CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

There are various factors which contribute to the stage of development of a country. One of the important criteria employed to distinguish between a more developed and a less developed country was its per capita national income. However, a Gross National Product measure alone is not enough, because, GNP does not indicate social and economic welfare. Welfare includes Health, Education, Life expectancy, per capita food intake, and the life (Naik, J.P. and Nurullah, S., A Students’, 1975). The important problem afflicting the Indian economy and which assumed crucial significance in terms of economic policy has been Poverty and Literacy.

Education is a life long process. It is a never ending process. It starts with the birth as an individual and then it goes on till the last day of the individual. Education makes an individual a real human being. It is an essential human Virtue. Man becomes man through education. He learns something at every movement and an every day of his life. Education equipped the individual on Social, Moral, cultural and Spiritual factors and this makes life progressive cultured and civilized.

Education is the most important invention of mankind. It is more important than his invention of tools, machines, spacecraft, Medicine, Weapons and even of language. Language too was the product of his education. Man without education would still be living just like an animal. It is education, which
transformed man from a mere ‘two-legged animal’ to human. It helps him to behave like a human being and prevents him from behaving like an animal.

Great philosophical thinkers like Swamy Vivekananda, Mahatma Gandhi, Sankaracharya, and Guru Nanak have contributed quite a lot towards the development of an indigenous system of education. The indigenous system means the uniqueness associated with Indian, through culture and the Indian way of life (Lyer, R. N., 1995).

The Rig-Veda regards Education as a force which makes an individual self-reliant as well as self-less. The Upanishadads regard education, “It is that whose end product is salvation” (Ragheer, B.D., 1987).

1.1 Education

In a limited scope, education is continued to the school and the University instruction. Education starts from the day a child is admitted into a school and ends when the child completes studies and leaves at the college or University stage.

In the broader sense, education means the totality of experience gained by an individual from birth till death. It is not mere transformation of information by the teacher. It is also not just the acquisition of knowledge by the personality.

1.2 Compulsory education in the Independent India

The independent India felt the great need of the expansion of education. Therefore, the national Government took active and sincere steps to make the
secondary education free, universal and compulsory. The principles of compulsory education were declared through article 45 of the constitution of India.

**Present situation of education**

All states in India have compulsory secondary education Acts except Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura. Of the union territories, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Chandigarh and Delhi have such legislation. However, even where such legislation exists pen all classes are seldom enforced, because of social – economic reasons. Instead, incentives such as, Mid-day-meals, Free books and Uniform are provided to attract children to school. Perhaps, the best achievement of the last three decades is the respect of the universal provision of facilities for Secondary Education.

During 1947, there were many areas of the country which have no such facilities. The present position is that there is a lower secondary school within the walk able distance from the home of every child. The provision of upper secondary schools (Classes up to VII) is not so universal in all parts of the country. Some states like, Kerala, Tamil Nadu have been able to provide even upper secondary schools within the walkable distance from the home of every child, whereas states like, Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan have still a long way to go *(Uttam Kumar Singh & A K Nayak, 1997).*
Secondary education in India

Several factors work against universal education in India. Although Indian law prohibits the employment of children in factories, the law allows them to work in cottage industries, family households, restaurants, or in agriculture. Secondary and middle school education is compulsory. However, only slightly more than 50 percent of children between the ages of six and fourteen actually attend school, although a far higher percentage is enrolled. School attendance patterns for children vary from region to region and according to gender. But it is noteworthy that national literacy rates increased from 43.7 percent in 1981 to 52.2 percent in 1991 (male 63.9 percent, female 39.4 percent), passing the 50 percent mark for the first time. There are wide regional and gender variations in the literacy rates, however, for example, the southern state of Kerala, with a 1991 literacy rate of about 89.8 percent, ranked first in India in terms of both male and female literacy. Bihar, a northern state, ranked lowest with a literacy rate of only 39 percent (53 percent for males and 23 percent for females). School enrollment rates also vary greatly according to age.

To improve national literacy, the central government launched a wide-reaching literacy campaign in July 1993. Using a volunteer teaching force of some 10 million people, the government hoped to have reached around 100 million Indians by 1997. A special focus was placed on improving literacy among women.

A report in 1985 by the Ministry of Education, entitled ‘Challenge of Education: A Policy Perspective’, showed that nearly 60 percent of children
dropped out between grades one and five. (The Ministry of Education was incorporated into the Ministry of Human Resources in 1985 as the Department of Education. In 1988 the Ministry of Human Resources was renamed the Ministry of Human Resource Development). Of 100 children enrolled in grade one, only twenty-three reached grade eight. Although many children lived within one kilometer of a secondary school, nearly 20 percent of all habitations did not have schools nearby. Forty percent of secondary schools were not of masonry construction. Sixty percent had no drinking water facilities, 70 percent had no library facilities, and 89 percent lacked toilet facilities. Single-teacher secondary schools were commonplace, and it was not unusual for the teacher to be absent or even to subcontract the teaching work to unqualified substitutes (see table 10, Appendix).

The improvements that India has made in education since independence are nevertheless substantial. From the first plan until the beginning of the sixth (1951-80), the percentage of the secondary school-age population attending classes more than doubled. The number of schools and teachers increased dramatically. Middle schools and high schools registered the steepest rates of growth. The number of secondary schools increased by more than 230 percent between 1951 and 1980. During the same period, however, the number of middle schools increased about tenfold. The numbers of teachers showed similar rates of increase. The proportion of trained teachers among those working in secondary and middle schools, fewer than 60 percent in 1950, was more than 90 percent in 1987 (see table 11, Appendix). However, there was considerable
variation in the geographical distribution of trained teachers in the states and union territories in the 1986-87 school year. Arunachal Pradesh had the highest percentage (60 percent) of untrained teachers in secondary schools, and Assam had the highest percentage (72 percent) of untrained teachers in middle schools. Gujarat, Tamil Nadu, Chandigarh, and Pondicherry (Puduchcheri) reportedly had no untrained teachers at either kind of school.

Various forms of private schooling are common, many schools are strictly private, whereas others enjoy government grants-in-aid but are run privately. Schools run by church and missionary societies are common forms of private schools. Among India’s Muslim population, the madrasa, a school attached to a mosque, plays an important role in education (see Islamic Traditions in South Asia, ch. 3). Some 10 percent of all children who enter the first grade are enrolled in private schools. The dropout rate in these schools is practically nonexistent.

Traditional notions of social rank and hierarchy have greatly influenced India’s secondary school system. A dual system existed in the early 1990s, in which middle-class families sent their children to private schools while lower-class families sent their children to underfinanced and underequipped municipal and village schools. Evolving middle-class values have made even nursery school education in the private sector a stressful event for children and parents alike. Tough entrance interviews for admission, long classroom hours, heavy homework assignments, and high tuition rates in the mid-1990s led to charges of "lost childhood" for preschool children and acknowledgment of both the social costs and enhanced social benefits for the families involved.
The government encourages the study of classical, modern, and tribal languages with a view toward the gradual switch from English to regional languages and to teaching Hindi in non-Hindi speaking states. As a result, there are schools conducted in various languages at all levels. Classical and foreign language training most commonly occurs at the postsecondary level, although English is also taught at the lower levels. (Data as of September 1995)

1.3 The system of secondary education

The secondary education system was studied by some British officials and scholars in the early nineteenth century. Even though their enquiry was restricted to British occupied territory, their reports serve to give quite a clear picture of the state of secondary education even after the British had imposed their rule on most parts of the Indian subcontinent. There was an enquiry into secondary education in Madras in 1822. An enquiry was conducted in Bombay Presidency in 1823 through the collectors of districts. In Bengal, Lord William Bethink ordered an enquiry which was carried out by William Adam, a missionary who took a keen interest in Indian education. The Madras and Bombay enquiries were rather rough jobs. Adam, who studied only five districts out of nineteen in Bengal and Bihar, had an inadequate sample; but his work was thorough and his reports surprisingly unbiased.

