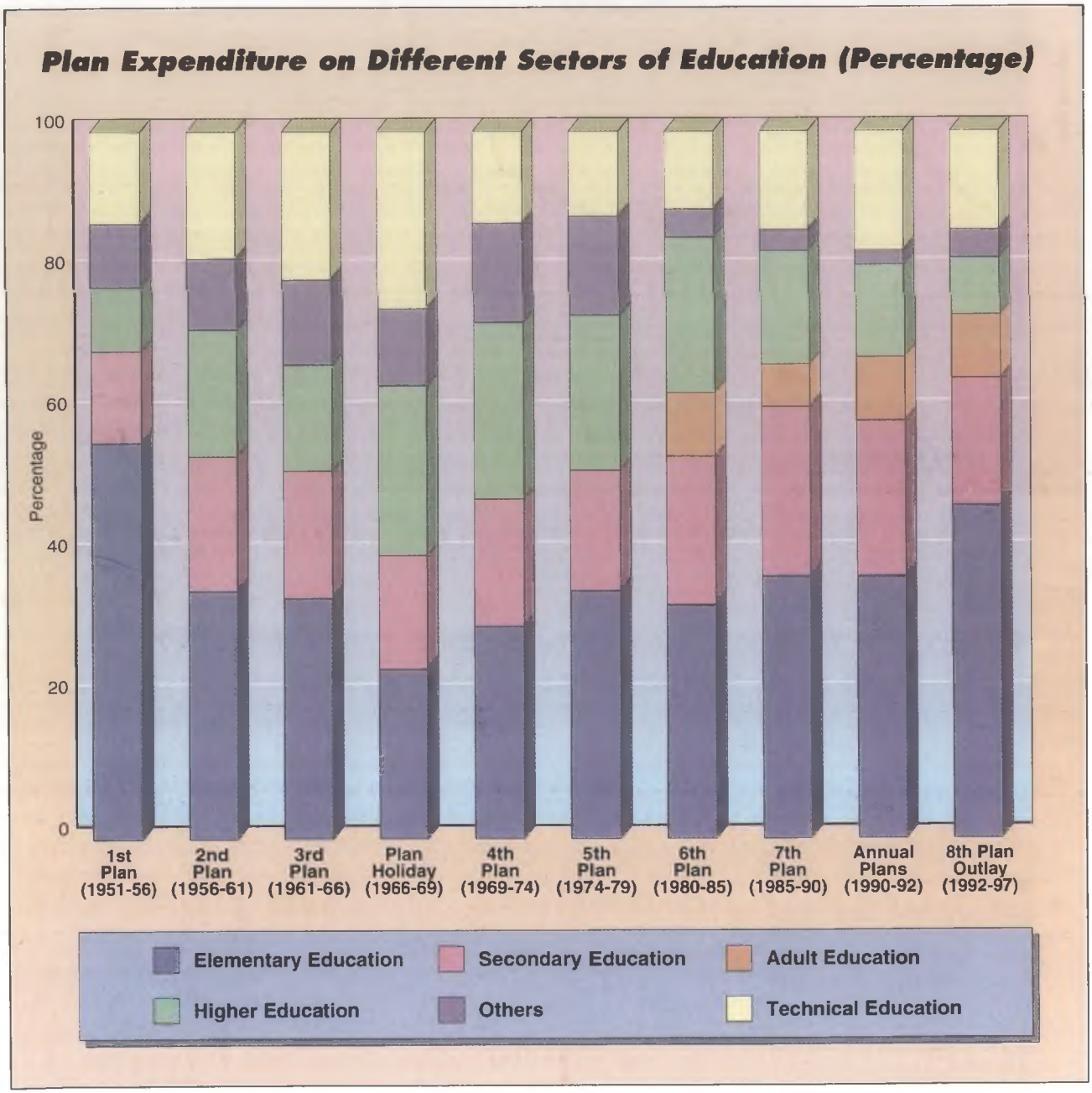


Sector-wise Outlay/Expenditure on Education (States/UTs)



A significant and welcome feature is the strongly defined trend of a higher share of plan expenditure in the total expenditure on elementary education. Currently, the share of elementary education in total public expenditure on education is about 45 to 46 percent.

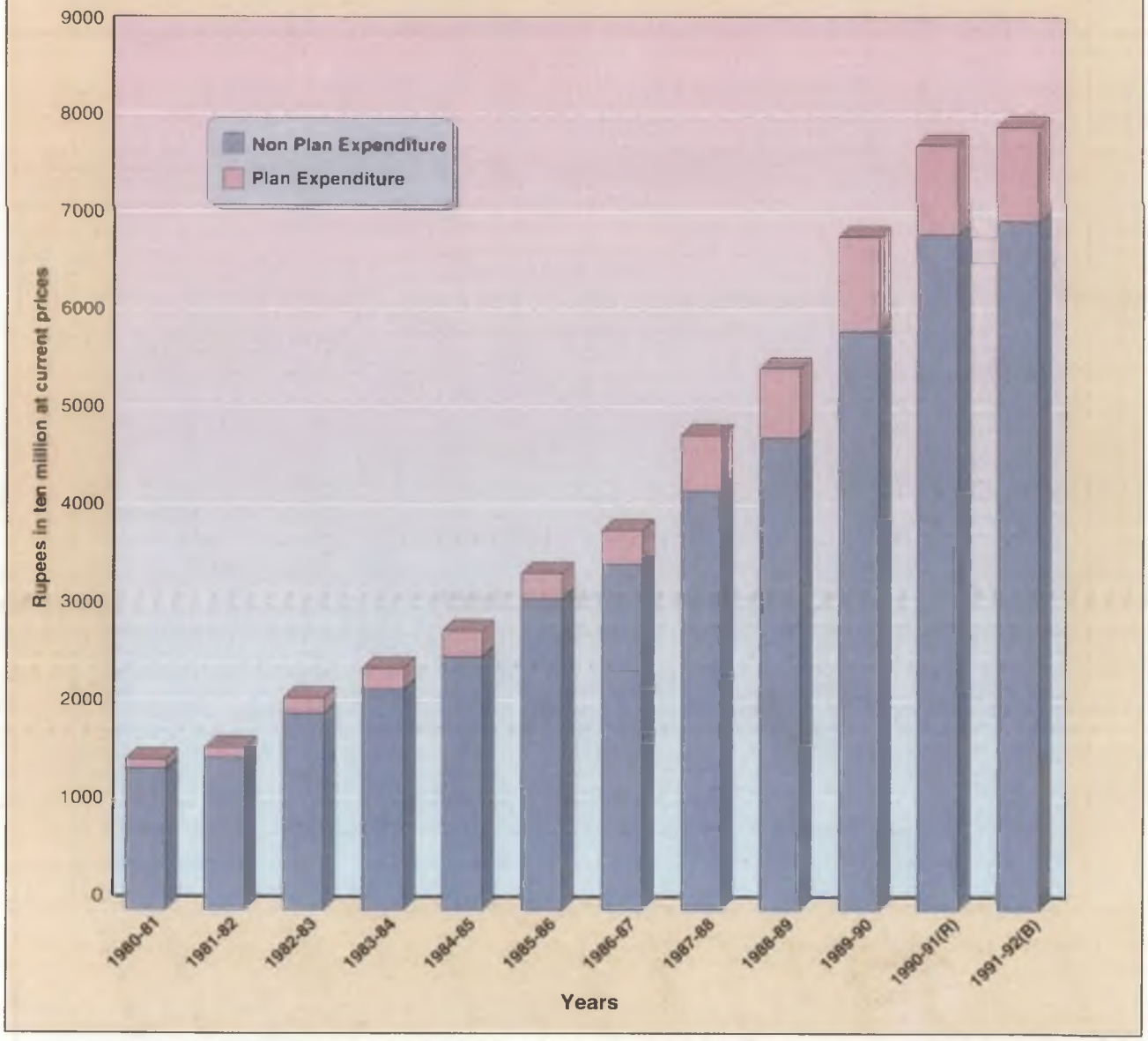
It should be noted that the public expenditure on elementary education does not take into account the expenditure on school buildings under employment generation schemes such as



See Table 28 in Annex.

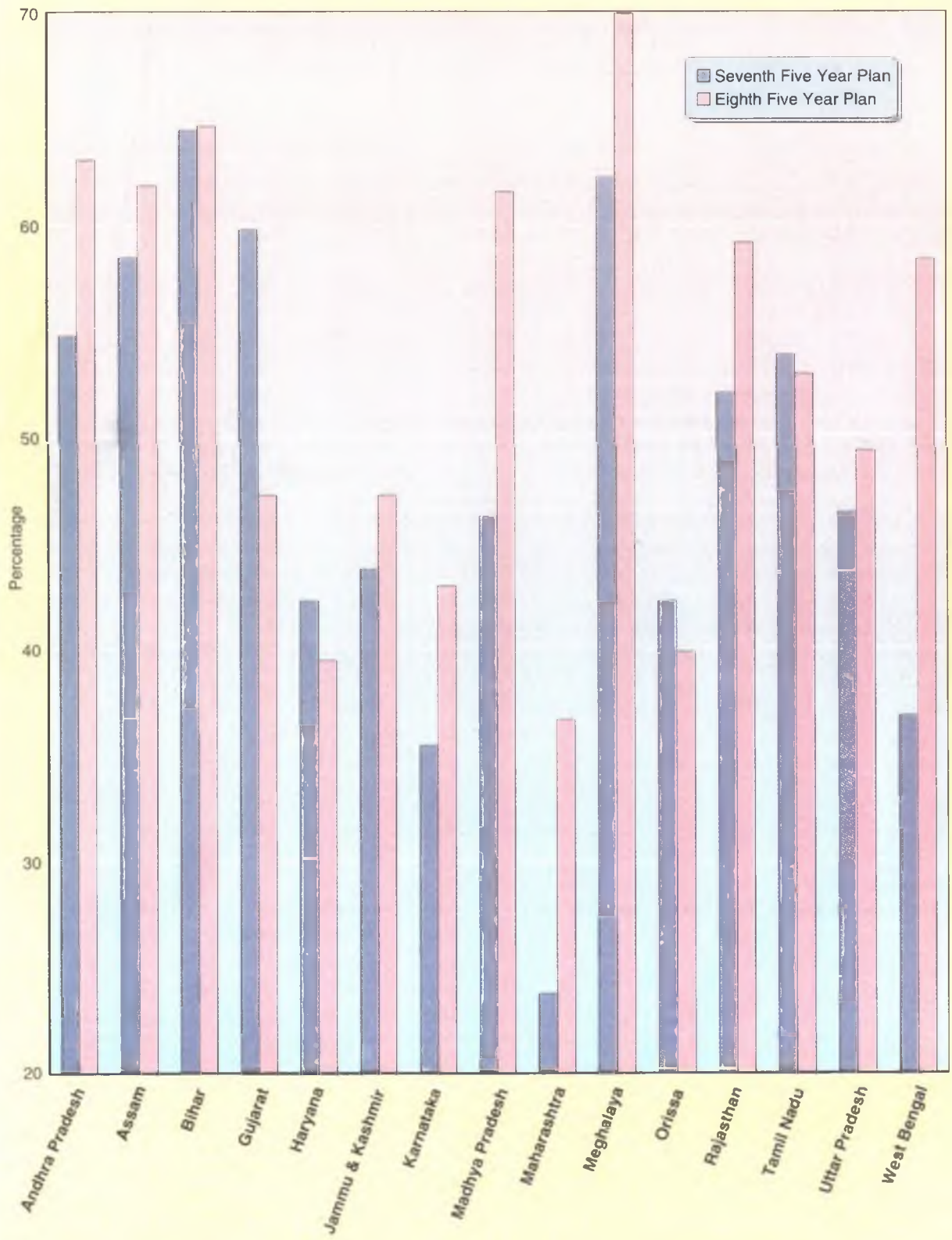
Jawahar Rozgar Yojana which have been receiving enhanced budgetary outlays since the late 1980s. Therefore, the development expenditure on, and the physical capital formation in elementary education is understated in studies which do not take into reckoning the total expenditure on the construction of school buildings. During the Eighth Plan more states have assigned a higher priority to elementary education.

Plan and Non-Plan Expenditure on Elementary Education in India
1980-81 to 1991-92



See Table 29 in Annex.

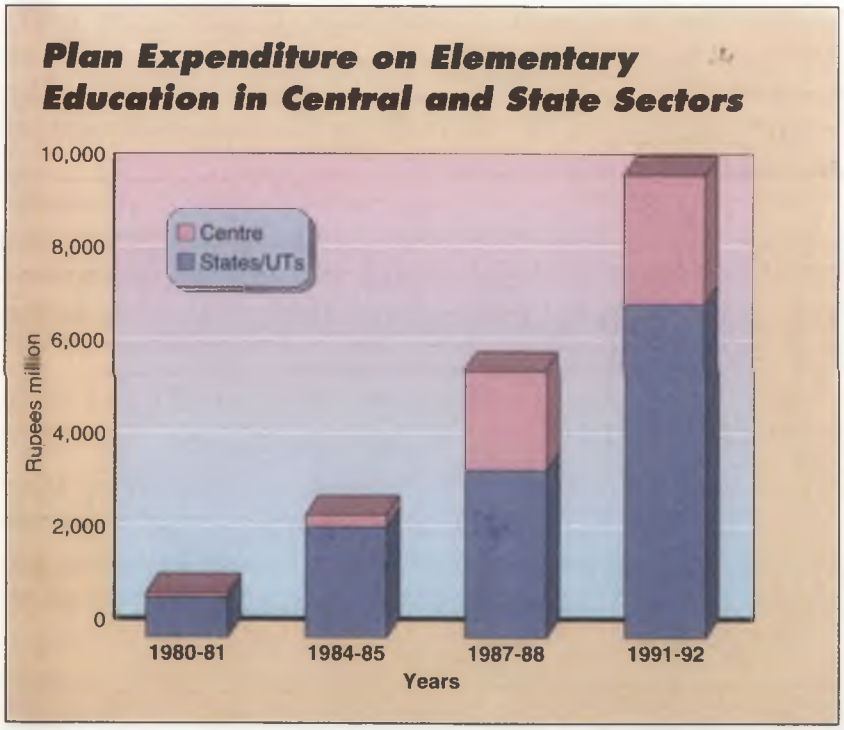
Share of Elementary Education in total Plan Expenditure on Education, in Seventh and Eighth Five Year Plans in Selected States



See Table 30 in Annex.

