CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION
1.1 Introduction:

Education is a key strategy for bringing about the changes necessary to ensure economic, cultural and social development as well as environmental protection and food security (Gasperini, L, 2000). Education is essential to reduce poverty and to increase human capital and can be considered as the most basic building block of development. A literate, well-educated labor-force is essential if a country is to lay the foundations for sustainable economic development and to compete effectively in today’s global market (Gardner, Robert, 1998). Recognizing the role of education in development, strategies particularly in developing world including India are now placing more emphasis on provision of quality education for the many target groups like children, youth and adults.

Education being broad term refers to basic education including primary and upper primary levels of education collectively called as elementary education, early childhood care and pre-school education, literacy programmes for youth and adult, vocational education, non-formal education etc. Primary education which is the first cycle in the elementary education is defined internationally as “providing children with basic reading, writing, and mathematics skills along with basic understanding of such subjects as history, geography, natural science, social science, art, and music”.
Achieving Universal Primary Education is a common target set out in the Education for All goals and in Millennium Development Goals. India is also committed to achieve the aim of universal education. Due to various interventions like for example operation blackboard (1986), non-formal education scheme (1986), the shikshakarmi project (1987), mahila samakya (1989), lok jubmish (1992), district primary education programme (DPEP) (1994), mid-day meal scheme (1995), etc. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, 2002, in the recent years, much progress towards universal education has been made.

In the past few years, the country has witnessed a rise in enrolment at all the stages of education, a decline in dropout rates, a move towards gender parity, a substantial increase in the number of teachers in all types of institutions and a considerable expansion in the number and spread of educational institutions. Though the recent gains are positive and encouraging but they are still falling short of the set goals. Despite the government’s attempt to achieve the goal through the SSA still millions of students remain out of school for various reasons and do not take the advantage of education.

1.2 Primary Education in India:

India made a Constitutional commitment to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14 nearly sixty years ago. The goal, which was expected to be achieved by 1960, remains elusive, even now. Yet, one has to admit that developments in recent years have had significant impacts on the situation, raising the hope that universal basic education could be a
reality within a reasonable period of time. Three factors seem to be making a distinct difference in the growth trajectory of elementary education in the country.

The first factor is the increased direct involvement of the Central Government in strengthening infrastructure and delivery of elementary education. This is important, as historically, the state governments have had almost complete responsibility for producing and delivering public elementary education. State governments, of course, continue to provide a major share of recurring financial expenditure, but the proactive manner in which the Government of India has acted following the adoption of the National Policy on Education 1986 stands out as a landmark innovation in educational policy. This changed Centre-State framework of action has made the Central Government the prime mover in designing and implementing development initiatives in elementary education in many states, though the situation is non-uniform across the country.

Coupled with this enhanced Central initiative is the adoption of district as the base for planning development inputs for elementary education, as well as the concurrent move to decentralize governance set up by empowering local self-governance mechanisms through panchayati raj institutions. This second factor has added a new dimension to the multi-layered planning and implementation framework and created a new dynamic at the grassroots level.
The third factor that has begun to reshape the elementary education scene significantly in India in recent years is the massive social mobilization drive. This has been encouraged over the last few years within the elementary education sector, under the auspices of the National Literacy Mission. This has resulted in increased demand for elementary education, on the one hand, whilst substantially enhancing the role of non-state actors in the provision of elementary education and support services in the country, on the other.

Almost all official documentation, in particular the successive Five Year Plans at national level acknowledges these factors as significantly impacting the progress of elementary education. But what is the nature and extent of impact of these developments on improving access to and participation levels of children in elementary education across the country? Are more children accessing and completing the elementary education cycle and moving to secondary schools? How different is the scene across different regions and social groups in the country? To what extent has the system overcome social and gender inequities in progressing towards the goal of universal elementary education? What factors seem to facilitate or hinder the smooth flow of children within the school system? To what extent are school factors responsible for ensuring that children attending schools achieve the expected levels of learning?

