

## ***Chapter – II***

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION:**

A large number of literatures concerned with literacy and educational attainment have accumulated during the last few decades. Most of these contributions have been made by scholars belonging to the disciplines of education, economics, geography and sociology. While the scholars of the other three disciplines have rightly addressed the issue within their prescribed disciplinary frame, the inputs of the geographers have been able to bring out the socio-spatial dimensions of this highly crucial phenomenon. Although a good number of the geographical studies have only represented facts pertaining to the literacy and education scenario in different parts of the country based on Census of India enumerations, a few of them have effectively and significantly contributed towards the development of theoretical frameworks to evaluate the problem and processes of literacy and educational attainment in the regional context. An attempt is made in this chapter to evaluate these works by classifying them under relevant categories or groups and finally specify the nature of the present research.

#### **2.2 ROLE OF LITERACY AND EDUCATION IN SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT:**

Role of literacy and education in social and economic development has been highlighted by scholars belonging to almost every discipline concerned with the issue. Ahmed strongly believes that education plays a great role in social change which is crucial in the area of value transmission, attitude and knowledge (Joshi, 1979). In the words of Mukherjee (1967), education generates and propagates values and ethics of life as well as, helps a person to serve the society in a better way. Joshi (1979) and Gupta (2005) emphasize on the role of education on the individual as it helps to disclose the potential qualities of a person. To the understanding of Schultz (1961), Sudarshanam (1991), Psacharopoulos (1993), Prakash (1993), Malhotra (1998) and Prasad (2012), education is a significant factor that gives returns to both individual as

well as the society. The role of education is to impart knowledge, develop skill as well as inculcate right type of attitude, values and interest in the educated (Midatala, 2009).

Education is the most important indicator of development of any country (Khanna, 1992; Prakash, 1993; Degi 2009). It can also be considered as an instrument of socio-economic development (Schultz, 1961; Sudarshanam, 1991; Psacharopoulos, 1993; Prakash, 1993; Malhotra, 1998; Prasad, 2012). In fact, education should be the fourth pillar of development in India (Rajnekar, 2015). In the course of development, education acts like a catalyst (Seetharamu, 1980; Nair, 1981; Nautiyal, 1989; Singh, 1997). While education has been viewed by Dube and Mishra (1981) as a versatile indicator of regional development, Raza (1986) considers it as the future of human beings that enables societal exchange within the course of development process. Mukherjee (2004) asserts that education is the basic requirement for the development process and is one of the fundamental rights of the people. Education plays an important role in the development of human resource (Pore and Mote, 2010). Nussbaum (2008) emphasizes on the role of education for the human development, whereas Prasad (2012) asserts on education as a vehicle of holistic development of human beings. Some critical issues like lack of political will, lack of accountability as well as absence of perspective on education at all levels, influence educational development (Rajnekar, 2015).

Education is also considered as the vital indicator of social well-being (Datta and Sinha (1997). The role of education is to bring socio-cultural changes in the society (Sankar, 2010). In the words of Psacharopoulos (1993), social returns to education weigh more than the economic returns. Education also creates awareness which is useful in improving health, and nutrition, as well as influencing mortality and growth of population (Tilak, 2002). Literacy and education also play a strong role in social transformation, especially in the rural areas (Ahmed, 1979; Raza and Ramchandran, 1990). Singh (2009) too, has attempted to highlight the role of education in transforming society across various states in India and related education with the levels of development across the states. However, the role of education in India is not being fully realized due to lack of link between education at primary and technical levels, hence there is an urgent need of transforming the education system in the country (Jha and Jhingran, 2002; Tilak, 2006). Another point of consideration with

respect to making use of the role of education in social progress is the response of the student (Sharma, 2007).

Education is also considered as the basic tool of empowerment (Nangia, 2006). In this context, Guarcello et al (2008) has found education to be a key element in the prevention of child labour. Examining the struggle of Dalit girls in a formal institution of education, Paik (2009) feels that societal progress is retarded in the presence of societal discrimination. Similarly, highlighting the role of education in transforming men and women into better human beings, Mishra (2012), asserts that education must have 5 Hs: Head (knowledge), Heart (love and compassion), Hand (skill/technology), Health (physique) and Home (family and community life). Without these 5 Hs, the true meaning of education does not evolve.

### **2.3 HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN INDIA/GUJARAT/VADODARA:**

The antecedents of education in India dates back to the *Gurukul Ashrams* of ancient period (Pajankar and Pajankar, 2010). India was a great seat of learning since the Buddhist times or even earlier, when the students lived a disciplined life and learned various subjects under the guidance of *acharyas* in the *ashrams* and *niharikas*. This system of education continued unaltered till the British replaced it with the modern form (Joshi, 1979). This change in the system of education by the British in the 19<sup>th</sup> century is considered as one of the causes of decline of education in India (Pajankar and Pajankar, op.cit). The requirement of basic skill in English language to acquire education under the new system posed hindrance for majority of the masses, and education became a privilege of the elite segment of the Indian population (Joshi, 1979). Scholars have also explored the development of education in India from the ancient times to post-Independence times (Biswas and Agrawal, 1986). Gupta (1988) has appraised Indian education right from the Vedic age through the Muslim and British period till the present times, whereas, Pawar (2004) has explained the education in India during Vedic, Buddhist and Medieval periods. UNESCO (1987) has given a special focus on the girl child education through-out the historical period. Facets of educational development – its new trend and setting in India for the last phase of British rule in India have attracted the attention of Panchmukhi (1987).

The state of Gujarat is better known for its entrepreneurship than education. Although the growth of education in Gujarat has rather been slow, its literacy rate has always remained above the National level (Shah, 2001). The history of education in Gujarat, its present context and future challenges has been elaborated by many studies (ibid.). Visaria (2014) has investigated the literacy and education scenario in Gujarat from the 1951 to 2014. Menon (2004) has presented the scenario of school education for girls in Gujarat during British period.

The total literacy campaign started in Gujarat in 1990. Parikh (1997) has traced out the experience of Gujarat in the total literacy campaign of Government of India. In order to attract the rural students; Gujarat has started providing textbooks, stationary, meals, milk, uniform and also scholarship (Aggarwal, 2002). The quality of primary education in the State has been analyzed by Visaria, Gumber and Visaria (1993) for the period 1981-91. They have asserted that per capita expenditure has been below many states which is one of the reasons of the poor quality of education in the State. Gujarat has a substantial share of Scheduled Tribe (ST) population. A number of studies have also covered education amongst tribal people of Gujarat. Shah (1985), Patel (1985) Punalekar (1985) have dealt with the various aspect of tribal education in Gujarat. Joshi (1987) has documented tribal education in Gujarat in a very lucid manner. He has further classified his study for primary education in four phases of 1881-1920, 1920-1947, 1947-1964 and post 1964.

Vadodara has a hallmark in education since the last quarter of 19<sup>th</sup> century, when the visionary ruler of Sir Sayajirao Gaekwad-III took interest in education of his citizens in general and female education in particular (Dash and Kumar, 2010). Government of India (1995) has also found the literacy campaign in Vadodara to be much focused, hence was successful in arousing awareness in the population for literacy and education.

