

**NEOLIBERAL FRAMEWORK AND TRENDS IN EDUCATION: A FOCUS ON
INDIA**

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Abstract

Neo-liberal frame work, which emphasizes on free market ideology, has brought in profound transformation and changes in economies worldwide. Alongside free trade and free market, it also affected social dynamics of nations at large particularly, the developing and the under developed. Under the impact of neoliberal frame work, the social policies, individual interests, ideologies, and economic policies are molded in line with its very principles, which eventually led to the retrenchment of governance from welfare activities. In this paper, an attempt has been made to analyse how different nations, particularly India, are dealing with the neoliberal policies of World Bank and IMF, with special focus on how India is coping with the changes in education system. Focus is aslo made on how sometimes these neo liberal policies frame individual and social thoughts. How the post 1990 reforms shaped the middle class thought process in India is also explained.

The Information Technology (IT) boom in 1990s tried to construct a meritocracy which promised to liberate the aspiring middle class from citadel of much dis-considered public service system. Employment in IT industries in India needed right full skill with cultural capital (Upadhyay and Vasavi 2006). Cultural capital implies social hierarchies based on class and caste. Always, symbolism is attached to technical education. Technical education at the service of IT is instrumental in distancing middle class from the state; it starts from school education itself. The following story tells how and why IT entered in to India.

The regime of SAP (Structural Adjustment Programme) and/or economic reforms of 1990s in India emphasize the role of market forces, international competition and withdrawal of the interference of the government from economic activity, in contrast to the earlier regime of large-scale governmental interventions. It appears that in the original conception of the present reform process in different countries induced by IMF and World Bank, there is a revisit of the unqualified laissez-faire paradigm of classical economics. Only in its subsequent re-formulations, the social safety-nets came to be emphasized. Different countries have adopted different variants of the strategy of economic reforms and hence, the effects of the reforms would be country's specific. No general statements about the impacts of economic reforms would be proper. Even in the European subcontinent, which has experiences such reforms for a fairly long period, the effects of the reforms for different sectors in different countries are not uniform. The diverse experiences are reported particularly with regard to the social impacts of the reforms.

The statistical data of India about social sector reforms after 1990 is not satisfactory. Private sector contribution to social sector is not clearly known. Some analysis out of public sector data can be made. With regard to the individual components of the social sector also, the initiative of the government as a whole in India presents a contrasting picture if we compare the data for the reform period with those for the pre-reform period. The expenditure of central and the state governments on education as a percentage of GDP is found to have declined from 3.6 per cent in 1992 to 3.4 per cent in 1996-97 showing a declining trend during the period of the reform. According to the National Policy on Education, the government is required to spend at least 6 percent of the GDP on education. This seems to have been further postponed by the process of economic reforms. Even the priority Sector of primary education

does not seem to have received significantly large allocations during the reform period. That is why per-student expenditure on primary education has declined from Rs 494 in 1991 to Rs 492 in 1995-96 (Panchmukhi, 2000).

Micro level studies of the cuts on non-plan expenditures on education have shown that many schools have not been able to recruit teachers and fill the vacancies. As a result, the class sizes are bulging, leading to higher pupil-teacher ratios. The maintenance and up-keep of the infrastructure in educational institutions has been very poor, becoming worse in recent years, because of the cut on non-plan expenditures, which are primarily targeted towards maintenance.

In the education sector, consumerism has been promoted in the name of reform. In the rural areas, federal set up seems to have increased possibilities of corruption, disputes, and work loss. These are very disturbing developments after 1990 economic reforms. After reforms in the wake of fluctuating cycle of market forces and competitive forces led public sector for re-intervention. Another question arises in mind, is this intervention is weak, and fragile? The present initiative of throwing the country to the global competition at one stroke is apprehended to cause much dislocation in social and economic life of these countries. On the whole, the balance sheet of economic reforms in the long run may be favorable if such aspects of economic reforms are visualized. However, the immediate effects of abrupt economic reforms appear to be unfavorable to the countries like India particularly when we consider their social impacts. Reforms need to be adopted akin with socio-economic-cultural fabric of the country.

The economic philosophy underlying the economic reforms package adopted by India based on the Washington consensus summarily stated as market orientation, opening up the economy to integrate it with world economy, economic globalization, completion, deregulation, liberlisation, privatization, all measures need to be taken to market forces work. Recardian philosophy “comparative advantage” of all the countries in foreign policy may not work. The ten policy directives constituting the Washington consensus obviously designed to take care of the interest of developed nations, whose consensus they represent (IMF and World Bank).