Central Support to Elementary Education

In the past elementary education in India was funded largely by the state governments. NPE, 1986 gave an operational definition to the concurrency of education enshrined in the Constitution. With the launching of Centrally sponsored schemes to promote non-formal education and improve the quality of elementary education, the Central Government's share in plan expenditure on elementary education has increased considerably.



See Table 31 in Annex.

An upswing in Central financial support for universalisation of elementary education satisfies a long-felt need. As early as 1886, the Indian Education Commission had articulated the need for according priority to elementary education. "While every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State", the Commission postulated, "it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension and improvement to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore." However, so long as this policy postulate was not backed by Central funding the policy remained an empty rhetoric. As the eminent statesman and advocate of compulsory primary education, Gopala Krishna Gokhale declared in the imperial legislature in 1910, "the whole thing hinges on whether the Government of India is prepared to fund a good part of the cost. That is, in fact, the real crux of the question . . . it is perfectly clear that no large extension of elementary education is possible in the country unless the

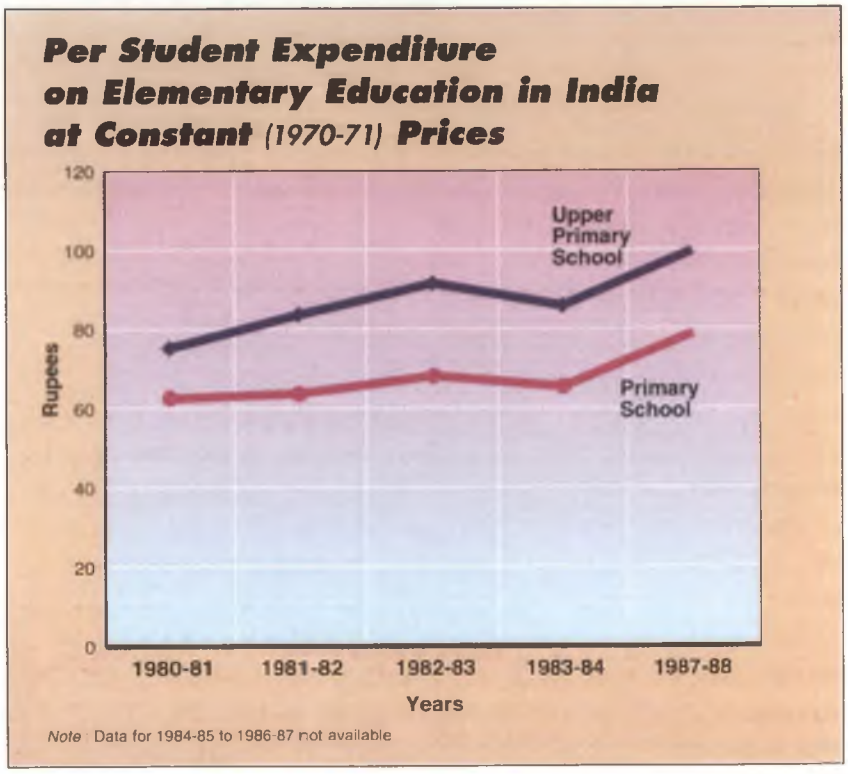
Government of India comes forward with generous financial assistance." Again, in the year 1929, the Hartog Committee, after making an indepth study of primary education, observed that "the divorce of the government of India from education has been unfortunate: and holding, as we do, that education is essentially a national service, we are of the opinion that steps should be taken to consider a new relation of the Central Government with the subject. We have suggested that the Government of India should serve as a centre of educational information for the whole of India and as a means of coordinating the educational experience of the different provinces. But we regard the duties of the Central Government as going beyond that. We cannot accept the view that it should be entirely relieved of all responsibility for the attainment of universal primary education.

"The Government of India should serve as a centre of educational information for the whole of India."

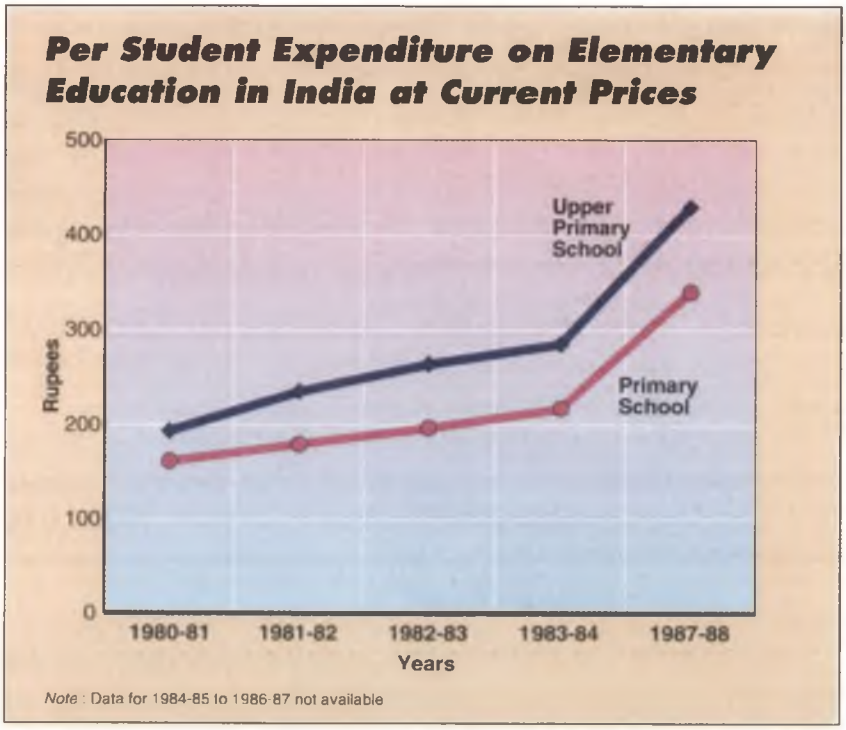
It may be that some of the provinces, in spite of all efforts, will be unable to provide the funds necessary for that purpose, and the Government of India should, therefore, be constitutionally enabled to make good such financial deficiencies in the interests of India as a whole."

Cost of Education

While at current prices the cost per student more than doubled both at the primary and upper primary levels between 1980-81 and 1987-88, (the latest year for which such data are available) in real prices, the growth has increased by 1.25 to 1.3 times.



See Table 32 in Annex.



See Table 32 in Annex.

Adult Education

Since the launching of the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) during the Sixth Plan, adult education has been receiving enhanced outlays. The expenditure rose after the National Literacy Mission (NLM) was established in 1988 and Total Literacy Campaigns (TLCs) were adopted as the principal strategy for the adult literacy programme. The expenditure in the two year period 1990-1992 was almost as much as in the Sixth Plan (1980-85). In the Eighth Plan (1992-97) the outlay on adult education has quadrupled in comparison with expenditure during the Seventh Plan.

In the Eighth Plan, the outlay on AE has quadrupled.

The TLCs are expected to be more cost-effective than the erstwhile Centre-based NAEP. The per learner cost in TLC is projected at Rs. 145 for 3 years as against Rs. 154.30 per year of the Centre-based approach. The unit cost of a TLC, unlike that of the Centre-based approach, does not include post-literacy. Allowing for cost escalation, the per learner cost in the TLC mode could go up to Rs. 200 by the end of the Eighth Five Year Plan. The cost-effectiveness of TLCs is derived largely from community contributions. Over 10 million volunteers are now involved in TLCs; if their contribution is quantified on the assumption that each volunteer puts in 40 days' work and the opportunity cost is the average minimum wage (for unskilled labour) of Rs.15.45, the contribution works out to Rs. 6180 million, which is 6.9 per cent of the Eighth Plan allocation on adult education.

The cost-effectiveness of TLCs is derived largely from public contributions.Over 10 million volunteers are involved in TLCs.

External Assistance for Basic Education

The World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien in March 1990, is a landmark in that it unfolded the possibility of donor assistance for basic education on terms which do not compromise national autonomy in policy and programme formulation and implementation. Prior to 1990 a few pilot projects had been designed to address certain facets of UEE :

- **Mahila Samakhya** — an education programme for women's empowerment (with assistance from the Government of the Netherlands),
- **Shiksha Karmi Programme** which aims at providing learning opportunities by recruiting local volunteers in remote villages where teacher absenteeism is high (with IDA assistance),
- **Child-centred learning** (with ODA assistance)

The UNICEF assisted **Bihar Education Project (BEP)** set the pace for comprehensive projects aimed at restructuring of primary education as a whole in selected districts. BEP was followed by **Lok Jumbish** in Rajasthan and the **UP Basic Education Project** with IDA assistance. The concept of comprehensive district-based projects came of age with the launching of the **District Primary Education (DPEP)** — the primary education Component of the Social Safety Net Adjustment Credit financed by IDA.

The projects mentioned above share common features :

Some pilot projects share common features.

(i) They cover all the components of basic education except adult literacy.

(ii) They emphasise participatory planning and implementation. Therefore, generation of demand for educational services, capacity building and development of participatory management structures would be the crucial elements of project implementation. At the village level, the critical unit would be the Village Education Committee which would assist the basic education system in securing the cooperation and participation of the local community and at the same time oversee the functioning of basic education services.A sense of genuine participation would be engendered by ensuring that all the 'concerned persons'—such as teachers and their organisations, voluntary agencies, academics and research institutions—are represented in the district and state level project bodies.

(iii) The project management would be in the Mission mode which entails:

   a. Cost effectiveness in terms of programme outcomes and outputs

   b. Identification and assignment of specific tasks within a

precise time frame to specific individuals, group of individuals or institutions.

c. Streamlining of procedures and decision making processes.

(iv) These projects would be "evolving projects". A definitive project document is incompatible with the ethos of participatory project formulation and implementation. A block would be the unit for most programme activities; depending upon the educational needs of and the responses in a block, a continuous series of sub-projects with various combinations of programme activities would be taken up.

(v) These projects would strive for continuous innovation as well as the assimilation and adoption of experiences gained from educational innovations elsewhere in the country. Testing and defining operational modalities in relation to various parameters of basic education, and experimentation with alternative models of programme delivery and management would be important components of the project.

(vi) Monitoring and evaluation would be built into the projects and would receive the highest attention so as to secure cost effective programme outcomes.

(vii) Utmost 'parsimony' would be observed in regard to management and administrative costs; all appointments would be by deputation or of a short-term contractual nature.

The policy parameters for external resources for basic education were laid by the CABE at its 46th meeting on 8-9 March 1991; these were reiterated in the 47th meeting on 5-6 May 1992. These parameters, set out below, seek to ensure that the external assistance does not lead to a dependency syndrome.

Parameters seek to ensure that external assistance does not lead to a dependency syndrome.

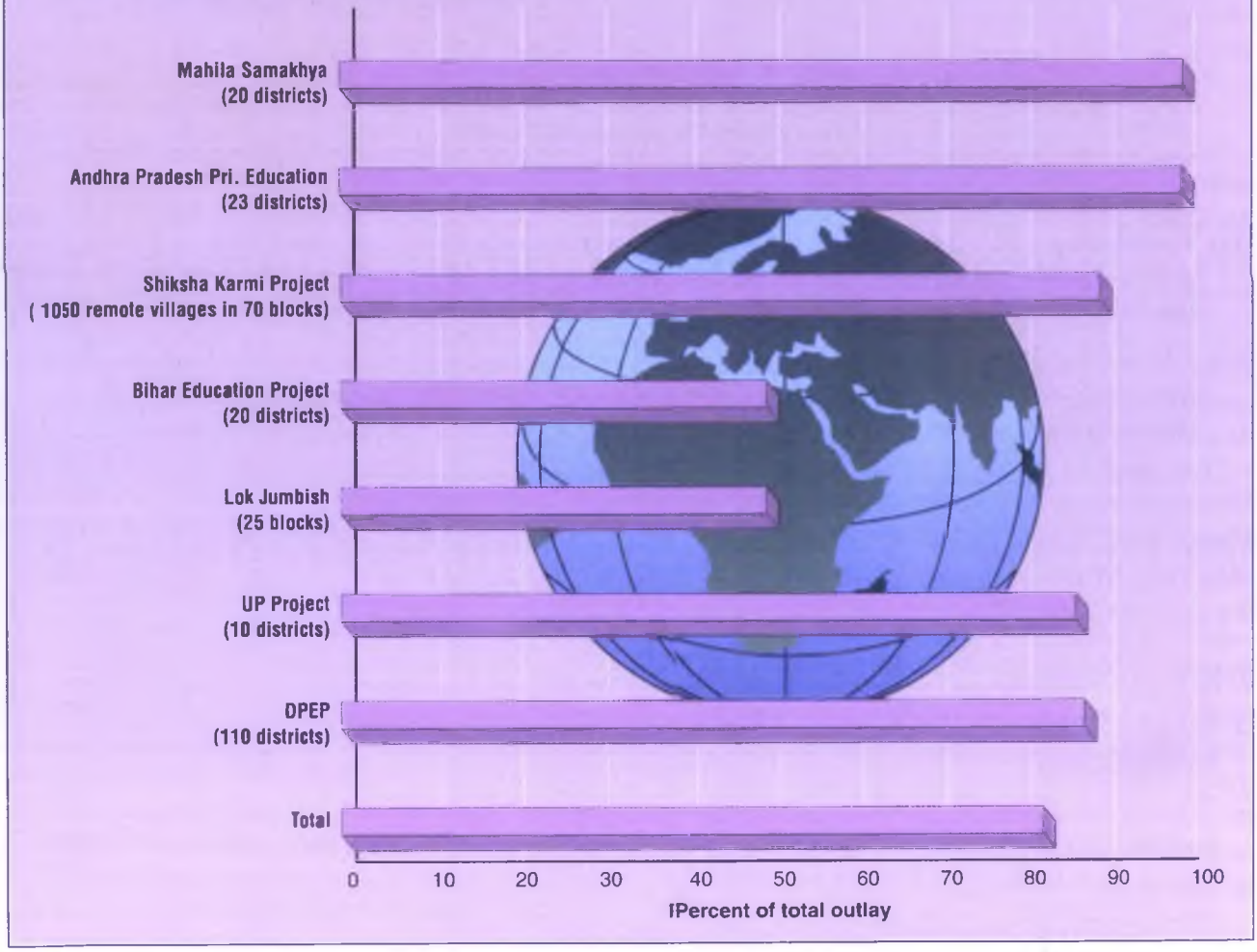
CABE Guidelines for externally aided projects:

- External funding should be an additionality to the resources for education.
- The project must be in total conformity with the national policies, strategies and programmes.
- The project formulation should be the responsibility of the Centre/state governments/ other national agencies and that project formulation should be a process of capacity building.
- The project must be drawn up on innovative lines emphasising people's participation, improvement of quality and equality of education and a substantial upgradation of facilities.
- External assistance should be used for educational reconstruction which should go beyond coventional measures such as opening of new schools and appointing teachers — and address issues of content, process and quality.

