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Education

The chapters on income (Chapter 2) and employment (Chapter 4) clearly identified education¹ as an important determinant of the economic well-being of households. Apart from its monetary returns, as we will show in the subsequent chapters, education also appears to be linked to other dimensions of well-being, including health outcomes, investments in the next generation, social networks, and civic participation. Most importantly, ensuring equal access to education is increasingly viewed as a basic duty of a mature civil society. However, in spite of the universal agreement about the importance of education, public discourse often seems to be divorced from the realities on the ground. While this disjunction often becomes visible in demands from courts for more data when adjudicating cases regarding educational reservations, many other dimensions of the Indian educational landscape—such as the increasing privatization of education and inequalities in skills—have escaped attention, sometimes because of data limitations. This chapter seeks to fill some of these gaps and identify critical challenges facing Indian educational policy, using specially designed data collection modules from the IHDS.

This chapter highlights several themes. First, it documents the striking success of the Indian educational system in improving school entry. Among recent cohorts, 90 per cent of children enter school. This is a far cry from the 30 per cent of men and 60 per cent of women from cohorts aged 40–59 who never enrol. However, as we begin to move beyond simple access, the challenges of keeping children in

school emerge as a paramount concern. The second theme in this chapter reflects a concern with educational quality. Inequality in educational quality and quantity, between different sections of society, is a third theme emerging from these analyses. Although gaps in literacy and school enrolment, between different social groups, have been declining over time, substantial gaps in educational attainment still remain between men and women, and between children from Dalit, Adivasi, Muslim communities, and other social groups. A fourth theme documents the growing privatization of education in India, as reflected in both private school enrolment and increases in private tuition. A fifth theme focuses on the readiness of the Indian labour force to meet increasing skill demands in a global world. At the lower end of the skill spectrum, these demands include basic literacy and at the higher end, they include English language and computing skills. As rewards to skilled jobs increase, it is important to identify who is ready to enter these jobs. This chapter documents the striking regional differences in English and computing skills across different parts of India, foreshadowing a growing regional cleavage.

DATA ON EDUCATION, EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURES, AND SKILLS

Education forms an important marker of human development and is included in the widely used human development indices, such as those developed by the UNDP. These indices focus on enrolment at the primary, secondary, and tertiary

¹ The terms education and schooling are used differently by different disciplines. Human development literature tends to use the term schooling to distinguish between formal school-based education and individual growth and development. In contrast, in some educational literature the term schooling is used somewhat pejoratively, to reflect the hierarchical nature of schools and physical punishment. Hence, we use the simple term education.

levels. Although these are useful and handy markers of access to education, they do not capture the processes through which the observed patterns emerge, nor do they provide any guidance on the quality of education. Unfortunately, a deeper understanding of social forces shaping educational opportunities and outcomes is limited by the lack of empirical data. Surveys can document attendance or the completion of educational certification relatively easily, but they are singularly ill-equipped to assess quality or processes. These limitations are not easily overcome, a shortcoming the data presented in this chapter shares with other studies. However, the IHDS makes a modest beginning in addressing these shortcomings in two ways. First, it assesses the quality of education by measuring reading, writing, and arithmetic skills of children aged between 8–11 years. Second, it provides a description of day to day educational experiences from a household perspective by focusing on key markers such as educational expenditure, type of school attended, and hours spent in the classroom, doing homework, and in private tuition.

The IHDS collected basic information on educational attainment for all household members through questions about ever attending school, the ability to read and write a sentence, repeating or failing a class, standards completed, and fluency in English. For those household members who were enrolled in school or college at the time of the survey, further questions were asked about the type of school, the medium of instruction, hours spent in school, homework, and private tuition, as well as a variety of questions about school expenditure.

Most importantly, the IHDS incorporates the direct measurement of reading, writing, and arithmetic skills of children aged 8–11 years. The ultimate test of any educational system must lie in how well it manages to impart education to all students regardless of their background. However, evaluating the success of this mission is far more complicated than one imagines. First, the children's knowledge must be directly tested in a way that reduces test anxiety and measures basic skills. Second, tests must not rely on schools as sites for testing because it is likely to miss children who are not enrolled or who are absent from school—precisely those children who are likely to be at the lower end of the spectrum. Third,

it is important to focus on skills such as reading that cannot easily be tested through a written examination. Although several institutions, such as the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT), have developed skills tests, these tests do not meet the criteria just highlighted. The IHDS survey development team was concerned about using tests that can be administered relatively easily and with low anxiety levels on the part of children. In order to do this, the IHDS worked with PRATHAM² to modify some of the tests they have used in their work over the years. These same tests are also used in PRATHAM's large survey, the *Annual Status of Education Report (ASER), 2005*.³ These tests are simple and intuitive and were translated in 13 languages. In many ways, the IHDS results presented below complement the data presented in the *ASER, 2005* through 2008. The ASER results are based on a larger sample of children but do not contain detailed information about their home conditions, particularly their social background and parental characteristics. The data from the IHDS survey contains a smaller sample but has information on a rich array of home and background characteristics.⁴

LITERACY LEVELS AND TRENDS

The past few decades have seen a rapid transformation of the Indian educational landscape. Figures 6.1a and 6.1b provide striking evidence.

As we compare different age cohorts, it is clear that literacy rates have risen sharply for all segments of Indian society. As of 2005, 79 per cent of males and 58 per cent of females aged seven and older could read and write a sentence.⁵

Tables A.6.1a and A.6.1b describe literacy levels in the sample of individuals aged seven and older. While presenting a familiar picture of inequalities based on sex and social class, these tables contain many surprises. They particularly highlight sharp improvements in literacy. While only 54 per cent of men and 19 per cent of women aged 60 and older are literate, among children aged 10–14 years, literacy rates are 92 per cent for males and 88 per cent for females. Even among children as young as seven to nine, 82 per cent of boys and 78 per cent of girls are literate. This improvement in literacy has also reduced the male–female gap, with girls

² PRATHAM is a non-governmental organization devoted to improving literacy.

³ We thank Dr Rukmini Banerjee from PRATHAM and her colleagues for their collaboration and advice throughout the test development and interviewer training.

⁴ These tests were administered to 12,274 children aged 8–11 from a total sample of children 17,069 in the target households. This is a rate of 72 per cent. The children who interviewers were unable to interview, were missed for various reasons, such as: they were away on vacation, they were unwilling to be interviewed, or they could not be found. Although the interviewers were asked to make as many trips as needed to contact all eligible children, logistical demands often prevented many repeat visits. This is not a totally random sample. More children from poor and disadvantaged groups were omitted than those from better off families. Thus, the reported differences in student achievement are likely to be somewhat smaller than actual differences.

⁵ The IHDS literacy rate of 68 per cent for those aged seven and older is comparable to the 69 per cent observed in the *NFHS-III* and the 67 per cent in the NSS, which were fielded at about the same time as the IHDS. All are higher than the 64 per cent found in the 2001 Census, reflecting improvements in the intervening four years (NSSO 2005a and IIPS 2007).

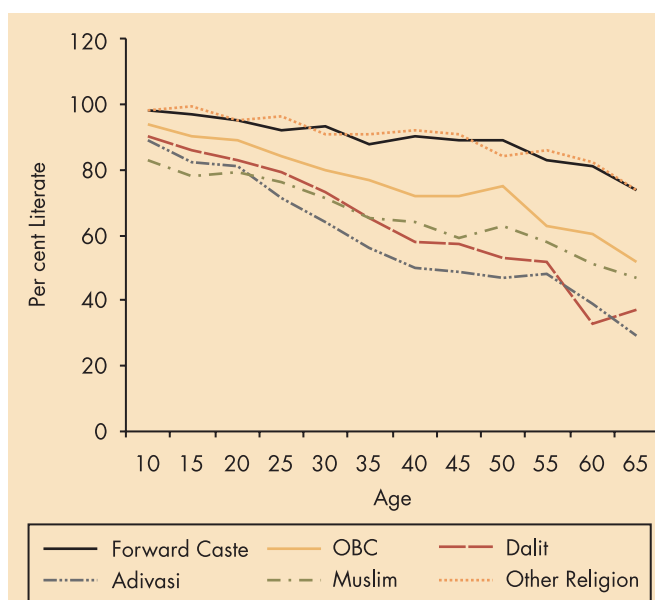


Figure 6.1a Literacy Rates for Males by Age

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

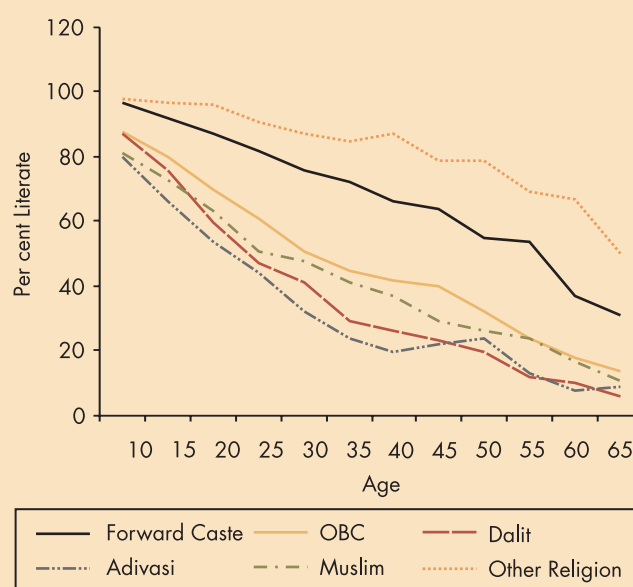


Figure 6.1b Literacy Rates for Females by Age

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

rapidly catching up with boys in recent years. This table also highlights the differences in education between different social classes and groups and shows higher levels of literacy for individuals in large metropolitan areas,⁶ those in upper income groups, and forward castes, as well as Christians, Jains, and other religious minorities.