In a way, globalization is a process where as liberalisation and deregulation may enable a developing country to benefit from globalization in achieving higher rate of economic growth (Saxena,2005).

As the so called economic reforms commenced in 1991-1992 have started living impact in 1994-95, one of the major implication was growth in Gross Domestic Product. After this, there has been consumer revolution in India resulting in the availability of varied kind of products in the market, more of imported kind, and price hike in basic survival products. Survey has been done on whether the salaries increased according to the cost, and the answer was no. The response of public on the benefits of privatization was negative. In the realm of education, post-economic reforms resulted in 'hegemony' of English.

In the future, the middle class families might disappear, people will move either to upper class or they will get absorbed in to lower class, as it happened in Bangladesh (Ganguly, Scarse et.al 2011).

Economic reforms and other countries:

Inorder to make a comparative analysis and comprehensive understanding of the impact of neoliberal frame work on education, detailed trends of changes and reforms introduced in other countries is provided here.

Romanian Education: In 1995 Romania passed Education Act 84 which served as a regulatory law that managed and coordinated education as it functioned as a national system. It was described as an organic law which "was conceived in order that the provisions regarding the educational ideal about the training of youth for a democratic society... should come to life" (Odslive, 2012). Among other rights consistent with democratic European values, Act 84 also granted all Romanian citizens the right to study at all educational levels, irrespective of sex, race, nationality, political, cultural, religious affiliations or social and material conditions (Odslive 2012, ibid). In December 1991, the new constitution of Romania approved Article 32, which confirmed the right of education for national minorities as well as free public education at all levels. In addition, six new state universities were established, numerous private universities emerged, and student enrollment increased rapidly. Grants were

given to Romanian students from The Republic of Moldova to study in Romanian universities, and Romanian minorities began to receive instruction in their mother tongues.

In 2005, Romania declared its expenditure per pupil. The country spent 1,437.9 Euros per student per year, lower than any other European country (Eurostat, 2011a). Romanian primary and secondary schools have changed little since joining the European Union. Reforms in the 21st century have been comparatively calm as opposed to the extensive reforms following the fall of communism, and they still have much to accomplish before being able to match the reform of higher education. As explained in Odslove (2012), Teodorescu and Stoicescu (1998) stress that change should begin with school administrators and also for the need to initiate improvement akin to that of higher education reform. They cite direction which includes “supportive relationships between teachers and school administrators, efficient communication between educational actors, teachers and principals” professionalism, shared decision making, school autonomy and community support and last, but not least, the financial situation of faculty”. Their suggestions seem legitimate, but change in Romania, though good in theory, is prone to resistance and foot-dragging which can easily slow reform of any type. Now Romanian students are not prone to religious or communist kind of education but to western life style. Romania has made great strides with its educational reform and, at least apparently, supports EU policies and regulations for education. The funding available in other countries, however, is still lacking in Romania.

Now Romania has increased the percentage of GDP spent on education but it's still lower than four EU countries (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Luxembourg, and Slovakia). Romanian primary and secondary schools have changed little since joining the European Union. Reforms in the 21st century have been comparatively calm as opposed to the extensive reforms following the fall of communism, and they still have much to accomplish before being able to match the reform of higher education.

Ontario Province in Canada:

Even though there was changes in political ideology in Canada, the evolution of education reforms was consistent. All the governments, for example, initiated and supported policies

that have led to increased accountability through curriculum, assessment and reporting of student progress, provincial testing of student performance, and regulation of teacher professionalism. While changes in governance, such as the creation of school councils and school board amalgamation, and in the financing of education to achieve more equitable student funding, were enacted by the Conservatives; these and several other focuses of policy change were actively considered by prior Liberal and NDP governments. Some areas where there has been more fluctuation in policy between governments concern academic streaming in the secondary education program, race and gender equity, and provisions for early childhood education. There was introduction of fewer school boards, a more common core curriculum for all students, and standardization of report cards linked to provincial curriculum expectations. Other elements of the reform proposals targeted greater opportunities for work experience, community service, and monitoring and counseling all students through a teacher advisory system. Negative reaction from the education community to a draft document for secondary school reform in 1996 led the Minister of Education to set up another round of public consultations and to delay the intended start-up date for high school reform. After criticism, reform changes were brought. They are uniformity in curriculum, literacy test at basic level etc. Teachers and policy makers struggled together to bring changes, and more funding was inculcated in four years education. According to the Ministry of Education, the new secondary school curriculum “responds to public demand for consistent standards and clear expectations that will ensure all Ontario students receive a high quality education” (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2003). These timely changes in policy with stake makers and stake holders assigns more seriousness in basic education (Jafar 2003).