The Madras enquiry found that there was one native school per 1000 population but there were hardly any female pupils enrolled. The pupils were generally between the ages of five and ten but many boys continued up to twelve or fourteen. There was a large practice of domestic instruction, and the number
taught at home was five times greater than that taught in schools. Children were taught at home by relatives or private teachers. The report of this enquiry said, "the state of education here exhibited, low as it is compared with that of our own country, is higher than it was in most European countries at no very distant period. It has no doubt been better in earlier times" (Selections from the Records of the Government of Madras, No. I, Appendix E). The remark that the system had been better in earlier times shows the soundness of Gandhiji's judgment that more literacy and popular education prevailed in India before the British conquest.

The report of the Bellary Collector, who participated in the Madras enquiry, is detailed and gives a graphic picture of the secondary elementary schools of those days. He states that children, mainly boys were inducted into schooling at age five. The parents of the prospective pupils invited home the master and the boys already studying in his school. They sat in a circle around the image of Ganesha, the god of learning. The child to be initiated was placed exactly opposite the Ganesha image. The master sat by his side. After offering puja to Ganesha, the master caused the child to repeat a prayer to the deity, asking for wisdom. He then guided the child to write with his finger, in rice, the mystic name of the deity (shree ganeshaya namaha). The parents then gave a present to the master. The child began to attend school the next day. The initiation ceremony and the gift from the parents prepared the child's mind for scholastic work. Whereas legal compulsion for schooling existed in the West, in India it was
popular tradition that prepared the parents and the child to accept schooling in India.

Most children continued at school for five years, although the parents withdrew some earlier due to poverty or other circumstances. But some continued up to 14 or 15 years. School started at 8 o’clock in the morning. While the first pupil to arrive was honored, late-comers were punished. Idleness was not allowed. The pupils were divided into classes. The youngest ones were placed in the care of a monitor while the master himself guided the older or slower pupils.

Instruction began with the child writing the letters of the alphabet in sand. When his fingers were well-trained, he began writing on a wooden slate smeared with rice-paste and pulverized charcoal. Another variety of slate was made from cloth stiffened with rice-water and covered with charcoal and several gums. A pencil made of white clay was used to write on these slates. The writing could be wiped off with a wet cloth. These were inexpensive materials made locally by the pupil’s parents or neighbors or older playmates.

After learning the letters, the pupil proceeded to learn conjunct consonants, vowel signs, the names of birds, trees, etc., and then began arithmetic which, starting from the counting of numbers, went up to fractions, measures of capacity, area, weight, and so on. The test of reading and writing consisted of deciphering various kinds of handwriting in a public performance. Letters and documents which the master collected were read out before elders. Writing letters and drawing up documents, committing poetry to memory with
attention to clear pronunciation, and readiness to correctly read any kind of composition, were required achievements. Appreciating this teaching-learning system, the collector’s report says,

The economy with which the children are taught to write in the native schools, and the system by which the most advanced scholars are caused to teach the less advanced, and at the same time to confirm their own knowledge, is certainly admirable, and well deserves the imitation it has received in England.

That India had widespread arrangements for schooling — not in the Western sense, but in the form of family-based instruction or learning centres conducted by a local instructor supported by villagers — is proved by evidence available from British records. (As pointed out by M.R. Paranjpe)

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, there existed a fairly widespread organization for secondary education in most parts of India. In Madras Presidency, Sir Thomas Munro found ‘a secondary school in every village’ (Mill, History of British India, Vol. I, p.562, 4th edition). In Bengal, Ward discovered that ‘almost all villages possessed schools for teaching, reading, writing and elementary arithmetic’ (Ward, View of the Hindoos, Vol. I, p. 160). In Malva, which was for more than half a century suffering from continuous anarchy, Malcolm noticed that ‘every village with about a hundred houses had an elementary school at the time of its coming under the British suzerainty’ (Malcolm, Memoirs of Central India and Malva, Vol. II. p. 150).

Adam found that there were Bengali, Persian and Arabic schools in the Thana of Nattore. The overall pay of elementary school teachers was Rs. 5 to
Rs. 8 per month. However, education of girls was neglected, and among 30,915 scholars Adam found only 214 girls in 6 special girls’ schools in Murshidabad, Birbhum and Burdwan districts.

These indigenous learning centres thrived well because they met locally perceived educational needs. Their timings, style of functioning, achievement system, the accountability of the teachers to the community, vacations and celebrations, and general flexibility, all were rooted in community culture. These important indigenous factors were ignored by the imported system. The government dominated formal system at first diminished and later completely wiped out the role of the community in elementary education. Consequently, the progress of elementary education in India suffered a serious setback, the problem of illiteracy arose, and an educational rift between urban and rural areas was created. The action research projects of the Indian Institute of Education, which have sought to spread secondary education to out-of-school rural children, therefore, take into account the importance of linkages between community culture and education as their main foundation.

1.4 Culture-conscious Secondary Education

Glimpses of indigenous education as seen above, and many recent research studies carried out by Indian and foreign scholars, have clearly shown that universalisation of secondary education in India’s rural and tribal areas, which contain nearly 75 per cent of India’s population, has been hampered by poverty but to a larger extent by the inappropriate organisation of the education system, which has persisted in ignoring the cultural contexts of the children’s
lives and depended mostly on bureaucratic measures. The present system which is too centralized, elite-dominated and urban-oriented, will have to undergo several modifications and relate itself to the needs and convenience of various communities and young learners if India is to have a strong educational base. Its curriculum and pedagogy will have to take into account the life-view and day-to-day living style of the communities to which the children belong and adapt the learning process and its organisation to the people's needs and aspirations. The neglect of this factor of 'belongingness' of the children to the community, and its impact on learning, makes the present-day system of schooling uninteresting and even unacceptable to many.

Based on these assumptions, the Indian Institute of Education evolved an action-research project titled ‘Promoting Secondary and Elementary Education (PROPEL)’ has been adopted. This project, conducted in 137 villages, has been eminently successful because of its cultural consciousness and community orientation. The PROPEL style of non-formal secondary education has been appreciated and selected UNESCO as a ‘mobilizing’ ‘showcase’ project which demonstrates a re-applicable alternative for bringing secondary education within the reach of all children, with due regard to the community life-style and people’s expectations.

The culture-specific facets of the PROPEL project are: (a) curriculum, which emphasises (i) free scope to recite folk tales, sing traditional songs, and hold conversations about daily experiences, (ii) language and mathematics, beginning with local language and ways of calculation, leading to progressive
assimilation of expected levels of learning of ‘standard’ language and mathematics, (iii) understanding of nature through exploration, analytical discussion, and reasoned argument, (iv) developing aesthetic sensitivity through observation, appreciation and use of colour, shape, sound, rhythm, with a view to fashioning of plastic and graphic art works in an untutored manner related to the learner’s natural surroundings, (v) health and hygiene in daily life, (vi) physical and mental relaxation through simple yogasanas, and (vii) explorations, with the help of the family and community elders, in local history and geography for discovering their relevance to local conditions and to the needs of local development; (b) class-climate for collaborative learning through verbal and non-verbal communication by means of (i) a circular, face-to-face seating arrangement in which the instructor too is included, (ii) shared learning materials which reflect the cultural ethos of non-acquisitiveness and un-selfishness, (iii) songs and skits based on the community’s environmental and cultural contexts, (iv) learning to make speeches on local subjects, and (v) group work for participatory ‘peer-group’ learning along with regeneration of the individualised but non-competitive, stress-free pedagogy of pre-British indigenous character.