#### **2.4 GOVERNMENT POLICIES AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT:**

The modern education was introduced in India by the British. There have been many changes in the educational policy during British times and also after the country achieved Independence. For better implementation of the policies, the Constitution of India has entrusted the responsibility on both central and state government.

Nevertheless, the achievements in education are still inadequate to its potential (Gupta, 1988; Pajankar and Pajankar, 2010).

Formulating an appropriate and effective plan for educating the population is a prerequisite of development (Mathur, 1979; Khanna, 1992). In order to facilitate educational planning, one should have overview of Indian education system (Ayyar, 1993). Ward has (2007) presented an overview of Indian education system including the structure of Indian education system as well as the prescribed government policies pertaining them. Appropriate policy formulation for improving the quality of education is also considered important (Visaria, Gumber and Visaria, 1993). Although literacy has increased in the post-Independent period due to promotion and incentive schemes for education by the Government (Ram and Dabral, 1993), spread of education in India can be fully achieved through education policies like 'education for all' (Mehta, 1994). Anderson (1992) has indentified a few factors to support 'education for all' like, child, place, time, teachers, curriculum and community involvement. The country does have some excellent policies and schemes of education, but the need is to fill the gap between the existing policy and the need of the society (Rajput, 1994; Ansari and Rajender, 1995-1996; Aggarwal, 2002; Kothari, 2002; Sankar, 2010). Many a times, the education guarantee programmes and other policies fail due to lack of proper implementation or delivery (Sharma, 2003). Thus, not only formulation of educational planning, policies and programmes are essential, but also their proper implication as well as monitoring are important (Thaha, 2008; Chatteree, 2011).

One of the strategies of District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) is total literacy in the country (Varghese, 1994; Ramachandran, 2004; Chakravarty, 2008; Aggarwal, 2000). DPEP specially targets the girl child from the socially deprived communities; hence it needs to refine the method of calculating both the gender and social equity gaps while assessing its efficiency (Visaria and Ramachandran, 2004). However, the policies of education do not have any significant effect on the level of primary education (Sengupta and Pal, 2009). Parikh (1997) has presented the experience of people of Gujarat on the total literacy campaign by the Government of India.

The Government has formulated policies pertaining to free and compulsory education (Bhopal, 2009). According to the Right to Education Act (2009), the private schools should take care of school going children of the poor and the marginalized segments in the population (Ramachandran, 2009). In order to meet the requirements of the Act, opening up of low cost private schools should be a better option for the education policy and thus the legislation needs to be modified with more provisions for public-private partnership (Jain and Dholakia, 2009).

There should be some monitoring agents for different sub-policies of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) to understand whether its set target of quality education is being achieved or not (Kainth, 2006; Das, 2007; Iyengar and Surianarain, 2008; Chakravarty, 2008; Jawahar and Sundar, 2009). A Survey of SSA in Jharkhand revealed that despite its emphasis on decentralization, it is not making much progress in the socially and economically backward regions, reflecting upon the lacunas in SSA (Rao, 2009). Despite lacunas in the scheme, it has yielded commendable results in Bihar which is reflected in its high growth rate of literacy at the 2011 Census. This has been possible due to the Government's proper initiative and massive drive (Rai, 2014).

There should be reforms in the education policies from time to time according to the needs of the industrial and service sectors (Ahluwalia and Bais, 1991). Ayyar (1997) has examined the legal aspects for the educational policies in the Constitution of India. Government policies are not enough for improving the condition of education; instead there should be the creation of backward and forward linkages for proper development of education in the society (Ramachandran, 2003). Some policies like, absenteeism among teachers, private tuitions and lack of basic facilities need serious and urgent attention (Sen, 2002). Much of the improvement in the elementary education is of course seen because of the policies, reforms as well as investment effort by the Central and State governments (Sankar, 2010). Further improvement in the attainment level is possible through Government incentives for attending schools and making schools more attractive for the children (Mukherjee, 2004).

The recent trend of public subsidies in education particularly to the higher education has led to inequalities in education (Tilak, 2004). Disparity in educational attainment is created because of higher priority given in allocation of money in the Union Budget

to secondary and higher levels of education than primary education (Ibid.). Difference of amount in terms of aggregate spending on education by different states has led to the disparity in educational attainment amongst them (Chakrabarti and Joglekar, 2006). There exists a gap in the government expenditure for male and female education, particularly in the north India (Chaudhari and Roy (2006). Increased level of public spending on education can lead to the development of education (Tilak, 2006). Hatekar (2009) has proposed that post graduate teaching and research in the state universities should be taken care of by the central government to ensure the survival of the higher education system. The free higher education of girls in Gujarat has played a significant role in achieving gender equality, equity across socio-economic groups and curtailment of societal discrimination (Shah, 1994).

Educational policies are for everyone but there are only a few policies specially made for the socially deprived sections of the society. Nautiyal (1993) has examined the basic education in the slums of Delhi and given emphasis on the policies and administration of the education existing in the slums. Merely making policies for the SCs, the STs and other deprived people is not enough, one should also evaluate the actual results of the policies made for them (Rao, 1982). Among a few planning strategies for minimizing the problem of illiteracy in the tribal areas, there should be facilities of educational amenities which should be based on the population and area of such areas. Even mobile educational facilities could be started in the tribal areas (Agrawal, 2008). Monitoring of the education programmes undergoing for the tribal people is essential because, many times, the benefits do not reach to the tribal masses (Padhi, 2013). Thus, the policies should be such as to secure educational justice to the tribal people (Chantia and Mishra, 2013). There should be the national and state level policies on education, particularly for girl child (UNESCO, 1987). The Government should also put an effort to educate the adolescent girls who have missed the formal education system under the Alternative Learning System (Dutt, 2010).

## **2.5 ROLE OF INFRASTRUCTURE AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT:**

A good educational infrastructure is necessary for the spread of literacy (Ram and Dabral, 1995; Pawar and Ingle, 2006; Ansari and Rajender, 1995-1996; Sharma, 2009; Ward 2007; Govinda and Verghese, 1993). The condition of primary schools in

terms of infrastructure provides the environment in which they function (Sen, 2002). School infrastructure, especially in the rural areas, ensures the quality of education (PROBE, 1999; Kerkar, 2006). Attempts have been made to fix the criteria of existing and proposed educational infrastructure for the achievement of desired educational attainment and efficient utilization of human resources (Sinha, 1995). The quality of infrastructure and teaching standard of government schools are yet to be improved even after implementation of 'Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan' (Das, 2007).

Most of the schools in India did not have the basic infrastructure like the playground, toilet, drinking water, recreation hall, indoor stadium, furniture, blackboard and other teaching aids (PROBE, 1999; Kerkar, 2006; Bhandari, 2006). Dey and Basumatary (2007) have examined the role educational institutes as infrastructure for spread of literacy and education in the state of Meghalaya. Their study reveals negative correlation of literacy and educational attainment with the availability of infrastructure in case of primary schools and positive correlation in case of secondary and higher educational schools.