During the Eighth Plan, the projected inflows of external funding for elementary education are substantial in relation to

past trends, yet they still constitute only 4.22 per cent of the anticipated public expenditure on elementary education. It would be fair to say that while external funding would be an interim contribution to meet the resource gap, there is no alternative other than augmenting domestic resources to achieve the objectives of EFA. Economic liberalisation and the consequent financial restructuring can be expected to facilitate greater resource flow to elementary education.

Expected flow of External Assistance for Elementary Education during Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97) as a percentage of total outlay



See Table 33 in Annex.

In the ultimate analysis, resources and management would define implementation of the strategies outlined for achieving the goals and objectives of EFA. The national resolve of raising the public outlay on education to at least six percent of GNP should be translated into practice at the earliest. A logical corrollary of this proposition is that an ethos of cost-effectiveness and accountability should permeate every part of the education system and that efficiency of resource utilisation, processes, outcomes and delivery should be the measures of performance rather than mere provision of inputs. ❑

Chapter IX

International Cooperation

International support and cooperattion for achieving EFA embodies several cardinal concepts, concerns and important trends. One of the majjor concerns is to reduce geographical disparities and narrow the gender gap in education. Committed to bringing about decisive changes in order to promote EFA, international proggrammes are now placing greater emphasis on female educatiom, and on cooperation in identifying and formulating actiom programmes to eliminate problem areas and factor that retard EFA.

Joining Hands with UNESCO

India actively promotes international cooperation in the area of basic education, mainly at the regional and sub-regional levels through various programmes of UNESCO. The Indian National Commission for Cooperation with UNESCO (INC) is the apex advisory, executive, liaison, information and coordinating body at the national level.

As one of the promoters of UNESCO's Regional Programme of Educational Innovations for Development of Asia and the Pacific (APEID),India participates in APEID programmes and activities on a significant scale. A National Development Group (NDG) for APEID in India has been set up which functions as an identifier, stimulater and coordinator of activities of educational innovations for development within the country. The NDG comprises representatives of concerned Ministries and departments and pioneering institutions engaged in educational research. On the lines of NDG, State Development Groups (SDGs) were established in States and Union Territories which function in close collaboration with the NDG. NCERT, one of the principal associate centres of APEID, acts as the secretariat of NDG and facilitates dissemination of information about APEID activities. Apart from APIED, India has been participating intensively in the Asia-Pacific Programme on Education for All (APPEAL).An important regional programme, APPEAL was launched from New Delhi by UNESCO in 1987. A high level

National Coordination Committee has been set up to coordinate activities under APPEAL and the follow up of the Jomtien Conference.

An innovative Pilot Project on Promotion of Primary Education of Girls and Disadvantaged Groups being implemented by NCERT in the State of Haryana has also been sponsored by UNESCO through Japanese Funds-in-Trust.

Cooperation with UNICEF

UNICEF's cooperation with the Government of India in the field of education is intended to support the national goals of improving opportunities for basic education for all children and women, improving social and economic opportunities for women and reducing disparities in education among different groups and between genders.

One of the goals of cooperation is to improve opportunites for basic education for all children and women.

Working closely with both the Department of Education at the Union level and national institutions such as NCERT and NIEPA as well as departments in focus states, UNICEF has collaborated in the areas of promotion and planning of "Education for All" at national and state levels and in developing demonstration projects in support of key elements of the national programme of action, focusing on activities at district level. UNICEF has provided financial as well as technical support to the implementation of projects for introduction of Minimum Levels of Learning (MLLs), projects for evaluation and documentation of Total Literacy Campaigns, the development of literacy and post-literacy materials, innovative media activities such as Project Radio Education in Adult Literacy (PREAL) and production of weekly broadsheets for neo-literates.

Since 1992, UNICEF provides support for developing and implementing district specific projects in a number of states. The most significant of these was in Madhya Pradesh where the Teacher Empowerment Project is underway in five districts. Under this project which aims at institutionalising continuous in-service teacher support and training,teacher resource centres are being established at cluster level. UNICEF is also supporting a comprehensive basic education project in Bihar, viz. Bihar Education Project. In Andhra Pradesh, UNICEF has focused on the issue of education for girls and is supporting demonstration activities in Mehboobnagar and Anantpur district. In Bombay, a project implemented by the Bombay Municipal Corporation seeks to improve the quality of primary education in deprived urban areas and reduce the high drop-out and repetition rates.

Teacher resource centres are being established at cluster level.

Support is also being provided for two innovative projects — Project on Integrated Education for the Disabled (PIED), and the Area Intensive Education Project (AIEP). PIED, which is being coordinated by NCERT, seeks to develop appropriate strategies for integrating disabled children into mainstream primary

education and strengthen the Central Government's Integrated Education for Disabled Children Programme at primary levels. AIEP is an attempt to operationalise the concept of microplanning and is being undertaken in six states and Union Territories. This is being coordinated by the respective SCERTs/SIEs.

Collaboration with UNFPA

The United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) — the only external agency supporting population education programmes in India — has been collaborating with the Government since 1980.Over the years, UNFPA has contributed to a variety of projects which formed part of the population education programme in India. At present, besides supporting and funding a population education project as an integral part of the adult education programme, UNFPA also extends support, through NCERT, to the NPEP (in-school and non-formal education) and to higher education through UGC. Since 1980, UNFPA has made $11.1 million available to the Government for population education activities.

Features of other externally aided projects

The Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project (APPEP) is being implemented in Andhra Pradesh, since April 1983 with the assistance of the Overseas Development Administration (ODA). The objective of the project is to improve the quality of primary education in the project area by

(i) enhancing the professional competence of teachers and supervisors of primary schools through the Human Resource Development (HRD) programme which emphasises child-centred learning and

(ii) assisting construction of primary school buildings. The APPEP covers all the primary schools in the state and envisages an outlay of Rs. 31.2 million over the period 1990-92. As a pre-Jomtien project, its scope is partial and does not cover important components of basic education such as demand generation, non-formal education and the focus on girls. However, an important institutional innovation is the organisation of in-service teaching training at sub-districts levels..

Mahila Samakhya, which literally means women's equality through education, is assisted by the Government of the Netherlands. A women's empowerment project, Mahila Samakhya seeks to bring about a change in stereotyped perceptions about the 'traditional roles' of women instead of aiming at service delivery. Mahila Samakhya is being implemented in 14 districts spread over the four states of Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, Gujarat and Andhra Pradesh.

The Bihar Education Project (BEP) represents the first major attempt in India to include the broad range of national EFA

A Mahila Samooh (Women's Collective)

"Gagarpur" is a village with about 200 households (population 12000). At the outskirts of the village there are two hamlets. In one of them lives a community of tribals, who were nomadic and known in olden days for their dare-devilry. In another hamlet live 20 families of deprived and disadvantaged communities. There is no water well or hand-pump in this hamlet. There is an old primary school with two dilapidated rooms and two teachers. Only one teacher comes to the school everyday. Seventy-five children (10 girls) are enroled; but only 25 children come everyday. One adult education centre was started two years ago, but the instructor is not enthusiastic.

Dhanno is an illiterate woman, like 98 per cent of women in the village. A social worker spotted Dhanno because of her zest for life, lively nature and spontaneous capacity for breaking out into a song. The social worker was familiar with the Mahila Samakhya programme, and after pleading with Dhanno's family who were opposed to her going out of the village, sent her for an intensive three week training programme. During the training, Dhanno became aware of the plight of her fellow trainees — their individual predicaments, their 'personal shame', frequent wife beating, back-breaking work; recurrent child birth; health problems, especially gynaecological ones, morbidity; above all the feeling of being unwanted which had become the common problem of "womanhood", of poverty and of the soical structure.

There were lighter moments too. After almost 20 years Dhanno rediscovered her childhood. She played games and laughed loudly. The group sang, enacted plays and skits, and was excited about holding a pencil to draw on paper. They talked a lot, shared experiences and asked themselves, "Why does society always say put three women together, and they will invariably fight?"

Dhanno came back to the village, with a twinkle in her eyes. The women were curious; they asked her about the training. Dhanno sang a song and showed them posters. She made them sit on chairs and gave them tea. She told them about drought relief work, about other schemes, and she got talking. The women enjoyed meeting and talking about the "outside world"; "tell us more", they said. The Mahila Samooh started becoming a reality. Then the supervisor visited the village, told them about Mahila Samakhya; how they could ask for non-formal centres for learning...A new world was unfolding before their eyes. The school teacher was angry about these "interfering" women, but he soon realised that the District Education Officer had been getting regular reports about his school. He asked the supervisor what brought her to the village every fornight,and why could she not be like other inspectors. She replied, "I work for the women; I am responsible to them; and above all enjoy coming here."

Gagarpur women are excited, full of plans; they now want to organise a health camp, to learn, to understand, and to act. When the social worker asked them how it all happened, they said, "In the past we were always told what to do and what we should demand but in Mahila Samakhya they asked us first and let us do it ourselves."

concerns, issues, approaches and strategies in one, large-scale operational programme. BEP covers all components of basic education with a strong focus on primary education and will be expanded in a phased manner in 20 districts. Project activities have begun in seven districts. An outlay of Rs. 3540 million is envisaged during the Eighth Plan; UNICEF agreed to seek US $8 million from general resources and upto $100 million from supplementary resources.

An important institutional innovation has been the constitution of an autonomous state level body, registered as a society, for the implementation of the project. The creation of this structure is rooted in the wide-spread realisation that the

existing administrative stuctures are inadequate to implement special time-bound educational programmes which call for an intense participative process and which require a mission mode of implementation with a spirit of despatch and resolve. There are two main organs of the society — the General Council under the chairmanship of the Chief Minister, and the Executive Committee under the chairmanship of the state Education Secretary. The Government of India, the Government of Bihar, NGOs, teacher representatives and distinguished women and educationists are represented in these bodies so that planning and monitoring are undertaken in a participatory manner.

Similar participatory structures have been set up at district level. Village Education Committees play an important role in the implementation of the project at the village level. This insitutional innovation has come to be a key feature of all subsequent projects such as the U.P. Basic Education Project and the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP).

The UNICEF-GOI mid-term review of the project in May 1993 noted that the " Project has had major impact on attitudes in Bihar towards education at political, administrative and community levels. The project has also played a major role in mobilising greater national and international interest in basic education. It is regarded as the pioneering effort for other large-scale projects which are now being taken up in several states. Lessons learnt have also been applied in the national District Primary Education Programme."

The **'Lok Jumbish : People's Movement for Basic Education for All : Rajasthan' Project** is being implemented in Rajasthan with assistance from the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA). The project relies heavily on people's mobilisation and seeks to bring about maximum possible decentralisation of management, accountability and relevance to the educational system. The overall goal of the project is to achieve education for all in Rajasthan by the year 2000. At present, the project is in the pilot phase (1992-94) with a coverage of 25 blocks.

The **Shiksha Karmi Project** which seeks to tackle the problem of teacher absenteeism in remote villages of Rajasthan state is also being assisted by SIDA. 'Shiksha Karmi' means voluntary education worker, and the project has a strong component of training inputs.The total outlay on the project for the period June 1991 to June 1996 is Rs. 412.3 million.

The **Uttar Pradesh Basic Education Project** is the first major primary education project funded by the World Bank in India. Covering ten districts, the project envisages an outlay of approximately Rs.7280 million over a period of seven years spanning 1993-2000. The World Bank has approved a credit of US $ 163.1 million for the project. As with BEP, the management would be through a participative state level autonomous society and VECs would play an active role in the implementation of

the project at the grassroots level. A key institutional innovation is the State Institute of Management and Training, UP which, in collaboration with NCERT and NIEPA, is expected to play a major role in the training of educational functionaries and community leaders. The project also attempts to operationalise the concept of school complexes, suggested as early as 1964-65 by the Education Commission, to provide resource support to schools.

District Primary Education Programme (DPEP)

The concept of comprehensive district-based projects came of age with the launching of the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) — the primary education Component of the Social Safety Net Adjustment Credit financed by IDA.