The teachers in PROPEL are selected by the community from among community members. They are non-professionals who are willing to be trained as instructors since they wish to educate children and thus to serve the community. They are accountable to the community, and to themselves, for their performance as instructors and for proving to be like elder brothers or sisters of the young learners who need affectionate guidance. The project has ensured that
every Gram Panchayat (Village Council) sets up a Village Education Committee for looking after this culture-friendly learning system and ensuring its community orientation. As to the testing of the pupils’ achievements in various skills, the communities are invited to participate in the process. Pupils from several learning centres (which the children call Apla Varg; Our Class) gather together at a central village within a walking distance of 2 or 3 kms, once in 5½ months to participate in a Bal-Jatra: a Children’s Fair. In this air they sing, play sports and games, present skits, tell stories, and also engage in the ‘game’ of taking language and mathematics tests in the presence of community members. There are no passes or failures because the tests indicate to each child the next step of learning. A meal provided by the host village is shared by the instructors and pupils. Graded tests of language, numbers, and general information are supplied to groups of five or four pupils at a time, and they test themselves in public view. Thus, the project demystifies examinations and removes the confidentiality of performance. The fair provides a relaxed atmosphere and prevents examination stress.

They are generally drawn from the non-enrolled or dropout groups between the ages of 9 and 14. They show exceptionally good achievement in curricular studies, social skills, and understanding of the environment. They enjoy reasoning exercises, including simple experiments in science. The PROPEL project has broadly followed the principle of attending to the cultural parameters of rural secondary education, especially in the case of the non-enrolled and dropout children. But the Institute is of the view that further investigations into the cultural contexts of education for rural and tribal children are essential in order to
seek new paths for co-coordinating certain facets of community culture with the process of education, especially at the pre-school and secondary levels, so as to bring the home and the school together. Also, such investigation would help delineate the ways of a meaningful fusion of essential cultural elements with innovative educational practices which could help generate the dynamism and consciousness of a wider world necessary for the people to meet the challenge of change. Thus perceived, education at the grassroots level would be an assimilative cultural movement instead of the discordant cultural scene which it currently presents.

Objectives of Secondary Education

- Acquisition of tools of formal learning namely literacy, and manual skills.
- Acquisition of knowledge through observation study and experimentation in the areas of social and natural science.
- Development of physical strength and leach spirit outs and games.
- Acquisition of skills for planning and executing socially useful productive work with a view of making education work- based.
- Acquisition of skill of purposeful observation.
- Acquisition of habits of comparative behaviour within the family, social and community.
- Development of aesthetic activities and observation of nature.
- Development of social responsibility inculcating habits of appreciation of the culture and life styles of persons of other religions, regions and countries.
- Development of desire a participate in productive and other process of community life, and to serve the community, to inculcate a sense of the dignity of labor etc.

More concrete objectives of Secondary Education are found in the following statement of Kothari Commission:

“We believe that the provision of free and universal education for every child is an educational objective of the highest priority not only on grounds of social justice but also for raising the competence of average worker and for increasing national productivity”.

It may not be out of place to give hare of the new objectives of Secondary Education discussed at the regional meeting of the compulsory education held at Karachi in December 1952 which largely comprised.

a. To give adequate mastery over the basic tools of learning.

b. To bring about a harmonious development of the Intellectual, Social, Emotional, Aesthetic moral and Spiritual values.

c. To prepare children for good citizenship, to develop in them above for their country, its traditions and culture and to inspire them in terms of sense of service and loyalty.

d. To inculcate a sense of dignity of labor.

e. To prepare children for life through the provision of work while practical activities and experiences including work experiences.
f. To develop in them a sense of international understating and a spirit of universal brother hood.

1.5 Importance of Secondary Education

Secondary education constitutes a very important part of the entire structure of education. It is the stage that the child starts going to a formal institution and the formal education starts. The education which he receives there provides the foundation for his Physical, Mental, Emotional, Intellectual and Social development. Sound Elementary Education gives a fillip to sound secondary and higher education. Secondary Education deserves highest priority not only on grounds of social justice and democracy but also for raising the competence of the average worker and for increasing national productivity. The provision of universal Elementary Education represents an indispensable first step towards the provision of equality of opportunity to all its citizens.

There are some basic needs without which human beings cannot survive viz., Food and Air. But in modern days, Education became a basic need for the successful living of human being. Minimum Education is a must for the survival of man and for social good. Education is essential for the progress and mobility of mankind. Democratic values can be inculcated in pupil only through Education.

Even now, India is suffering from the problem of mass illiteracy. It is the most cause of under development. Failure to implement compulsory laws of education is the main reason for not achieving universal education in our country. Western countries successfully implemented compulsory law of Education and
they achieved Universal Education. Thus, they are known as developed countries.

Secondary Education is the foundation for the child. The child’s attitudes change after receiving secondary education. Elementary Education is the most crucial stage of education, spurning the first year of schooling and laying the foundations for the personality, attitudes, social confidence, habits, learning skills, and communicating capacities of pupils. The basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic are acquired at this stage. “Values are internalized and environmental consciousness sharpened. This is the stage where sports and adventures can be roused, and manual deseterity can also be developed.

The secondary stage of education covers the age range 5 or 6 to 12 or 13 years and the class I to VII. This is the period of universal, Compulsory free education. This period, especially the early years, play a crucial role in the life of the child. The child in this stage is spontaneous, curious, creative, and active. In the sphere of cognitive development, It is the crucial stage for income formation and the learning of principals. Thinking continues to be initiative and then develop in an increasing way capabilities of inductive and deductive thinking. In that order children move from wonder to utility and precision and then to generalization and system in respect of knowledge. For large section of children, this stage of education may be terminal after which they enter the world of work.
1.6 Secondary Education Programmes

The Directive principles of state policy as enunciated in our constitution, envisage that the state shall endeavor to provide free and compulsory education for children up to 14 years of age within a period of 10 years. The constitutional directive has been spelt out unequivocally and emphatically in the National policy on education, 1986 and its programme of Action (POA), 1992.

The policy envisages that free and compulsory education of satisfactory quality should be provided to all children up to the age of 14 years before the commencement of the twenty-first century. In keeping with the policy objectives, the targets for the five year plan have been defined under three broad parameters – Universal access, universal retention and universal achievement.

1.7 Problems in Secondary Education

To complete the picture of education as a whole in its micro-cosm it is pertinent there to discuss the various problems that have been facing in the implementation of the universal compulsory secondary education and are quite likely to persist in the foreseeable future also unless they are closely studied and right measures applied of the opportunism movement. The problems are of various types differing both in their nature and in the magnitude of force they exist on the scheme of Universal secondary education. “Unless these problems are nipped in the bud, no amount of effort and energy in the bloomless pit of secondary education will go to far to make the scheme a success”.

36
The problems can be analyzed under the following heads such as, administrative, financial, social, religious, Economic and educational. There are multifarious sub problems under each one too.

1.7.1 Administrative Problems

It has bee pointed out that in the majority of States it is the local bodies that responsible for the general administration of secondary education both voluntary and compulsory. It is alleged; that as they are demonic bodies. They always hesitate to take bold steps either in the introduction of compulsory education or in the administration of school. Their responsibilities are not matched with necessary powers to discharge them vigorously and bodily. The attendance and inspecting officers do not take interest in the educational policies. They lack sensitive and honesty. They do not identify them selves with their duties. In the words of professor K.G. Sai Yachen and others.

“The attendance officers are untrained and too few to cope with the situation, that local committees are always un willing to launch projection; that exemption are granted too freely; that the assignment for trying cases under the compulsory law are generally detective so that inordinate delays which deficit the very object of the Act and common”.

The acts of compulsory secondary education have also not provided for central or provincial authority nor they have been properly implemented in all stages with full interest and enthusiasm. The expansion of secondary education has also been suffering for want of proper developmental programmes and ‘perceptive plan’ as suggested by professor J.P. Naik schools have been opened
without any scheme, the local needs are not kept in the forefront. Large areas without schools and small areas with too many schools. Many schools have a very small strength, because they are located at distant places and so the pupils attend most irregularly. The inspection of the schools is very ineffective owing to the absence of an adequate.

Number of will amplified and inexperienced inspectors, on an average. An inspector is expected to inspect more than 100 schools in an year.