Figures 6.1a and 6.1b show the trends in literacy for males and females of different social groups by age. As one looks across different cohorts, two trends are noticeable. First, literacy rates for all social groups have steadily improved across successive age cohorts, although in each generation differences between social groups persist. In each cohort, forward castes and Christians, Jains, and other religious minorities have the highest literacy rates, followed by OBCs. Dalits, Adivasis, and Muslims have the lowest literacy rates. These differences hold true for both males and females. In fact, differences among females by social groups are even greater than those among males. Second, Table A.6.1b documents statewise differences in literacy. Literacy rates are the highest in Kerala, followed by Delhi, the North-East, and Himachal Pradesh. Some of the lowest levels are recorded in Jammu and Kashmir, Bihar, Rajasthan, and Andhra Pradesh. It is important to note that this data on literacy comes from a question about whether the individual can read and write a sentence. In the following sections we examine these educational inequalities in greater detail.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESSION AND DROPOUT

Recent public discourse has been overwhelmed with concerns about the educational backwardness of specific communities such as Dalits, Adivasis, OBCs, and Muslims. Even after 60 years of independence and a variety of policy initiatives, the differences in educational attainment persist. However, most of the policies continue to focus on reservations in higher education without paying attention to the educational stage at which these inequalities emerge. A stagewise examination of dropouts offers an interesting insight.

Table A.6.2a shows the stages at which different individuals drop out. In calculating these discontinuation rates, at each stage, we focus only on individuals who have progressed up to that level. Among males, 20 per cent do not even enrol. Of those enrolling, 15 per cent discontinue before completing Standard 5; of those completing Standard 5, 50 per cent drop out before completing Standard 10; of those completing Standard 10, 43 per cent drop out before completing Standard 12; of those completing class 12, 44 per cent do not get a college degree or diploma. The picture for women is broadly similar with one exception. Women also face a greater hurdle in initial enrolment—40 per cent never enrol. This overall picture combines the experience of several cohorts, and can be seen in the subsequent rows in Table A.6.2a, the proportion of individuals who never enrol drops significantly across different age cohorts. Among men aged 60 and older, 46 per cent never enrol;

⁶ Urban agglomerations include New Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Bangalore, Chennai, and Hyderabad.

among those aged 10–14, only 6 per cent never enrol. For recent cohorts, it seems clear that non-enrolment is relatively low for men, and only a little higher for women.

The greatest educational hurdle appears to be between Standards 5 and 10. At an all India level, for individuals completing Standard 5, 50 per cent of males and 57 per cent of females do not complete Standard 10. Over half of these, that is, 34 out of 100 men and 29 out of 100 women stop their education between Standards 5 and 10. Hence, a focus on this level offers the greatest potential for improvement in the education level of the population.

At each educational level, the discontinuation rate among females is higher than that for males, although we see heartening evidence of a declining gender gap when we compare younger cohorts. The gender difference in enrolment is 19 percentage points at ages 20–9 but only 4 percentage points at ages 10–14. The discontinuation rates for Dalits, Adivasis, and Muslims are considerably higher than that for forward castes, with OBCs falling in between. High discontinuation rates for Dalits and Adivasis deserve particular attention in the context of reservation politics. In spite of the widespread feeling that Dalits and Adivasis take away seats from more deserving, forward caste students, the results presented in Table A.6.2a show that while 39 per cent of forward caste males who have completed Standard 12 drop out without getting a degree or a diploma, at least 53 per cent of Dalits and Adivasis do so. These results suggest that at the aggregate level, there is little evidence of a disadvantage to forward caste students as a result of reservation, although it is possible that finer attention to highly competitive colleges like the Indian Institutes of Technology or medical schools may reveal a different pattern.

This table also indicates the importance of understanding the underlying nature of educational inequalities if we want to redress social inequalities. Reservations—arguably one of the most contentious issues facing Indian civil society today—address only a minor portion of inequality. Most of the educational inequalities based on social background seem to take place in entering and completing primary school. Whereas, only 8 per cent of upper caste males do not enter school, about 26 per cent to 31 per cent of Muslim, Dalit, and Adivasi males do not enrol. For women, these differences are even greater.

A deeper examination of the social inequalities in dropout rates indicates that in addition to social group, income, and urban residence are associated with school dropout rates. Causal directions are not easy to establish in a study of this type. Low income may be a cause as well as a consequence of dropping out. But the associations seem fairly clear.

Table A.6.2b records statewise differences in dropout rates at various educational stages. Many familiar regional differences again emerge, but much of the regional variation is clustered at the lower end of the educational spectrum. A great deal of the difference between low-performing Bihar and high-performing Himachal Pradesh would be eliminated if children in Bihar entered and finished primary school at the same rate as those in Himachal Pradesh. This suggests that regional inequalities will narrow considerably if we can address inequalities in primary education.

CRITICAL YEARS: SCHOOLING AT AGES SIX TO FOURTEEN

Given the importance of early schooling as discussed above, it is important to focus on the correlates of early school enrolment and achievement. This focus is particularly important at this time in Indian history because school enrolment has increased rapidly in the past decade, and new programmes such as Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan have made primary education a priority. In this section, we examine school enrolment of children aged 6–14. The results presented below reflect the recent situation in India, as compared to the statistics presented above, which reflect the cumulative experience of many cohorts.

The first column of Table A.6.3a shows the proportion of children who never enrolled in school, the second shows the proportion who enrolled but dropped out, and the third column shows the proportion who are currently in school. The all India figure shows that only 10 per cent of children fall in the never-enrolled category, about 5 per cent enrolled but dropped out, and 85 per cent were in school at the time of the interview.⁷

Social group differences in enrolment are striking. Dalit, Adivasi, and Muslim children are far less likely to enrol in school and are slightly more likely to drop out than others. Consequently, while 94 per cent of children from the forward caste and 96 per cent of other religious groups were enrolled at the time of the interview, the figures were 83 per cent for Dalit children, 77 per cent for Adivasi children, and 76 per cent for Muslim children. This disadvantage is a function of both lower initial enrolment and higher dropout rates. Other social advantages, such as having educated adults living in the household, having a higher income, and living in metropolitan areas, also translate into higher current enrolment.

Regional differences in school enrolment shown in Table A.6.3b are vast. Although they are comparable to those presented in Table A.6.2b, they reflect a recent situation and, hence, are more relevant to the policy discourse. More than

⁷ The IHDS data show a lower percentage of children as being currently enrolled than did a survey conducted around the same time by PRATHAM, which showed that about 94 per cent of children were in school. The IHDS figures are closer to the gross enrolment ratio of 83 recorded by the Seventh Educational Survey of the NCERT.

95 per cent children aged 6–14 are in school in Himachal Pradesh, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu; only 70 per cent are enrolled in Bihar. Even when compared with relatively disadvantaged states such as Uttar Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, and Madhya Pradesh, Bihar is particularly striking in its low enrolment levels.⁸ A sex-disaggregated examination suggests that while both boys and girls in Bihar are less likely to be in school, girls in Bihar are particularly disadvantaged. For example, enrolment rates among boys and girls in Madhya Pradesh are 85 per cent and 80 per cent, respectively, while rates for boys and girls in Bihar are 76 per cent and 63 per cent, respectively.

The IHDS also asked about absences from school in the month before the survey. While a day or two of absence is unlikely to have a significant effect on education, an absence of six or more days in the preceding month could be quite detrimental. The results in the fourth column of Table A.6.3a show that at an all India level, about 20 per cent of children experienced this lengthy absence. Children in villages with low infrastructure and poorer children are more likely to be absent.⁹

The IHDS survey is unusual in collecting data on whether students have ever failed or repeated a class. The IHDS data show that about 5 per cent of students in Standards 1–5 ever failed or had to repeat a class, compared to 9 per cent in Standards 6–10. While Adivasi students are somewhat more likely to fail or be held back than others (9 per cent versus 5–8 per cent for all other groups), social class differences in repeating or failing a class are far smaller than state-level differences (see Table A.6.3b). Ironically, these differences do not correspond to state-level enrolment differences (noted above) and learning differences (noted in a subsequent section). Himachal Pradesh has the largest proportion of students reported being held back: 19 per cent of 6–14 year olds. At the same time, this is the state with one of the greatest enrolment rates and higher levels of educational quality compared with other states. Other states with high reported rates of being held back are Uttarakhand, the northeastern states, and Gujarat. In contrast, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and Rajasthan—states with a relatively poor record, otherwise—have some of the lowest rates of failure or repeating a grade.