These are critical questions that might possibly determine whether India achieves the targets and goals set at the national level under the flagship
programme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), as well as the international level under Dakar Declaration on Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The Seventh All India Educational Survey (AIES) conducted by the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) provides an overview of the availability of schooling facilities in 2002 in India (NCERT, 2003). In 1992-93 according to the Sixth AIES (NCERT, 1998), 83.4 per cent of habitations in the country had primary schooling facilities within a distance of 1 km. The percentage of habitations served by upper primary schools at a distance of up to 3 km was 76.2 per cent of the country. In 2002 (NCERT, 2003), around 87 per cent of habitations had a primary school within a distance of 1 km, while 78 per cent of habitations had an upper primary school within 3 km. This suggests that physical access to school has continued to improve over the years, though at a relatively slow pace. The Seventh AIES (NCERT, 2003) reveals that among the major states in India, numbers of habitations with access to primary schools within 3 km, varied between around 94 percent in Andhra Pradesh; 75 percent in Himachal Pradesh and 77.2 per cent in Jharkhand (which has a large tribal population).

The percentage of habitations having primary schools within the habitation was less than the national average in 2002 in states such as Assam, Jharkhand, Orissa and Rajasthan, where educational indicators are also often lower. With respect to the availability of upper primary schools, Jharkhand
comes at the bottom of the table, with only 61.4 per cent of habitations having access to upper primary schools within a distance of 3 km. Having said this, data shows an increase of more than 50 per cent in primary schooling facilities in Assam, and more than 30 per cent increase in Chhattisgarh, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Punjab and Uttarakhand during the period 1993-2002 as indicated by numbers of schools.

The rapid increase in the number of schools, teachers and students is largely due to an increase in small schools. A significant proportion of these are single-room and single-teacher schools which frequently have inadequate physical and academic infrastructure. For instance, the Seventh AIES NCERT, 2003; shows that 15 percent of all primary schools in the country are single teacher schools. The share of single teacher schools is much higher in rural areas than in urban areas. Barring a few states such as Tamil Nadu and Kerala, all major states have a substantial number of schools in this category. The occurrence of these small schools seems most prevalent in Jharkhand and Bihar, followed by states like Maharashtra, Orissa and Karnataka. In terms of absolute numbers, Uttar Pradesh has the highest number of such small schools in rural areas, followed by Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal. These states also have a large number of small schools in urban areas. Provision of quality education in these schools has become a major concern as, with only one teacher, the schools do not open whenever the teacher is on leave, busy with other work or on training courses. With these schools in mind,
it is important to develop a disaggregated analytical picture of the improvement in the physical infrastructure of schools in order to make a reliable assessment of their adequacy for achieving the goal of universal access. Merely counting school and classroom numbers may not reveal the whole picture, particularly in terms of their ability to attract, retain and provide education of satisfactory quality. This is undoubtedly an important area demanding in-depth empirical exploration.

Improvements in the physical access to elementary education by providing primary and upper primary schools seems to have also had an impact on the ratio of upper primary and primary schools. In 1957, there was only one upper primary school for every six primary schools. Data from successive AIES show that the ratio was 4:1 in 1987 and 3:1 by 1993 (NCERT, 1998). 2002 data indicates that the ratio has further improved to 2.7:1 (NCERT, 2003). This also indicates an increased demand for upper primary education and improvements in transition rates from primary to the upper primary stage.

The Seventh AIES (NCERT, 2003) also gives important information on the state of physical infrastructure in schools. For example, of a total of nearly 900,000 lower and upper primary schools, only around 80 per cent schools have pucca buildings. The situation seems to be most disturbing in Assam as less than 40 percent of schools have pucca buildings; and serious in several other states, such as Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu &
Kashmir, Orissa and West Bengal. That said there have been considerable improvements in the situation in these states over the last few years.

India has achieved high Gross Enrolment Ratios (GERs) in many areas. According to the Annual Report 2006-07 (GoI, 2007) approaching 200 million children were enrolled in primary and upper primary schools in December 2006. Enrolments have grown consistently since 1950 with upper primary and secondary enrolments lagging those at primary. The GER of the 6-14 age-group increased from 96.3 in 2001-02, to 108.6 in 2004-05 at the primary level; and from 52.1 in 2001-02, to 70.5 in 2004-05, at the upper primary level. Net Enrolment Rates (NERs) are less certain to calculate. On average across India the NER is between 85% and 90% suggesting that universal levels have not yet been achieved. But, some states such as Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Nagaland, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh have NERs below 80% and continue to face serious problems which demand immediate attention.