More no of inspectors should be appointed with less of work local and the inspection should be more academic rather than administrative. A democratic further than a bureau creative approach should due be adopted by the whole official administrative machinery. But this should not come in way of strict implementation of schemes and rules necessary for successful working of compulsory secondary education.

1.7.2 Financial Problems

The unsatisfactory progress of secondary education can be said without the slight hesitation is due to unsatisfactory and insufficient financial resources at the disposal of their local bodies. It should be realized that the transfer of such an expensive responsibility as that of secondary education ought to have been followed simultaneously by the transfer of suitable funds to local bodies enabling them to discharge their responsibilities properly. The state government seldom cones to them resource. Professor K.G. Saiyid and other opined, “The local bodies remained financially poor. They become the Cinderella’s of official
hierarchy, and had to content themselves with the crumbs that full from the tables of imperial Government”.

In the past, the British government concentrated their attention on higher education following the theory of downward filtration and neglected secondary education.

Even the present expenditures on secondary education in India is quite in significant composed to the majority of progressive countries which all of to secondary education receives a small and inadequate share of total expenditure. Also any effective functioning of compulsory education needs greater hare of the total expenditure.

1.7.3 Educational Problems

The problems pertaining to this are varied and can be studied mainly under three heads.

1. Universal provision of schools.
2. Universal enrolment of pupils and
3. Universal retention of pupil.

It is not Quit in three to say that many of the villages are without secondary schools is ever now. The situation in tribal and Billy area is even much more pathetic “It was found that 28.58% of the toil habilations had no educational facilities what so ever”.

39
Most of the schools established are without proper buildings and equipment only a few schools have government buildings other rented or free anise in some cases either a temple or a ‘mender’ or a green word trees serves as a school building. There is no sufficient equipment and accommodation even in the existing schools there are no school meals for the poor and backward children, and no medical and health facilities. For the sick and unhealthy of course, the position has been drastically improving during the last few years.

“It can be said at the end, with caution, that in a given local area served by a single school, there three stages follow are another in the order mentioned above. But taking the country as a who they are not mutually exclusive in fact, the second and third stages long before the first in over end in a sense they all exist side by side.

“The problem of universal education can be only solved it we have a lot of patience on the one hand and simultaneously develop a spirit of sacrifice and a capacity for hard work an the other. In secondary education what all the little done, \is nothing as compared to the undone vast, all the difficulties we have I this field can be summed up in one sentence, too many children and too little money”.

1.7.4 Dropouts of the Students

After independence the central and state Government made liberal plan allocations. Under various five year plans, serious considerations were given to improve the educational system. To enhance schooling it was decided to abolish tees, provide tree books, stationary and uniform. But in spite of all these efforts
the school dropout remains a problem. The high dropouts rate at the secondary stage is symptomatic of a basic malady.

“Educational wastage as commonly unshod in terms of grade repetition and school drop – out is a serious problem in almost all countries and particularly so in developing countries, where the available resource are merge,” In any system of education some waste is bound to occur in advanced countries, however, the extent of this waste is continued. This creates a rather curious situation because, in these countries, the available funds for educational development are limited and their effectiveness in use is considerably reduced by the existence of large waste.

On the other hand, the governments of developing countries are striving their best to educate their masters within the shortest possible time, but the success of the scheme of universal education in these countries lings upon the schooling efficiency relived through the minimization of drop-outs. It is therefore imperative on the past educational planning of developing countries that in order to make the maximum use of available resources, all out efforts should be made in the developing countries to scientifically study in the incidence of drop-outs, to properly diagnose of the cones of these two evils and to launch an appropriate programmed of action so that the available funds can go the longest way in expanding and improving the educational programmes. Dropouts like fever and head ache, are not diseases in themselves, they are only the manifestations of the disease, and only finding out the cause responsible and then applying suitable medicine to it.
The problem is no exception to the Indian educational system. The high incidence of drop-outs in our schools and colleges possesses serious social economic and political problems at all levels local, state and regional nor the problems is a characteristic feature of secondary education alone on the other hand, it is prevalent at all stages of education. Secondary sand University but, it may be noted here that the degree of incidence and agitation of occurrence of the problem may not be uniform, may it is new uniform it will be different at different stages and sometimes different indifferent grades in the same stage too statesmen, educationists parents and teachers have voiced from time to time serious concern over the appalling digestions of this battling problem. Perhaps, effective methods of reduce the incidence of thin rope-outs can be found any when their courses are discovered and remedies suggested.

It may be quite relevant here to get an idea as to the quantum of wasteful expenditure due to the phenomena in secondary schools. Assuming Rest. 26.9 as the average annual cost per pupil in secondary schools, it is estimated that in 1957-58, Rest. 11.51 corers were spent on pupils who did not proceed from grade to grade II in 1958-59 the amount spent on pupils who did not proceed form grad II; in 1958-59 the amount spend on pored from grade 1 to II in 1958-59 the amount spent on pupils who did not proceed from grade II to grade III was 3.23 corers; in 1959-60, it was 2.16 corers an pupils who did not proceed from grade III to grade IV and in 1960-61 Rest. 1.94 cores were spend on pupils who did not proceed from grade III to grade IV and in 1960-61 Rest. 1.94 crows were spend on pupils who did not proceed from grade IV to grade V.
Thus the financial dropouts on account of pupils withdraw from one grade to another at the secondary stage ton one year amounted to Rest. 18.84 corers. The waste for four years works out approximately to Rest. 75.36 corers which constitutes nearly 27.67% of the total expenditure on secondary education during the period 1957-58 to 1960-61. A developing country like India can hastily afford this ill directed expenditure.

The picture appears even more depressing when it is relaxed that the evils of dropouts will continue to persist in assessing proportions in the system of secondary education both at constant as well as current prices. This appalling waste of many is secondary is a grave concern for all specially in the context of compulsory education. And hence “we should by very careful before pouring money into this bottomless put of universal secondary educations”.

1.8 India and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)

The Millennium Development Goals (MDG) play an important role in the development policies today. For example, the Planning Commission of the Government of India has set key Tenth Plan targets on the basis of MDG targets. International agencies like the UK government’s Department for International Development (DFID) also work on the basis of the MDG framework.
Objectives of Millennium Development Goals

- The scope of the MDGs
- India’s current position in relation to key MDG targets
- Areas of concern in meeting MDG targets

The Scope of the Millennium Development Goals

The MDGs were adopted by all member-nations of the United Nations in 2000. Broadly, the MDGs aim to reduce global poverty, improve the lives of the poor and increase the pace of development in a sustainable manner. There are eight MDGs in all. Each MDG has specific targets. Many of these targets are expressed in numbers and are time-bound. Most of the targets have to be achieved by 2015.

The MDGs are global as well as country-specific. For instance, the first target of the first MDG -- halving global poverty by 2015 -- cannot be achieved unless the world’s most populous countries, India and China, halve the number of people living below the poverty line by that year.

Of course, there is no compulsion for any country to work towards meeting MDG targets. However, the MDGs have become a framework for judging the progress of different nations. Failure to achieve MDG targets will reflect poorly on a nation’s capabilities, and will also bring in international pressure.

