

**Universalisation of Elementary Education: A Study
of Implementation of District Primary Education
Programme [DPEP] in Guntur District**

*Thesis Submitted for
The 'Degree of Doctor of Philosophy*

By

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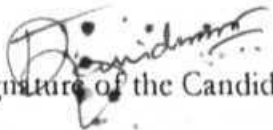
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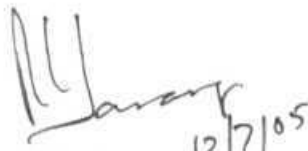

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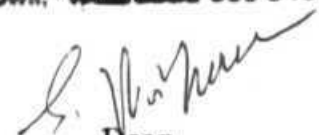
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Ravindra Babu, J

(preface)

Free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen is the constitutional commitment in India. The goal of achieving universal enrolment is yet to be achieved. Keeping in view the institutional and other limitations, the policy makers in the educational domain went on postponing the deadline for achieving the goal of universalisation. A concerted effort is made from 1994 onwards to mobilize financial and other resources to improve the quality of policy making and implementation in this significant sub sector of education. A number of centrally sponsored schemes as well as new programmes and projects were initiated across the country. Educationally backward states viz., Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh (acronym 'BIMARU') and Andhra Pradesh are given additional institutions, financial support for organization of massive literacy drives. Primary education remained in the focus in all these programmes. The most recent programme is the District Primary Education Programmes. The principle objectives of the intervention are Access, Retention, Quality and Equity. It is implemented in 18 states and nearly 271 districts in the country. A quick appraisal of the programme reveals that the enrolment increased from 97 million to 111 million children in the age group of 6-11. However the dropout rates ranging from 40-65% continue to demand and attention of policy makers and students of public policy as this trend affects the ratio between outlays and outcomes.

It needs to be stated that success of primary education system has a direct bearing on upper primary, non-formal and adult and continuing education sectors. An efficient primary education system is expected to contribute significantly to total literacy. An appropriate push in literacy levels improves functioning of our sub-systems including our standing in the Human Development Index evolved by UNDP.

What follows is a presentation of a study on the implementation of District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) in Guntur District. It is a piece in policy evaluation research expected to contribute to the ongoing discussion on policy, ^{and} process** in primary Education ^{it}. It is divided into six chapters. The researcher has chosen a sample of 30 schools in mandals in the study area. The field work was organized in 2002 / 2003. The results are presented in chapter 5.

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Dedicated to *Our <Be CovedJlunty*

Late Mary

&

My beloved grand father

Late Dharmendra

CHAPTER-1

Introduction

This study is a piece in policy analysis. Policy scientists Harold Lasswell and philosophers Abraham Kaplan define policy as a "project programme of goals.... Carl Frederick says it is essential for policy concept that there is a goal, objective or purpose. Governments act in a purposeful and goal oriented fashion.¹

Political scientists Heinz Eulau and Kenneth Prewitt define policy as a standing decision characterized by behavioral consistency and repetitiveness as the part of those who make it and those who abide by it. Dye elaborating on his definition that public policy is whatever governments choose to do or not to do stated that governments distribute a great variety of material services to the members of society. Besides many other regulatory functions, governments are engaged in organizing education towards building literate societies. Though governments spending on education is not significant, yet, its function in human resource development cannot be ignored. The sub field of public policy i.e., measurement of policy outcomes is an area that received attention of not only students of economics but also political scientists, theoreticians of public administration besides other social scientists.

¹ Thomas R Dye, "Understanding Public Policy", *Prentice Hall*, 1998 p.2-3.
Also see Harold Lasswell & Abraham Kaplan "Power & Society", *Yale University*, p 71
Carl Frederick, "Man & His Government", *McGraw Hill*, p.70.
Heinz Eulau & Kenneth, "Prewitt labyrinths of Democracy", p.465.

Policy evaluation, policy impact and study of the processes of implementation of public policy broadly constitute core of the policy analysis. For scientific understanding of the causes of policy decision and improvement of quality of policy making and implementation, policy analysis is a very important tool. Policy analysis leads to rendering effective professional advice. Understanding the policy processes through public policy studies facilitates application of social science knowledge to solve practical problems. According to Dror, factual knowledge is a prerequisite to tackle the ills afflicting the society and its development facilitates professional advice which in turn helps make 'mid policy' corrections for achieving stated goals. Policy evaluation studies also help in evolving right goals. According to Thomas R Dye, "political science should not be silent in the face of great social and political crises. Further he maintained that an exclusive focus on institutions, processes or behaviours leaves political science as a dry, irrelevant and amoral, because, it does not direct attention to the really important policy questions ... demanding answer from developing societies like India. Policy studies leads to enhancing the quality of political discussions to advance the levels of political awareness and finally improve the quality of public policy.