China’s education expansion:

China has now passed the stage of quantitative expansion in basic education. Official statistics (for 2009) show a net enrolment of 99.4% at the primary school level, the envy of many countries. The gross enrolment ratio for junior secondary school was 99.7% in the same year. Gross enrolment at senior secondary level, both general and vocational, was 79.2%. The general (i.e. academic) senior secondary schools enroll 52.5% of students at

this level, putting about half of senior high school students in the academic stream. However, the figures may conceal regional disparities. In most urban areas, gross enrolment at the senior secondary level is 100% or above, which means that the number of students enrolled exceeds the number in the appropriate age group. (www.chinatimes.com). The 1985 reforms, as mentioned earlier, established the framework for decentralized local school finance and governance. Almost as a textbook example, decentralization led immediately to huge regional disparities because of the differences in local economies. After several back-and-forth debates and adjustments about degrees of decentralization, the Revised Law of Compulsory Education, enacted in 2006, established differential subsidies from the central government to different regions of varied economic capacities. This marked the government's determination to sustain universal basic education, and hence paved the way for more energetic reforms in educational quality (Cheng, K.M. 2007). The Chinese Government has brought every kind of change in education system at par with globalization. It has become successful in word and work. They have brought changes in curriculum, equity, equality, strengthening the weak schools.

Education system in China is a state-run system of public education run by the Ministry of Education. All citizens must attend school for at least nine years, known as the nine-year compulsory education, which the government funds. It includes six years of basic education, starting at age six or seven, and three years of junior secondary education (middle school) for ages 12 to 15. Some provinces may have five years of primary school but four years for middle school. After middle school, there are three years of high school, which then completes the secondary education. The Ministry of Education reported a 99 percent attendance rate for primary school and an 80 percent rate for both primary and middle schools.^[1] In 1985, (www.chinatimes.com) the government abolished tax-funded higher education, requiring university applicants to compete for scholarships based on academic ability. In the early 1980s the government allowed the establishment of the first private school, increasing the number of undergraduates and people who hold doctoral degrees fivefold from 1995 to 2005. In 2003 China supported 1,552 institutions of higher learning (colleges and universities) and their 725,000 professors and 11 million students (see List of universities in China). There are over 100 National Key Universities, including Peking University and Tsinghua University. Chinese spending has grown by 20% per year since 1999, now reaching over \$100bn, and as many as 1.5 million science and engineering students graduated from Chinese universities in 2006. China published 184,080 papers as of 2008. China has also become a top destination for international

students. As of 2013, China is the most popular country in Asia for international students, and ranks third overall among countries.

Laws regulating the system of education include the Regulation on Academic Degrees, the Compulsory Education Law, the Teachers Law, the Education Law, the Law on Vocational Education, and the Law on Higher Education (*See also*: Law of the People's Republic of China).

To provide for its population, China has a vast and varied school system. There are preschools, kindergartens, schools for the deaf and blind, key schools (cultural and vocational schools, regular secondary schools, secondary teachers' schools, secondary technical schools, and secondary professional schools), and various institutions of higher learning (consisting of regular colleges and universities, professional colleges, and short-term vocational universities). They have 9 years school system. They focus on these aspects.

1. Continuity. Students finish education from the elementary school to the middle school.
2. The principle of proximity. Students enter into the nearby school instead of middle school entrance examination.
3. Unity. Schools which carry out the 9-year System practise unified management in school administration, teaching and education.

The reforms in school curriculum in Shanghai

The secondary school curriculum is designed according to what learning experiences students need, rather than being guided by manpower needs in the economy. The curriculum is decided in secondary schools before seeking endorsement from universities. The latter's concern is to select the best students, while the curriculum reform aims for lifelong the secondary school curriculum is framed around eight key learning areas, rather than the subjects- Chinese Language, English language, Mathematics, Science and Technology, Social Science and Humanities, Sports and Arts, applied learning (to allow students to gain real-life workplace experiences) and other learning experiences (including service learning, workplace visits and overseas experiences). The latter two are new to both teachers and schools.