EDUCATIONAL QUALITY

With rapidly rising school enrolment, attention must turn to educational quality. This section reports the results from skill tests described above. The goal of these tests was to

measure students' performance on the three R's: reading, writing, and arithmetic. This section focuses on children aged 8–11 because all of these children should have acquired the basic reading, writing, and arithmetic skills. The reading skills are divided into five categories: cannot read at all, can read letters, can read words, can read a short paragraph, and can read a short story. The results presented in Figure 6.2a show that 11 per cent of the children surveyed cannot recognize letters, 14 per cent recognize letters but cannot read words, 21 per cent can read words but not connect them into sentences, 22 per cent can read simple two-to-three sentence paragraphs but not a one-page story, and 33 per cent can read a one-page story. Because 95 per cent of the children tested completed at least Standard 1 and 65 per cent completed Standard 2, they are generally expected to be able read at least a simple paragraph with three sentences. This is what is defined as reading ability in the subsequent discussion.

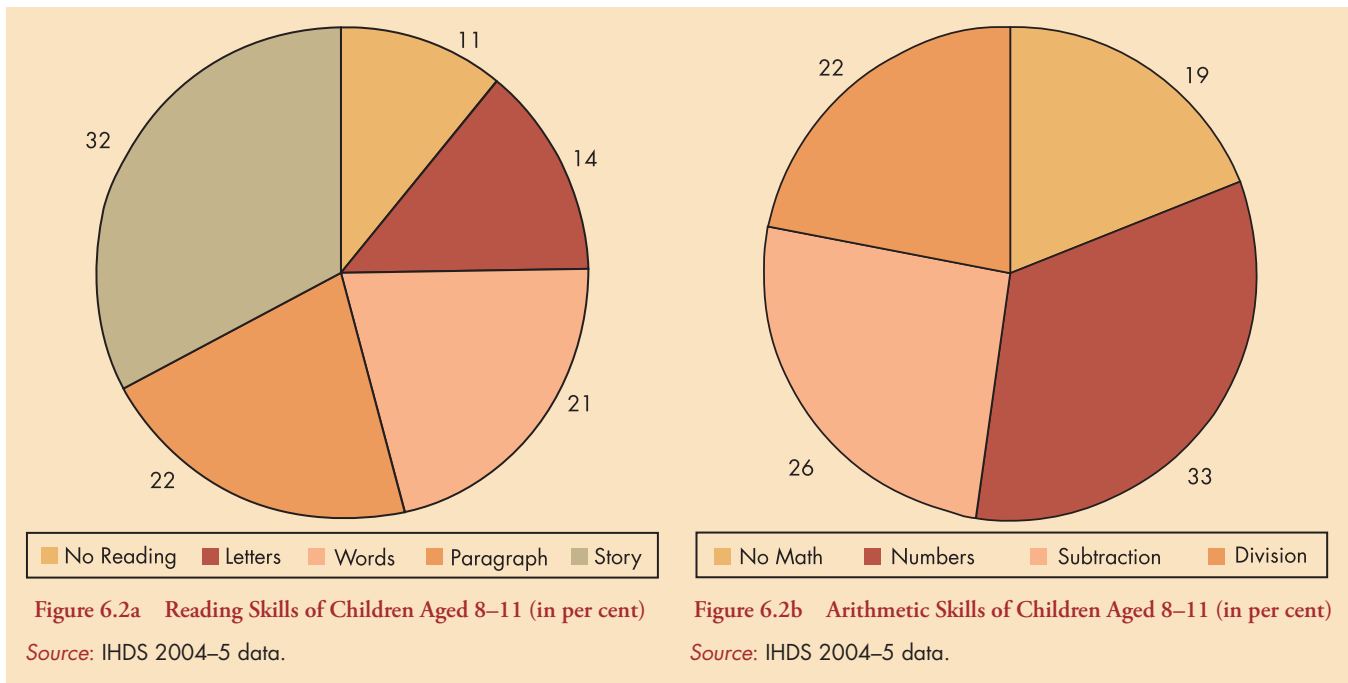
The arithmetic skills are divided into four categories: no recognition of written numbers, can read numbers, can subtract a two-digit number from another two-digit number, and can divide a three-digit number with a one-digit number. The results presented in Figure 6.2b show that among the IHDS sample of 8–11 year old children, 19 per cent cannot identify numbers between 10 and 99, 33 per cent can identify numbers only, a further 26 per cent can subtract two-digit numbers with borrowing but cannot divide numbers, and 22 per cent can divide as well as subtract. Again, two-digit subtraction is considered to be a basic numerical skill that 8–11 year olds should have. Thus, in all subsequent discussion, we focus on this skill as the basic arithmetic skill.

In terms of writing, 8–11 year olds are expected to be able to write a simple sentence—such as, 'My mother's name is Madhuben'—with two or fewer mistakes. About 67 per cent of the kids were able to do this.

Table A.6.4a shows differences in these achievement levels for children from different backgrounds. The impact of family background on children's skills acquisition is far greater than that noted above on school enrolment. Only 45 per cent of children from the lowest income quintile families are able to read a short paragraph, while 73 per cent of children from the highest quintile are able to do so. Among higher caste Hindus and other religious groups, more than 70 per cent of children are able to read a short paragraph. This figure is only 44–46 per cent for Dalit, Adivasi, and Muslim children. Urban–rural differences

⁸ ASER 2005, conducted by PRATHAM at around the same time as the IHDS, also found that among major states, Bihar has the lowest enrolment rates (PRATHAM 2005).

⁹ It is important to use caution in interpreting the data on absences. The survey was conducted over nearly one year. Although the question asked about absences in the month preceding survey or, if survey was conducted in a month with holidays, in the last regular school month, some of the state-level variations could be due to differences in survey timing.



are pretty large, as are those between households in which adults have had some education and those in which all adults lack literacy. Table A.6.4b documents the differences in these skills across states. These differences are also vast. More than 80 per cent of children in Himachal Pradesh and Kerala can read a short paragraph, while only 39, 40, and 44 per cent can do so in Uttar Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, and Bihar, respectively.

Like the ASER surveys conducted by PRATHAM, the IHDS survey found that students' achievement on arithmetic tests is lower than their achievement in reading tests. Social class differences in arithmetic skills seem to be somewhat larger than those in reading skills. In an era of increasing technical sophistication, this is a worrisome observation. Regional diversity in arithmetic skill acquisition is also striking. While Kerala leads the nation in reading and writing skills, it lags behind many states, including Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, Delhi, and the North-East, in mathematical skills.

COSTS OF EDUCATION

Educational costs in India involve a variety of expenditures, with school fees forming only a small part of those expenditures. Transportation, uniforms, and books are other major components. Moreover, with the growing importance of private tutoring, private coaching expenditures can also be substantial for students obtaining coaching.

Figure 6.3 shows the distribution of different educational expenditures by standard attended.

The annual total expenditure per child aged 6–14 ranges from Rs 933 for a child in Standard 1 to Rs 2,983

for child in Standard 10. The higher expenses for a child in kindergarten reflect the high likelihood of kindergarten enrolment in private nurseries. Not surprisingly, while the cost of fees climbs slowly at higher standards, the costs for other educational components climb sharply. These all India figures mask the high costs of private tuition because they average across all students, whether they pay tuition, or not. The cost of private tutoring ranges from Rs 630 per year in Standard 1 to nearly Rs 1,500 in Standard 10. These educational costs of Rs 933–2,983— per year, per child—should be seen in the context of the annual income of Indian families, with median income being Rs 27,857 per year (Chapter 2).

While the gender gap in school enrolment is fast closing, educational expenditures on girls are consistently lower than those for boys. As Figure 6.4 shows, these differences are approximately 10–12 per cent at most educational levels.

These differences come both from a slightly lower likelihood of girls' enrolment in private schools and private tutoring, and from policies in some states that offer education to girls at lower or no fees.

Not surprisingly, educational expenditures are higher in urban areas and among better off and more educated families. Attention to these social class differences in educational expenditures is important as we try to understand inequalities in children's educational outcomes based on parental social class. As Figure 6.5 documents, families in the top income quintiles spend about eight times the amount spent by the lowest income quintile on school fees, largely because they send children to private schools and spend five times as much on private tutoring.