Study of processes of educational achievement is an important item for policy analysis. Hon W. Kingdon of university of Michigan in an important work entitled *Agendas, Alternatives & Public policy*² wrote that "the phrase that an idea whose time has come captures a fundamental realities about a movement that sweeps is

² John W. Kingdon "Agendas, Alternatives & Public Policies", *HarperCollins*, 1995, p.9.

politics and society. Education for all is one such idea. The universalisation of elementary education is one such imperative. There is a repeated mobilization of people with intense arguments for ending child labour. These are moves to push 'never enrolled' and 'unenrolled' children into the school system

The post liberalization, privatization and globalization scenario and subsequent developments in policy arena seem to have made the Indian policy makers change priorities. It is stated by many that State and its institutions failed in achieving the desired growth rates. The problems of distribution demanded solutions. It is often argued, especially after 1991, that state withdrawal from active economic sectors leaves some surplus for social sector including education. Within education an attempt is made to prioritize sub sectors. The candidature of primary education is picked up as a policy priority. International agencies too showed interest in giving aid and or soft loans. The bureaucracy in India is too eager to accept such aid. One of the main programmes is stepping up literacy. Universalisation of elementary education in India is earmarked as a policy. The literacy rates obtaining also convinces one to accept it as a priority item within education.

Table 1.1
Literacy: State-wise

Sl. No.	State	1991	2001	Decadal Difference in Literacy Rate
1	Jammu & Kashmir	n.a	54.46	
2	Himachal Pradesh	63.94	77.13	13.91
3	Punjab	58.51	69.95	11.45
4	Chandigarh	77.81	81.76	3.94
5	Uttaranchal	57.75	72.28	14.53
6	Haryana	55.85	68.59	12.74
7	Delhi	75.29	81.82	6.53
8	Rajasthan	38.55	61.03	22.48
9	Uttar Pradesh	40.71	57.36	16.65
10	Bihar	37.49	47.53	10.04
11	Sikkim	56.94	69.68	12.73
12	Arunachal Pradesh	41.54	54.74	13.15
13	Nagaland	61.65	67.11	5.46
14	Manipur	59.89	68.87	8.97
15	Mizoram	82.27	88.49	6.22
16	Tripura	60.44	73.66	13.22
17	Meghalaya	49.10	63.31	14.21
18	Assam	52.89	64.22	11.39
19	West Bengal	57.70	69.22	11.52
20	Jharkand	41.39	54.13	12.74
21	Orissa	49.09	63.61	14.52
22	Chattisgarh	42.91	65.18	22.27
23	Madhya Pradesh	44.67	64.11	19.44
24	Gujarat	61.57	69.97	8.40
25	Daman & diu	71.20	81.09	9.89
26	Dadra Nagar Haveli	40.71	60.03	19.33
27	Maharastra	64.87	77.27	12.39
28	Andhra Pradesh	44.09	61.11	17.02
29	Karnataka	56.04	67.04	11.00
30	Goa	75.51	82.32	6.89
31	Lakshadweep	81.78	87.52	5.74
32	Kerala	89.81	90.92	1.11
33	Tamil Nadu	62.66	73.47	10.81
34	Pondichery	74.74	81.49	6.75
35	Andaman & Nicobar	73.02	81.18	8.16

Source: Registrar General, Census of India 2001 Census.

1.1. Grim Literacy Scenario in Andhra Pradesh

For the last four decades Andhra Pradesh continues to be an area of concern for educational planners. While India's average literacy rate is 65 percent, Andhra Pradesh continues to be occupying 28th position in 33 states and union territories. Of the 16 major states in India only Bihar, Uttar Pradesh and Rajasthan are behind Andhra Pradesh in terms of literacy. Nearly 60 percent of children, according to media reports, dropout of schooling well before completion of middle schooling. The situation is better compared 70's when dropout rates crossed 71 percent. Thus the policy goals relating to education remain unachieved as a large remain outside the system owing to lack of schools and a host of other reasons. Several scores dropout because of academic financial and other reasons. This situation was sought to be remedied by a new innovative and externally funded intervention in late 90's. It is rightly said that half the battle is won if the causes for sickness are diagnosed. With regard to the present problems faced by the nation the best brains of the country have made the correct diagnosis and the root cause for the ills is found to be illiteracy of the Indian masses. Illiteracy as a cause of numerous problems in India has long been recognized but the implementation part is much short of expectations. It is interesting as also intellectually challenging to understand the processes and bottlenecks in this domain of social policy.