A similar study for the state of West Bengal displays positive correlation between physical infrastructure and educational attainment (Mukherjee, 2011). However, its northern districts, despite of having relatively better enrollment, exhibit high drop-outs and lower attainment rates due to lower physical infrastructure. The main reason for the lower rate of literacy in the hilly states of India is road inaccessibility (Sarma, 1999). Amongst the other important infrastructure affecting retention rates is the presence of girls toilet (Ward, 2007). According to India, Human Development Report (2011), one classroom per class, norm as per Right to Education, would remain a major challenge of education. Sengupta and Ghosh (2012) have studied the stagnation of education among Sabar tribe of West Bengal and concluded that its inaccessibility is the main factor.

Deficiencies in any kind of infrastructural facilities in Muslim concentrated districts result in lower educational attainment among the Muslim children starting with the primary level (Husain and Chatterjee, 2009). Differences in the levels of educational attainment have been found to be closely related to the availability of educational infrastructure (Rajabi and Bostai, 2009). Majumdar (2005) has found out that certain deprived communities across the states of Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Maharashtra and

Tamil Nadu do not have access to secondary education. Sharma and Banerjee (2007) have asserted the regional disparities in education in the state of Chhatisgarh are because of the disparity in the availability of educational infrastructure.

## **2.6 ECONOMY/ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATION:**

Education is an investment which yields quick economic returns (Mukherjee, 1967). There is a close link between education and economy. If we want our educational planning to be effective, it should be linked with economic planning as fund allocation for educational planning is closely related to it (Khanna, 1992). The socio-economic relevance of education is visible in the economic cycle as it helps to secure employment and hence helps to increase employability in the society (Rao, 1966; Schultz, 1961; Joshi, 1979). The quality of education has a strong impact on individual earnings and economic growth (Hanushek and Wobmann, 2007). Economic advancement of a region affects the educational advancement of a region (Fernandes, 1982; Singh and Chauhan, 2010). Thus, education has great role in the country's economic growth and political reforms (Sankar, 2010). Education is one of the most important indicators of development in the country (Degi, 2009). The close link of education with regional development (Fernandes, 1982; Tilak, 1986) and total literacy campaign with economic development in India are also clearly established (Rao, 1966; Gustafsson, 1990; Khan and Gangawala, 2008).

There are various economic factors responsible for non-enrollment and drop out from the primary school level in the various states of India (Visaria, Gumber and Visaria, 1993). These economic factors lead to the inequality in educational attainment too (Tilak, 1987). It has also been suggested that girl's education affects the Gross National Product, per capita income, female labour force participation, self employment as well as participation in the informal sector (Mishra, 2002). Education helps in raising the level of economic development, ultimately increasing the female work participation rate (Dubey, Pala and Thomas, 2004). Attempt has also been made to establish the relationship of educational attainment with agricultural productivity (Pracharopoulos, 1993; Nautiyal, 1989).

Education provokes sectoral shift in the economy (Sinha and Baraik, 1998-99). Post-primary education in India becomes essential for better and higher earnings as well as

for entry into the organized sector (Kothari, 1995). The reverse is also true; i.e. sectoral shift affects the level of literacy and education. Augmented involvement of people in the non-agricultural activities has increased literacy rate in the Lahul and Spiti Valley of Himachal Pradesh (Ram and Dabral, 1995).

People belonging to the socially deprived sections of the society cannot afford higher education mostly because of the economic factors (Sundaram, 2006). In order to have economic and social upliftment of the tribal segment, it is essential to provide basic education amenities in every village (Agrawal, 2008). Poverty is the main reason behind low efficiency of primary education as well as accessing education (Sengupta and Pal, 2009; Jangid and Kharb, 2014; Rai, 2014; Singh, 1997; Buragohain, 2009; Sengupta and Ghosh, 2012). In the course of achieving the goal of the universalisation of education, poverty is its greatest obstacle (Jha and Jhingran, 2002).

The development of education also depends upon public expenditure (Tilak, 2006; Ramachandran, 2009). Mehrotra (2006) has tried to analyze public finance, private provision and household cost of education of primary education.

## **2.7 SOCIETY / COMMUNITY / CULTURE / CUSTOM / ETHNICITY / RELIGION AND EDUCATION:**

There are differences in educational attainment between the socially deprived segments and the rest of the population in India. The stratification of the Indian society based on caste affiliations have mostly been ascribed to such a situation. Traditionally, only the elite section of the Indian society had access to knowledge. Thus, people belonging to the deprived classes and castes remained deprived from getting educated. In this context, Jha and Jhingran (2002) have analyzed the elementary education for the poorest and other disadvantaged groups. Ghosh (2009) has described the challenges and issues of education in the emerging Indian society. There are various strategies and innovative programmes specific to different levels of education, which are designed to minimize the existing education gap between the privileged and under-privileged groups in contemporary India (Dutta and Sivaramakrishnan, 2013). Consequentially, the country is passing through a phase of education transition with reference to inequality in communities and classes (Moore, 2004; Vaid, 2004).

Spreading education among the first generation learners is not an easy task (Singh, 1989). Behar (2015) has examined the state of mind of the teachers who have dealt with the first generation learners usually from the disadvantaged families. Social factors also play a significant role in determining the educational attainment among the SC girls (Mohanty, 2009). The level of literacy and educational attainments do have serious impact of the health of the concerned population. With very poor levels of literacy and education, the SC women in Jorhat district of Assam fail to make satisfactory utilization of the available health care services (Minakshi et. al., 2009). Haloi et. al. 2014; Chamar and Chamar 2015), have brought out the existing inequalities in attainment of primary education among the scheduled and the non-scheduled population. The study suggests the adoption of systematic approach for achieving over all development of education. Similarly, Aggarwal and Sibou (1994) have analyzed the inter-district variation of literacy rates and education levels among SC population of India. The poor level of education among the deprived segment of India's population, despite having several programmes and schemes for more than six decades, raises the question on the actual practice of such provisions (Rao, 1982).

Another segment of the stratified Indian society is the ST. Being traditionally pre-literate, the tribal communities of India, excepting for a few in the north-eastern states, have remained at the bottom with regard to education. Disparities of educational attainment are also very high between the tribes and the non-tribes as well as within the tribes (Punalekar, 1985). The hindering factor of accessing education among Sabar tribe of west Bengal are its remoteness, social exclusion, poverty as well as a few psycho-social determinants (Sengupta and Ghosh, 2012). Awareness level of the society, especially the tribal and rural society, need to be considered while formulating policies of education for them (Bhole and Bhangale, 2006). Emphasis should be given on the needs of the tribal societies and the ways as well as the means of fulfilling their needs with better education without disturbing their tribal ethnic identity (Talesra, 1989). The change in the attitude of people like interaction between tribal and non-tribal people as well as positive response of people has helped in the improvement of literacy in the Lahul and Spiti district of Himachal Pradesh during the post-Independence period (Ram and Dabral, 1993). Agrawal (2008) has investigated the spatial patterns of literacy in the tribal society of Rajasthan. Apart from displaying the spatial patterns, he has assessed the relationship between literacy and tribal

population, male-female literacy disparity, as well as between literacy and degree of economic progress.