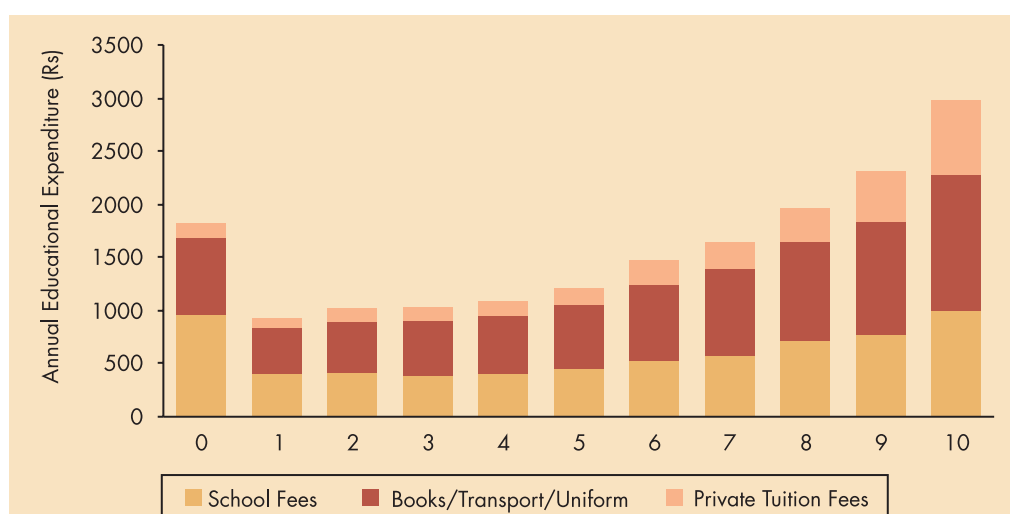


Figure 6.3 Educational Costs by Current Standard (Children Aged 6–14)

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

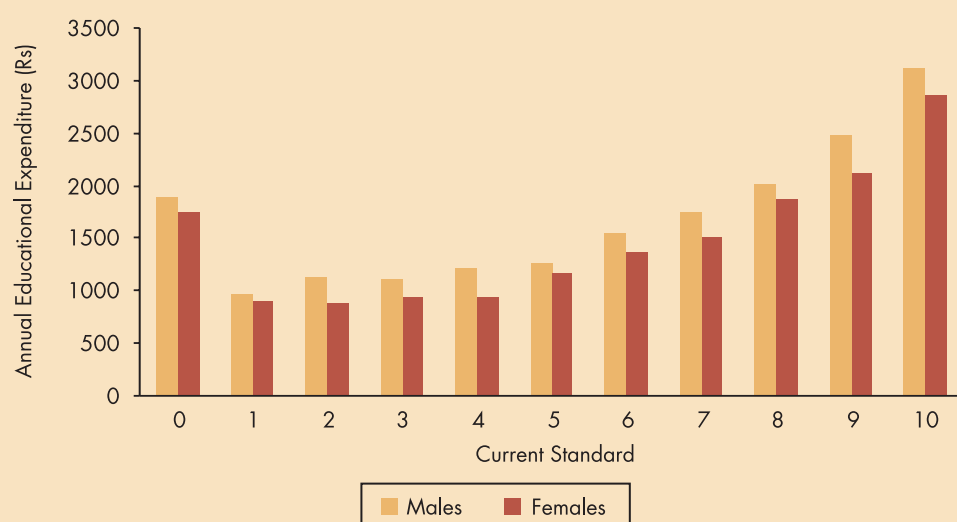


Figure 6.4 Total Educational Costs by Sex (Children Aged 6–14)

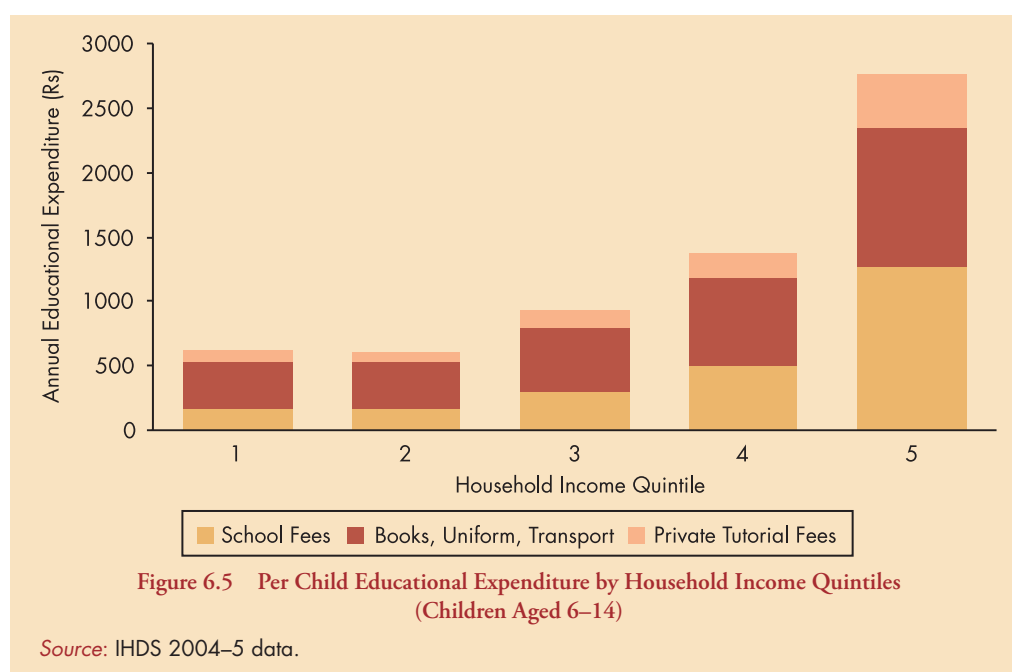
Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

Many upper-income families are located in urban areas and have highly educated adults in the family. All of these factors combine to privilege children from upper-income households and these inequalities are reflected in the children's educational outcomes: 73 per cent of children from the top income quintile are able to read simple paragraphs as compared to 45 per cent from the bottom quintile.

GROWING ROLE OF THE PRIVATE SECTOR

The discussion of educational costs and outcomes points to the importance of the type of schooling children receive. The Indian educational sector is characterized by a complex interplay between private and public inputs. Historically,

the government has played a dominant role in the provision of educational services, via the operation of government schools, largely managed by state governments and local bodies, as well as through privately managed but publicly funded schools called government-aided schools. These aided schools are operated by charitable trusts, voluntary organizations, and religious bodies but receive substantial funding from the government. Table 6.1 documents the distribution of the type of school attended by enrolled children, aged 6–14, in the IHDS. The results indicate that about 67 per cent of students attend government schools, about 5 per cent attend government-aided schools, and 24 per cent attend private schools. Convents and Madrasas account for



about 1–2 per cent. Note that the school categorization was obtained from households and in some cases parents may not be fully aware of the formal categorization of schools, particularly regarding whether the school is government-aided. Aided schools are schools that receive grant-in-aid from the government but are privately run and managed. In the early years, these schools were closer to private schools, but increasingly they have been brought under governmental oversight.

Arguably one of the most striking things about the educational panorama over the past decade is the explosion of the private sector in the educational field. The Fifth All India Education Survey documented a bare 2 per cent attendance in private primary schools in 1986. By 1994, the Human Development Survey documented that 10 per cent of rural children aged 6–14 were enrolled in private schools, and in 2005, the IHDS found that 21 per cent of rural and 51 per cent of urban children were enrolled in private schools. Some of this increase in private school enrolment has come about through a decline in enrolment in government-aided schools. In 1994, nearly 22 per cent of rural children were enrolled in government-aided schools. By 2005, this declined to a bare 7 per cent in rural areas and 5 per cent in urban areas. In the data presented here, government-aided schools are combined with government schools and Madrasas, and convents are included with private schools. As Table 6.1 indicates, at an all India level, 72 per cent of children are enrolled in government schools, and about 28 per cent are in private schools.

Table 6.1 Enrolment by School Type for Children Aged 6–14

	Per cent	Per cent
Public	72	
Government		67
Government Aided		5
Education Guarantee Scheme		1
Private	28	
Privately Managed		24
Convent		2
Madrasa		1
Technical/other		1

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

Private school enrolment, reported in Table A.6.3a, reflects well-known socioeconomic inequalities, with high income families more likely to send their children to private schools than low income families. But it also reflects hope on the part of the poor. Even among the lowest income quintile, 15 per cent of children attend private schools. Privatization of education extends beyond enrolment in private school. Dissatisfaction with formal schooling has led many parents to enrol their children in private tutoring, sometimes with teachers whose job it is to teach these children in regular schools. Twenty percent of enrolled children received some form of private tutoring in the year before the interview.¹⁰ Thus, in the IHDS sample of

¹⁰ Private tutoring is defined as spending any money for private tuition in the year before the interview, or spending at least one hour per week in private tuition in the month before the interview.

6–14 year old, about 40 per cent participated in private sector education either through enrolment in private school (20 per cent), through private tuition (13 per cent), or both (7 per cent).