Participation by wealth and gender remains unequal in recent years growth rates at upper primary have been higher than those at primary but hand secondary. The 61st Round of National Sample Survey (NSS) data from 2004-05 (GoI, 2006) reveals that about 83 percent of males and 77 percent of females in the 5-14 age group were attending educational institutions in rural areas (a total of 80 percent overall in rural areas). This compared to around 89 percent of children aged 5-14 in urban areas i.e., 89% percent of urban boys and 88 percent of urban girls (Bandyopadhyay and Subrahmanian, 2008).
Overall around 82 percent children of 5-14 years old were currently enrolled in schools. While around 85 percent of boys were enrolled in schools, the percentage of girls enrolled was around 79 percent.

Large variations were observed in the enrolment rates of children across different states. While around 90 percent of children were enrolled in schools in Kerala, Chandigarh, Delhi, Goa, Himachal Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Punjab, Tamil Nadu, Sikkim, A&N Islands, Chandigarh, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep and Puducherry; in states such as Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Jharkhand and Uttar Pradesh there were 75-78 percent of children enrolled in schools. In Bihar this percentage went down to 65. A similar situation occurs with the enrolment of female children in the 5-14 age group.

1.3 Persisting Problems in Universal Primary Education:

It is important that access and equity go together in order to make Universal Primary Education a reality. Almost all programmes and plans aim at bridging gender and social gaps in enrolment, retention and learning achievement at the primary stage. As mentioned earlier, special interventions and strategies have been adopted to include girls, SC/ST children, working children, children with special needs, urban deprived children, children from minority groups, children below poverty line, migratory children and children in the hardest-to-reach groups. These are indeed children who have historically remained excluded from education and are at high risk of dropping
out even after enrolment if special attention is not paid.

Recent years have witnessed positive developments with respect to girls’ education in India. For instance, since the beginning of 1990s, progress in girls’ enrolment has been faster than that of boys (Govinda and Biswal, 2006). In the 6-11 age group, this could possibly be explained by the fact that GER for boys was already approaching 100 per cent and was, therefore, in a stabilization phase. Despite the positive trends in the enrolment of girls, gender disparity remains and the GER for girls is below 100 percent at the lower primary stage. The proportion of girls in the age group of 6-11 who are enrolled in primary schools is likely to be less than 80 per cent if over and under age children are excluded. The overall difference in the enrolment ratio between boys and girls continues to be at around 10 percentage points. The situation is even more disturbing at the upper primary stage where the enrolment rate for girls falls below 60 per cent. Particular attention in this regard is required in four states, namely Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh.

Despite reported improvement in girls’ enrolment during the 1990s, gender differentials continue to be significant. This is particularly pronounced if one compares participation levels of boys and girls in urban and rural areas. In fact, a wide gap in participation rates of rural girls and urban boys from all age groups persists (Bandyopadhyay and Subrahmanian, 2008). A similar problem of inequity in coverage and participation exists with respect to
different social groups, traditionally identified as under-privileged. Despite special provisions in the Constitution to meet the educational requirements of groups such as Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST), the situation has remained far from satisfactory. The possibility of exclusion is compounded if the children live in rural areas and are female. Tribal girls in rural areas are in the most disadvantaged position, as only 51 percent of them are enrolled in schools, whereas around 80 percent of all girls were enrolled in urban areas (Sedwal and Kamath, 2008). As additionally, the recent Sachar Committee report has pointed out; the situation of children from the Muslim minority community seems to be even worse than that of SCs and STs (GoI, 2006a).

Correlating income levels with education attainment, the National Sample Survey 61st Round (NSS, 2004-05) (GoI, 2006b) found that the proportion of non literates was highest in bottom Monthly Per Capita Consumption Expenditure (MPCE) groups and literature levels increased as the MPCE increased. Similarly, the proportion of educated people was highest in the top MPCE group and it decreased as the MPCE decreased. There is considerable difference between rural and urban areas. For instance, while the proportion of non-literates was 69 percent of the bottom MPCE class in rural areas, it was 18 percent in the top MPCE class. The corresponding proportions in urban areas were around 51 percent and 2 percent. In terms of the proportion of educated (literate with schooling)
people, the difference in rural areas was as high as 42 percentage points with only 4 percent of educated people in the bottom MPCE class. The difference in urban areas was even more glaring with 78 percentage point difference, and only 9 percent of the people in the bottom MPCE being educated to secondary level and above. It was also found that the proportion of non-literates was highest in households engaged in rural labour (56 percent) and casual labour (41 percent) in urban areas. The lowest proportion of non-literates was found in the households of regular wage/salaried employees (13 percent) in urban areas.