Launched in 1993, the Programme builds upon the experience gained in::

- the implementation of the Bihar Education Project (with UNICEF assistance) and the Lok Jumbish Project (with SIDA assistance);
- the planning of Basic Education Project in Uttar Pradesh (with IDA assistance);
- the implementation of the Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project (with ODA assistance), Shiksha Karmi Project (with SIDA assistance) and Mahila Samakhya (with assistance from the Government of the Netherlands).

DPEP goes beyond the UP and Bihar projects in several ways such as:

(i) emphasising the local area planning with district plans being formulated in their own right instead of being derived from a state plan project document;

(ii) infusing greater rigour and professional inputs in planning and appraisal;

(iii) more focused targetting in that the districts selected would be:

  (a) the 247 educationally backward districts with female literacy below the national average; and

  (b) districts where TLCs have been successful leading to enhanced demand for elementary education;

(iv) more focused coverage in that the Programme would initially focus on primary stage (classes I-V and its NFE equivalent), with stress on education for girls, and for socially disadvantaged groups; and

(v) emphasising capacity building and networking of district, state and national level institutes in the fields of education,

management and social sciences to provide the resource support for the programme.

To begin with, projects are being formulated in 43 districts in eight states — Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Assam, Haryana, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Kerala. The objective is to gradually extend the coverage to all the districts which satisfy one of the twin criteria for coverage. The attempt would be to start the Programme in at least 110 districtts in the Eighth Plan with an estimated outlay of Rs.195 million of which Rs.172 million are proposed to be drawn from external sources.

Bilateral Cultural Exchange Programmes

India's bilateral cultural exchange programmes include educational programmes with more than 60 countries. The Government of India sends delegations to other countries to study their educational systems and innovative programmes, and receives such delegations from other countries.

A Unique Distinction

India has the distinction of being awarded UNESCO Literacy prizes for four successive years:

- *The King Sejong Literacy Prize awarded to the Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad, Thiruvananthapuram in 1990 and Puduvai Arivoli Iyakkam of Pondicherry in 1992*
- *The Noma Literacy Prize to the Government off West Bengal in 1991 and the Indian Federation of UNESCO Clubs in 1993. The Bhavnagar Zilla Parishad received the Honourable Mention attached to the Noma Literacy Prize in 1993.*
- *Dr. Chitra Naik, Member, Planning Commission, has been awarded the 1993 Jan Comenius Medal for the Promotion of Educational Research and Innovation.*

Chapter X

The Challenges Ahead

At first glance, statistical indicators appear to reflect a dim prospective picture of India achieving EFA by the year 2000. It is a country which has the largest number of out-of-school children as well as the largest number of illiterate adults in the world. Furthermore,not only is India the second most populous country in the world, but it also adds *every year* to its numbers a population which equals that of Australia.

Modest projections indicate that the size of India's population would be about 1 billion by the turn of the century. It is only by the year 2050 that a stable population can be envisioned. Consequently, the steady increase in the number of school going age group children compels the country to contend continually with the supreme challenge of planning education for all when the very base is expanding at a rapid pace.

However,a closer scrutiny of the statistical picture combined with emerging trends leads to the conclusion that while the task and the challenges that confront India are indeed daunting, they are achievable. Impressive achievements and innovative, pioneering approaches have created useful avenues of progress in a large number of areas covered by preceding chapters.In order to sustain the hardwon gains and surmount the hurdles that still stand in the way of achieving EFA, the multiplicity of challenges that abound on the Indian educational scene need to be brought into sharp focus.

Cost-effectiveness, Performance and Accountability

Outlay on education needs to be augmented to 6 percent of the GNP at the earliest.

An educational system would be unable to function effectively without funds to establish the requisite infrastructure and procure the essential physical inputs (buildings, equipment, other material supplies) and human resources (teachers and administrators). Therefore, the national resolve of augumenting the public outlay on education to 6 percent of the GNP has to be translated into practice at the earliest.

While economic liberalisation and the consequent financial restructuring can be expected to facilitate greater resource flow

to education, the nation as a whole should assume responsibility for providing the resource support for education, especially as population pressures coupled with budgetary constraints present a constant challenge to the government to maintain the current levels of schooling access and the previous levels of expansion. Achieving a result-oriented balance calls for stress on cost-effectiveness and accountability at every level. In this context, a major challenge consists of reconciling and combining efficient resource utilisation with effective performance and delivery. The tendency to 'rate' programmes and projects by their ability to 'consume' the budget or demand more needs to be replaced by an all pervasive culture in which processes, outcomes and delivery should be the measure of performance rather than mere provision of inputs. As the POA, 1992, points out: " Programmes should cease to be driven by budgets and instead should stress processes and outcomes".

The challenges stemming from the basic problems of a growing population and restricted resources are multiplied manifold when they are placed against the complex backdrop of a society characterised by striking variations. For instance, centuries old traditional systems often flourish cheek by jowl with state-of-art innovations. However, rapid advances in science and technology are not always matched and backed by commensurate social changes and development.

A complex society compounds the challenges stemming from the basic problems of a growing population and restricted resources.

Accelerated industrialisation and modernisation is generally accompanied by large scale migration from rural areas to urban areas, with all its well documented attendant problems.Policy makers, planners and administrators are thus constantly faced with the exceptionally difficult task of ensuring education for all in a setting governed largely by widely differing needs,divergent demands and parameters that call for multiple readjustments and realignments.

Reform of the management system

Meeting the challenges inherent in the immense diversity of situations in the country as part of the overall strategy to achieve EFA calls for focused attention on the relatively neglected area of education management. The POA 1992 pinpoints the problem yet again when it notes: "It is obvious that many tasks which the NPE, 1986 and POA 1992 envisage cannot be performed in a state when even routine tasks like supply of textbooks, conduct of examinations and operation of academic calendar leave much to be desired". Reform of the entire management system is perhaps one of the foremost and most urgent of challenging tasks if the country is to move towards the goals of EFA at the desired pace.

The management challenge in education encompasses a series of challenges at different levels, different spheres each of which are equally important. Many of the actions envisaged by

policy makers and planners span not only the period of the Eighth Plan but go on and beyond to lead into the next century. The phasing of programmes therefore, constitutes a challenge: if progress is to be even and effective, the pace of implementation must match the mobilisation of resources. This calls for flexibility in phasing with adaptations and innovations that may be necessary along the way to suit specific situations. In this connection it is interestng to note that the TLC approach which has yielded such excellent results and has become a viable, replicable model, is a post- POA innovation.

The phasing of programmes constitutes a challenge.

At another level, the TLC approach has also served to drive home the point thatt there is no better way to ensure accountability than an awakened, vocal and ' demanding' community. However,a triad of challenges of equal importance is evident in the post-TLC situatiion. It is important to prevent a relapse and maintain and sustain both the motivation and the momentum. It is imporant to wiew literacy as an element in a broader framework rather than as an end in itself. And finally, it is important to create and implement similar participative strategies to tackle obdurate, seemingly intractable problems such as universalisaton of elementary education.

Strengthening Roles of Intervention and Empowerment

An analysis of the data available has revealed time and again that the problem of UEE is, in essence, the problem of the girl child. The correlation between literacy rates and girls education has also been highlighted. The challenge lies in ensuring that education plays the strongest possible interventionist and empowering role. Meeting this challenge would lead a long way towards securing equity and social justice in education. The participation of girls and women has to be enhanced at all stages of education. The consciousness levels and attitudes of both men and women need to be changed to overcome fundamental constraints which hamper the full participation of girls and women.

The attitudes of both men and women need to be changed.

In a complex milieu with marked gender imbalances, it is a vital necessity to design and initiate along the way appropriate diagnostic studies that would enable policy makers to identify and forge the right mix of policies and strategies as an effective interventionist tool at both the rural and the urban levels. The challenge in empowering girls and women with essential basic education lies not merely in creating and refining multiple delivery systems but also in ensuring more meaningful correlations between multiple delivery systems.

The education system should be re-oriented across the board to encompass promotion of gender sensitivity along with a renewed focus on meeting the special and challenging needs of SCs/STs, minorities and disabled children.

Developing Responsive Curricula

The content and process of education call for thoughtful re-organisation and re-emphasis in order to promote a greater understanding of the multi-faceted diversity of Indian culture, its chequered history with the inspiring struggle for Independence, the achievements of independent India and the problems that still need to be eliminated.

To achieve the goals of EFA, it is of paramount importance to develop curricula that are responsive to changing needs and times and facilitate smooth incorporation and integration of new content areas related to science, technology, population and the environment. At the same time it is equally important especially in rural areas, to ensure a careful, sensitive juxtaposition and amalgamation of modern scientific knowledge and technological changes with traditonal systems. The management of change must therefore include development of a composite package which addresses itself to fostering egalitarian, enlightened attitudes even as it safeguards the positive aspects of the diverse cultural heritage and needs of the people. Given the pace of scientific discoveries, technological innovations, the phenomenal increase in information and news and associated channels of communication, the challenge of striking a balance between tradition and modernity in the framework of EFA is likely to acquire dominant proportions in the years ahead.

Striking a balance between tradition and modernity is important.

Greater emphasis will also need to be placed on viable ways to create an awareness of the urgency of protecting the environment and the observance of a small family norm.

The persistance and emergence of challenges together with identification of more and more areas of focus in the content and process of learning means placing increasingly greater loads and responsibilities on teachers. Since well qualified and highly motivated teachers in sufficient numbers are the key to effective implementation of the curriculum,improvements in the quality and content of teacher training, orientation, retraining and the provision of adequate facilities and support services constitute a challenge that needs to be accorded topmost priority.

Streamlining Educational Administration

Effective re-organisation and re-orientation, reform, and implementation can become a reality at a faster pace if bottlenecks in administration are removed. At present, the responsibility for education administration is fragmented in most states with, for instance, several Directors of Education. There exists a challenging need to develop result oriented mechanisms for greater coordination amongst multiple agencies and functionaries.

There is a need to reorient the education system across the board.

At the same time, it is vital to universalise an integrated approach and establish linkages between education and other related areas such as child care, nutrition and health. The dimensions of the administrative challenge in particular and the overall challenge of achieving EFA could be reduced to more

easily manageable proportions if each state and UT could formulate a State POA which takes into account both the POA 1992 and the ground realities in the particular state. Several states have already done so but some others have still not formulated POA's. The development of state POA's could lead to greater decentralisation and all its benefits with each district and educational institution formulating a POA of its own.

It is vital to universalise an integrated approach.

The 73rd and 74th amendments to the Constitution provide yet another opportunity to not only decentralise educational administration but render the system accountable to the community. Detailed parameters for a decentralised management of education have been worked out by a CABE committee on Decentralised Management of Education. The committee's recommendations indicate how educational structures should be set up at the district, *taluk/mandal* and village levels in pursuance of the Constitutional Amendments. The recommendations of the Committee have been endorsed by the CABE in its meeting held on 15 October, 1993. The devoluton of functions should be complemented by simultaneous devolution of commensurate powers and resources, but this very process creates yet another major challenge — the challenge of management of change. Mobilising and empowering the broadest possible range off personnel at the grassroots level will not be enough. People's representatives as well as educational functionaries need to be 'prepared' to cope with the transition and to discharge accordingly the responsibilities that the pursuit of EFA entails. Management formulations should include emphatically processes such as planning, training, monitoring and evaluation.The establishment of the Mission mode in the latter half of the eighties served to highlight and underline the challenging task of strengthening monitoring arrangements and supplementing them by periodic impact studies.

The greatest challenge lies in changing people's perceptions.

Perhaps the greatest challenge facing the country today as it strives to reach the goals of EFA lies in changing people's perceptions. The education system, the State and society as a whole need to internalise a broader functional view of education — a view which recognizes and defines education as a dynamic, cumulative lifelong process encompassing a wide ranging diversity of learning opportunities applying to all people, but laying stress on children and youth, particularly those belonging to the disadvantaged groups.

On a practical plane,the TLCs have demonstrated in ample measure that a combination of political will and popular support can form powerful, virtually irresistable instruments of change and progress. It is this ethos of coordinated, participative working that needs to be extended to other problematical and weak areas that shackle the country's EFA endeavour. While the Union and state governments have their full share of responsibilities, in the final analysis, it is people's involvement in educational reconstruction which will make the crucial difference in meeting the challenge of achieving EFA in India. ❑

Acronyms and Abbreviations

A&N	Andaman and Nicobar
AE	Adult Education
AEC	Adult Education Centre
AIEP	Area Intensive Education Projectt
APEID	Asian Programme for Educational Innovations for Development
APPEAL	Asia Pacific Programme on Education for All
APPEP	Andhra Pradesh Primary Educattion Project
BEP	Bihar Education Project
CABE	Central Advisory Board of Education
CEO	Chief Education Officer
CIEFL	Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages
CIET	Central Institute of Educational Technology
CIIL	Central Institute of Indian Languages
CIVE	Central Institute of Vocational Education
CTE	College of Teacher Education
D&NH	Dadra & Nagar Haveli
DAE	Directorate of Adult Education
DIET	District Institute of Education amd Training
DRU	District Resource Unit
ECCE	Early Childhood Care and Education
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EFA	Education For All
FLAW	Functional Literacy for Adult Women
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GNP	Gross National Product
GOI	Government of India
HRD	Human Resource Development
IASE	Institute of Advanced Study in Education
ICDS	Integrated Child Development Services
IDA	International Development Agency
IEDC	Integrated Education for the Disabled Children
INGOU	Indira Gandhi National Open University
IPCL	Improved Pace and Content of Learning
JRY	Jawahar Rozgar Yojna
JSN	Jana Shiksha Nilayam
KVK	Krishi Vigyan Kendra
MARP	Multisite Action Research Projectt
MHRD	Ministry of Human Resource Development
MIS	Management Information System
MLLs	Minimum Levels of Learning
MP	Madhya Pradesh
MS	Mahila Samakhya
NAEP	National Adult Education Programme
NCERT	National Council of Educational Research and Training
NCTE	National Council of Teacher Education