Growth of private tuitions also increases the work burden on children, as documented by Box 6.1. Children who receive additional tutoring continue to spend the same or greater amount of time at school, and doing homework resulting in an additional eight to ten hours of work per week.

In general, boys are more likely (than girls) to be enrolled in private school (29 per cent versus 26 per cent) and to have private tuition (22 per cent versus 19 per cent), resulting in the gender difference in educational expenditure noted in Figure 6.4. But gender differences are smaller than social class differences in access to private schooling.

Additionally, regional differences in the prevalence of private school enrolment are noteworthy (see Table 6.3b).

The greatest prevalence of private school enrolment is in Punjab and Haryana. But lest we attribute this to state-level wealth, even in a poor state like Uttar Pradesh about 43 per cent attend private school. Assam and Orissa seem to have the lowest private school enrolment. The variation in school expenditures across different states presented in Table 6.2 is also noteworthy. While expenditure variation for children going to government schools is relatively minor (with higher expenditures, for example, in Jammu and

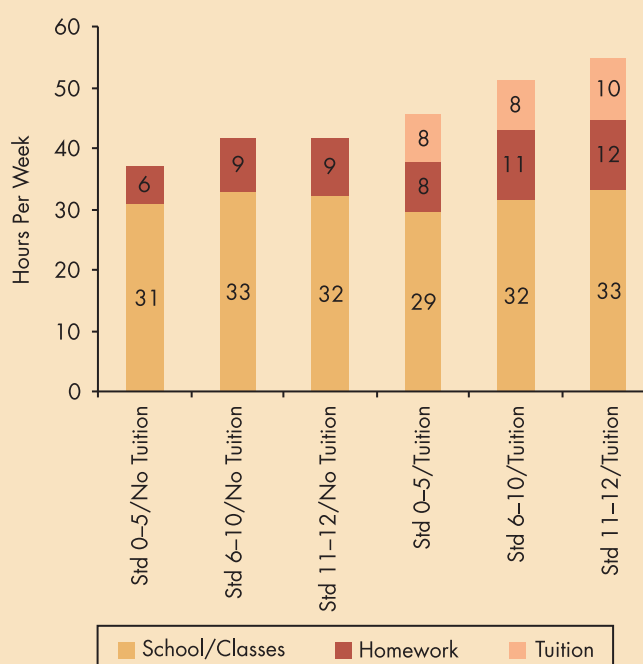
Kashmir, Himachal Pradesh, and the North-East, where transportation costs are high), the variation in expenditures for children going to private schools is quite large, ranging from Rs 6,273 in Himachal Pradesh to Rs 1,636 in Assam.

This growing preference for private schooling and the reliance on private tutoring must be seen in the context of differences in skill acquisition of children in government and private schools. As Table A.6.4a indicates, there is a substantial difference in the skills of children who attend government schools compared to those who attend private schools. Among private school children, 69 per cent can read a simple paragraph, while only 50 per cent of those in government schools can do so. Similar differences exist in arithmetic and writing skills. Private school benefits persist in all categories of households but are greater for children from less-advantaged backgrounds. Children from less developed villages, the poorest households, and those in which parents have had the least education seem to benefit the most from attending private schools. Some of the differences between government and private schools may be attributable to the higher incomes and motivations of parents who send their children to private schools. However, even when we compare children with similar backgrounds, in terms of parental education and income, children from private schools perform somewhat better on reading and arithmetic tests than their government school counterparts. A variety of explanations

Box 6.1 Private Tutoring Increases Work Burden for Children

The IHDS found that in the year preceding the survey, about 20 per cent of children aged 6–14 received private tuition after school, or on weekends. Some children receive tutoring the year round; others, just before the exams. Some received private coaching from school teachers for additional payment, and others attended coaching classes. However, one thing seems clear. The time spent in private tutoring does not reduce the time spent in school, or doing homework. Children who receive tuition spend nearly 50 hours per week doing school related work.

Parents of young children in India would not be surprised to see these figures. Most children are expected to do homework for a couple of hours per day. Those who are enrolled in private tuition spend one to two hours per day in tuition and often have homework from the tutor. All of these combine to create an incredible burden on children.



Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

Table 6.2 Private Schooling Costs for Children Aged 6–14 by State

	Private School Enrolment (%)	Annual Total Expenses	
		Government	Private
All India	28	688	2,920
Jammu and Kashmir	47	1,045	3,719
Himachal Pradesh	19	1,709	6,273
Uttarakhand	27	972	3,422
Punjab	52	1,444	5,160
Haryana	47	1,043	4,372
Delhi	28	1,044	5,390
Uttar Pradesh	43	427	1,733
Bihar	18	704	2,466
Jharkhand	32	502	2,932
Rajasthan	32	676	2,612
Chhattisgarh	15	317	2,039
Madhya Pradesh	27	333	1,935
North-East	34	1,441	4,237
Assam	6	371	1,636
West Bengal	10	1,136	5,045
Orissa	8	612	2,851
Gujarat	22	766	4,221
Maharashtra, Goa	20	599	2,370
Andhra Pradesh	31	574	3,260
Karnataka	28	638	3,848
Kerala	31	1,537	3,259
Tamil Nadu	23	606	3,811

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

for this phenomenon have been offered in the literature. Some studies suggest that teacher absenteeism in government schools is to blame. Others suggest that teacher indifference and corporeal punishment in government schools may be implicated.¹¹ Box 6.2 indicates some of the differences in the characteristics and facilities of the private and government schools surveyed by the IHDS.

The differences between government and private schools in skill acquisition point to a core dilemma facing Indian educational policy. Parents choose to send their children to private schools, often at a considerable financial sacrifice, with expectations that private schools will impart a better education than government schools. The results presented

above clearly show that children in private schools perform better than children in government schools. At the same time, parents who send their children to private schools have greater resources, both in terms of monetary resources and their own education. Hence, their departure from government school reduces the most vocal and active parents who are capable of demanding accountability from schools and able to compensate for teacher deficiencies through home teaching. The departure of these children from government schools may well diminish the pressure on government schools to be accountable and reduce the quality of the classroom learning environment. Thus, once the middle-class exodus from government schools begins, schools could easily get caught

Box 6.2 Characteristics of Government and Private Elementary Schools

	(in percentage)	
	Government Schools	Private Schools
Teachers present in school at the time of the visit	87.6	89.4
Teachers have training	85.9	43.8
Teachers with college degree	43.7	64.4
Students present in school at the time of the visit	86.9	91.9
Some subjects taught in English ⁺	26.8	51.1
English instruction begins in Standard 1	53.2	88.2
No. of classes meeting outside	0.7	0.3
No. of Mixed standard classrooms	0.9	0.6
Any toilet facility	60.9	78.3
Chairs/desk for all students	29.2	63.5
Blackboard in all classrooms	95.4	98.1
Computer available for student use	5.9	29.2
School has fans	28.4	63.3
Kitchen for cooked meals	41.3	10.8
Cook employed by school	74.9	11.1
Any teaching material on the wall	77.3	78.9
Children's work on the wall	67.6	73.9
No. of Schools Surveyed	2,034	1,748

Notes: IHDS selected one predominant private and one government school per village/urban block. The school sample is nationwide but not nationally representative.

+ Many schools teach some subjects in English and others in vernacular languages.

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

¹¹ See Muralidharan and Kremer (2008) and Desai et al. (2009).

in a lose–lose situation, leading to a progressive deterioration of standards. This observation is consistent with results from the United States, where the flight of the white middle class from inner-city schools led to a decline in the quality of the school system.

In urban areas with 51 per cent enrolment in private schools, the situation seems irreversible. But rural private schools offer an environment that is far from ideal, and government schools still enrol 79 per cent of the student population. Investing in the quality and accountability of rural schools may help stem the tide of private schooling in rural areas, and help reduce educational inequalities.

WORKFORCE IN A CHANGING ECONOMY

The preceding sections have focused on the state of education for children aged 6–14. The present section focuses on individuals aged 15–49. The goal of this section is to examine the extent to which the Indian labour force is likely to be competitive in an era of increasing globalization and international competition.

The IHDS shows that overall, 81 per cent of males and 60 per cent of females aged 15–49 are literate (see Table A.6.5a). This number is comparable to the 2001 Census figures of 75 per cent and 53 per cent for individuals aged 15 and older. Since we omit ages 50 and above, our literacy rates are slightly higher than those recorded by the Census. Literacy rates vary tremendously by social group, and across different states. While literacy is a basic determinant of the quality of life as well as the quality of the labour force, far more complex skills will increasingly be required as industrialization continues apace. As incomes in skilled occupations have grown, demands of these occupations have also increased, and a college degree or an advanced technical diploma is often needed for well paying jobs. Only 9 per cent of males and 5 per cent of females hold such qualifications. Moreover, these skill levels are differentially distributed across different parts of the country. As Table A.6.5b indicates, whereas, 18 per cent of males in Delhi, 17 per cent in the North-East, and 13 per cent in Kerala and Tamil Nadu have a college degree or diploma, the proportion is only 4 per cent in Madhya Pradesh. Social group differences in the attainment of a college degree or diploma are vast. Among working age men, 16–17 per cent of forward caste Hindu and other religious groups have a degree, but among Dalits, Adivasis, and Muslims, this proportion is only 4–6 per cent. About 8 per cent of OBC males have a degree or diploma. Among women, 2 per cent of Dalit, Adivasi, and Muslim women have a degree or a diploma. Gender differences in the receipt of a degree or diploma are the lowest in Kerala and Punjab, while Bihar and Jharkhand exhibit some of the greatest gender differences in this regard.