The cultural differences in the society cause differences in educational attainment and way of learning (Nicto, 2002). Nautiyal (1993) has presented factual information on education in the slums of Delhi and also provided some strategies to developed education as per the need of the people in the slums. Paik (2009) has documented the hurdles faced by the Dalit girls in formal institutions of education in relation to corporal punishment. The society has a role particularly for the female education and converting their knowledge and skills for achieving a better quality of life (Dutt, 2010). Jangid and Kharb (2014) have ascribed the social tradition of early marriage and social customs to the lower levels of female literacy in Rajasthan.

Religion is an important determinant of educational attainment (Sengupta and Guha, 2002). Muslims in India have been found to be lagging behind other religious in terms of educational attainment (Alam and Raju, 2007). Paranjape (2007) has examined the level of educational disparity across religion, gender, caste groups in Maharashtra. Husain and Chatterjee (2009) have evaluated the primary attainment rates of Muslim community in West Bengal which indicates that the community has significantly lower rates than other religious groups and communities. According to India Human Development Report (2011), in spite of improvement in the literacy rate among all religious communities, Muslims have the lowest literacy rates.

The policy like the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) has brought social equity in education (Ramachandran and Saihjee, 2003). The significance of educational attainment is reflected on changing female work participation in the rural India (Dubey, Pala and Thomas, 2004).

## **2.8 PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT (ACCESSIBILITY ASPECT) AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

Regional disparity in educational development by and large corresponds with physical diversity (Ajageka and Masal, 2011). Physical characteristics and remoteness of a region play significant roles in keeping it backward in terms of literacy and education (Ram and Dabral, 1995). Comparison between the levels of literacy between the

mountain and ravine areas, and the plain areas of Yaval Tehsil of Maharashtra exemplifies this fact (Bhole and Bhangale, 2007). The tribes of the mountain as well as the ravine areas with relatively less accessibility to educational infrastructures have lower levels of literacy, while people in the plain region with better accessibility have higher literacy and educational levels (Ibid.). The other reason for the low rate of literacy is hot and humid climate and physiography (Magar and Nanaware, 2012). Physical remoteness and social exclusion especially of the tribal areas are also to the low level of educational attainment (Sengupta and Ghosh, 2012). Road accessibility also has a role in the regional variation of level of literacy. Lack of road infrastructure in the hilly terrain of Meghalaya has been found responsible for lower rate of literacy in the state (Sarma, 1999).

The Government of India has determined accessibility criteria with regard to educational facilities in villages of the plain and the hilly areas. These criteria have not been accomplished in all parts of country. In order to attain this, a systematic planning and intervention from the public agencies is the need of the hour (Pajankar and Pajankar, (2010).

## **2.9 LEVELS OF EDUCATION:**

Information pertaining to various levels of education and their attainment over time and space in the country are essential for formulation of educational plans and policies (Mehta, 1994). Attention to different levels of education among the SC population also enhances the scope examining the policies specifically designed for them, their practice and results thereof (Rao, 1982). Aggarwal and Sibou (1994) have emphasized on the inter-district variations in levels of education among SC population in the country. By understanding the different levels of education, one can also co-relate the change in educational and economic development, and establish the linkages between the two (Kumar, 1980). Various studies focusing on the levels of education among ST population of Gujarat have brought out the issues pertaining to their socio-economic conditions (Shah, 1985). Similarly, there are studies dealing with the levels of educational attainment in rural India (Rani, 1993).

Many studies have presented the overview of different levels of education in India highlighting the inequalities, which provide meaningful insight for the educational

planners (Ahmad and Nuna, 1986; Kaur and Sethi, 1991; Ayyar, 1993; Upendranath, 1995; Dahlman and Anuja, 2005; Singh and Chouhan, 2010). Educational disparity at all levels can be analysed taking two variables like enrolment rates and expenditure on education (Tilak, 1979). Differential expenditure on different levels of education by the states has been ascribed to the disparity in educational attainment amongst them (Chakrabarti and Joglekar, 2006). The disparity in the levels of education is also because of differences in the educational infrastructure within and between regions (Rajabi and Bostai, 2009). The low levels of female literacy could be attributed to high backlog of illiterate females, social adherences, tradition of early marriages, economic backwardness as well as social customs (Jangid and Kharb, 2014). Mukherjee (2014) has analyzed the levels of education among the ST females in Purulia district of West Bengal. In order to understand the status of education among ST females, he has used a statistical technique known as Female Educational Attainment Index. A lower level of education has been found to be responsible for higher number of workers in the informal sectors. If the level of education in the region is enhanced, it would give boost to the workers of the region as they would gradually become worker cum owner than merely worker in the informal sectors (Tiwari and Jain, 2003).

Primary education is a real backbone of any economy (Sengupta and Pal, 2009). Elementary education is the fundamental right of the people (Godbole, 2001). While higher education is important, elementary education serves as the base over which the structure of whole education system is built up (Mukherjee, 2004). The return to education is highest in case of primary, followed by secondary and higher education (Psacharopoulos, 1993). Primary education should be the top priority for public intervention (Varghese, 1997-98). However, spending on primary education has been lower as compared to the higher and technical education (Sharma, 2009). Primary education in India should be perceived as the human right (Ayyar, 1997). Most children drop out at the primary education level as they have to supplement family income by working for wage labourers (Jayachandran, 2007). At primary level of education, gender parity is a significant factor to attain the universalization of education (Dhabriya et. al., 2015). There is a need to bridge the gap between upper and lower primary schooling with regard to availability and access (Akila, 2004).

The outcome of primary schooling is measured in terms of achievement with reference to learning skills (Shukla, 1990; Govinda and Verghese, 1993). Visaria, Gumber and Visaria (1993) have analysed the difference in primary education in India and also examined its determining factors. In order to bring out human development in India, the levels of education and its expenditure across the states have been examined by examined Malhotra (1998). Primary education also faced some deficiency like lack of finance, lack of enough schools, as well as lack of infrastructure (Sen, 2002). Aggarwal (2002) Kumar (2003) and Tiwari (2016) have discussed about a unique model for primary education in the rural areas, which ensures flexibility, accountability, quality, equity and, sustainability issues in achieving the objectives of elementary education.

The impact of primary education programmes on the society can be reviewed (Ramchandran and Saihjee, 2003). The scenario of primary education looked very impressive because of the investments incurred on the sector as well as greater opportunities available to women and people of rural areas. However, increasing number of private schools poses new challenges for them (Sood, 2003). The quantity and quality of primary education needs to be debated (Majumdar, 2005; Banerji 2011, 33). Mehrotra (2006) has tried to analyze the impact of public finance, private provision and household cost of education of primary education for six educationally backward states. Proper age of entry to the primary schools needs to be defined before planning for primary education in the country (Sood, 2008).

Post-primary education is demanded for the better and higher earnings (Kothari, 1995). Majumdar (2005) has focused on the disparity in secondary schooling across the states of Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu, which exists particularly among the deprived sections as they do not have access to secondary education. Through higher priority to secondary and higher education than primary education, disparity in educational attainment is created (Tilak, 2008).