NCD	National Development Council
NDG	National Development Group
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NIEPA	National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration
NIHH	National Institute of Hearing Handicapped
NIH	National Institute of Handicapped
NIMH	National Institute for the Mentally Handicapped
NIOH	National Institute for the Orthopaedically Handicapped
NIVH	National Insitiute for the Visually Handicapped
NLM	National Literacy Mission
NLMA	National Literacy Mission Authority
NOS	National Open School
NPE	National Policy on Education
NPEP	National Population Education Programme
OB	Operation Blackboard
ODA	Overseas Development Administration
ORT	Oral Rehydration Therapy
PIED	Project on Integrated Education for the Disabled
PLC	Post Literacy Campaign
POA	Programme of Action
PREAL	Project Radio Evaluation in Adult Education
PROPEL	Promoting Primary and Elementary Education
RCE	Regional College of Engineering
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SC	Scheduled Caste
SCERT	State Council of Educational Research and Training
SDG	State Development Group
SDP	State Domestic Product
SEEUY	Self Employment for Educated Unemployed Youth
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SIET	State Institute of Educational Technology
SRC	State Resource Centre
ST	Scheduled Tribe
TLC	Total Literacy Campaign
TRYSEM	Training for Rural Youth in Self Employment
TV	Television
UEE	Universalisation of Elementary Education
UGC	University Grants Commission
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UP	Uttar Pradesh
UPE	Universal Primary Education
UT	Union Territory
VEC	Village Education Committee

Annexure

Table 1: Population Parameters of India 1901-91

Year	Population size (million)	Decadal absolute increase	Annual exponential growth rate (million)	Decadal birth rate (%)	Decadal death rate
1901	238.4				
1911	252.1	+ 13.7	0.56	49.2	42.6
1921	251.1	– 0.8	-0.03	48.1	47.2
1931	279.0	+ 27.7	1.04	46.4	36.3
1941	318.7	+ 39.7	1.33	45.2	31.2
1951	361.1	+ 42.4	1.25	39.9	27.4
1961	439.2	+ 78.1	1.96	41.7	22.8
1971	548.1	+108.2	2.20	41.2	19.2
1981	683.3	+135.2	2.22	33.9	12.5
1991	846.3	+163.0	2.14	N.A.	N.A.

Source : Final Population Totals, paper II of Census of India 1991 (page 86)
N.A. Not available.

Table 2: Area Distribution of Population, Sex Ratio/Density and Growth Rate of Population

State/Union Territory	Area in sq km	Number of districts	Population 1991 Census (million)			Sex Ratio@		Density		Growth Rate	
			Persons	Male	Female	1981	1991	1981	1991	1971-81	1981-91
1. Andhra Pradesh	275068	23	66.51	33.72	32.78	975	972	195	241	23.10	23.82
2. Arunachal Pradesh	83743	11	0.86	0.47	0.40	862	861	8	10	35.15	35.86
3. Assam	78438	23	22.41	11.66	10.76	910	925	230	284	23.35	23.58
4. Bihar	173877	39	86.37	45.20	41.17	946	912	402	497	24.06	23.49
5. Goa	3810	2	1.17	0.59	0.58	975	969	272	316	26.74	15.96
6. Gujrat	196024	19	41.31	31.36	19.95	942	936	174	210	23.67	20.80
7. Haryana	44212	12	16.46	8.83	7.63	870	874	292	369	28.75	26.28
8. Himachal Pradesh	55673	12	5.17	2.62	2.55	973	996	77	92	23.71	19.39
9. Jammu & Kashmir	222236*	14	7.72+	4.01	3.70	892	923	59	76	29.69	26.92
10. Karnataka	191791	19	44.98	22.95	22.03	963	960	194	234	26.75	20.69
11. Kerala	38863	14	29.10	14.28	14.81	1032	1040	655	747	19.24	13.98
12. Madhya Pradesh	443446	45	66.18	34.27	31.91	941	932	118	149	28.27	26.75
13. Maharashtra	307690	31	78.94	40.83	38.11	937	936	204	256	24.56	25.36
14. Manipur	22327	8	1.84	0.94	0.90	971	961	64	82	32.46	28.58
15. Meghalaya	22429	5	1.77	0.91	0.88	954	947	60	78	32.04	31.90
16. Mizoram	21081	3	0.69	0.36	0.33	919	924	23	33	48.55	38.98
17. Nagaland	16579	7	1.21	0.64	0.57	863	890	47	73	50.05	56.86
18. Orissa	155707	13	31.66	16.06	15.07	981	972	169	202	20.17	19.50
19. Punjab	50362	12	20.28	10.78	9.50	879	888	333	401	23.89	20.26
20. Rajasthan	342239	30	44.01	23.04	20.96	919	913	100	128	32.97	29.07
21. Sikkim	7096	4	0.41	0.22	0.19	835	880	45	57	50.77	27.57
22. Tamil Nadu	130058	21	55.86	28.30	27.56	970	972	372	428	17.50	14.94
23. Tripura	10486	3	2.76	8.42	1.34	946	946	196	262	31.92	33.69
24. Uttar Pradesh	294411	63	139.11	74.04	65.08	885	885	377	571	25.49	25.16
25. West Bengal	88752	17	68.01	35.51	32.57	911	917	615	766	23.17	24.55
26. A&N Islands	8249	2	0.28	0.15	0.13	760	820	23	34	36.93	47.29
27. Chandigarh	114	1	0.64	0.36	0.28	769	793	3961	5620	75.55	41.88
28. D & N Haveli	491	1	0.14	0.07	0.07	974	953	211	282	39.78	33.63
29. Daman & Diu	2	0.10	0.05	0.05	1062	972	705	906	26.07	28.43	
30. Delhi	1083	1	9.42	5.16	4.27	808	830	4194	6319	53.00	56.64
31. Lakshadweep	32	1	0.05	0.03	0.03	975	944	1258	1615	26.53	28.40
32. Pondicherry	492	4	0.81	0.41	0.40	985	982	1229	1605	28.15	30.60
India	3287259	462	846.30	439.23	407.07	934	926	216	267	24.66	23.50

** Includes area under illegal occupation of Pakistan and China*
+ Excludes population of areas under illegal occupation of Pakistan and China where Census could not be taken.
@ Sex ratio is defined as number of females per 1000 males.
Source : Selected Educational Statistics,1992-93, GOI, MHRD, Department of Education, 1993.

Chart A

Growth Rate of Population, 1971-81 and 1981-91

(in percentage per decade)

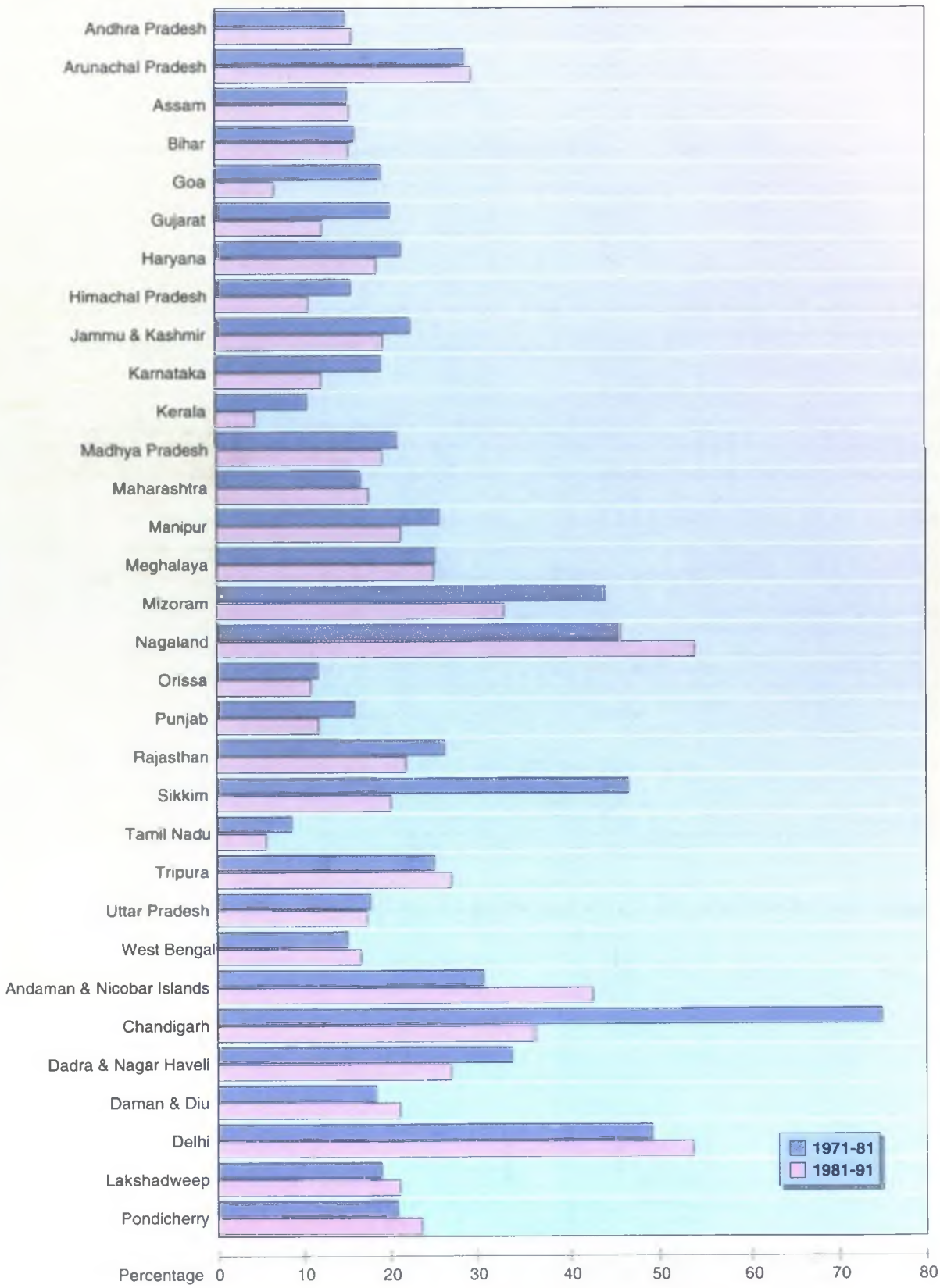


Chart B

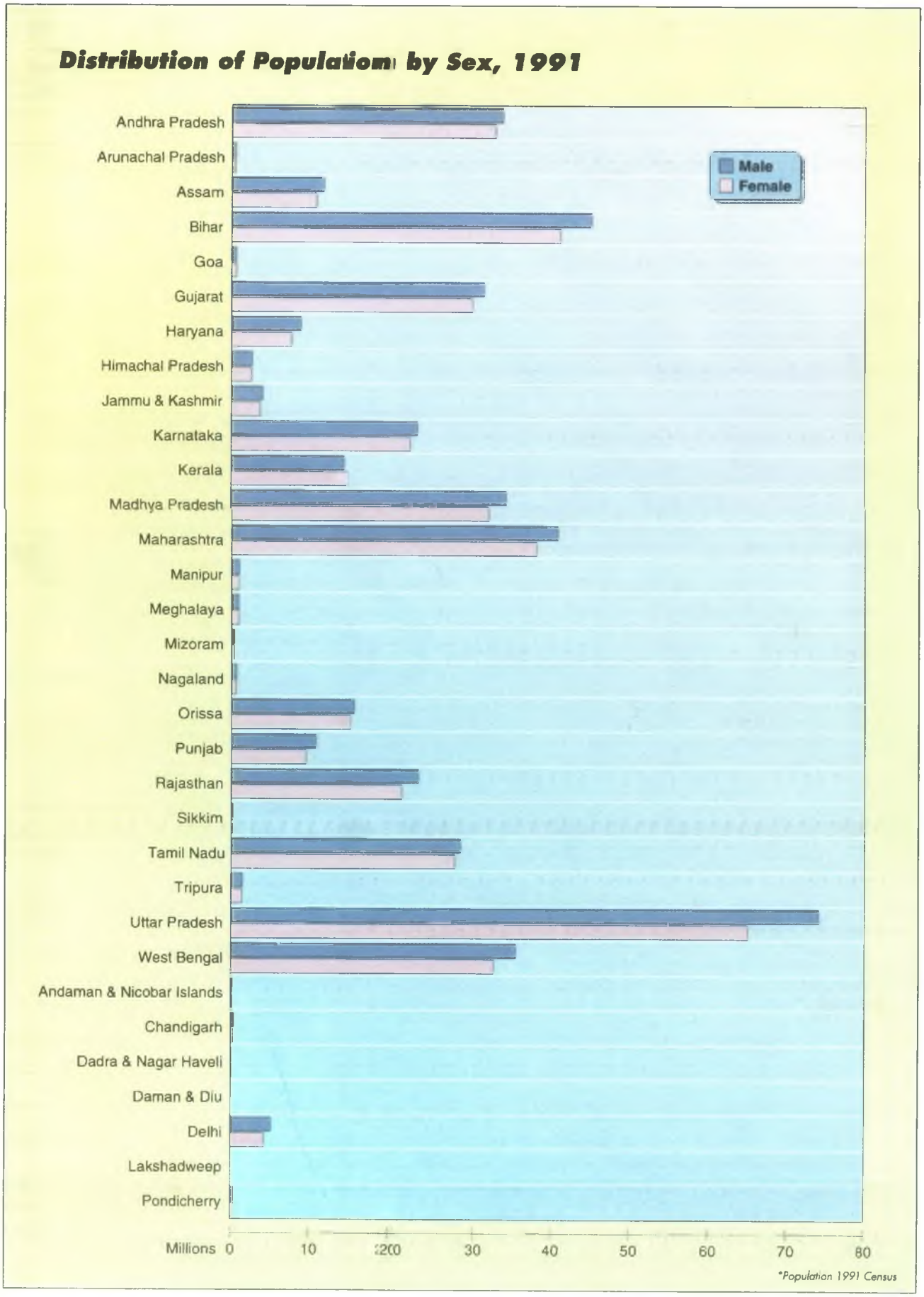

Distribution of Population by Sex, 1991
Male
Female
Andhra Pradesh
Arunachal Pradesh
Assam
Bihar
Goa
Gujarat
Haryana
Himachal Pradesh
Jammu & Kashmir
Karnataka
Kerala
Madhya Pradesh
Maharashtra
Manipur
Meghalaya
Mizoram
Nagaland
Orissa
Punjab
Rajasthan
Sikkim
Tamil Nadu
Tripura
Uttar Pradesh
West Bengal
Andaman & Nicobar Islands
Chandigarh
Dadra & Nagar Haveli
Daman & Diu
Delhi
Lakshadweep
Pondicherry
Millions 0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80
*Population 1991 Census