Another important feature was the wide gap that persists between men and women in rural, as well as, urban areas. In rural areas, around 68 percent of rural female labourers were not literate opposed to 44 percent of rural male labourers. Around 56 percent of female self-employed workers in rural areas were not literate opposed to 28 percent of non-literate self-employed men. Less than 10 percent of women were educated in households including labourers as well as the self-employed. In urban areas, 36 percent of women were educated, compared to 48 percent men. The highest proportions of educated females (44 percent) were living in households categorized as including ‘regular salaried/wage employees’. 19 Data based on mixed recall period (consumption pattern over last 365 days) and uniform recall period (consumption pattern over last 30 days). Due to poverty and lack of employment opportunities, a section of the landless poor periodically migrate
to nearby urban areas or other agriculturally productive places in search of jobs and income. Often the entire family migrates, which can have an effect on the education of children. According to the UNICEF Report (2006: 56), roughly 20 percent of the Indian population is considered migrant, of whom the majority are women and children. They are often at greater risk of exploitation and tend to accept jobs on unfair terms. Deprived of family and community support networks at the site of migration, women and children often suffer most and are frequently denied access to basic services including education. Children accompanying their parents also often work, often in the informal sector where they face exploitation and at times, abuse.

Wadiker and Das (2004) reported that seasonal migration within Maharashtra is a very common phenomena (it has the third highest rate in India for child labour). There, poor people migrate every year during lean agricultural seasons, to work in sugar factories, brick kilns, quarries and various construction sites. Women and children form a high proportion of these migrants. Such migration often involves longer working hours, poor living and working conditions and poor access to basic facilities like access to education, health, food distribution systems, etc. Problems faced by migrant children in sugar factories include: lack of school access whilst families migrate (from October to the end of the academic year); lack of educational facilities available to them in migrant sites (including non formal opportunities); sugar factories not looking on children’s education as their
responsibility (Wadiker and Das, 2004).

Bashir found that the number and proportion of working children was greater (Bashir, 1994; Kanbargi and Kulkarni, 1991) in labour intensive activities like agriculture, cattle rearing and other household based economic activities. In contrast, children belonging to non-agricultural households and whose parents were working in the formal sector were more likely to attend school (Unni, 1996). Some scholars argue that it is not just poverty and agriculture, but also the commercialization of agriculture which seems to intensify this process of child labour involvement. For instance, (Venkateswarlu, 2000) points out how hybrid cotton seed production, which is one of the fastest growing sectors, has led to an increase in child labour, as it is highly labour intensive and children are used in most of its operations. A village level study in Gujarat and Karnataka reveals that children below 14 years of age account for 34.9 per cent of the total labour force engaged in these operations; and girls out number boys. Of the three states engaged in this activity, the proportion of children in the total workforce is more in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka than in Gujarat; most of the labourers belong to Scheduled Tribe groups.

The non-participation of children due to such seasonal migration has received little attention in the discourse on educational access Smita (2007) points out that: with the collapse of rural livelihoods in many parts of the country, hundreds of thousands of families have been forced to migrate every
year taking their children along, making them drop out of schools and closing the only opportunity available to them for an alternate future. Such migrations are large and growing, and the number of children below 14 years involved in it could be around six million.

Studies also suggest a strong relationship between poverty; development and child labour (see Kabeer et al, 2003; Reddy, 2000; Chaudhari 1997; Chandra 1997; Duraisamy, 1997; Gupta and Voll, 1999). One cannot deny the fact that the economic status of a family is a powerful force in shaping its behaviour in many aspects of life including the engagement of their children in productive labour and schooling. However, recent trends in enrolments clearly indicate that poor parents are increasingly sending their children to school, even private fee-charging schools. Moreover the government has, in recent years, launched several programmes to educate older children who missed out on schooling due to their involvement in child labour. Sinha (2006) argues for residential bridge course camps and motivation centers for children currently engaged in labour, which provides them with appropriate educational inputs, and subsequently mainstreams them into formal schools after the completion of their courses.