Merit, caste and discrimination in Indian higher education are responsible for disparity in higher education (Tilak, 1987). Demand and supply constraints in the form of inadequate higher education infrastructure results in low enrolment of females students at all levels of education (Upadhyay, 2007). The market logic seriously compromises the value and quality of higher education and this weakens our ability to

build an inclusive society (Chattopadhyay 2009). Sundaram (2006) has used the economic criteria for finding out fair access to higher education of socially backward group.

## **2.10 DISPARITY IN EDUCATION:**

The affirmative role of education becomes questionable when it is associated with disparity (Fernandes, 1982; Dash, 1993; Agrawal, 2008; Ghosh, 2016). There has been crisis in education because it is loaded with inequality all over the World (Tilak, 1986).

The difference in availability of infrastructure may create inter-regional disparity. The regional or state level disparity in educational attainment of the vulnerable sections of the population i.e. the females and the socially deprived sections, is generally ascribed to the state-wise difference in the aggregate spending on education at all levels (Chakrabarti and Joglekar, 2006). In order to bring out human development in India, Malhotra (1998) examines inter-state disparity in education. Jawahar and Sundar (2009) have dealt with the inter-state disparity in the *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*. Tilak (1979), Rao (1982) and Kumar (1980) have examined the inter-district disparity in educational development and related it to economic development.

In order to eradicate the regional inequalities in the growth and pattern of educational development in different regions, it is considered essential to study the socio-economic condition of the region at the outset, for devising appropriate regional planning for the educational development (Fernandes, 1982; Tilak, 1987; Dash, 1993; Vaid, 2004; Debi, 2006; Sharma and Banerjee, 2007). According to Singh and Chauhan (2010), disparity in literacy leads to number of social and economic problems as well as regional inequalities. Social and spatial exclusions lead to hierarchal exclusion that increases disparity in literacy from urban males to rural females (Pore and Mote, 2010).

Gender disparity in education is quite vivid in many parts of India. (Datta and Sinha, 1997). Sopher (1980) was the first person to analyze gender disparity in literacy in India. His study also revealed wide regional variations in gender disparity in literacy. The World Bank study (1991) has found out that 60 per cent of the illiterate

population in India is females and wide regional disparity exists in educational attainment amongst the two segments of its population, particularly in the mostly backward states. Prasad (1990) has worked out male-female literacy disparity among the tribes of Chotanagpur region and found a similar pattern of disparity between its tribal and non-tribal populations. Kothari (2002), Rai (2014), and Dhawan (2012) have worked out the male-female as well as rural-urban literacy differential indices. Transportation and road connectivity to remote areas play an important role in minimizing the gap between male and female literacy in Rajasthan (Khayamkhani and Chaplot, 2014). Raju in her study (1991), 'Gender and Deprivation', has concluded that the non-scheduled urban females are better off in terms of literacy as compared to rural females of all categories as well as the non-scheduled males in rural India. Females lag behind males in literacy in all major states, amongst SCs, STs and non-scheduled population (Nuna, 1990).

Evaluation of the status of elementary education in India reveals gender disparity in educational attainment (Ayyar, 1997). Despite the implementation of '*Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*' with an aim to lessen gender disparity in education, the expected targets are yet to be achieved especially in the backward states (Das, 2007). Singh and Singh (2009) have disclosed the existing disparity in girls' education in the Indian Society. Paik (2009) has examined the struggle of *Dalit* women for the inequality they face in achieving education. Dhabriya (2015) has worked out gender parity index for elementary school education. The socio-economic circumstances characterized by high levels of social inequality in many parts of India is considered responsible for the existing male-female disparity in education (Shah, 2001; Kothari, 2000; Dey and Rajput, 2003; Samanta, 2003; Jhala and Kothari, 2008; Nangia, 2006; Thaha, 2008). However, with gradual progress in the economy, which has a direct impact on the educational attainment of the people, the level of gender disparity has been decreasing (Ramotra, 2000; Kumari, 2007; Prasad, 2012). The male-female literacy disparity has declined since the last fifty years as consequence of the changing socio-economic conditions, increasing interaction between rural and urban areas, urbanization and westernization (Hussain and Taufique, 2004; Dhawan and Shairya, 2009; Ajageka and Masal, 2011).

Disparity in education can also be seen between rural and urban spaces but urban-rural disparity in education in India and has been narrowing down due to increasing socio-economic awareness among the masses (Prakash, 1993; Hussain and Taufique, 2004; Shagwan and Shagwan, 2008; Jangid, 2014). However, in some rural areas disparity in literacy is seen between the privileged and the deprived classes (Vaidyanthan and Nair, 2006). The disparity in education can also be seen across the religious groups and communities or even within a religion or community. Alam and Raju (2007) have made an attempt to find out educational disparity amongst the Muslim community of Bihar. Dutta and Sivaramakrishnan (2013) in their study have analyzed the disparity between scheduled and non-scheduled population in India and discussed the strategies and programmes which could minimize the gap between privileged and underprivileged classes of the society. The most disadvantaged groups are the SCs and the STs, who acquire less than a third of schooling as compared to the other groups (Paranjape, 2007). Agrawal (2008) argues that to reduce gender disparity in education in Rajasthan, disparities in educational attainment among the tribal segment of the population should be reduced.

Several studies have been conducted on different forms of disparity that exist in education in the country. These studies have brought out the spatial and in some cases temporal patterns of educational disparity between different communities, genders, classes and, rural and urban areas of the country at different scales. Disparities in education are also seen across government and private schools. The proportion of students in private schools is on the rise since the last few decades and the private schools demonstrate better standards in comparison to the government schools in terms of enrollment rates, attendance rates, retention rates and gender differential etcetera (Singh and Sridhar, 2002). Disparity in educational attainment is also created due higher priority being given to secondary and higher education than primary education in terms of fund allocation (Fernandes, 1982; Tilak, 2008). Disparities merely do not prevail because of natural reasons but also because of faulty planning processes (Banu and Rawal, 2015).

In the final analysis, to reap the benefits of education most effectively, these studies emphasize upon the adoption of a holistic approach so designed to address issues pertaining to all segments of the Indian society (Ahmad and Nuna, 1986; Moore,

2004; Vaid, 2004; Ramachandran, 2004; Krishan and Shyam, 1977; Chakravarty, 2008; Jawahar and Sundar, 2009; Paranjape, 2007; Shagwan et. al. 2012). Most of the studies have used Sopher's Disparity Index modified by Kundu and Rao (1986). There should be proportional allocation of educational facilities along with other socio-economic amenities for reducing the disparities in education (Banu and Rawal, 2015).