Above and beyond formal education, the new workforce will be increasingly expected to have skills in computer usage and English, the lingua franca of technology. Although the IHDS did not collect detailed information regarding computer skills, it did ask about skills in basic computer usage. The IHDS results show that about 7 per cent of males and 4 per cent of females have some computer skills. However, these skills are highly unevenly distributed across social groups and regions. Among the top income quintile, about 18 per cent of males and 10 per cent of females have computer skills. Among the lowest quintile, virtually no one claims to have computer skills. After Kerala, Delhi, and Tamil Nadu, men in the North-East, Gujarat, and Maharashtra/Goa have the highest level of computer skills, but other states are far behind. Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, and Orissa are particularly disadvantaged in this area.

English skills were evaluated by a simple question assessing whether individuals speak no English, speak some English, or converse fluently. Moreover, these skills for all household members were reported by the person responding to household income and employment questions. Among men, 72 per cent do not speak English, 28 per cent speak at least some English, and 5 per cent are fluent. Among women, the corresponding proportions are 83 per cent, 17 per cent, and 3 per cent. However, English skills for men are regionally concentrated, with many more individuals having some English skills in Punjab, the North-East, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, and Uttarakhand, than in other regions. The North-East is particularly surprising. This is not an area known for its industrial base, and yet it boasts of a highly skilled workforce as measured by the percentage of individuals with college degrees and English skills. The prevalence of English skills in this region may be due to its high concentration of missionary led English medium schools. Similarly, the high prevalence of some English skills in Uttarakhand may be due to the high level of tourism in the region. These inequalities seem destined to continue in the next generation, given the low prevalence of English medium enrolment in central parts of India (see Box 6.3).

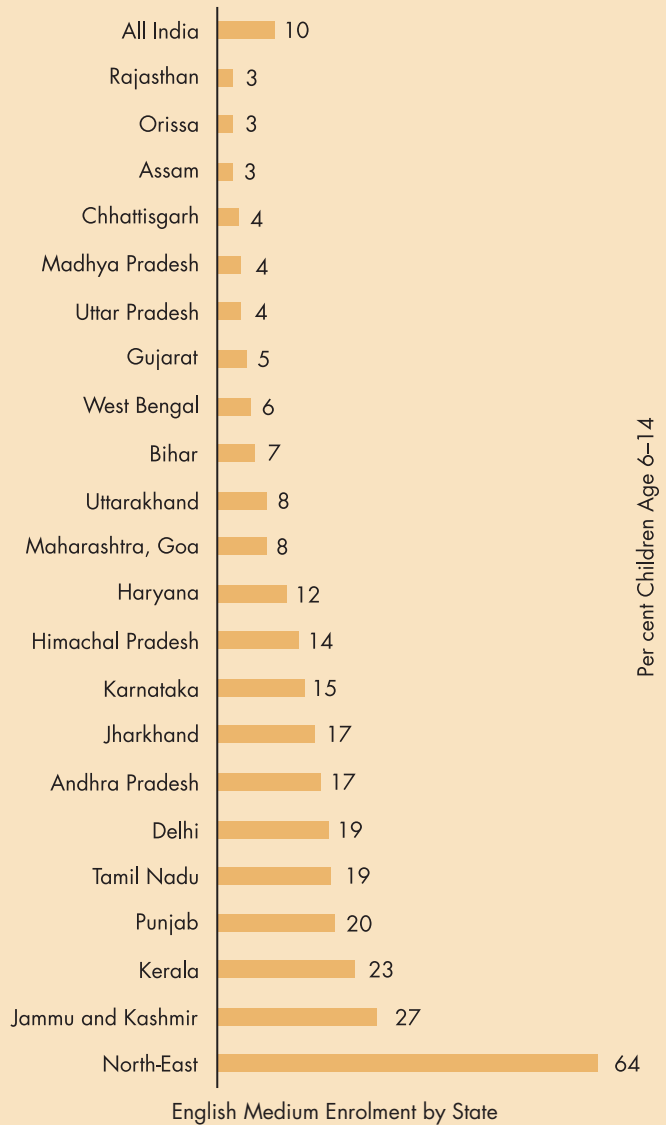
DISCUSSION

This chapter has identified four major challenges facing the Indian educational policy. First, educational inequalities between different social and economic strata seem pervasive, and are visible in school enrolment, type of schooling, educational expenditures, and school performance. While the educational deprivation of Dalit and Adivasi students is well recognized, we also find that Muslim students are equally deprived in spite of the fact that a greater proportion of Muslims live in urban areas. Social background is also associated with economic background and parental education, which exert an independent effect on education, but we find

Box 6.3 Growing English Medium Enrolment

Although most Indian schools have always taught English as an additional language, English as a medium of instruction generates considerable passion. Following independence, there was considerable emphasis on teaching in the mother tongue. Even upper-class parents who could afford to send their children to private schools, where English was the medium of instruction, often chose vernacular medium schools. However, in recent years, the number of English medium schools has grown. At an all India level, 10 per cent children aged 6–14 are in English medium schools. In some states, however, the proportion is much greater. Nearly 64 per cent of children in the North-East attend English medium schools, followed by 27 per cent in Jammu and Kashmir and 23 per cent in Kerala. The lowest enrolment in English medium schools is in Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Assam, Orissa, and Gujarat, where no more than 5 per cent of children are in English medium schools. English medium enrolment is the most prevalent in metropolitan areas (32 per cent), among families with a college graduate (32 per cent), and among the top income quintile (25 per cent).

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.



that not all of the effects of social background can be reduced to poverty or low parental education. Children from Dalit, Adivasi, and Muslim families, and to a lesser extent those from OBCs, face unique disadvantages. Much of the policy focus has been directed at positive discrimination via reservations in college admissions, but we find that this is too little and too late in students' educational careers. Many disadvantages begin as early as primary school.

Second, previous sections noted the rapid privatization of education, both through increased enrolment in private schools and through reliance on private tuition. Parental decisions to send children to private schools seem understandable given that even among the poorest families or those with very low education levels, children in private schools have higher reading and arithmetic skills than those

in government schools. However, this rapid privatization is also associated with the flight of middle-class families from government schools, possibly leading to the further deterioration of these schools and greater inequality between government and private school students. The potential for stemming this tide in urban areas seems to be very low. In rural areas, however, private school systems are not very well developed, and increased attention to school quality in government schools may succeed in bridging an incipient divide.

Third, while school enrolment has grown rapidly and forms a cause for jubilation, the poor quality of schooling remains a major cause for concern. That 46 per cent of 8–11 year old children cannot read a simple three-sentence paragraph does not augur well for the future of the civic

society. Arithmetic skills are even poorer. It is time to turn our attention from getting children into schools, to focusing on the quality of schooling to lay a strong foundation for a future labour force. Teacher absenteeism and corporeal punishment in schools remain rampant, and even private schools are not free from it. This suggests that a focus on school quality should be one of the highest priorities of the coming decade.

Fourth, regional disparities in a variety of educational indicators are striking. While states like Himachal Pradesh

have made rapid strides, Bihar, Rajasthan, Chhatisgarh, and Madhya Pradesh remain far behind. These inequalities can be seen even in basic skills such as literacy, but the differences are vast when we consider advanced skills, such as knowledge of English or computer usage. Moreover, inequalities between women from different states are even greater than those between men. This digital divide may lead to widening income differences between regions in the years to come and deserves greater attention than hitherto accorded.

HIGHLIGHTS

- Literacy rates in India have been rising sharply for *all* social groups, leading to a reduction in disparities by gender, caste, and religion.
- However, improving the quality of education is going to be the next major challenge. Only about 54 per cent of Indian children aged 8–11 are able to read a simple paragraph with even lower attainment for Dalit, Adivasi, and Muslim children.
- Education is rapidly being privatized, with about 28 per cent children aged 6–14 in private schools and about 20 per cent receiving private tutoring.
- Only 9 per cent of males and 5 per cent of females aged 15–49 have a college degree or diploma; 5 per cent males and 3 per cent females speak fluent English; and 7 per cent males and 4 per cent females have any computing skills.