Benefits for students:

A long process of negotiation with higher education institutions resulted in a compromise in which secondary school students going on to university are expected to perform in four areas- Chinese, English, Mathematics, and a new subject called Liberal Studies (see next point). Institutions and programmes may also ask for any other subject. This reflects a change among higher education institutions from basing their student selections on the number of subjects studied (as if that would guarantee better academic performance) to understanding the benefit of requiring less and allowing broader learning experiences among their candidates.

'Liberal studies' has introduced high level of critical thinking. Here, the students design their own learning schemes and assessment is flexible. All these overhauls to the curriculum are carried out in the context of structural change to the school system, where junior-secondary, senior-secondary and higher education will shift from 5 years + 2 years + 3 years (following the British model) to 3 years + 3 years + 4 years, so that achieving a bachelor's degree will now take four years instead of three. This is how Chinese education system is working since the post 1990s (Cheng, K.M. and H.K. Yip 2007),

The reforms in education, whenever occurred, they are ingrained but not for just name sake and were real. Public expenditure on education in China reached 2.2 trillion Yuan (US\$357 billion) in 2012, accounting for 4% of its GDP. (www.chinatimes.com)

Educational reforms in parlance with economic reforms:

Above analysis highlights the impact of neo liberal policies on education system on different countries with different political paradigms. The World Bank played an important role in shaping thinking on educational reform. Psacharopoulos (1989 p. 180), one of its early principal proponents, defined education policy and reform as follows: Psacharopoulos uses the terms —education policy (known previously as educational planning) and —school reform interchangeably (Psacharopoulos, 1989). However, Riddell (1999) argues that equating school reform to policy and planning alone has been (and continues to be) a

dominant way of defining reform, but only when seen from the viewpoint of specific disciplines (Riddell, 1999). These points take us to the second set of issues which relate to the analytical complexities involved in understanding reform. Analysis emanating from the World Bank used the —economic lens and understandably so given the Bank’s approach to financing projects that have a clear economic benefit. But this analytical perspective had special significance because the institution also shaped reform policies on a large scale. In the first overall review of education conducted in 1995, —prudent use of economic analysis focused on labour market outcomes. In order to set priorities for education sector reforms were emphasised (World Bank 1995 p. 9). Further, it was stated that: —while governments determine priorities for many reasons, economic analysis of education—in particular, the rate of return analysis—is a diagnostic tool with which to start the process of setting priorities and considering alternative ways of achieving objectives within a sectoral approach (World Bank 1995 p. 94). However, recently there has been a broadening of this narrow analytical focus to include aspects of governance—especially issues of providing the right incentives and accountability mechanisms to improve the service delivery of education (World Bank 2003a, 2008).

Murillo (1999 pp. 33–4) notes that among international financial institutions providing support in the area of education, as also for governments that were reforming their educational services, there was a belief that this type of reform was the —plan that would solve many of the inefficiencies of educational systems (in Latin America). She cites an Inter-American Development Bank study (1996 p. 257). In this context, it states that —highly centralized administered systems are very poor at choosing the best mix of inputs, required in varied local conditions; they are also poor at adjusting to changing requirements over time. According to this view, the flexibility of decentralization allows discretion in policies of hiring, firing, and wage setting according to local conditions, and in curbing the power of teacher unions. Murilo and Victoria (1999) By suggesting that promoting decentralization and reducing the power of unions were the conditions under which reforms could be successful, these arguments were somewhat able to overcome criticisms regarding the inherent proclivity of the earlier approaches to over-predict —reform paralysis (that is, explain only cases where reforms have been unsuccessful). Also, many countries were adopting measures for increasing teacher quality and

accountability and for decentralization in order to achieve both educational objectives and increased participation. This lent credence to the belief that formal political economy arguments were driving state policies for educational reform.

In many developing countries, educational reform has been carried out within a framework of economic reorganisation and restructuring—often referred to as —structural adjustment— especially in the 1980s and 1990s. The economic reform agenda, around which there was considerable consensus at that time, included market liberalisation, privatisation, and measures to reduce public expenditure (for example, cuts in the number and salaries of civil servants, decreases in subsidies, and the imposition of user charges). Many —educational reforms— were driven by this agenda, initially to impose spending cuts, and later to reduce the stresses laid on human development by the structural adjustment process, where spending on primary education was often either protected or even increased. Hence, this wave of —reform focused on how to reduce public spending on education, and subsequently, on how to protect —priority— sectors— such as primary education—that were considered to be important for the poor. Indeed, refocusing spending on primary education was in many ways considered a considerable reform intervention in itself since it often meant cutting back on funding for secondary and tertiary education.