## **2.11 GENDER ISSUES IN EDUCATION:**

The importance of education of the female segment of the population has an extremely significant role in the development of the society. But, educating this segment, particularly in India poses several problems (Bhat, 2000; Krishnaji, 2001; Ghosh, 2002). The family and social roles of girls do not let them prioritize their education (Bandopayay and Subrahmanian, 2008). Gender parity plays a significant role in the assessment of education status (Dhabriya and et al, 2015; Asraf and Ahmed, 2016). Sopher (1980), Datta and Sinha (1997), Kothari (2000), Kothari (2002), Ramachandran (2004), Vaid (2004), Jhala and Kothari (2008), and Prasad (2012) have analyzed gender disparity in education in different parts of India. Singh and Singh (2009) analyzed the contemporary disparity levels in girls' education in the Indian society. Chaubey and Chaubey (1998) have dealt with the gender equity sensitive literacy rates and even developed an index to measure it. The problems of regional variation, as well as the problem of co-education and curriculum have been the greatest barrier for women's education which existed even after the independence (Chanana, 1985). Thus, to combat these, government has framed the new education policy with added attention to women's education (Bhog, 2002). The new education policy has brought-in compulsory education up to the age of fourteen years. Through compulsory and better education of the girl child, women empowerment can be attained (Nangia, 2006). Female literacy rates have a positive correlation with child sex ratio (Nanaware and Kathwate, 2014). Education positively affects female's ability to assert their rights and attain the desired status in the society as well (Thaha, 2008). It also increases the work participation rate among the female segment of the population particularly in the rural areas (Dubey, Pala and Thomas, 2004; Kingdon, 1998).

Around 60 per cent of the illiterate population in India belongs to its female segment, which mostly due to gender disparity in literacy mostly in the backward states (World Bank, 1993). Generally, both the enrolment and retention rates are lower for females than the males (Kulshrestha, 1988), but in urban India, the patterns of female literacy are closely related with the male literacy (Raju, 1988). Gender gap at various levels of education across the states is examined in order to address human development in India (Malhotra, 1998). The gender gap in educational expenditure is clearly discernible especially in the north Indian states, where the patriarchy order is very strong (Chaudhuri and Roy, 2006).

The impact of primary education programmes on gender equity is seen right from the primary education level (Ramchandran and Saihjee, 2003). Many scholars have investigated this aspect. Joshi (2002) has calculated gender related education development index at *Panchayat Samiti* level for the state of Rajasthan. Vacha Kisori Project Team (2002) has focused its work on pre-adolescent girls in municipal schools of Mumbai. Akila (2004) has discussed about primary education in Tamil Nadu in terms of gender issues. School education, particularly for the girls, was given importance in Gujarat right from the British period (Menon, 2004). The lower status of women in the society is the main reason for their low literacy rates (Singh and Chauhan, 2010). Unesco (1987) has emphasized on the primary education for girls in India.

Gender disparity in education transition is seen across all the states of India (Moore, 2004; Vaid, 2004; Chakravarty, 2008; Kumari, 2007). Gender bias in education starts from the schools only (Prakash, 1993). There are a few factors which affect schools choices made for the girl child (Sengupta and Guha, 2002). Dhabriya (2015) has worked out gender parity index for elementary school education. Socio-economic factors are considered primarily responsible for this disparity (Dey and Rajput, 2003). In spite of progress in female literacy, male-female differential in literacy is still persistence in some regions (Samanta, 2003). Due to this disparity, the objective of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan to achieve gender parity in education is not fulfilled especially in the backward states (Kainth, 2006). However, male-female differential in literacy is diluting fast in some regions due to the changing socio-economic circumstances

(Dhawan and Shairya, 2009; Jangid and Kharb, 2014). Another factor which impact positively on daughter's enrollment is the mother's education (Pandey, 1990).

Female student participation rate has been low for all levels of education, which is a matter of great concern (Upadhaya, 2007). Sharma and et al (2007) have studied the female school drop-outs and their causes in the Kangra district of Himachal Pradesh. The social, economic, individual, specific and infrastructural factors are responsible for the drop-outs girls in the concerned region (Desai and et. al., 1999). It is proposed that there should be some alternative learning system for those girls, who drop-out from the main stream education system, in order to develop girl's thinking, analytical skill and confidence (Dutt, 2010).

Caste and religion also play very significant role in maintaining inequality in literacy and education attainment (Unni, 2009; Alam and Raju, 2007). *Dalit* women intending to achieve education, faced the discrimination for their caste as well as for gender (Paik, 2009). In order to reduce gender inequalities in literacy in the tribal areas, there should be co-ordination between socio-economic development and political institution (Agrawal, 2008). Chakravarty (2008), Dutta and Sivaramakrishnan (2013) have analyzed the reason for gender disparity in education between scheduled and non-scheduled population in India in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Non scheduled urban females are better off as compared to rural females in India (Raju, 1991). Patel (1985) has documented educational profile of tribal women in Gujarat.

## **2.12 UTILIZATION OF EDUCATION:**

Education is one of the prime needs of human resources development (Pore and Mote, 2010). Motivation and freedom give better scope of learning and reaping the benefits of education (Unni, 2009). Bhole and Bhangale (2006), Dash (1993), Schultz (1961), Sengupta and Guha (2002), Sharma et. al. (2007) and Nangia (2006) agree to the fact that education is indeed a medium for the social transformation of people and a tool for empowerment. Seetharamu (1980), Nair (1981) have elucidated the benefits of education in the social and cultural advancement of both the individual and the society. Education policy should be according to the needs of industries and other professions in order to reap the benefits of the education (Ahluwalia and Bais, 1991). Contemporarily, it is argued that enrollment is not of serious concern. Rather, the

need of the hour is greater attention to attendance, transition, completion and outcome of education (World Bank, 2002).

The main challenge of the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) is to provide quality education in the government schools (Ramachandran and Saihjee, 2003). In addition, effort should be made to establish the backward and forward linkages of primary education in order to create an environment where children not only simply go to attend school, but also they really benefit from education (Ramachandran, 2003). The gap between the learning needs, resources available and learning opportunities that schools offer, especially in the rural areas do exist as on date. For the appreciation of the benefits of education, this gap should be minimized. Such action would render education more responsive and result in the progress of students of the rural areas (Sharma, 2007). Education is needed for the upliftment of the life of the tribal people (Talesra, 1989). Development of education should be as per the requirements of the people. Only then the benefits of education, especially in the marginalized areas can be gained (Nautiyal, 1989).

Education helps in raising the female work participation rate in the rural areas. But it is more important that it is used for achieving balanced economic development of any region (Dubey et. al., 2004). The utility of education is needed in reducing fertility and infant mortality (Sengupta and Guha, 2002). Alternative learning system especially for girls who are left out in the formal education gives them the thinking power, as well as confidence (Dutt, 2010). Education has affirmative impact on all types of human development outcomes (Human Development Report, India, 2011). Therefore, there is an urgent need to evolve new programmes of education aimed at bridging the gap between the privileged and unprivileged sections of the society (Dutta and Sivaramakrishnan, 2013).

### **2.13 DETERMINANTS OF EDUCATION:**

The achievement in education is affected by several determinants like socio-cultural factors, economic reasons and educational reasons (Mehta, 1994; Rani, 1993; Kothari, 2002). The role of social, individual, economic and as well as delivery mechanism help in finding out the constraints of educational attainment (Negi, 2004).