India’s current position in relation to key MDG targets
As noted earlier, the Tenth Plan has set some key targets on the basis of MDG targets. The following table shows important MDG targets, the plan targets and where we are today:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Targets</th>
<th>Tenth Plan Target</th>
<th>Where we are today</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extreme poverty to be halved between 1990 and 2015: Poverty rate in India to be brought down in 2015 to 16% according to international definitions</td>
<td>Incidence of poverty to be brought down to 10% by 2012</td>
<td>The incidence of poverty is around 26% according to Government of India definitions and around 35% according to international definitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All children to be in secondary school by 2015</td>
<td>All children to be in secondary school by 2003.</td>
<td>92.14 % of children (82.85% for girls) in secondary school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eliminate the difference between male and female literacy by 2007</td>
<td>Halve the difference between male and female literacy by 2007</td>
<td>The literacy rate for men is 74% and for women it is 52%--a difference of 22%.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce 1990 mortality rates for infants and children under the age of 5 by two-thirds by 2015 (2015 target for infant deaths: 40 per 1000)</td>
<td>Reduce infant deaths to 45 per 1000 births by 2007</td>
<td>Infant deaths: 68 per 1000 Under-five mortality: 93 per 1000 births</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduce deaths due to childbearing (maternal mortality) by three-fourths of 1990 figures by 2015</td>
<td>Reduce deaths due to childbearing to 1 per 1000 by 2012</td>
<td>Deaths due to childbearing range between 4 to 5.5. per 1000 births</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halve the proportion of people without safe drinking water (Target: 85% of people get safe drinking water)</td>
<td>All villages to have sustained access to safe drinking water by 2007</td>
<td>84% of rural families and 95% of urban families have access to safe drinking water but not all sources are sustainable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Areas of concern in meeting Millennium Development Goals targets

India seems to be on course in meeting the target of halving the extent of poverty by 2015.
According to the Government of India, the percentage of people below the poverty line has declined from 55% in 1973-74 to 36% in 1993-94 to 26% in 1999-2000. The pace of decrease has been higher after the introduction of new economic policies in the 1990s.

However, decrease has not been uniform across years and across regions. As the World Bank’s India Country Brief for 2004 notes: "Vast disparities in per capita income level between and within India's states persist." There is also reason to believe that these disparities will increase.

Due to these disparities and the country’s large population, the absolute number of poor in the country remains very large. The 1999-2000 National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO) survey shows that the number of poor people is about 260 million out of a total population of 997 million. This figure is roughly equal to the current population of the United States of America.

The presence of such large numbers of poor people will continue to have major Political, Social, Economic and Environmental impacts. India’s progress on the health front is also a cause for concern. Here are some key indicators:

- India has one of the highest levels of maternal mortality in the world. Maternal deaths in India account for almost 25% of the world’s childbirth-related deaths.
- Almost half of all our children under the age of five are malnourished and 34% of newborns are underweight.
➢ Roughly half the children in the country do not receive complete immunisation.

➢ The majority of births (58.0%) in India are still unattended by trained persons.

While an increase in spending on health infrastructure is necessary. It will not be enough, as health is linked to other factors such as, adequate amount of nutritious food, income levels and education.

Poverty, Health and Education form a vicious circle. As poor people are less likely to have access to good food and medical care, they have more children to compensate for the risks of childhood deaths. When there are more mouths to feed, the poor have to suffer more. The pressure on environmental resources also increases. There is also a clear link between female literacy and child mortality: Children of illiterate mothers are more likely to die early than children of literate mothers. Hence, high female illiteracy promotes high fertility rates, which in turn decreases the chances of poor families having enough money to take care of all their needs.

A higher number of children also strengthens the traditional bias against educating girls as poor people do not have the resources to provide education for all their children. It is thus clear that economic progress alone will not help India achieve the MDG targets. The issues of health and female education will also have to be addressed in a holistic manner. Mere increase in government expenditure will not be enough. Civil society and local communities will have to play a larger role in ensuring that the public money is well spent.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger      | Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than $1 a day  
Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger                                                                                          |
| Achieve universal secondary education     | Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of secondary schooling                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
| Promote gender equality and empower women | Eliminate gender disparity in secondary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and to all levels of education no later than 2015                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
| Reduce child mortality                    | Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                |
| Improve maternal health                   | Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 and 2015, the maternal mortality ratio                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                          |
| Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases | Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS  
Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
| Ensure environmental sustainability      | Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources  
Halve by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water  
By 2020 to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers                                                                                                                |
| Develop a global partnership for development | Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system. Includes a commitment to good governance, development, and poverty reduction - both nationally and internationally  
Address the special needs of the least developed countries. Includes: tariff and quota free access for least developed countries’ exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for HIPCs and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction  
Address the special needs of landlocked countries and small island developing states (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the 22nd special session of the General Assembly)  
Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term  
In cooperation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth  
In cooperation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable essential drugs in developing countries  
In cooperation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications |
1.9 Rural Secondary School Education

The present system of education in India, from the preschool stage to higher education, has been imported from the West in bits and pieces over the last 200 years. The overall cultural contexts of Indian society and the cultural specialties of its varied segments have been ignored by this system, with the result that it has never been fully accepted by the people. It hardly needs to be pointed out that the ecological inheritance, ethos and cultural commitment of Western societies have been quite different from those of oriental societies. The climate, natural environment, types of settlements, their historical evolution and the resultant goals and occupations, and the life-views of these societies have always been poles apart. This is the main cause of the continuing discord between education and society in India.

That educational systems are subsystems inherent in any given social system and cannot be imposed from outside without damage to the social fabric was realised by Mahatma Gandhi long ago. In his speech delivered on 20 October, 1931 at the Royal Institute of International Affairs, London, he lamented that the British administrators of education had failed to notice the special characteristics of Indian culture which had a tradition thousands of years old of education and instead of taking hold of things as they were, they had begun to root them out. They scratched the soil and began to look at the root, and left the root like that, and the beautiful tree perished. The unrest which filled Gandhiji’s heart at the sight of the mindless destruction of the vast network of literacy and knowledge-gathering enterprise embedded in Indian culture was directed not so
much against individual officials but against the colonising mindset which always attempts to impose its own culture on a vanquished society. But this view of the colonial educational system was neither understood nor shared by many an educated Indian of those days. Gradually, however, this understanding did dawn on Indian educationists, but by then the damage had already been done.

The imported system had created two new classes in Indian society: the elite and the masses. The hybridised elite and the conquered masses became two cultural groups in a continuous state of conflict in the socio-economic and political fields. Efforts to cope with this conflict have seriously told upon the people’s intellectual health, creative urges, self-respect and self-confidence. This damage to the Indian spirit has to be understood if a new educational era is to begin for the Indian people and give them the strength to meet material and spiritual challenges. The remedy was prescribed by Gandhiji: searching for cultural roots which have a refreshing diversity along with a common bond forged over thousands of years, and appreciating the beneficial factors of other cultures with an open mind.

1.10 Rural Poverty

Poverty has been the major focus of planning in India. The national planning committee of the Indian national congress proclaimed in 1938 that the aim of the planning was to ensure minimum standard of living to everybody through economic growth the equitable distribution of income and wealth. After independence, the Government of India resolution of March, 1950 stated that
planning in India was intended to improve the standard of living of the people of efficient use of the resources and providing employment opportunities to all. Till the end of the fourth plan the planners felt that economic growth and employment generation can tackle the problem of poverty in India.

As there was no decline in the incidence till the end of sixties, it was realized that programmes for direct attack on poverty were needed. ‘Garibi Hatao’ became the main political slogan in the fifth five year plan period during which various antipoverty programmes have been introduced. During the half century after independence a lot of research has been undertaken on various factors of poverty.

With the introduction of economic reforms in 1991, policy debates on the appropriateness of reforms started and the official claims of declines in poverty in nineties are being questioned.

Thus the earlier debate on the trends in poverty is revived in the recent period While the earlier debate was on the appropriateness of plan strategies, the present debate is on the appropriateness of the policy of liberalization, privatization and globalization\(^1\) (LPG).

The eradication of poverty is very important to any economy whether it is an advanced capitalist country or under developed country like India. It is the per capita national income of a country which determines whether the country is developed or under developed. Poverty can be defined as a phenomenon in
which certain sections of the society are not capable of meeting the basic needs for their subsistence. The basic needs such as food, shelter and clothing cannot be met for the livelihood by the poverty-stricken people. The minimum requirements for livelihood are not the same for the villages on the one hand and the towns and cities on the other. In other words, poverty varies between the rural and urban areas. Besides rural and urban, poverty is of two types absolute poverty and relative poverty.

The number of poor people in India, according to the country’s Eleventh National Development Plan, amounts to more than 300 million. The country has been successful in reducing the proportion of poor people from about 55 per cent in 1973 to about 27 per cent in 2004.