This study is a modest attempt to understand policy, programme and expected outcomes of an important educational intervention aimed at Universalisation of Elementary **Education** implemented between 1998-2003 **through**

District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) is an intervention supported by World Bank, European Union and Department for International Development (DFID) a consortium of aid giving agencies based in UK. It is a massive internationally funded programme. It is the seventh in the series of such programmes in India since 80's for achieving the goal of universalization of elementary education. The other interventions funded entirely by Indian State include social education in 1950, the 10+2+3 pattern in 1960's, basic education as part of twenty point programme in 1970's, the operation black board in 1980's, aimed at creating minimum infrastructure, the minimum levels of learning in 90's. The latest is DPEP, in the series of such moves, besides several social mobilization moves, popularly referred to '*Janmabhoomi*' a programme intended to identify unenrolled children during the Telugu Desam regime, '*Badibata*' now initiated since six months by the present congress Government in Andhra Pradesh. The State of Andhra Pradesh for quite some time is referred to as a state surging towards knowledge society based on advances in IT sector up until recently.

The problems of universalisation are perceived by different policy people in different perspectives. For example the minimum levels of learning (MLL) it focussed on quality, while the operation blackboard looked at the need for provision of atleast two classrooms in the existing schools. DPEP that way is reportedly made a departure from the beatentrack and attempted a holistic view of issues determining Enrollment, Retention, Achievement and Quality of school education. There are other interesting features of the DPEP which are discussed with more details in

chapter 3. For the present it is suffice to say that DPEP makes a difference to the policy and programme content to the primary education sector.

It has to be noted here that an important shift in policy and process of education was effected in 1976 through a constitutional amendment. Education was moved over to concurrent list which was under state list till 1976. This policy shift legitimized union of India's power through policy interventions and programme design. The implementations of this move are taken up for discussion elsewhere. What follows is a study of evolution of different interventions beginning with Directive Principles of State Policy (DPSP).

1.2 Education for AH: Institutional Framework

The Constituent Assembly has provided a policy framework for elementary education, it was resolved that UEE should be universal and compulsory. Article 45 of the Directive Principles of state policy envisages universalisation of elementary education for all the children up to the age of 14 years with in a time frame of Ten years since the commencement of the Constitution. Needless to mention that the achievement of this noble objective has been eluding us for the past 55 years UEE continuous to be one of the major policy issues and continues to figure on as an unmet policy pronouncement. Contrarily India continues to have the dubious distinction of the world's largest segment of non literates. Andhra Pradesh first to be carved out on linguistic basis remains an area of darkness, despite ascertions that the state made rapid strides as "knowledge society".

Illiteracy if left untackled can cause doom to our society and nullifies the progress achieved in terms of economic development. Perhaps realizing this, the policy makers and administrators have taken a number of initiatives to provide *education for all*. Despite these the outcomes are not commensurate with the efforts. While the unchecked population growth is one important reason for this failure, a host of other reasons like failure to provide, enough schools, poverty of the masses preventing them from participation in schooling are also popular reasons cited.

As stated, policy interventions have been taken to solve the twin issues, illiteracy and universalisation of elementary education. District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) is an important and latest intervention in this direction. The present study is an attempt to validate structure, process and outcomes of DPEP in one of the districts in Andhra Pradesh.

1.3 Structure of School Education

A uniform structure of school education, the 10+2 system has been adopted by all the States and Union Territories of India. However, within the States and the UTs, there remains variations in the number of classes constituting the Primary, Upper Primary, High and Higher Secondary school stages, age for admission to class I, medium of instruction, public examinations, teaching of Hindi and English, number of working days in a year, academic session, vacation periods, fee structure, compulsory education etc.