Table 3: Key Demographic Indicators for Major Indian States

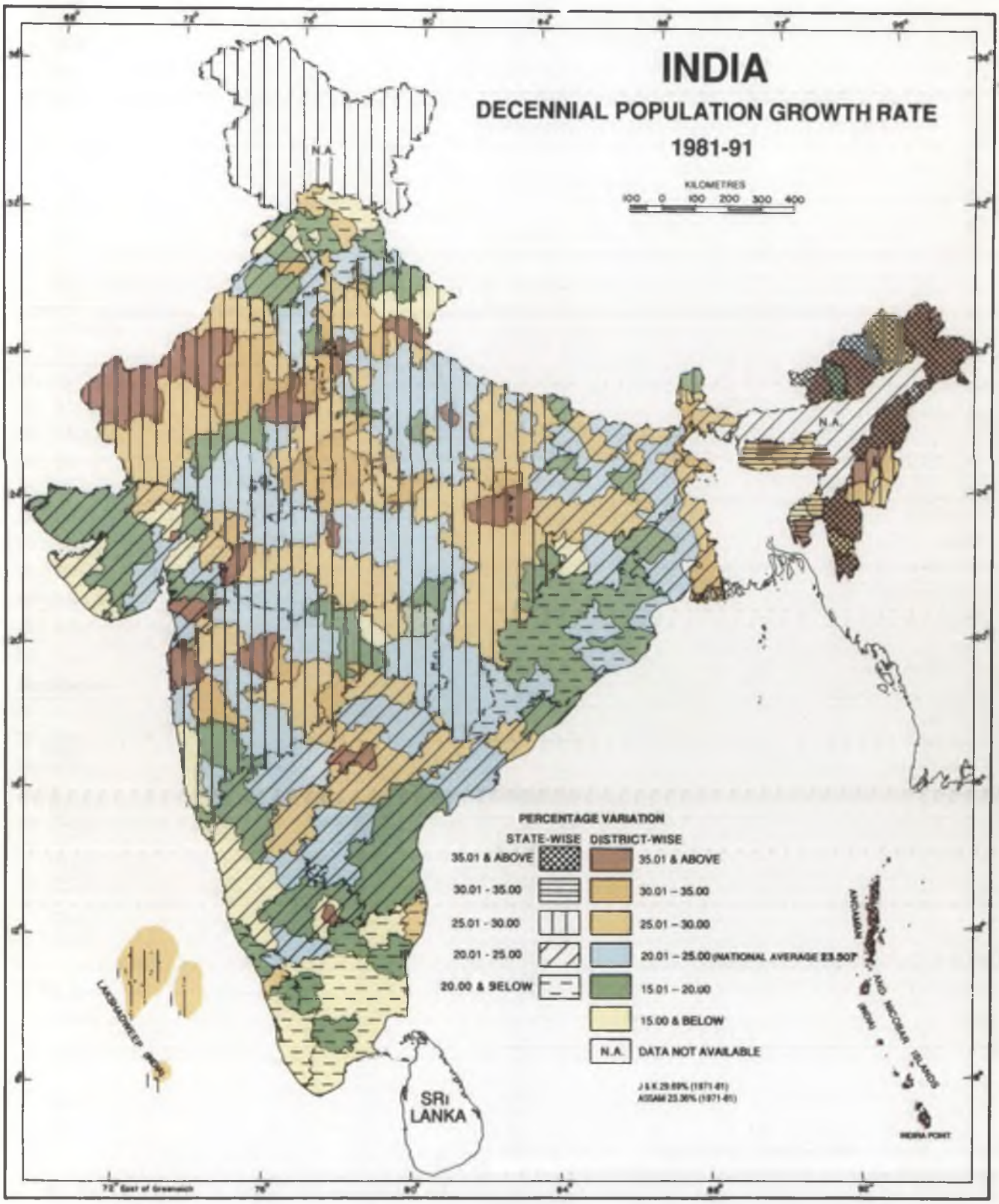
	Average children Per woman (TFR)	*Births Per 1000 Population (CBR)*	*Percent of couples using a family plng. method*	*Per cent of female literacy*	*Infant deaths Per 1000 births*	*Sex ratio females per 100 males*
			Low Fertility States			
Kerala 29 million*	2.2	20	80	87	22	104
Tamil Nadu 56 Million	2.6	23	56	52	68	97
Karnataka 45 million	3.4	28	48	44	80	96
Punjab 20 million	3.4	28	69	50	67	89
Maharashtra 79 million	3.5	28	53	51	59	94
			Moderate Fertility States			
Andhra Pradesh 66 million	3.6	26	NA	34	81	97
Gujarat 41 million	3.6	29	55	49	86	94
Himachal Pradesh 5 million	3.6	28	59	52	74	100
Orissa 32 million	3.7	30	45	34	122	97
West Bengal 68 million	3.8	27	55	47	77	91
Assam 22 million	4.0	29	43	NA	91	NA
Jammu & Kashmir 8 million	4.1	31	50	NA	69	NA
Haryana 16 million	4.3	35	50	41	82	87
			High Fertility States			
Madhya Pradesh 66 million	4.7	35	39	28	117	93
Rajasthan 44 million	4.8	34	30	21	96	91
Bihar 86 million	5.3	34	30	23	91	91
Uttar Pradesh 140 million	5.5	37	28	26	118	88
			All India			
865 million**	4	30	45	39	91	93

From : Shanti R Conly and Sharon L. Camp, *India's Family Planning Challenge from Rhetoric to Action;* the Population Crisis Committee, Washington D.C., 1992

Source : "Family Planning Practices in India: Third All India Survey". New Delhi: Operations Research Group V.II 1991, p.55; 1991 Census of India; and Sample Registration System 1988.

* Population data for all states based on 1991 Census Data, rounded.

** 1991 Census data adjusted for the estimated undercount.



Reference: "Education for All", A graphic presentation, NIEPA–August, 1991

Table 4: Total Fertility Rate (TFR) by Educational Level of Women, India 1981

Educational Level	*Total Fertility Rate*		
	Total	*Rural*	*Urban*
Illiterate	5.1	5.1	4.8
Literate but below Upper Primary	4.5	4.6	4.4
Upper Primary but below matric	4.0	4.0	3.9
Matric but below graduate	3.1	3.3	3.0
Graduate and above	2.1	2.2	2.1

Table 5: Number of Deaths by Age-2 per 1000 Live Births, India 1981

Educational Level of mother	*Total*	*Rural*	*Urban*
Illiterate	138	146	99
Literate but below Upper Primary	96	106	73
Upper Primary but below matric	63	73	52
Matric but below graduate	43	55	40
Graduate and above	28	37	27

Table 6 : Distribution of Literates and Illiterates among Populattion aged 7 years and above by Sex and Area 1981-1991.

(in millions)

Year/Area	*Literates*			*Illiterates*		
	Persons	*Males*	*Females*	*Persons*	*Males*	*Females*
1981*						
All Areas	234.15	157.08	77.07	302.06	120.96	181.10
	(43.6)	(56.5)	(29.8)	(56.4)	(43.5)	(70.2)
Rural Areas	146.60	103.51	43.09	259.59	104.80	154.79
	(36.1)	(49.7)	(21.8)	(63.9)	(50.3)	(78.2)
Urban Areas	87.55	53.57	33.98	42.47	16.16	26.31
	(67.3)	(76.8)	(56.4)	(32.7)	(23.2)	(43.6)
1991**						
All areas	349.76	223.70	126.06	320.41	124.77	195.64
	(52.2)	(64.2)	(39.2)	(47.8)	(35.8)	(60.8)
Rural Areas	218.32	146.38	71.94	271.81	106.69	165.12
	(44.5)	(57.8)	(30.3)	(55.5)	(42.2)	(69.7)
Urban Areas	131.44	77.32	54.12	48.60	18.08	30.52
	(73.1)	(81.0)	(63.9)	(26.9)	(19.0)	(36.1)

* Excludes Assam where 1981 Census was not held.

** Excludes Jammu & Kashmir where 1991 Census was not held. Literacy rates and number of illiterates for 1991 are based on estimated population aged 7 years and above.

Note : Figures in Parenthesis indicate percentage to the correspondimg population.

Source : Census of India, 1991—Paper 2 of 1992 (p.51)

Table 7: Drop-out Rates in Classes I-VIII in 1988--89

State/U.T	Classees I - V			Class I - VIII		
	Boys	Giirls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1. Manipur	70.00	700.82	70.37	76.72	79.50	78.01
2. Bihar	64.39	700.26	66.34	77.39	84.90	79.76
3. West Bengal	62.57	666.89	64.45	75.35	77.34	76.18
4. Arunachal Pradesh	62.32	611.49	62.00	74.98	76.68	75.57
5. Rajasthan	52.12	600.75	56.35	63.06	73.20	65.69
6. Assam	52.20	599.64	55.12	71.94	75.74	73.59
7. Sikkim	64.12	583.29	61.61	63.83	60.11	62.51
8. Andhra Pradesh	51.45	577.54	54.08	68.58	77.90	72.54
9. Tripura	55.11	565.14	55.58	74.84	77.58	76.04
10. Karnataka	44.40	555.61	49.70	61.10	74.98	67.83
11. Uttar Pradesh	50.30	483.96	40.89	51.82	65.00	56.06
12. Gujarat	40.27	483.30	43.84	55.66	66.93	60.46
13. Dadra & Nagar Haveli	14.13	477.75	40.68	62.54	69.93	65.70
14. Maharashtra	34.24	441.25	38.91	51.27	66.07	58.67
15. Madhya Pradesh	39.32	422.64	40.62	49.88	66.65	55.78
16. Mizoram	37.28	383.72	37.98	46.91	43.59	45.34
17. Jammu & Kashmir	50.03	383.16	45.30	47.00	70.36	56.11
18. Orissa	40.05	377.32	38.97	59.92	73.28	65.46
19. Nagaland	34.81	333.01	33.96	56.19	54.02	55.28
20. Haryana	26.11	300.99	28.13	39.27	51.11	43.77
21. Punjab	29.20	299.62	29.39	58.42	63.83	60.01
22. Meghalaya	28.60	299.53	29.03	66.94	61.84	64.59
23. Himachal Pradesh	26.38	277.99	27.12	18.76	33.49	25.33
24. Tamil Nadu	19.16	241.01	21.41	41.33	51.34	45.97
25. Delhi	-6.34	222.73	18.30	8.54	22.62	15.26
26. A. & N. Islands	13.72	183.69	16.13	35.27	40.03	37.53
27. Lakshadweep	11.55	77.88	26.71	26.57	47.86	36.79
28. Chandigarh	-6.00	77.80	-5.40	11.88	03.74	8.78
29. Goa	-6.00	-00.40	-3.63	15.34	23.14	19.02
30. Kerala	-3.00	-11.00	-2.00	18.37	16.99	17.70
31. Pondicherry	-6.34	-11.05	-3.81	4.79	21.07	12.55
32. Daman & Diu included in Goa	–	--	–	–	–	–
Total	46.74	499.69	47.93	59.38	68.31	65

Notes : Drop-out rate is calculated as follows:

$$\text{Drop-out rate from Class I to V for the year 1987-88} = \frac{\text{(No. of sstudents enroled in Class I in 1984-85) (No. of sstudents enroled in class V in 1988-89).}}{\text{No. of sttudents enroled in class I in 1984-85}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Drop-out rate from Class I to VIII for the year 1988-89} = \frac{\text{(No. of sstudents enroled in Class I in 1981-82) (No. of sstudent in class VIII in 1988-89).}}{\text{No. of sttudents enroled in class I in 1981-82.}} \times 100$$

This ratio does not take into account repeatters and children who enter the system after class I.