According to the Census 2001, there has been a sharp decline in the proportion of child main workers from 4.3 percent in 1991 to 2.3 percent in 2001, but at the same time number of marginal workers increased from 2.2 million to 6.9 million; in effect, the total number of child workers increased
to 16.4 million in 2001 from 12.9 million in 1991. Most of these children were engaged in agricultural activities on a part time basis. Burra (2006) refers to a substantial decrease in number of child workers, with an increase in school enrolment and reduction in percentage of out of school children. According to the figures given by Burra (2006) there has been a dramatic change in the situation in Andhra Pradesh, Kerala and Tamil Nadu. In contrast, the percentage of child workers increased from 5.5 per cent in 1991 to 8.6 per cent in 2001 in Himachal Pradesh, at the same time as school enrolment improves.

Studies have attempted to assess the magnitude and extent of child labour, the nature of work children are engaged in and its impact on their health, education and well-being. Burra (2006) referring to a number of such studies (e.g. LeClerq, 2002; Anthony, 2002; Bhattacharya et al; Nangia & Khan, 2002; Ramachandran, 2002; Chaujar, 2002), point outs that a large proportion of children in the states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh are engaged in farming activities and household chores. A large section of these child workers are girls who also work for long hours to earn meager wages. Based on the variety of work contexts in which children are engaged in labour, Burra (2006) argues, ‘the circumstances under which children work in any number of activities gives the lie to the view that work is a form of socialization into adulthood.’ This is also supported by findings that work conditions do not leave scope for children to pursue schooling even
on part time basis. A time-use study conducted using survey methods in Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Gujarat, Orissa, Tamil Nadu and Meghalaya throws light on the kind of activities in which children aged 6-14 years are engaged (Hirway, 2002). The survey points out that while 67.1 percent of children surveyed were engaged in educational activities, about 17 percent were engaged in pure economic activities.

MICS data from 2000 referenced by UNICEF (2004) also throws light on the level situation of child labour and school participation by state. According to MICS the proportion of child labour presently is more than 15 percent in the following states: Rajasthan (20.3 percent), A.P. (25.2 percent), Tamil Nadu (21.6 percent), Chhattisgarh (19.2 percent), Jharkhand (20 percent), Orissa (15.4 percent), Arunachal Pradesh (23.3 percent), Sikkim (16.4 percent). In Maharashtra, Karnataka, Chhattisgarh and Manipur their proportion varies between 5-15 per cent of children. According to the same UNICEF report (2004), over 20 percent of India’s working children are from Uttar Pradesh, most of who work at odd jobs, in factories and in the carpet industry for meager wages. They are found in districts like Bhadohi, Mirzapur, Jaunpur, Varanasi, Allahabad and Sonbhadra, areas that account for over 85 percent of the country’s total carpet exports. One of the main reasons for the high prevalence of child labour in these areas is the burden of debt, which forces families to send their children to work, combined with low literacy rates which compound the problem (UNICEF, 2004: 60-61).
Drawing reference from different research studies Bhatty (1998) argued that poverty is an inadequate explanation of regional variations in educational achievement. While some parts of the country which are experiencing relative economic prosperity lag behind in terms of educational progress, in other parts even extreme poverty does not prevent parents sending their children to school. For instance, states like Haryana and Punjab, which are considered economically progressive, have still a lot to do to achieve the goal of UEE. Dreze and Gazdar (1997) found that despite having economic prosperity, literacy rates and school participation rates of children in western Uttar Pradesh were far from satisfactory. Moreover, (Bhatty 1998 drawing on Maharatna, 1996; Unni Jeemol, 1996; Majumdar, 1997; Jabbi and Rajyalakshmi, 1997) points out that the opportunity costs do not forbid schooling and many unschooled children are also found not working anywhere.

Children are more likely to participate in the workforce after reaching a certain age. For example, the study of Kanbargi and Kulkarni (1991:137) reveals that, ‘working for wages is significant among children in the 12-14 age groups’. Similarly, Bhatty (2006) found that ‘labour driven drop-out rates are more likely to be low in the early grades and to rise significantly around the ages when children become more productive.'
1.4 Significance of the Study:

It is evident that studies have been conducted by Indian researchers to probe into factors that influence the academic performance of the children in the school. The Surveys of Research in Education (Buch 1974, 1979, 1984 and 1991) and Fifth and Sixth Survey of Research in Education refer to a fairly good number of studies which attempt to correlate various school factors with academic achievement of students. However, researches correlating academic achievement with factors outside the school system are few. Studies relating to school facilities with classroom performance are quite few in number. While it is widely recognized that the primary education may have lasting influence on the further education and life of a child, there is a growing concern that the achievement of students in the different school subjects has yet to reach the desired level.