Table A.6.1a Literacy Rates for Population Age 7 and Above

	Males	Females
All India	79	58
Age		
7-9	82	77
10-14	92	88
15-19	89	79
20-9	85	66
30-9	77	50
40-59	70	38
60+	54	19
Place of Residence		
Metro	93	82
Other urban	87	74
More developed village	77	56
Less developed village	73	48
Household Income		
Lowest Quintile	68	45
2nd Quintile	70	48
3rd Quintile	75	54
4th Quintile	82	63
Top Quintile	92	77
Social Groups		
High Caste Hindu	91	74
OBC	80	57
Dalit	72	50
Adivasi	66	44
Muslim	72	55
Other religion	91	84
Maximum Household Education		
None	38	25
1-4 Std	79	47
5-9 Std	85	60
10-11 Std	92	72
12 Std/Some college	94	75
Graduate/Diploma	96	85

Source: IHDS 2004-5 data.

Table A.6.1b Statewise Literacy Rates for Population Age 7 and Above

	Males (Per cent)	Females (Per cent)
All India	79	58
Jammu & Kashmir	70	51
Himachal Pradesh	89	72
Uttarakhand	85	64
Punjab	81	68
Haryana	78	56
Delhi	92	77
Uttar Pradesh	75	52
Bihar	71	42
Jharkhand	73	48
Rajasthan	71	40
Chhattisgarh	72	48
Madhya Pradesh	75	49
North-East	90	81
Assam	83	75
West Bengal	78	65
Orissa	80	57
Gujarat	85	63
Maharashtra, Goa	89	71
Andhra Pradesh	69	49
Karnataka	81	62
Kerala	96	91
Tamil Nadu	81	65

Source: IHDS 2004-5 data.

Table A.6.2a Discontinuation Rates for Men and Women by Educational Level

	Never Enrolled (age 7+)	Men				Never Enrolled (age 7+)	Women			
		Between Classes					Between Classes			
		1 & 5 (age 12+)	5 & 10 (age 17+)	10 & 12 (age 19+)	12 & Degree (age 23+)		1 & 5 (age 12+)	5 & 10 (age 17+)	10 & 12 (age 19+)	12 & Degree (age 23+)
All India	20	15	50	43	44	40	16	57	45	44
Age										
7-9	7					11				
10-14	6	23				10	22			
15-19	10	9	51	46		19	9	53	42	
20-9	14	9	48	38	49	33	11	52	39	46
30-9	22	12	48	40	45	49	17	60	48	46
40-59	30	18	53	50	39	61	22	66	54	40
60+	46	29	59	55	39	80	39	75	57	37
Place of Residence										
Metro	7	6	34	38	30	18	9	43	39	37
Other urban	11	9	40	36	38	25	10	46	38	39
More developed village	21	15	53	50	53	42	18	62	52	55
Less developed village	25	20	61	48	54	49	24	73	57	60
Income										
Lowest Quintile	29	24	65	50	57	52	26	73	56	58
2nd Quintile	27	22	68	54	63	49	23	73	55	71
3rd Quintile	23	17	63	53	61	43	20	69	60	58
4th Quintile	17	13	52	52	53	36	15	61	50	50
Top Quintile	7	6	30	33	35	22	8	41	37	39
Social Groups										
High Caste Hindu	8	8	37	36	39	25	11	48	40	40
OBC	18	15	52	47	47	41	16	61	50	46
Dalit	26	19	61	51	53	48	21	66	47	55
Adivasi	31	23	65	43	54	54	25	69	48	49
Muslim	26	21	59	45	47	43	23	66	51	54
Other religion	8	6	34	45	41	14	8	42	40	45

Source: IHDS 2004-5 data.

Table A.6.2b Statewise Discontinuation Rates for Men and Women by Educational Level

	Men					Women				
	Never Enrolled (age 7+)	Between Classes				Never Enrolled (age 7+)	Between Classes			
		1 & 5 (age 12+)	5 & 10 (age 17+)	10 & 12 (age 19+)	12 & Degree (age 23+)		1 & 5 (age 12+)	5 & 10 (age 17+)	10 & 12 (age 19+)	12 & Degree (age 23+)
All India	20	15	50	43	44	40	16	57	45	44
Jammu and Kashmir	22	7	41	44	41	41	11	47	50	50
Himachal Pradesh	11	8	42	51	52	28	8	51	54	61
Uttarakhand	15	9	64	35	41	37	9	65	31	43
Punjab	18	6	40	53	52	31	6	45	47	42
Haryana	21	8	40	47	42	43	8	48	47	39
Delhi	8	4	32	36	32	22	6	38	31	48
Uttar Pradesh	23	15	53	39	49	47	16	62	34	42
Bihar	27	24	48	49	45	56	29	54	61	66
Jharkhand	23	15	53	38	54	46	19	63	56	58
Rajasthan	25	10	59	40	40	57	15	62	38	34
Chhattisgarh	24	19	57	33	40	48	21	67	34	30
Madhya Pradesh	22	17	64	39	45	47	21	68	39	30
North-East	9	15	48	34	36	18	17	53	38	35
Assam	15	19	55	40	63	24	21	67	48	76
West Bengal	22	24	52	36	32	35	27	63	42	35
Orissa	19	23	62	48	32	41	22	70	51	34
Gujarat	15	16	54	44	46	37	19	56	39	50
Maharashtra, Goa	10	14	45	44	48	27	17	54	48	46
Andhra Pradesh	28	13	48	44	49	48	13	62	53	40
Karnataka	19	15	43	44	49	38	14	49	49	49
Kerala	3	9	48	53	45	8	13	49	47	50
Tamil Nadu	18	7	46	50	33	33	7	56	46	41

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

Table A.6.3a Schooling Experiences of Children Aged 6–14

(in percentage)

	Never Enrolled	Dropped Out	Now in School	Absent 6+ days Last Month	Repeated or Failed	In Private School	In Private Tuition	Avg. Annual Expenditure on...			Total Expenditure
								School Fees	Books Uniform & Transport	Private Tuition	
All India	10	5	85	20	6	28	20	481	606	178	1,265
Sex											
Male	9	5	87	20	6	29	22	521	625	199	1,344
Female	12	5	83	19	6	26	19	436	584	155	1,175
Current Standard											
1–5				21	5	28	18	427	514	127	1,068
6–10				16	9	26	26	636	855	300	1,791
Place of Residence											
Metro	5	4	91	5	6	44	33	1,564	991	506	3,060
Other urban	6	5	89	13	5	52	30	1,052	923	329	2,303
More developed village	9	5	87	18	6	24	19	318	609	137	1,065
Less developed village	14	6	81	26	6	17	15	187	395	92	674
Income											
Lowest Quintile	14	6	79	24	6	15	15	162	374	78	614
2nd Quintile	14	5	81	23	7	15	14	161	373	76	610
3rd Quintile	10	6	84	21	6	22	19	295	502	128	925
4th Quintile	9	5	87	18	6	33	22	505	676	190	1,370
Top Quintile	4	2	94	11	4	52	31	1,269	1,081	414	2,764
Social Groups											
High Caste Hindu	3	3	94	15	5	40	27	904	924	346	2,174
OBC	9	4	87	21	5	26	20	398	543	149	1,090
Dalit	12	5	83	22	8	17	18	271	471	134	876
Adivasi	16	7	77	19	9	15	9	203	392	73	669
Muslim	17	8	76	21	5	33	19	428	521	130	1,079
Other religion	2	2	96	4	4	54	27	1,446	1,370	224	3,040
Maximum Household Education											
None	23	7	70	25	6	15	14	152	367	70	589
1–4 Std	11	8	81	22	9	13	19	132	379	95	607
5–9 Std	7	5	88	21	7	22	19	288	498	126	912
10–11 Std	4	2	94	15	4	39	24	662	773	228	1,663
12 Std/Some college	3	3	95	17	5	45	25	806	876	282	1,964
Graduate/Diploma	2	1	97	11	3	58	34	1,620	1,219	500	3,339

Note: Avg. refers to Average; + refers to 6 or more.