Table 8: Progress in Universalisation of Elementary Education

		ENROLMENT Boys	(in millions)
	I - V Primary	*VI - VIII Upper Primary*	*I - VIII Elementary*
1950-51	13.77	2.59	16.36
1960-61	23.59	5.07	28.66
1970-71	35.74	9.43	45.17
1980-81	45.29	13.93	59.22
*1990-91	58.10	20.84	78.94
*1991-92	59.22	21.45	80.67
		ENROLMENT Girls	(in millions)
	I - V Primary	*VI - VIII Upper Primary*	*I - VIII Elementary*
1950-51	5.39	0.53	5.92
1960-61	11.40	1.63	13.03
1970-71	21.31	3.89	25.20
1980-81	28.49	6.79	35.28
*1990-91	41.02	12.44	53.46
*1991-92	42.36	13.00	55.36
		ENROLMENT Totals	(in millions)
	I - V Primary	*VI - VIII Upper Primary*	*I - VIII Elementary*
1950-51	19.16	3.12	22.28
1960-61	34.99	6.70	41.69
1970-71	57.05	13.32	70.37
1980-81	73.78	20.72	94.50
*1990-91	99.12	33.28	132.40
*1991-92	101.58	34.45	136.03

* Provisional figures

Table 9: Progress in Universalisation of Elementary Education
Enrolment: Annual Growth Rate (%)

ENROLMENT: ANNUAL GROWTH RATE (%)

Boys

Period		I - V	VI - VIII	I - VIII
From	*To*	*Primary*	*Upper Primary*	*Elementary*
1950-51	1960-61	5.5	6.9	5.8
1960-61	1970-71	4.2	6.4	4.7
1970-71	1980-81	2.4	4.0	2.7
1980-81	1991-92	2.5	4.0	2.8

Girls

Period		I - V	VI - VIII	I - VIII
From	*To*	*Primary*	*Upper Primary*	*Elementary*
1950-51	1960-61	7.8	11.9	8.2
1960-61	1970-71	6.5	9.1	6.8
1970-71	1980-81	2.9	5.7	3.4
1980-81	1991-92	3.7	6.1	4.2

Total

Period		I - V	VI - VIII	I - VIII
From	*To*	*Primary*	*Upper Primary*	*Elementary*
1950-51	1960-61	6.2	7.9	6.5
1960-61	1970-71	5.0	7.1	5.4
1970-71	1980-81	2.6	4.5	3.0
1980-81	1991-92	2.9	4.7	3.4

Table 10: Progress in Universalisation of Elementary Education Enrolment: Gross Enrolment Ratio

	Boys		
	I - V Primary	*VI - VIII Upper Primary*	*I - VIII Elementary*
1950-51	60.6	20.6	46.4
1960-61	82.6	33.2	65.2
1970-71	92.6	46.5	75.5
1980-81	95.8	54.3	82.0
1990-91	115.3	73.4	100.2
1991-92	116.6	74.2	101.2
	Girls		
	I - V Primary	*VI - VIII Upper Primary*	*I - VIII Elementary*
1950-51	24.8	4.6	17.7
1960-61	41.4	11.3	30.9
1970-71	59.1	20.8	44.4
1980-81	64.1	28.6	52.1
1990-91	86.0	46.1	71.6
1991-92	88.1	47.4	73.2
	Totals		
	I - V Primary (Age group 6-11)	*VI - VIII Upper Primary (Age group 11-14)*	*I - VIII Elementary (Age group 6-14)*
1950-51	42.6	12.7	32.1
1960-61	62.4	22.5	48.7
1970-71	76.4	34.2	61.9
1980-81	80.5	41.9	67.5
1990-91	101.0	60.1	86.3
1991-92	102.7	61.2	87.7

Table 11: Transition Rates from Primary to Upper Primary Stage

Year	*Boys*	*Girls*	*Total*
1950-51	18.78	9.92	16.29
1960-61	21.59	14.30	19.16
1970-71	26.38	18.26	23.34
1980-81	30.77	23.84	28.09
1990-91	35.88	30.32	33.58
1991-92	36.22	30.68	33.91

Sources : (i) Education in India, M/HRD
(ii) A Handbook of Education and Allied Statistics, M/HRD
(iii) Selected Educational Statistics, M/HRD

Table 12: Gross Enrolment Ratios in Elementary lEducation in Selected States (%)

States	Primary (II - V)			Upper Primary (VI) - VIII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1980-81						
Andhra Pradesh	97.1	71.6	84.8	*39.2*	*20.5*	*30.1*
Arunachal Pradesh	106.9	*55.5*	*81.5*	*37.2*	*15.1*	*25.9*
Bihar	101.9	*44.8*	*74.2*	*38.0*	*10.4*	*24.6*
Gujarat	122.1	87.1	105.2	59.5	37.0	48.7
Haryana	99.1	*54.7*	*77.7*	65.2	*26.3*	46.9
J&K	100.9	*53.3*	*76.3*	56.2	*25.5*	40.8
Madhya Pradesh	*81.9*	*44.0*	*63.7*	*43.6*	*15.4*	*30.0*
Meghalaya	122.8	111.6	117.2	51.8	41.4	46.3
Orissa	*96.6*	67.0	*82.3*	*42.1*	*20.9*	*31.7*
Sikkim	158.6	109.4	134.3	58.0	29.8	43.6
Uttar Pradesh	*90.8*	*45.7*	*68.9*	54.5	*19.3*	*37.5*
Tamil Nadu	124.6	109.3	117.2	64.0	41.4	53.1
West Bengal	*93.4*	69.5	*81.8*	*44.8*	*24.9*	*34.8*
All India	99.0	66.2	83.1	52.1	27.2	40.0
1991-92						
Andhra Pradesh	123.16	94.81	109.16	*70.80*	*43.28*	*57.17*
Arunachal Pradesh	127.84	91.11	109.43	*56.45*	*37.35*	*47.00*
Bihar	*104.60*	*55.55*	*80.47*	*53.17*	*20.67*	*37.02*
Gujarat	141.79	110.64	126.52	84.58	58.64	71.86
Haryana	*93.59*	*78.72*	*86.27*	74.78	51.26	63.59
J&K	*101.82*	*71.20*	*86.88*	75.82	*46.70*	61.70
Madhya Pradesh	119.20	88.78	104.54	74.22	35.68	55.53
Meghalaya	*66.59*	*62.38*	*64.48*	*63.52*	53.67	*58.53*
Orissa	119.47	86.53	103.42	65.07	37.74	51.57
Sikkim	127.17	112.68	120.01	48.71	47.63	48.19
Uttar Pradesh	*104.88*	*66.88*	*86.86*	*67.94*	*33.42*	*51.64*
Tamil Nadu	142.28	127.86	135.24	109.43	86.00	97.95
West Bengal	139.78	107.93	124.13	74.27	55.49	64.94
All India	116.61	88.09	102.74	74.19	47.40	61.15

Note : Figures in italics represent below national averagge
Source : Selected Educational Statistics, 1980-81 to 1991-992

Table 13: Select Chaıracteristics of Primary and Upper Primary Schools in India 1978 and 19!86

	1978	*1986*
BUILDINGS		
Percentage of primary schools		
Without buildings	18.75	13.54
With Kachha buildlings	21.35	13.92
With pucca/partly pucca buildings	59.90	72.54
Percentage of upper Primary schools		
Without buildings	3.65	4.12
With kachha buildlings	10.53	8.14
With pucca/partly pucca buildings	85.82	87.74
TEACHERS		
Percentage of trained teachers		
Primary schools	86.27	86.62
Upper Primary schools	86.67	88.14
Percentage of Primary schools with		
zero teachers	0.62	0.42
One teacher	34.75	28.91
Two teacher	27.27	31.85
Three teacher	15.10	15.11
Four teachers	8.16	8.88
Five or more teachers	14.10	14.83

From : JBG Tilak, Elementary Education in India in the 1990s: Problems and Perspectives; NIEPA (mimeo), 1993.

Source : Fourth and Fifth All India Educational Survey, NCERT (1991)

Table 14: Non-Participation in Elementary Education (Age Group 6-14)

Year	*Non-participants (in million)*	*% of Total population (6-14 Age-group)*
1911	44.14	90.5
1951	49.18	71.5
1961	47.94	59.9
1973	44.80	37.8
1978	55.30	42.1
1992 (a)	19.18	12.0
1992 (b)	24.00	9.0

From : JBG Tilak and N.V. Varghese "Resources for Education of All, paper presented at the JP Naik Seminar on Education for All, held at the India Institute of Pune, 20-22, 1986 for date from 1911- to 1972.

Notes : (a) Based on Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)

(b) Based on Net Enrolment Ratio estimated at 75% of GER

Table 15: Enrolment of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes (Fig in 000's)

Year	Primary			Upper Primary			Elementary		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
				Scheduled Castes					
1980-81	7213	3768	10981	1621	602	2223	8834	4370	13204
1987-88	9083	5593	14676	2543	1193	3736	11626	6786	18412
1991-92	9709	6328	16037	3137	1556	4693	12846	7884	20730
				Scheduled Tribes					
1980-81	3133	1527	4660	537	205	742	3670	1732	5402
1987-88	4606	2623	7229	1008	447	1455	5614	3070	8684
1991-92	4951	3082	8033	1214	580	1794	6165	3662	9827

Table 16: Drop-out Rates

	Scheduled Castes		All Communities		Scheduled Tribes	
	Primary	Upper Primary	Primary	Upper Primary	Primary	Upper Primary
1980-81	60.16	76.84	75.66	86.71	58.70	72.70
1981-82	59.21	74.76	74.00	84.99	53.50	72.10
1982-83	60.27	72.44	72.44	83.35	52.10	69.57
1983-84	57.84	72.36	70.63	83.74	50.26	69.76
1984-85	55.40	72.16	69.40	82.86	47.93	65.39
1985-86	52.53	72.50	65.56	81.86	47.61	64.42
1986-87	50.79	69.15	66.12	80.19	48.60	64.90
1987-88	51.38	68.81	65.21	80.01	46.97	62.29
1988-89	49.62	67.78	64.53	78.08	47.93	65.40

Table 17: Literacy Rates

Year	Persons	Male	Females
1951	18.33	27.16	8.86
1961	28.31	40.40	15.34
1971	34.45	45.95	21.97
1981	43.67	56.50	29.85
1991	52.19	64.20	39.19

Note : 1. Literacy rate 1951, 1961 and 1971 relate to populattion aged 5 years and above. The rates for the years 1981 and 1991 relatee to the population aged seven years and above.

2. The 1981 rates exclude Assam where the 1981 Cemsus could not be conducted. The 1991 Census rates exclude Assam , and Jammu & Kashmir where the 1991 Census is yet to be conducted.

Source : Census of India, 1991 - Paper 2 of 1992 (p.51)

Table 18: Percent Distribution of Female Literates and Population Aged 0-6 years by Female Literacy Rate by the District in which they Reside, 1991

Range of female literacy rate (percent)	*Share of Country's*		
	Districts	*Female literates*	*Population aged 0-6 years*
Total*	452	100.00	100.00
Up to 25.00	125	13.52	31.41
25.01 - 35.00	92	14.13	20.91
35.01 - 45.00	90	18.00	17.04
45.01 - 55.00	67	20.46	14.00
55.01 - 65.00	43	16.29	9.27
65.01 and above	35	17.60	6.37

* Excludes 14 disttricts of Jammu & Kashmir

Source : Registar Gerneral of Census, 'Final Population Totals : Brief Analysis of Primary Census Abstract' (Paper 2 of 1992)

Table 19: Elementary Education: Projected Enrolment for Eighth Plan (1992-97)

Sl. No.	*Stage*	*Population 1997*		*Population With overage/ underage*		*Enrolment achieved up to 91-92*		*Addnl. Population to be enroled by 1977*	
		Total	*Female*	*Total*	*Female*	*Total*	*Femal*	*Total*	*Female*
1.	Elementary Education	16.64	8.09	19.14	9.30	13.53	5.54	5.61 (67%)	3.76
	(a) Primary (I-V)	10.53	5.12	12.11	5.89	10.09	4.24	2.02 (82%)	1.65
	(b) Upper Primary (VI-VIII)	6.11	2.97	7.03	3.41	3.44	1.30	3.59 (59%)	2.11

Table 20: Association between Access and Enrolment

(Figures: Number of districts)

	High	*Moderate*	*Low*	*Total*
High	7'2	56	18	146
Moderate	7'7	100	43	220
Low	1.5	35	25	75
Total	16•4	191	86	441

Source : Sheel C. Nuna, IPrimary Education in Rural India, Accessibility—Enrolment mis-matches, NIIEPA (mimeo), 1993.

Notes : The accessibility classification is with reference to percentages of rural population and schools within one kilometre distance as detailed below:

Above	97.24	High
	89.16-97.24	Moderate
Below	89.16	Low

The classification of districts is according to net enrolment ratio as detailed below:

Above	82.75	High
	61.15-82.75	Moderate
Below	61.15	Low

Table 21: Gross Enrolment Ratios of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in Elementary Education in India (%)

Classes and age group	Scheduled Castes			Scheduled Tribes		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1980-81						
I-V (6-11 Years)	105.4	57.8	82.2	94.2	45.9	70.0
VI-VIII (11-14 years)	41.4	16.2	29.1	28.2	10.8	19.5
1985-86						
I-V (6-11 year)	116.6	73.2	95.5	113.2	68.8	91.6
VI-VIII (11-14 years)	57.8	26.2	42.5	41.3	19.2	30.6
1991-92						
I-V (6-11 Years)	121.4	83.6	103.0	125.6	82.6	104.0
VI-VIII (11-14 years)	68.9	36.0	52.9	54.1	27.3	41.1

Table 22: Drop-Out Rates (1988-89)

Classes	Scheduled Castes			Scheduled Tribes			General		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
I - V	47.24	53.39	49.62	61.94	68.73	64.53	46.74	49.69	47.93
I - VIII	64.37	73.60	67.78	76.21	81.45	78.08	59.38	68.31	65.40
I - X	76.52	85.62	79.88	84.87	89.91	86.72	72.68	79.46	75.36

Table 23: Percentage Distribution of Total Income (Recurring – Non-Recurring) on All Educational Institutions by Source

Year	Government funds Centre and states	Local body funds	University funds	Total govt. funds 2+3+4	Fees	Endowment and other sources	Total
1950-51	57.06	10.93	-	67.99	20.39	11.62	100
1960-61	67.97	6.55	-	74.50	17.14	8.35	100
1970-71	75.65	4.34	1.36	81.35	12.81	5.85	100
1980-81	81.70	4.71	1.37	87.78	8.20	4.03	100
1983-84	81.51	5.61	1.61	88.73	7.50	3.78	100

Source : Education in India, Vol.II, 1983-84, Department of Education, MHRD.

Table 24: Percentage Distribution of Total Income (Recurring and Non-Recurring) on Elementary Schools by Source

Year	Government funds Centre and states	Local body funds	University funds	Total govt. funds 2+3+4	Fees	Endowment and other sources	Total
1950-51	64.00	24.34	-	88.34	5.83	5.83	100.00
1960-61	99.00	0.01	-	99.01	0.75	0.24	100.00
1970-71	86.48	8.78	-	95.26	2.84	1.90	100.00
1980-81	86.84	9.44	0.04	96.32	2.13	1.55	100.00
1983 84	84.96	9.76	-	94.72	1.83	3.45	100.00
198 88	88.47	9.02	-	97.49	-	2.51	100.00

Source : Education in India, Vol.II, 1987-88, Department of Education, MHRD.