It has also been known that there are disparities in the achievement levels of different groups of students. Rural students seem to fall far behind their counterparts and there exists gender differences among them too. Under these circumstances, it is pertinent to identify the magnitude of the problem, the factors that contribute to the problem and what causes the disparity among the students in terms of their achievements. It is only by understanding the nature of the problems it would be feasible to take appropriate steps. Hence, the present study seeks to address the research questions as to what achievement
levels have been attained by students in different school subjects at primary stage? What is the condition of the available physical facilities and amenities in the rural areas? What is the scenario related to children’s school attendance and what are the factors of non-school attendance at household level?

Against this backdrop, the present study will attempt to find answers to the questions raised above. Moreover, the outcomes of the study will provide deeper insights into the problem taken up in the study. Further, it would also help educational planners in framing policies and programmes in a more meaningful way in the field of primary education in West Garo Hills District of Meghalaya.

1.5 Statement of the Problem:

The problem of study undertaken by the investigator can formally be stated as follows:

“PRIMARY EDUCATION IN RURAL MEGHALAYA: A STUDY IN WEST GARO HILLS DISTRICT”.
1.6 Objectives of the Study:

The objectives of the proposed study are as follows:

1. To appraise the existing infrastructural facilities in primary schools
2. To study the scenario of school attendance
3. To study the factors of non-school attendance of the children at household level
4. To study the levels of learning achievements in Mathematics and Garo (Language)

1.7 Operational Definition of the Terms used:

Primary Education: Elementary education is divided into primary and upper primary levels. Primary level includes standards 1-4/5 and upper primary level includes standards 4/5 to 7/8 according to the state structure. In the present study, primary education refers to standards 1-4.

Academic Achievement: Ability, achievement and aptitude are the three related terms which are often used interchangeably. It becomes difficult to discriminate among the three in conceptual terms. However, distinction can be made on the basis of the tests used to assess them. A common distinction is that achievement tests measure what a student has learnt and aptitude tests measure ability to learn new tasks. Academic achievement tests, typically measure knowledge obtained from formal learning situations. Thus, the term
achievement has been defined as an acquired knowledge of a student obtained from formal learning situation. In the present study, academic achievement will be studied in terms of outcome of learning school subjects such as mathematics and Garo (Language).

**Rural:** Rural in this study will be interpreted in terms of locale. According to Census of India, the basic unit of rural areas is the revenue village which had a definite surveyed boundary and each village is a separate administrative unit. It may have one or more hamlets and entire revenue village is one unit. In the state of Meghalaya the villages are non-cadastral or un surveyed. It is only a collection of houses of habitation bearing a separate name with no defined boundary but situated within certain boundaries traditionally recognised by the villagers. Primary schools located in rural areas of West Garo Hills District of Meghalaya will be studied by the investigator.

**1.8 Delimitations of the Study:**

Study delimits itself to all the infrastructural facilities in the schools, class wise (I-IV) student’s attendance and learning achievements in the subjects of mathematics and language i.e., Garo for only class IV.
1.9 Chapterisation:

The first chapter deals with the introduction of the study which includes the overview of primary education, the recent efforts to improve the primary education in the country followed by significance of the study, statement of the problem, study objective, operational definition of the terms, delimitation and the chapter plan.

The second chapter provides a discussion on the status of primary education in the state of Meghalaya as the study is situated in the state of Meghalaya. This section is based on secondary sources.

The third chapter highlights the review of related literature. The fourth chapter is about design and methodology of the study. In this chapter development of tools, sampling, procedure of data collection and analysis is presented.

The fifth chapter presents the details regarding the analysis and interpretation done as per the requirement of the study along with the major findings and discussion. The sixth chapter deals with the summary of the entire study, including the major findings, their educational implications and suggestions for further study.

References and appendices are provided at the end of the thesis.