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

Table A.6.3b Schooling Experiences of Children Aged 6–14 by State

(in percentage)

	Never Enrolled	Dropped Out	Currently in School	Absent 6 or More Days Last Month	Repeated or Failed a Class	In Private School	In Private Tuition	Avg. Annual Expenditure on...			Total Expen- diture
								School Fees	Books Uniform & Transport	Private Tuition	
All India	10	5	85	20	6	28	20	481	606	178	1,265
Jammu and Kashmir	5	2	93	16	6	47	29	952	1,088	228	2,269
Himachal Pradesh	2	2	97	5	19	19	10	651	1,813	80	2,543
Uttarakhand	6	3	90	40	16	27	7	522	1,062	42	1,626
Punjab	6	4	91	3	5	52	24	1,441	1,623	177	3,240
Haryana	9	3	88	6	6	47	10	1,186	1,240	87	2,513
Delhi	7	3	91	4	4	28	10	1,205	819	180	2,204
Uttar Pradesh	11	5	84	32	2	43	10	396	462	118	976
Bihar	25	5	70	47	2	18	42	230	443	293	967
Jharkhand	20	6	74	13	7	32	23	509	479	193	1,181
Rajasthan	16	5	79	15	2	32	6	526	683	48	1,257
Chhattisgarh	9	6	85	20	12	15	3	263	280	29	572
Madhya Pradesh	13	5	83	28	10	27	10	341	353	55	749
North-East	5	5	91	18	16	34	52	835	980	539	2,353
Assam	13	11	76	41	8	6	14	103	205	121	428
West Bengal	10	7	83	14	11	10	58	375	538	587	1,500
Orissa	6	8	86	42	7	8	38	129	314	318	760
Gujarat	6	6	88	5	14	22	17	459	766	256	1,481
Maharashtra, Goa	4	4	92	5	6	20	15	279	463	155	897
Andhra Pradesh	5	5	90	11	2	31	20	603	658	107	1,367
Karnataka	7	5	89	10	3	28	9	608	820	50	1,477
Kerala	3	0	97	3	4	31	27	705	1,050	289	2,044
Tamil Nadu	2	3	96	3	9	23	23	672	529	109	1,310

Note: Avg. refers to Average.*Source:* IHDS 2004–5 data.

Table A.6.4a Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic Skills of Children Aged 8–11 by School Type

(in percentage)

	All Children Currently Enrolled or Not			Private Schools (Only Enrolled Children)			Government Schools (Only Enrolled Children)		
	Read	Subtract	Write	Read	Subtract	Write	Read	Subtract	Write
All India	54	48	67	69	64	79	50	43	64
Sex									
Male	56	51	69	69	65	80	52	46	65
Female	52	45	65	68	63	76	49	40	62
Current Standard									
0	17	13	34	19	13	32	12	12	37
1	11	11	33	22	21	47	6	6	27
2	27	25	49	47	42	68	19	19	42
3	48	42	63	66	62	79	41	35	58
4	66	56	75	83	78	88	59	49	70
Place of Residence									
Metro	69	70	82	72	74	89	67	69	77
Other urban	67	61	76	75	70	82	62	55	73
More developed village	54	47	67	63	58	72	52	45	66
Less developed village	47	40	61	66	60	79	45	37	59
Income									
Lowest Quintile	45	38	63	60	55	77	43	37	61
2nd Quintile	45	38	60	57	50	72	45	38	59
3rd Quintile	51	45	64	62	54	74	49	43	62
4th Quintile	61	53	71	70	66	79	58	48	69
Top Quintile	73	69	80	77	75	83	68	63	76
Social Groups									
Forward Caste Hindu	71	63	79	81	78	88	65	55	75
OBC	56	49	67	69	64	80	53	45	64
Dalit	44	39	60	58	54	68	42	36	60
Adivasi	46	37	60	60	60	77	47	35	59
Muslim	45	40	60	55	49	67	41	38	58
Other Religion	79	78	89	82	81	90	76	76	88
Household Education									
None	35	30	52	48	40	62	35	30	52
1–4 Std	46	37	61	55	40	65	47	38	61
5–9 Std	55	47	67	66	58	78	52	44	64
10–11 Std	66	61	76	67	69	76	66	57	77
12 Std/Some college	72	66	82	74	73	83	71	60	82
Graduate/Diploma	80	75	87	86	82	92	72	66	80

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

Table A.6.4b Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic Skills of Children Aged 8–11 by School Type and State

(in percentage)

	All Children Currently Enrolled or Not			Private Schools Enrolled in Private School			Government Schools Enrolled in Govt. School		
	Read	Subtract	Write	Read	Subtract	Write	Read	Subtract	Write
All India	54	48	67	69	64	79	50	43	64
Jammu and Kashmir	40	60	74	58	75	81	26	50	67
Himachal Pradesh	83	68	79	95	93	93	81	64	77
Uttarakhand	63	47	66	84	71	73	53	35	62
Punjab	66	72	75	79	85	86	54	61	65
Haryana	65	62	68	69	68	77	63	58	61
Delhi	76	71	76	79	75	82	76	70	74
Uttar Pradesh	39	34	59	55	52	72	29	22	51
Bihar	44	46	65	77	74	80	40	43	65
Jharkhand	59	59	64	81	74	84	51	54	56
Rajasthan	55	42	57	74	60	73	50	37	53
Chhattisgarh	61	36	49	86	67	70	58	31	46
Madhya Pradesh	46	32	45	71	55	64	39	25	38
North-East	58	76	89	66	83	93	56	75	88
Assam	72	45	97	100	84	95	73	45	97
West Bengal	51	57	73	70	80	85	51	56	72
Orissa	58	50	73	81	90	95	58	48	73
Gujarat	64	44	68	84	75	84	60	36	64
Maharashtra, Goa	66	54	74	70	61	87	65	53	71
Andhra Pradesh	50	51	67	64	64	82	44	46	62
Karnataka	53	55	81	75	74	93	45	48	76
Kerala	82	60	82	86	52	78	80	64	84
Tamil Nadu	79	71	85	85	86	93	78	67	82

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

Table A.6.5a Skill Levels of Men and Women Aged 15–49

(in percentage)

	Males					Females				
	Literate	Degree Diploma	English Skills		Any Comp. Skills	Literate	Degree Diploma	English Skills		Any Comp. Skills
			Any	Fluent				Any	Fluent	
All India	81	9	28	5	7	60	5	17	3	4
Age										
15–19	89	2	29	3	8	80	1	25	3	6
20–9	85	12	31	6	9	66	8	22	4	5
30–9	77	11	27	5	6	50	4	13	3	2
40–59	71	8	22	5	4	42	3	9	2	1
Education										
None	4		0	0	0	1		0	0	0
1–4 Std	94		2	0	0	92		1	0	0
5–9 Std	99		14	1	1	99		12	1	1
10–11 Std	100		47	3	7	100		47	3	6
12 Std/Some college	100		69	9	17	100		70	11	17
Graduate/Diploma	100		88	35	39	100		88	34	34
Place of Residence										
Metro	93	18	48	16	19	84	12	39	11	11
Other urban	89	15	39	8	14	77	11	30	6	9
More developed village	80	7	25	3	5	57	3	15	1	2
Less developed village	74	5	19	2	2	47	1	8	1	1
Income										
Lowest Quintile	69	3	15	1	2	43	1	7	1	1
2nd Quintile	71	2	14	1	1	46	1	8	1	1
3rd Quintile	77	4	18	2	2	54	2	11	1	1
4th Quintile	85	7	28	4	6	65	4	17	2	3
Top Quintile	94	22	52	13	18	82	13	39	9	10
Social Groups										
High Caste Hindu	93	17	44	9	13	79	10	29	6	7
OBC	83	8	26	4	6	59	4	15	2	3
Dalit	75	5	20	2	3	48	2	12	1	2
Adivasi	67	4	15	3	3	42	2	10	3	1
Muslim	73	6	21	3	4	54	2	13	2	2
Other religion	94	16	55	12	18	90	15	51	12	12

Note: Comp. refers to Computer.

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.

Table A.6.5b Statewise Skill Levels of Men and Women Aged 15–49 Years

(in percentage)

	Males					Females				
	Literate	Degree Diploma	English Skills		Any Comp. Skills	Literate	Degree Diploma	English Skills		Any Comp. Skills
			Any	Fluent				Any	Fluent	
All India	81	9	28	5	7	60	5	17	3	4
Jammu and Kashmir	75	11	49	11	5	52	4	31	5	2
Himachal Pradesh	95	10	52	8	7	81	5	34	5	3
Uttarakhand	88	8	46	5	6	70	5	29	4	3
Punjab	85	7	69	4	7	72	8	56	4	4
Haryana	83	9	30	3	6	57	6	19	3	3
Delhi	92	18	45	17	17	78	11	38	11	10
Uttar Pradesh	76	7	29	5	3	48	3	14	3	1
Bihar	71	7	24	3	2	39	1	8	0	1
Jharkhand	78	9	16	3	4	51	2	7	1	3
Rajasthan	75	7	25	3	5	38	3	13	2	2
Chhattisgarh	76	9	13	1	4	50	5	5	0	2
Madhya Pradesh	78	4	11	1	3	49	3	7	1	2
North-East	92	17	57	18	11	86	12	51	17	7
Assam	85	8	40	4	4	77	4	28	2	1
West Bengal	77	8	15	4	5	65	5	10	2	2
Orissa	81	8	14	2	3	60	4	7	1	1
Gujarat	86	8	18	3	11	63	6	10	2	6
Maharashtra, Goa	91	11	33	5	10	76	5	23	3	5
Andhra Pradesh	70	7	24	4	7	49	3	13	2	3
Karnataka	82	10	25	6	8	65	6	17	5	6
Kerala	98	13	39	8	19	97	13	37	7	14
Tamil Nadu	86	13	38	11	14	70	8	29	6	8

Note: Comp. refers to Computer.

Source: IHDS 2004–5 data.