In the influential volume *Education Reforms in the South in the 1990s*, which analyses concrete efforts for many developing countries, Lene Buchert (1998) sees reform as part of a broader strategy of reorganisation. He describes it as a —deliberate effort to move towards a different situation within the education system. Overall, he states that reform needs to effect a —radical transformation of the education system, its sub-sectors, organization and functioning, if it is to support broader societal change (Buchert 1998 p.14). External aid is involved in most cases, and there may be a considerable degree of external influence in setting the agenda for change. This is so even though many reforms involve considerable indigenous effort as well.

The importance of external aid in driving educational reform in developing countries has greatly influenced not only the strategies and programmes implemented, but also in defining reform and the analytical framework for thinking about the process. Among aid agencies, the World Bank has special significance because it has been involved in assisting educational reform all over the world. Indeed, by 1995 it was the single largest source of educational finance for low and middle income countries. Also, within the World Bank's lending

portfolio, education had the largest share—underlining the importance accorded to education lending within the Bank (World Bank 1995). Riddell classifies the various issues that have been prominent on the agenda of reform in terms of the specific focus of each of these disciplines (Ridell 1999 pp. 209–16). For an educational planner, these include access to education; the quality of learning; equity in participation across income, social groups, and gender; and issues relating to school effectiveness and improvement. The key concerns of economists have been efficiency, resource use, whether or not the system meets its own goals (for example, in terms of every child completing primary school), and the interface of the school with the labour market in terms of the skills needed and the wages earned. Notice that issues of quality and the teacher-learner interface do not appear on the agenda of most economists, although they are addressed by educationists. That said there is considerable overlap between what educational planners and economists take into consideration. For example, the issue of school effectiveness emphasized by planners is similar to the efficiency analyses of economists, as both talk about an efficient combination and use of inputs. Moreover, both of these perspectives assist educational managers.

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implementation is also shared by Grindle (2004 pp.1–2) in her analysis of the politics of educational reform in 12 Latin American countries during the 1990s. She notes that most analysis of education policy seeks to assess efforts to improve conditions in the sector which include increasing the efficiency with which services are delivered, reducing illiteracy and repetition rates, boosting student learning through new curricula and pedagogy, measuring the impact of standard based testing, and evaluating the results of school autonomy, among others. While these measures are important for improving the quality and functioning of the education sector and for analyzing which of the alternate policies are more efficient, they take the process of reform for granted. She further notes that in order to understand the specifically political dynamic, it is important to see how improved education becomes part of a political agenda, how reform initiatives are developed, what interactions and negotiations shape or alter their contents, how important actors and interests respond to change proposals, how initiatives are implemented and sustained once they are introduced. For her, reforms signal deliberate efforts to make changes in policies about education. And comprehending the politics of this process includes understanding how reformers find room for manoeuvre, and deal with sources of resistance. Further, reforms are deliberate efforts on the part of a government's attempt to redress perceived errors in prior and existing arrangements in policies and institutions (Grindle and Thomas 1991 p. 4). I adapt this definition to understand the deliberate efforts of the government to redress policies and institutions involved in the provision of school education.

If schools are viewed as microcosmic representation of society that could enable the cultivation of a democratic social order (Dewey, 1907 in *The School and Society*), then teaching-learning practices assume a central position. The role of teachers and the quality of classroom teaching then is one of the defining pillars of children's learning. National Curricular Framework (NCF, 2005) and National Curricular Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE, 2009) promote the teachers education programme in India (Yojana, p.23).

The educational reforms comprise a large variety of federal interventions in primary school education following the NPE 1986. The first set of federal programmes for primary education was introduced with domestic resources alone. This was followed by small state projects with external funding. But the large inflow of external resources for primary education came mainly with the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) launched in 1993, and subsequently the *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (SSA) which extended the programme to upper primary school grades (elementary education) in 2000. Further, states joined these federal reform programmes at different times, adding to the complexity of the analysis. In this the arguments were brought on teachers unions, community participation, decentralization, school councils. The 73rd Constitutional Amendment of 1993 became the overarching framework for political decentralization in the country. It also gave additional impetus to decentralization in the school sector. Attention to successful cases of reforms is generally of very recent vintage, and it has mainly been done by Chand (2006, 2010). In analysing successful cases, Chand regards the role of the political leader, nature of reform ideas, and the existence of bipartisan politics, as all being critical. What is still missing is an analysis of variations in outcomes between different states.