Patterns of education have largely been determined by the socio-economic factors (Nair, 1981; Dash, 1986; Rana, 2000; Kingdon, 1998). Demographic and socio-economic attributes impact the schooling in rural areas (Jena, 1995).

Availability of availability of school, infrastructure in the school and its functioning are the most important determinants affecting educational attainment (Sarma, 1999; Jha and Jhingran, 2002; Mohanty, 2009). The determinants like enrollment rates, retention rate, expenditure on education, student-teacher ratio, gender differential and number of institutions do impact the educational achievement of different districts (Tilak, 2006) and these differences do increase the disparities across the different schools (Singh and Sridhar, 2002). The factors like proper decentralized planning, school based quality improvement initiative, effective transaction of curriculum based co-operative learning approach, close monitoring of allocation of resources as well the role of NGOs are essentials of quality education in rural areas (Jangira, 1993). In order to enhance quality of teaching, more emphasis should be given to parameters like basic education, tertiary education, weakness in science and technology and reform in scientific research (Dahlman and Anuja, 2005). Determinants like top down assistance, quality of teaching, student-teacher ratio and distance also affect the educational attainment (Tilak, 2006; Majumdar, 2006; Sharma and Banerjee, 2007). Some even give top priority to quality of education (Aggarwal, 2000; Bhatta, 1998). Determinants like infrastructure, resources, teachers' education, management and curriculum are also considered important for ensuring the quality of education to the students (Kerkar, 2006; Rajnekar, 2015). Large backlog of illiterate females also affect educational attainment negatively (Jangid and Kharb, 2014).

With respect to evaluation system, continuous evaluation is advocated in place of referenced testing for enhancing the quality of education by a few scholars (Aggarwal, 2000; Prakash, 1993).

In order to achieve the objectives of *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan*, indicators like access to education, over-crowding, fund utilization, retention of children have to be looked into (Iyengar and Surianarain, 2008). The reasons of low attainment rate are fear of failure, high drop-outs, poor reading skill and poor access to media as well as no newspaper reading (Unni, 2009). The non-enrollment and drop-outs are the real culprits behind education deprivation. Thus a massive drive required increasing the

gross enrollment as well as the retention rates (Venkatanarayana, 2009; Reddy, 1995) but attendance, transition, and completion is a bigger challenge than enrollment (World Bank, 2002).

Disparities in literacy, gender gap, retention, dropout gives rises to the dichotomies in education development (Ghosh, 2016; Asraf and Ahmed, 2016). Educational Development Index is based on the determinants like literacy and enrollment, to find out the reasons behind spatial variations in educational development (Adhikari and Kamle, 2010). Pal and Pant (1995) have asserted that the differential performance of the states and population groups is a result of differential rate of access to education. The educational development in the Himalayan region of the Uttar Pradesh (presently, Uttaranchal) is taking place by addressing the determinants like enrollment, teachers-students ratio and number of institution (Zaidi, 1995).

The issues of economic constraints and lack of parental motivation have been identified as the determining factors of low attainment rates (Bhatty, 1998). Agricultural productivity, investment in farming, inequality in land distribution affect literacy rates in rural area, where as industrial development have a positive correlation in rural as well as urban areas (Kundu and Rao, 1986). Change in the occupational structure affects educational attainment (Singh and Chauhan, 2010). Urbanization is the most important factor for improving literacy level (Dey and Rajput, 2003). Low urbanization, agrarian economy, poor educational facilities, lack of employment opportunities are responsible for low level of educational attainment in Bihar (Rai, 2014). Determinants like transport and communication facilities, technological and economic advancement also affect educational attainment (Singh and Chouhan, 2010; Rai, 2014).

Expenditure on education is an important factor affecting educational attainment (Chakrabarty and Joglekar, 2006; Chaudhuri and Roy, 2006). Inadequate resources, poverty, incidence of child labour and absence of assured employment after school are the factors affecting attainment and efficiency of primary education (Mukherjee, 2004; Thaha, 2008; Sengupta and Pal, 2009; Sengupta and Ghosh, 2012). Age, gender, household size, expenditure level are important determinants of attainment rate at primary level of education (Husain and Chatterjee, 2009).

There is positive correlation between mother's education and daughter's enrollment (Pandey, 1990). Maternal education affects the child educational attainment in less development countries (Arwin and Summers, 1999). Parental, especially maternal schooling, father's occupation and household income, caste and religion are considered to be important determinants of educational attainment (Seetharamu and Ushadevi, 1985; Sengupta and Guha, 2002). Other determinants like expenditure, parents' attitude towards girls' education, religion, education level of parents do affect attainment level (Nautiyal, 1993).

The characteristics like income, caste, occupation and levels of education of parents determine access to education, completion of education and level of education (Ramachandran and Saihjee, 2002). Social customs, household chores, poverty as well as parents' willingness to invest in female education are the limiting factors behind female education (Thaha, 2008). The education of the Dalit women is determined by the attitude of their parents and teachers, practice of patriarchy, irrelevant school curriculum as well as the costs of education (Paik, 2009).

The role of social factors for the falling rate of educational attainment also includes socio-economic status and home environment of the individual (Jha and Jhingran, 2002; Mohanty, 2009). Addiction to drugs leads to poor educational attainment (Ours and Willams, 2009). Social tradition of early marriages, economic backwardness as well as social customs leads to low female literacy rates in Rajasthan (Jangid and Kharb, 2014).

#### **2.14 DROPOUTS AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT:**

For the development of education, more emphasis should be given to drop-outs than enrollment (Nair, 1981). Several studies have been conducted at rural-urban level, and on the male-female and the SC-ST segments of the population, which attribute dropout and its trend as the major hindrance for educational progress in the country (Seetharamu and Ushadevi, 1985; Reddy, 1995; Sharma et. al., 2007; Ayyar, 1997).

About half the children drop-out of school before they reach grade VIII in India (Dharmarajan, 2009). Many a times the Central and State Government initiatives do not reach the masses. Thus, the drop-outs cannot be controlled (Rai, 2014). Drop-out

rates of girls at the primary and upper primary stage are higher than those of boys (GOI, 2008). Analysis of the phenomenon of drop-outs from the primary school in the various states of India, ascribes economic condition of the people as the prime cause (Visaria, Gumber and Visaria, 1993; Upendranath, 1995; Chakravarty, 2008). Dealing with drop-outs from secondary schools across the states of Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu, Majumdar (2005) and Chakravarty (2008) have concluded that poor accessibility to secondary schools leads to higher drop-outs after primary schooling.

Never the less, the other reason for drop-outs are expenditure, parents' and teachers' attitude towards child education, non-availability of school, poverty, overcrowded space, taking care of siblings, and religion (Nautiyal, 1993; Unni, 2009; Buragohain, 2009). The northern part of West Bengal exhibits high drop-outs, despite having a relatively better enrollment rate in comparison to the remaining parts of the State. This is because of its poorer educational infrastructure (Mukherjee, 2011).