But almost one third of the country’s population of more than 1.1 billion continues to live below the poverty line, and a large proportion of poor people live in rural areas. Poverty remains a chronic condition for almost 30 per cent of India’s rural population. The incidence of rural poverty has declined somewhat over the past three decades as a result of rural to urban migration.

Poverty is deepest among members of scheduled castes and tribes in the country’s rural areas. In 2005 these groups accounted for 80 per cent of poor rural people, although their share in the total rural population is much smaller.
On the map of poverty in India, the poorest areas are in parts of Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa, Chhattisgarh and West Bengal.

Large numbers of India’s poorest people live in the country’s semi-arid tropical region. In this area shortages of water and recurrent droughts impede the transformation of agriculture that the Green Revolution has achieved elsewhere. There is also a high incidence of poverty in flood-prone areas such as those extending from eastern Uttar Pradesh to the Assam plains, and especially in northern Bihar.

Poverty affects tribal people in forest areas, where loss of entitlement to resources has made them even poorer. In coastal fishing communities people’s living conditions are deteriorating because of environmental degradation, stock depletion and vulnerability to natural disasters.

A major cause of poverty among India’s rural people, both individuals and communities, is lack of access to productive assets and financial resources. High levels of illiteracy, inadequate health care and extremely limited access to social services are common among poor rural people. Micro enterprise development, which could generate income and enable poor people to improve their living conditions, has only recently become a focus of the government.
Tendulkar Committee

The Tendulkar Committee for the first time recommended use of implicit prices derived from quantity and value data collected in household consumer expenditure surveys for computing and updating the poverty lines. Tendulkar Committee developed a methodology using implicit prices for estimating state wise poverty lines for the year 2004-05. Using these poverty lines and distribution of monthly per capita consumption expenditure based on mixed reference period (MRP), the Tendulkar Committee estimated poverty ratios for the year 2004-05. In its Report, Tendulkar Committee recommended a methodology for updating 2004-05 poverty lines derived by it.

Accordingly, implicit price indices (Fisher Price Index) have been computed from the 66th Round NSS (2009-10) data on Household Consumer Expenditure Survey. As per Tendulkar Committee recommendations, the state wise urban poverty lines of 2004-05 are updated for 2009-10 based on price rise during this period using Fisher price indices. The state wise rural-urban price differential in 2009-10 has been applied on state specific urban poverty lines to get state specific rural poverty lines.

The head count ratio (HCR) is obtained using urban and rural poverty lines which are applied on the MPCE distribution of the states. The aggregated BPL population of the states is used to obtain the final all-India HCR and poverty lines in rural and urban areas. Some of the key results are:
• The all-India HCR has declined by 7.3 percentage points from 37.2% in 2004-05 to 29.8% in 2009-10, with rural poverty declining by 8.0 percentage points from 41.8% to 33.8% and urban poverty declining by 4.8 percentage points from 25.7% to 20.9%.

• Poverty ratio in Himachal Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka and Uttarakhand has declined by about 10 percentage points and more.

• In Assam, Meghalaya, Manipur, Mizoram and Nagaland, poverty in 2009-10 has increased.

• Some of the bigger states such as Bihar, Chhattisgarh and Uttar Pradesh have shown only marginal decline in poverty ratio, particularly in rural areas.

**Poverty ratio for Social Groups**

• In rural areas, Scheduled Tribes exhibit the highest level of poverty (47.4%), followed by Scheduled Castes (SCs), (42.3%), and Other Backward Castes (OBC), (31.9%), against 33.8% for all classes.

• In urban areas, SCs have HCR of 34.1% followed by STs (30.4%) and OBC (24.3%) against 20.9% for all classes.

• In rural Bihar and Chhattisgarh, nearly two-third of SCs and STs are poor, whereas in states such as Manipur, Orissa and Uttar Pradesh the poverty ratio for these groups is more than half.
Among religious groups

- Sikhs have lowest HCR in rural areas (11.9%) whereas in urban areas, Christians have the lowest proportion (12.9%) of poor.
- In rural areas, the HCR for Muslims is very high in states such as Assam (53.6%), Uttar Pradesh (44.4%), West Bengal (34.4%) and Gujarat (31.4%).
- In urban areas poverty ratio at all India level is highest for Muslims (33.9%). Similarly, for urban areas the poverty ratio is high for Muslims in states such as Rajasthan (29.5%), Uttar Pradesh (49.5%), Gujarat (42.4%), Bihar (56.5%) and West Bengal (34.9%).

For occupational categories

- Nearly 50% of agricultural labourers and 40% of other labourers are below the poverty line in rural areas, whereas in urban areas, the poverty ratio for casual labourers is 47.1%.
- As expected, those in regular wage/salaried employment have the lowest proportion of poor. In the agriculturally prosperous state of Haryana, 55.9% agricultural labourers are poor, whereas in Punjab it is 35.6%.
- The HCR of casual laborers in urban areas is very high in Bihar (86%), Assam (89%), Orissa (58.8%), Punjab (56.3%), Uttar Pradesh (67.6%) and West Bengal (53.7%).
Based on the Education level of head of the household

- In rural areas, as expected, households with ‘primary level and lower’ education have the highest poverty ratio, whereas the reverse is true for households with ‘secondary and higher’ education. Nearly two third households with ‘primary level & lower’ education in rural areas of Bihar and Chhattisgarh are poor, whereas it is 46.8% for UP and 47.5% for Orissa.
- The trend is similar in urban areas.

For categories by age and sex of head of the households

- In rural areas, it is seen that households headed by minors have poverty ratio of 16.7% and households headed by female and senior citizen have poverty ratio of 29.4% and 30.3% respectively.
- In urban areas, households headed by minors have poverty ratio of 15.7% and households headed by female and senior citizen have poverty ratio of 22.1% and 20.0% respectively against overall poverty ratio of 20.9%.

State wise details of poverty lines for 2009-10, poverty ratios for 2009-10 and poverty ratios for 2004-05 are given in Table 1, Table 2 and Table respectively.
## Table – 1.1
State specific Poverty Lines for 2009-10

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.NO.</th>
<th>States</th>
<th>Monthly per capita (Rs)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>693.8</td>
<td>926.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Arunachal Pradesh</td>
<td>773.7</td>
<td>926.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>691.7</td>
<td>871</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bihar</td>
<td>655.6</td>
<td>775.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
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<td>617.3</td>
<td>806.7</td>
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<tr>
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Notes:
1. Population as on 1st March 2010 has been used for estimating number of persons below poverty line. (interpolated between 2001 and 2011 population census)
2. Poverty line of Tamil Nadu is used for Andaman and Nicobar Island.
3. Urban Poverty Line of Punjab is used for both rural and urban areas of Chandigarh.
4. Poverty Line of Maharashtra is used for Dadra & Nagar Haveli
5. Poverty line of Goa is used for Daman & Diu.
6. Poverty Line of Kerala is used for Lakshadweep.

**Rural poverty in Andhra Pradesh**

Poverty in Andhra Pradesh is a subject of considerable current interest and discussion. The Government of Andhra Pradesh has expressed a strong commitment to the reduction of poverty in the state, and to this end has been supporting efforts to develop a sound diagnosis of, and to outline elements of a strategy to confront, this major development challenge. A recent report produced by the Rural Poverty Reduction Task Force has made an important contribution to our understanding of the multiple dimensions of rural poverty in Andhra Pradesh and to the options and constraints that shape policy aimed at poverty reduction (GOAP, 2000). This note seeks to build on the momentum generated by the Task Force’s report by examining more closely the association between material poverty and household characteristics, and by addressing two additional themes that may merit further attention in discussions of poverty in Andhra Pradesh.