One of the important contributions of both local political studies (for example, Corbridge et al. 2005) and the service delivery framework (for example, Devarajan and Shah 2004) is the focus on how schools work at the local level. Among the earliest research on the local impact of central educational reform is that of Dyer (1999). She examines the working of the central scheme Operation Blackboard (OB) in selected districts of Gujarat, and notes that there is a gap between what the central policies intend and the actual outcomes at the school level. She sees this as a result of discretionary action of teacher trainers and implementers, plus the absence of teacher involvement in the overall design process. Given India's federal framework, and the complexity of policy reform in the education sector, an appropriate methodology was needed to address the following two challenges. First, there was a need to focus on the implementation process, and not just on the policy-design stage and the outcomes. Focusing only on policy-design and outcomes was likely to convey the impression that reform was in fact some kind of a technical plan, for which the implementation phase was merely akin to a brief pause between a shiny idea and smart delivery (Dyer 1999 p. 46).

Low level of participation and deep inequities:

A more realistic picture was presented by the school participation rates reported by the National Sample Survey (NSS) which involves representative household surveys for each state. In 1993–94, the participation rate for primary school age children (that is, those aged 6–10 years) was 71.7 per cent; this was 30 percentage points lower than the official GER at the all-India level. Nearly one in three children of primary school age was not enrolled in school.

Low level expenditure on school education:

The lowest expenditures were in the educationally backward states of AP, MP, and Orissa, and also in West Bengal, which was not at this time classified as an educationally backward state. All these states reported a per-pupil expenditure of less than Rs 600 per year, in nominal terms. In contrast Haryana and Kerala it was reported as nearly Rs 1,200 in 1990–91. Bihar and Kerala spending equal expenditure on ie: 2.8% of G.D.P.

Fact sheet of budget on school education in India: The pattern of Union and State Government expenditure on a particular sector reflects the priority for the sector in public policies. In this regard, the recommendations of the Education Commission (1966), popularly known as the Kothari Commission, on the issue of government financing of education are considered as important benchmarks. The commission estimated the financial requirements of the educational system in India up to 1985-86, and recommended that “if education is to develop adequately, the proportion of GNP allocated to education will rise to 6.0 per cent in 1985-86” (p 893). Of the several recommendations made by the Kothari Commission, this 6 per cent of GNP is one that was accepted and resolved by the Government of India in the National Policy on Education (NPE) in 1968. However, it can be argued now that the Commission’s estimate was made long ago and based on somewhat austere estimates of growth in enrolments, per student expenditure and other parameters. Nevertheless, it assumes importance mainly as the benchmark has remained unaccomplished so far (Tilak, 2007).

In the last one and a half decades, India’s total public expenditure on education as percentage of GDP was the highest (3.8 percent) in 2000-01; but this level could not be sustained in the following years and it came down to 3.0 percent by the year 2004-05. The present level of total

public spending on education in the country (taking the spending by not just Education Departments at the Centre and in the States but also the other Departments that spend on educational services) works out to 3.5 percent of the GDP (2010-11). Nevertheless, it assumes importance mainly as the benchmark has remained unaccomplished so far (Tilak, 2007).

But, even this proportion falls much short of the 6 percent of GDP recommended in 1966 by the Kothari Commission and reiterated in 2006 by the CABE (Central Advisory Board of education) committee. If we look at the shares of spending on education by the Centre and the States separately, we find that Centre' share has been showing an increasing trend over the years and moving up from 0.5 percent of GDP in 2000-01 to 0.9 percent of GDP in 2009-10 (Revised Estimates), while State's share has declined from 3.3 percent of GDP in 2000-01 to 2.7 percent of GDP in 2010-11. However, the Centre bears only one fourth of the total government spending on education, whereas the rest three-fourth of the spending comes from the State Governments (Yozna). Central advisory board its 46th meeting on 1991 march allowed Government institutions negotiations with outside donor agencies for government schools funding.

To increase the employment opportunities with equity, there is need of strengthening the basic education system. The huge responsibility lies with the state. Uniformity has to be brought in every aspect of schooling system. There is a dire need of increasing the GDP share for education.

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