Table 25: Public Expenditure oon Education as Percentage of GNP in Select Asian Countries

Country	*Year*	*Expenditure on education as a % of GNP*
Indonesia	1988	0.9
India	1987	3.2
Afghanistan	1980	2.0
Pakistan	1987	3.4
Bangladesh	1989	2.2
Thailand	1990	3.8
China	1989	2.4
Philippines	1990	3.0
Hongkong	1989	2.7
Singapore	1988	3.4
Shri Lanka	1990	2.7
Malaysia	1990	5.5
Korea Rep. of	1990	3.7

Source :Statistical Year Book - 19922, UNESCO

Table 26: Budget Expenditure on Education and Training in Selected States

	States	*Percentage of SDP*		*Percentage of Total Budget (revenue)*	
		1985-86	*1990-91*	*1985-86*	*1990-91*
1.	Himachal Pradesh	6.9	8.8	20.7	22.6
2	Jammu & Kashmir	6.4	6.7	19.4	17.0
3.	Kerala	7.4	6.5	32.8	30.4
4.	Bihar	4.8	6.3	27.4	28.1
5.	Assam	4.4	6.1	23.8	25.5
6.	West Bengal	3.7	5.4	25.7	30.4
7.	Orissa	3.4	5.4	19.9	24.2
8.	Rajasthan	4.9	5.3	24.7	26.5
9.	Madhya Pradesh	4.4	5.0	23.3	24.2
10.	Andhra Pradesh	5.2	4.6	25.2	24.5
11.	Uttar Pradesh	3.5	4.6	23.1	24.0
12.	Karnataka	4.7	4.3	23.5	22.1
13.	Gujarat	4.5	4.3	26.3	24.3
14.	Punjab	3.2	3.5	23.2	22.7
15.	Maharashtra	3.6	3.2	21.3	21.1
16.	Haryana	3.2	3.1	21.4	18.6
	Total (All India) (Center+States/UT's)	3.5	4.9	12.2	13.7

Note : (i) Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is taken as the denominator to calculate the All India percentage.

(ii) States arranged in descending order of the percentage in 1990-91.

Source : Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on Education, various issues, Deepartment of Education, MHRD. Center Statistical Organisation, Department of Statistics based on data furnished by Direcctorate of Economics and Statistics of respective state governments.

Table 27: Budget Expenditure on Elementary Education in Selected States

	States	Percentage of SDP		Percentage of Total budget (revenue)	
		1985-86	1990-91	1985-86	1990-91
1.	Himachal Pradesh	3.1	4.3	9.2	11.1
2.	Bihar	2.6	3.4	15.0	15.4
3.	Assam	2.4	3.1	13.1	13.0
4.	Kerala	3.3	2.7	14.5	12.8
5.	Orissa	1.5	2.6	8.7	11.7
6.	Uttar Pradesh	1.5	2.5	10.3	12.9
7.	Rajasthan	2.3	2.5	11.5	12.4
8.	Madhya Pradesh	2.0	2.3	10.8	10.9
9.	Karnataka	1.9	2.0	9.4	10.4
10.	Gujarat	2.4	1.8	14.0	10.2
11.	Andhra Pradesh	1.8	1.7	8.7	8.9
12.	West Bengal	1.4	1.3	9.4	7.2
13.	Maharashtra	1.3	1.2	8.0	7.8
14.	Haryana	1.1	1.2	7.2	7.1
15.	Punjab	1.0	1.0	6.9	6.6
16.	Jammu & Kashmir	2.2	N.A.	6.5	5.7
	Total (All India) (Centre+states/UT's)	1.5	1.8	5.1	10.2

Note : (i) Gross Domestic Product(GDP) is taken as the denominator to calculate the All India percentage.
(ii) States arranged in descending order of the percentage in 1990-91.

Source : Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on Education, various issues, Department of Education, MHRD.Central Statistical Organisation, Department of Statistics based on data furnished by Directorate of Economics and Statistics of respective state goverments.

Table 28:Plan Expenditure on Different Sectors of Education(Percentage)

Sctor	Ist Plan expdt. 1951-56	2nd Plan expdt. 1956-61	3rd plan expdt. 1961-66	Plan Holiday expdt. 1966-69	4th Plan expdt. 1969-74	5th Plan expdt. 1974-79	6th plan expdt. 1980-85	7th Plan expdt. 1985-90	Annual Plans expdt. 1990-92	8th Plan Outlay 1992-1997
Elementary education	56	35	34	24	30	35	33	37	37	47
	(850)	(950)	(20110)	(750)	(2390)	(3170)	(8360)	(28490)	(17290)	(92010)
Secondary education	13	19	18	16	18	17	21	24	22	18
	(200)	(510)	(10130)	(530)	(1400)	(1560)	(5300)	(18320)	(10530)	(34980)
Adult education							9	6	9	9
							(2240)	(4700)	(4160)	(18480)
Higher education	9	18	15	24	25	22	22	16	12	8
	(140)	(480)	(8770)	(770)	(1950)	(2050)	(5590)	(12010)	(5880)	(15160)
Others	9	10	12	11	14	14	4	3	2	4
	(140)	(300)	(7310)	(370)	(1060)	(1060)	(1080)	(1980)	(1180)	(7510)
Technical education	13	18	21	25	13	12	11	14	17	14
	(200)	(490)	(12150)	(810)	(1060)	(1070)	(2730)	(10830)	(8230)	(27860)
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
	(1530)	(2730)	(58190)	(3230)	(7860)	(9120)	(25300)	(76330)	(47270)	(196000)

Note : Figures in parenthesis in millions of rupees

Source : Dr. R.V. Vaidyanatha Iyyar: Educationall Planning and Administration in India:Retrospect and Prospect, Department of Education, MHRD.

Table 29: Plan and Non-Plan Expenditure on Elementary Education in India

(Rs. in.10 million at current prices)

Year	*Expenditure* *Plan*	*Non-Plan*	*Total*	*Share in total expenditure on education*
1980-81	91.0 (5.9)	1446.3 (94.1)	1537.3 (100)	45.6
1981-82	103.4 (6.2)	1557.3 (93.8)	1660.7 (100)	43.8
1982-83	158.9 (7.3)	2013.2 (92.7)	2172.1 (100)	45.6
1983-84	218.8 (8.8)	2256.5 (91.2)	2475.3 (100)	45.4
1984-85	263.5 (9.2)	2591.4 (90.8)	2854.9 (100)	44.9
1985-86	266.7 (7.7)	3181.6 (92.3)	3448.3 (100)	46.2
1986-87	346.2 (8.9)	3535.5 (91.1)	3881.7 (100)	45.9
1987-88	572.9 (11.8)	4283.8 (88.2)	4856.7 (100)	46.6
1988-89	714.0 (12.9)	4825.8 (87.1)	5539.8 (100)	44.6
1989-90	966.1 (14.0)	5922.2 (86.0)	6888.3 (100)	45.8
1990-91(R)	907.4 (11.6)	6917.2 (88.4)	7824.6 (100)	45.2
1991-92(B)	963.3 (12.0)	7050.9 (88.0)	8014.2 (100)	43.8
Rate of growth	23.92%	15.49%	16.19%	

Source : Analysis of Budget Expenditure on Education of respective years, Department of Education, MHRD.

Table 30: Expenditure on Elementary Educaticon in Seventh and Eighth Five Year Plans in Selected States

(Rs. in millions)

State	*Seventh Plan*	*1990-91*	*1991-92*	*Eighth Plan (approved (outlays)*	*Eighth Plan outlays in relation to Seventh Plan (percentage)*
Andhra Pradesh	154.4 (54.7)	26.1 (64.5)	27.6 (49.9)	176.1 (63.0)	114
Assam	144.7 (58.4)	43.0 (51.2)	69.3 (89.2)	568.3 (61.8)	393
Bihar	230.1 (64.4)	55.8 (73.0)	39.3 (36.0)	588.8 (64.6)	256
Gujarat	80.2 (59.7)	13.4 (53.4)	13.9 (27.6)	150.0 (47.2)	187
Haryana	63.6 (42.2)	10.4 (34.2)	14.7 (28.1)	202.4 (39.4)	318
Jammu & Kashmir	56.1 (43.7)	23.0 (48.2)	24.7 (46.5)	157.7 (47.2)	281
Karnataka	40.6 (35.4)	23.4 (34.9)	44.3 (48.9)	409.5 (42.9)	1009
Madhya Pradesh	210.5 (46.2)	70.4 (51.0)	73.6 (40.9)	432.7 (61.5)	206
Maharashtra	78.6 (23.7)	6.1 (18.5)	20.3 (20.5)	350.0 (36.6)	445
Meghalaya	22.6 (62.2)	7.6 (50.8)	13.1 (63.8)	64.3 (69.9)	284
Orissa	93.8 (42.2)	23.6 (28.0)	15.0 (30.7)	242.7 (39.8)	259
Rajasthan	156.4 (52.0)	23.3 (33.3)	24.7 (24.0)	567.8 (59.1)	363
Tamil Nadu	172.6 (53.8)	34.8 (76.3)	41.0 (86.8)	252.5 (52.9)	146
Uttar Pradesh	221.9 (46.4)	105.5 (53.7)	59.0 (27.5)	663.5 (49.3)	299
West Bengal	98.8 (36.8)	17.2 (56.2)	29.0 (32.0)	350.0 (58.3)	354

Note : The share of elementary education in total plan expenditure on education are in parenthesis.
Source : Compiled by Department of Education,MHIRD..

Table 31: Plan Expenditure on Elementary Education in Central and State Sectors

(Rupees in million)

Year	*Centre*	*States/UTs;*	*Total*
1980-81	48.4 (5.3)	861.3 (94.7)	909.7 (100.0)
1984-85	254.5 (9.7)	2381.3 (90.3)	2635.8 (100.0)
1987-88	2126.0 (37.1)	3602.7 (62.9)	5728 (100.0)
1991-92	2788.0 (28.0)	7175.1 (72.0)	9963.1 (100.0)

Note : Figures in parenthesis are percentages.
Source : Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on Educcation, various Issues, Department of Education, MHRD.

Table 32: Per Student Expenditurre on Elementary Education in India

Year	*Primary school*	*Upper primary school*
At Current prices		
1980-81	Rs.160.9	Rs.193.4
1981-82	Rs.178.9	Rs.235.1
1982-83	Rs.196.5	Rs.264.1
1983-84	Rs.217.1	Rs.285.1
1987-88	Rs.339.7	Rs.429.7
Rate of Growth	1.4%	1.5%
At Constant(1970-71)prices		
1980-81	Rs.62.5	Rs.75.2
1981-82	Rs.63.6	Rs.83.6
1982-83	Rs.68.1	Rs.91.5
1983-84	Rs.65.3	Rs.85.8
1987-88	Rs.78.8	Rs.99.7
Rate of Growth	0.4%	0.5%

Note : Data for 1984-85 are not ava ailable

Source : Based on Education in India a (various years). The data on constant prices is estimated by J.B.G. Tilak, taking National Wholesale Price Indexes deflator in Elementary Education in t the 1990s : Problems and Perspectives, NIEPA, 1993, mimeographed.

Table 33: Expected flow of Externnal Funding for Elementary Education During Eighth Five Year Plan (19992-97)

(Rupes in million)

Name of the project	*NNo. of dilistricts*	*Total outlay*	*External assistance*
1. Mahila Samakhya	20	512.9	512.9
2. Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project	23	1000.0	1000.0
3. Shiksha Karmi Project	10500 remote villlages in 70) blocks	350	315
4. Bihar Education Project	20	3540	1770
5. Lok Jumbish	25(;(Blocks)	180	90
6. UP Project	10	4180	3630
7. DPEP	110	19500	17200
		29262.9	24517.9

Source: Department of Education, MMHRD.

Glossary

Anganwadis	Centres for delivery of package of services under ICDS in a village/urban slum
Ashram school	A residential school in a tribal milieu
Bal Bhawan	Literally, a 'Home for children'
Balwadis	Day care centres for pre-school children
Block	A spatial unit for developmental planning comprising about 100 villages and about 80,000 to 1,20,000 population
Doordarshan	Indian Television
Gram Sabha	An assembly of all citizens of a village
Gram Shikshan Kendra	Literally, 'Village Education Centre'
Jawahar Rozgar Yojana	Employment Generation Scheme named after Pandit Jawahar Lal Nehru
Jana Skikshan Nilayam	Centre for People's Education serving a cluster of about ten villages with a population of about 5,000.
Kachha	Temporary
Kendriya	Central
Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad	A non-governmental organisation in the state of Kerala
Lok Jumbish	People's Movement: Project aimed at Education for All in the state of Rajasthan
Mandal	A spatial unit of developmental planning comprising about 15-20 villages and about 10,000 population in the state of Andhra Pradesh
Mahila Samakhya	Women's collectives: project on education for women's equality
Mahila Samooh	A women's group/ collective
Nukkad Natak	Street corner play
Panchayat	Elected body responsible for local government of a village or a cluster of villages
Panchayati Raj	Generally a three-tier structure of local self government in rural areas at the village, block and district levels
Panchayat Samiti	Elected body responsible for local government at the block level
Puduvai Arivoli Iyyakam	A non-governmental organisation in the Union Territory of Pondicherry
Rashtriya	National
Sahayogini	Literally, a 'helper'; in Mahila Samakhya programme, a motivator, supporter, guide of facilitators in ten villages
Sansthan	Institute
Shiksha Karmi	A local educational worker
Taluka	A sub-division of district
Zila Parishad	District Council