As has been argued in the World Bank’s World Development Report 2000/1, the goal of poverty eradication involves focusing on more than only income-poverty. Nevertheless, it is clear that the latter remains an important dimension of an overall poverty alleviation strategy, and it is on this dimension that the present note concentrates. Further work will be required to place the analysis presented here into a broader perspective.
Poverty and Education

The National Sample Survey (NSS) data show a strong relationship between consumption levels and educational attainment of the household head. In both urban and rural areas, average consumption levels of households where the head had completed secondary education or higher are about twice as high as when the household head was illiterate. Four-fifths of household heads in the bottom quintile in rural areas had no education in 1993/4, as compared to roughly three-fifths in urban areas in that year. By 1999/0 this pattern remained largely unchanged. The share of household heads with some education rises steadily as one moves up the welfare distribution both in urban as well as rural areas, though the relationship appears to be much stronger in urban areas. In particular, by 1999/0 only 4 per cent of urban household heads in the top quintile were illiterate, down from 11 per cent in 1993/4. Urban households where the household head had completed higher education were much more likely to be in the top income quintile than in the bottom two groups. In 1993/4, half the households in the top income quintile in urban areas had completed higher education in contrast to only about one-fifth in the urban population as a whole. By 1999/0 this had risen to 62 per cent of household heads in the top quintile with completed higher education relative to under 30% in the urban population as a whole.

The relationship between education and poverty is far more complex than what is conveyed in a simple table linking consumption rankings to the education
of the household head. Indeed, education is not only an important determinant of economic wellbeing (as captured by consumption or income) but is a key dimension of wellbeing itself. A very important set of questions thus pertains to the factors which determine education outcomes, and in the context of this note, the particular role that poverty might be playing in constraining access to education. Recent research by Filmer and Pritchett (1999) based on National Family Health Surveys (NFHS) carried out in the major Indian states in 1992-3 describes the considerable variation across states in educational outcomes and the strong correlation between enrollment rates of children and their household wealth ranking.

Education outcomes in Andhra Pradesh are considerable lower than in its neighboring states. While barely 64% of children aged 6-14 in Andhra Pradesh are enrolled at school, the percentage in Kerala is as high as 95% and in Tamil Nadu and Karnataka are 83% and 71% respectively. In fact, the figures for Andhra Pradesh are lower than for India as a whole. Looking at educational achievements, such as the proportion of the population aged 15-19 that has completed at least grade 8, indicates that the poor showing in Andhra Pradesh does not apply only to enrollment rates. Only 42% of 15-19 year olds in Andhra have completed 8 grades of schooling, compared to 45% in Karnataka, 52% in Tamil Nadu and as many as 75% in Kerala.

Again, Andhra Pradesh is alone among the south Indian states to fall under the all India average. In AP while barely 45% of 6-14 year olds in the
bottom 40% of the population are enrolled at school, more than 90% of the top 20% are. The gap between this richest group and the poorest 40% is thus 46%, a larger gap than in any other South Indian state and once again larger even than at the all-India level. The pattern is unchanged when we consider education outcomes instead of enrollments.

The analysis by Filmer and Pritchett (1999) documents as well an important gender gap in enrollments and in school attainment in Andhra Pradesh, and illustrate that this gap is also greater among the less wealthy. The evidence shows that in 1992-3 poor girls were still markedly less likely to be enrolled in school and had achieved sharply lower education levels than rich girls, and the gap between boys and girls was particularly high among the poorer households in the population. One encouraging sign is that some additional recent evidence (Deaton 2000) indicates that between 1986-87 and 1995-96, enrollment rates of girls in India as a whole, and certainly also in Andhra Pradesh, rose markedly. While there is a still a considerable distance to go, it is encouraging to note that progress is being made in removing gender imbalances.

1.11 The Problem Studied

The central purpose of this study is to analyse how the system of secondary education in India actually works at the village level and how it interacts with other elements like poverty in rural development at north coastal districts of Andhra Pradesh state.
Education was regarded in the Constitution of Independent India (1950) as the democratic right of every citizen. Article 45 contained the following Directive of State policy: ‘The State shall Endeavour to provide, within 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.’

On this basis, there has been a phenomenal growth over the past three decades in Government expenditure on education, provision of educational facilities and a corresponding increase in School enrolment. At the end of the Fifth Plan in 1977-78, the enrolment figures for children in the 6-14 age group (Standards I to VIII), had increased to 67 per cent as compared with 32 percent in 1950-51 (Planning Commission, 1979:2).

The expansion of educational facilities rested also on the views expressed. For example, by the Indian National Commission, that education should be used as a powerful instrument of social, economic and political change (India, 1996). It is widely be lived that the rapid quantitative expansion of educational opportunities was the keystone to accelerated socio-economic development: it would contribute towards skill formation. Productivity and learning of new ides and techniques. Moreover, universal secondary education would enhance the opportunities for social mobility of the poor and the underprivileged.

The development of secondary and university education was accorded higher priority in the efforts to advance educational development. This
assumption was based on the experiences of western societies in which expansion of educational facilities has been associated with economic growth. These expectations of schools proceeded from the supposition that they were the effective agents for achieving an unlimited range of cognitive and affective educational and social goals.

Contrary to the State’s expectations, the educational system in India has perpetuated an increase in social segregation and widened economic differentiation.

In recent years, the concept of education is beginning to be equated with learning, irrespective of where, when and how often it occurs. On this learning-centred view, education can be grouped into three identifiable categories: formal, informal and non-formal education. Schooling and formal education refer to what is taught in school and school-related institution: informal education included all forms of non-school experiences which socialize an individual into the customary mores of society and formal education refers to organized educational activity which occurs outside the school (Coombs, 1973: 12,13: Simmons, 1980:22).

Schools have been defined as ‘Institutions which require full-time attendance of specific age groups in teacher supervised class-rooms for the study of graded curricula’ (Reimer, 1971:33). The learning process which goes on in schools and which is normally measured as educational achievement is only a small part of an individual's education. The secondary function of a school is formal teaching leading to the acquisition of certain basic skills and knowledge,
but it does not cover the entire educational process. The family, physical surrounding and socio-economic environment are also fundamental to this process.

It has often been implied that what goes on in schools is education, and schools are where people acquire education. ‘Schools are tied to curricula, examinations, grades and certificates and rely on compulsory attendance and expend more energy on a custodial role than an educative one’ (*Buckman*, 1973:1) other critics maintain that certificates have replaced learning as the objective of formal education (Dore, 1976: Bennett, 1976: Ilich, 1973: Reimer, 1971). Dore has further argued that ‘qualification earning is ritualistic, tedious, suffused with anxiety and boredom, destructive of curiosity and imagination: in short anti-educational’ (*Dore*, 1980d: 69).

The secondary school has been introduced in the village not only to bring in minimum literacy to the rural population, but also as the central institution for the development of villages. Its secondary objective is to teach the basic skills of communication. The high proportion of dropouts and increasing number of illiterates indicate that even the basic aims of formal schooling are not being achieved. Consequently, there is a growing concern among educators and planners that existing secondary education does not provide a particularly helpful or relevant experience for those who do not progress to higher levels. It is suggested that the secondary school curriculum is irrevocably tied to the requirement and values of the urban sector. The school is influenced to a large
extent by the certification needs of a small minority of pupils who will continue in secondary schools and possibly enter university and not by the requirements of those who will not. ‘This argument then challenges a major premise of educational policy in most societies: that secondary education in the form that it exists at present is needed for its own sake’ (Colclough & Hallak, 1976: 504).

Coincident with this trend is the realization that the type of education offered in the rural areas has very little relevance to their situations, problems and needs. Insofar as rural development is concerned, it has been claimed that much of formal education is counter-productive since it has alienated the youth from their environment (Wilson, 1973; Mydral, 1973; Naik, 1975). This has led some critics to propose ruralisation of the secondary school curricula. On the other hand, parent’s aspirations and expectations, in accordance with the traditions inherited from the colonial past, view school as a stepping-stone to jobs in the organized sector. Furthermore, a school with a rural bias lends itself to polarization; not only would it isolate the rural community from the urban sector, but also create a dual system of kind and degree from those in the urban sector. The pattern of rural-urban imbalance basically reflects the pattern of inequality that exists between the two sectors (Lipton, 1977).