In order to bring out human development in India, Malhotra (1998) has examined the drop-out ratio for various levels of education across the states. Poverty or inadequate earnings of the parents as well as migrant parents, force them to withdraw their children from school (Rao, 2000; Debi, 2006). Singh and Sridhar (2002) have examined retention rates and drop-outs in government and private schools in two cities of Uttar Pradesh.

The government schools are yet to improve in terms of quality of infrastructure and teaching standards. Consequentially, drop-out rates in the government schools are higher, and are still far from achieving the goals of 'Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan' (Das, 2007). Desai et. al. (1999) have analysed the drop-out rates of girls in the Sayla *taluka* of Gujarat. They have concluded that social, economic, individual specific and infrastructure were the main reasons for the drop-outs in the concerned region. At times, improper availability of school, accessibility of infrastructure, cost of education as well as economic condition of the households also affects the dropouts rates (Bhagyalakhmi, 2001). Yet another reason for the drop-outs is quality of education which creates disinterest among people and increases the drop-outs rates (Unni, 2009). At many places, children are simply not interested in studies, hence the drop-out rates are high (Tilak, 2006; Jayachandran, 2007). The need of the hour is to make

the syllabuses interesting and take very stringent steps to reduce the drop-outs rates (Ibid.). In order to stop drop-outs, enrollment should be increased and action plan be prepared to ensure attendance and retention of the enrolled. Increased accessibility of educational facilities, particularly in the rural areas can address the issue properly (Venkatanarayana, 2009; Pajankar and Pajankar, 2010).

## **2.15 TRIBAL EDUCATION:**

Many scholars have also attempted to study literacy and educational attainment amongst the tribal population (Naik1972; Raza et. al., 1990; Pandey, 1990; Dreaze and Sen, 2002; Degi, 2009; Sengupta and Ghosh, 2012; Madhe,2016) and have emphasized on the role of education in the tribal society. Patel (1985) has documented educational status of tribal women in Gujarat. Joshi (1987) has examined the progress of education amongst the tribes of Gujarat during the last century. Spatio-temporal variations of literacy among the tribes have also been investigated by several scholars (Dash, 1986; Prasad, 1990). A few scholars like Swamy (2010), Dey and Rajput (2003), Dreaze and Sen (2002), Pant (2007) and Agrawal (2008) have studied the pattern of education among the tribes and tried to bring out the associated factors behind it.

Among the tribes, education is perceived in terms of economic returns (Naik, 1972). Spread of education among the tribes is also constrained due to language in which in which educational instruction is imparted (Aggarwal, 2002). The lower levels of literacy and education among the tribes are because of difficult terrain conditions, physical remoteness and inaccessibility, social exclusion and lack of infrastructural facilities in their habitats (Ram and Dabral, 1995; Sarma, 1999; Bhole and Bhangale, 2006; Sengupta and Ghosh, 2012).

The awareness and attainment of education among the tribes is less than the non-scheduled population (Shah, 1985). Mukherjee, (2014) has analysed the levels of tribal female education among Santhal, Kharia, Sabar and Birhor tribes of Purulia district of West Bengal using female literacy attainment index. Educational disparities are also seen amongst tribes (Punalekar, 1985). At many places, because of the illiteracy, the women are not able to take advantage of new the opportunities, hence they being literate is considered very essential (Degi, 2009).

While recognizing the affirmative role of education, Ambasht (1999) and Midatala (2009) assert that, education being alien to the traditional culture of the tribes, its spread among them would require methods different from those adopted for the non-tribes. It was seen that with the increase of primary education, the friend skill of these otherwise secluded people also increases (Chopra and Sahu, 2009). The educational status of tribal women affects the marriage timing, size of family and contraceptive use (Patidar and Singh, 2012). Thus, there should be some holistic measures to understand the basics of the problem of educational attainment among the tribals (Sengupta and Ghosh, 2012).

There are different government policies targeting spread of education and enhancement of enrollment among tribes (Dey and Rajput, 2003; Agrawal, 2008). Proper monitoring and evaluation of tribal education policy and programmes are needed as well (Padhi, 2013) so that they can be helped in securing educational and economic justice (Chantia and Mishra, 2013).

## **2.16 RURAL EDUCATION:**

Education is the medium for rural development (UNESCO, 1974; Sinha, 2009). There has been an increase in the literacy rate of rural India, but it is still low among the rural females (Human Development Report, 2011). Rural development can be attained through rural education only for which proper planning should be done by the government (Seetharamu, 1980; Khanna, 1992; Nautiyal, 1989; Prakash, 1993; Sanghmitra, 2002; Ward, 2007). Rural education to be the catalyst for social changes (Sudarshanam, 1991; Jangira, 1993; Raza and Ramchandran, 1990; Sanghmitra, 2002). The factors like proper decentralized planning, school based quality improvement initiative, effective transaction of curriculum based co-operative learning approach, close monitoring of allocation of resources as well the role of NGOs are essentials of quality education in rural areas (Jangira, 1993)

Determinants like demographic and socio-economic attributes, type of village, and facilities available, impact the schooling in rural areas (Jena, 1995). In order to attract the rural students, the state should adopt various measures and also provide textbooks, stationary etcetera (Aggarwal, 2002). Rani (1993) and Kerkar (2006) while studying the differentials amongst the rural schools in Goa have found that the schools did not

have the basic infrastructure like playground or indoor stadium, recreation hall as well as those which are essential for quality education. Vaidyanathan and Nair (2006) have emphasized upon elementary education in rural India, its constraints and the measures to improve the situation. Ward (2007) has talked about effective learning in the rural India as well as status of rural education infrastructure in India and its gaps. Majumdar and Vaidyanathan (1994) on examination of status of education of different income groups at state level have found that poverty is not always the major constraint of education in the rural areas. Rather, it also depends upon the allocation of resources in the rural areas.

The impact of female education is seen on their health care too in the rural areas (Minakshi et. al. 2009). Pandey (1990) has focused on the education for the tribal children in rural Madhya Pradesh. There has been improvement in the literacy rate of the rural community in semiarid region of Rajasthan since 1961. Gap between male-female literacy has narrowed down. Female literacy has improved with the changing economic condition. More interaction between urban-rural, demands for better facilities which ultimately leads to the development of educational infrastructure has resulted in the improvement in the levels of education (Dhawan and Shairya, (2009). The issues of quality and access remain areas of concern particularly in the sphere of rural education in India. Children in rural areas continue to be deprived of quality education because lack of competent and committed teachers, lack of textbooks and teaching-learning materials. A large number of teachers refuse to teach in rural areas and those that do, are usually under-qualified (Hazra, 2011, 4).

Much has been said and written about most of the aspects of the education. The studies were from the perspectives of educationalist, economist, geographer, and sociologist. Scholars have undertaken national as well as state level studies. Even some studies have investigated micro areas like *talukas* or villages. However, the state of Gujarat has received limited attention. The present study entitled, “Level of Literacy and Educational Attainment in Vadodara District of Gujarat with Special Reference to Rural Areas”, is an attempt to unravel the picture at district, taluka, village and household levels. The study also highlights the disparities in educational attainment among rural-urban, tribal non-tribal and male-female in one of the highly developed districts of Gujarat, thus making this study different from the above works.

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