Despite the various critiques of school and schooling, no one has yet challenged the idea of using education as an instrument of development. However, the question: why have the intended results of education not been
realized becomes vital to an understanding of under-development and development in rural areas.

Schools operate within the existing system of socio-economic differentiation and therefore, reinforce rather than challenge it. Indian planners acknowledge the fact that, ‘… although the underlying principle of the education system has been equality of opportunity … In practice, most of the benefits have accrued to a small minority’ (Planning Commission, 1979: 2). In a similar vein, Naik has argued that in spite of all attempts to introduce direct social changes, the society continues to be largely in egalitarian. It is privileged class structure of property, salaried employment in the organized sector and higher education which is proving to be the stumbling block for introducing equality. It is those classes that have been the principal beneficiaries of the planning process, as of everything else. (1975: 37).

Although schools have given children from poorer homes some mobility. It cannot be denied that they also reflect the hierarchical and unequal structure of society (Agriculture Economics Research Centre, 1968; Programme Evaluation Organisation, 1965; Blaug et al., 1969; Lewis, 1958; Lewis, 1979; Lacey, 1970; Bhagwati, 1973). In reality, schools perpetuate the social barriers which the poor try to overcome. While schooling is not the only factor which increases social inequality. It is an important one because it essentially confirms the status quo and the achievement of high status occupations and thereby, perpetuates the existing inequities (Clignet, 1980; Simmons, 1980; Bowles, 1977; Hurd, 1973;
Becker, 1961; Bennett, 1976; Malassis, 1976; Dalin, 1978; Foster, 1971; Adams, 1971; Singleton, 1973; Carnoy & Levin, 1976; Colclough & Hallak, 1976). It is further pointed out by Neelsen that Education is the only means for social mobility and not the end of the whole process: Democratization of access to education does not necessarily indicate egalitarian trends. Institutional differences may be more decisive in segregating social groups and strata than the absolute level of education reached (1975: 130).

Thus, formal schooling, based on western concepts alien to India, has been superimposed on rural societies of India. It basically represents ‘socialization into modern sector life’ (Dore, 1980: 69). The formal school initiates a rural child into believing that his future employment and social status would be determined in accordance with his achievements and not with his asstrictive characteristics.

Therefore, the question of demand for and supply of educational facilities, as determinants of the balance between change and status quo is of considerable significance in the study of rural development. Education is both a product of society and, under certain circumstances, a factor in social change (Malassis, 1976: 38). Insofar as socio-economic development is concerned, the objective, content, method, scope and functions of education can only be determined by an examination of its role in society. This book, therefore, seeks to highlight the gap that exists between the claims made for education and the reality of formal schooling in a traditional village society.
1.12 Unit of Study

In order to understand the impact of any Government policy in this instance of secondary education system, it is imperative that it is studied in the context of the existing socio-economic standards of that area. The strength of a multi-disciplinary approach lies in the fact that it gives a broader and better understanding of a particular phenomenon since it treats a given issue in its entirety. Therefore, such a holistic approach to a complex study does not allow a researcher to do an in-depth study of more than one village community, which is the most reducible unit of cooperation a Government administrative system.

It is widely accepted that it is not possible to make a generalization regarding the exact nature of development problems on basis of a study of one village. Nevertheless, a detailed study gives valuable insights into the quality of life in a village. At the same time it cannot be denied that in spite of prevailing diversity there are broad common features which cut across regional differences.

Indian villages have never been isolated units. This is more so today than in the past since they are rapidly changing and are now part of a larger and more complex network. Thus a village study provides insights into the link with the wider society and its impact on the rural society. Furthermore, correlations derived from macro-studies may be examined in depth in a micro-study to find out if they are the outcome of real inter-relations or only the accidental juxtaposition of unrelated events. Similarly, hypotheses suggested by micro study can be tested systematically over wider regions (Srinivas, 1978: 45).
A majority of studies of the problems and constraints of formal education in the rural areas of India, are either at the national, regional, district or sub-district level. They are primarily macro in nature, based on official statistics, interview schedules and derived form survey techniques of enquiry (Govinda, 1979; Khan, 1978; Seetharamu, 1977; Devegowda and Parameshwaran, 1971; Agriculture Economic Research Centre, 1968; Chaudhri, 1973; Programme Evaluation Organisation, 1965; Kamat, 1968; Gadgil and Dandekar, 1955). Most studies of this kind have been conducted at levels remote from village communities (Buch, 1974 and 1979; Indian Council of Social Science Research, 1974). There has been very little research done on the nature and demand for formal education, particularly in rural Karnataka (Mahale, 1975), nor is there much known on the outcome of schooling for those who do succeed through the system (Saran, 1969). Hence, the investigator assumed it essential, therefore, to assess the use of education as a development variable in the debate on rural poverty levels by concentrating on the socio-economic standards of village as the unit of investigation and at the same time its impact on the secondary education in those villages (rural areas).

1.13 The significance of the study

The central purpose of this study is to analyses, how the system of secondary education in India actually works at the village level and how it interacts with other elements like poverty in rural development at north coastal districts of Andhra Pradesh. Education was regarded in the Constitution of independent India (1950) as the democratic right of every citizen. Article 45
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It is suggested that the secondary school curriculum is irrevocably tied to the requirement and values of the urban sector. The school is influenced to a large extent by the certification needs of a small minority of pupils who will continue in secondary schools and possibly enter university and not by the requirements of those who will not.

1.14 Designing of the study

The study consists with five chapters, where Chapter-1 is introduction and it deals with discusses about the education system in India, the present situation of secondary education in India and Andhra Pradesh, the problems and policies in secondary education, the secondary education in rural areas. In this chapter the rural poverty in India and Andhra Pradesh, and the impact of rural poverty on secondary education have been discussed. The conceptual framework and significances of the study also discussed in this chapter. In the Chapter-II the literature review has been discussed. In this chapter the related studies pertaining to the current study have been analysed and presented. The research methodology of the study has been presented in the Chapter-III. In this chapter the need for the study, statement of the problem, objectives, hypothesis, conceptual definitions, tool, method of data collection, sampling, area of the study, statistical treatment and limitations of the study along with profile of study area have been presented. The Chapter-IV ‘Data analysis and interpretation’ has divided into three sections. The Section-A deals with the analysis of data pertaining to response of secondary school teachers on factors and performance
of secondary education in rural areas. In the Section-B the response of the sample parents of school going children on the factors and perceptions of secondary school education in rural areas. And finally the Section-C deals with the checklist, where the situational status of sample study schools has discussed. In this section the situation of secondary schools, the environmental conditions, strength of students and staff in the schools, the facilities and availability of learning material, teaching aids, technical instruments etc. In this chapter the collected data from the response of sample respondents i.e. Parents and Teachers has been formulated by tables, and the school information called checklist has presented to strengthen the study. The analysis and discussion on the response of the teachers and parents followed by the tables and graphs were drawn wherever necessary. The testing of hypothesis are also presented in this chapter in the form of tables, and the results are also discussed with the help of coefficients derived by the statistical tests. The last chapter is ‘summary, conclusion and suggestions’. It contains the summary of this study, how the hypotheses lead to the conclusion, some recommendations and suggestions derived from the findings of statistical analysis. The chapter also suggests on future studies that can broaden this research, and it also gives the limitations that may have hampered this study.

1.15 Conclusion

Secondary education has been receiving a self back due to the illiteracy and backwardness of the parents. It is no exaggeration to say that the majority of
parents cannot provide their children even with the food necessary to keep their head and heart together. Poverty compels a number of parents of laboring and agricultural classes to withdraw their children pre-maturely from schools and their services to add a little to their scary earnings. It has been calculated that at the total wastage and stagnation that occurs at the secondary state, 65% is due to the parents poverty along. Along with it, the poor social – educational status and cultural backwardness of parents add fuel to the deadly burning fire. The long range remedy for this is the improvement of the general economic status of the parents but the immediate solution can be found in the provision of past time education also the provision of same economic assistance to the children of poor parents.