Stages of School Education in India

i) Primary Education

The Primary Stage consists of Classes I-V, i.e., of five years duration, in 20 States/UTs namely Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Manipur, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Chandigarh, Delhi and Karaikal and Yanam regions of Pondicherry. The primary stage consists of classes I-IV in Assam, Goa, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep and Mahe region of Pondicherry.

ii) Upper Primary Education

The Middle Stage of education comprises Classes VI-VIII in as many as 18 States/UTs viz., Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Manipur, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Chandigarh, Delhi and Karaikal region of Pondicherry; Classes V-VI in Assam, Goa, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep and Mahe region of Pondicherry and Classes VI-VII in Andhra Pradesh, Orissa **and** Yanam region of Pondicherry. In Nagaland Classes V - VII constitute the upper primary stage.

Hi) High School Education

The Secondary Stage consists of Classes IX-X in 19 States/UTs. Viz., Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Manipur, Nagaland, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, Andaman & Nicobar Islands, Chandigarh, Delhi and Karaikal region of Pondicherry. The High School stage comprises classes VIII to X in 13 States/UTs viz., Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Goa, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Orissa, Dadra & Nagar Haveli, Daman & Diu, Lakshadweep and Mahe & Yanam regions of Pondicherry. However, the Higher Secondary / Senior Secondary stage of school comprising classes XI-XII (10+2 pattern) is available in all the States/UTs except in some States/UTs

1.4 Efforts at Universalization of Elementary Education: Post Independence Scenario Constitutional Arrangements

Several articles in the Constitution of India bring into sharp focus on the general principles governing educational development in the country. These are rooted in India's struggle for independence. According to Mahatma Gandhi, provision for '*basic education was one of the important goals of the freedom struggle*'. The Directive Principles of State Policy (DPSP) contained in Article 45 of the Constitution enjoins that "the State shall endeavor to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of the Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years".

Article 29 (1) of the Constitution provides that any section of the citizens residing in the territory of India or any part thereof having a distinct language scripts or culture of its own shall have the right to conserve the same. Article 29 (2) lays down that "no citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the state or receiving aid out of state funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste, language or any of them. Article 30 (1) enjoins, "All minorities, whether based on religion or language, shall have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their choice. While Article 30 (2) lays down that "the State shall not in granting aid to educational institutions discriminate against any educational institution on the ground that it is under the management of a minority, whether based on religion or language". Though the constitutional provisions and institutional arrangements are in place, the goal of making education accessible to all appears to be eluding us. The low literacy of the country vis-a-vis other nations in terms of Human Development Index, a methodology evolved by UNDP, bears testimony to this.

Article 350-A lays down that "it shall be the endeavor of every State and of every local authority within the state to provide adequate facilities in the mother-tongue at the primary state of education to children belonging to linguistic minority groups".

Special care of economic and educational interests of the underprivileged sections of the population is laid down as an obligation for the state under Article 46.

As per the article "state shall promote with special care for the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people. And in particular, of the scheduled tribes (ST's) and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation"

As stated earlier education was brought under the concurrent list, till then it was in the state list through 42nd Amendment to the constitution in 1970 and except for certain specified items in the union list like determination of standards in institutions for higher education or research, establishment and maintenance of central universities as well as specified institutions for scientific or Technical education and research. The objective of including education in the concurrent list was to facilitate evolution of - national policies in the field of education. The concept of concurrency was given an operational meaning by the National Policy on Education (N.P.E) 1986. This policy envisages concurrency as a "meaningful partnership between the Center and States" and placed on the Union Government a greater responsibility in regard to the national and integrative character of education, quality and standards, manpower planning, research and advanced study, and international aspects of education, culture and human resource development. This move was never questioned by political parties as all parties seem to be of the view **that** there will be greater integrative value, necessary for national unity than the compulsive argument that a more decentralized approach for this policy helps participation in schooling.

1.5 Policy Priorities and Goals

It was decided in mid 80's that there is need for a comprehensive review of the then existing education system and policy makers saw the need for a fresh National policy of Education (N.P.E). It came into effect since 1986. Within the comprehensive frame work enunciated by the NPE (1986), the developments and experiences since their incorporation into the NPE, in 1992 and a revised programme of Action (POA-1992) was formulated. The NEP provides a comprehensive framework for guiding the development of education. Overall, the NPE is committed to address all aspects of education, Equity, efficiency, relevance, quality, content and progress; all those aspects dealing with linkages, culture, values, society, polity and economy, besides mobilization of resources and those dealing with management. Emphasis on organic linkages with early childhood education, primary education, nonformal education, adult education, and post literacy and life long continuing education was evident. NPE 1986, one can say, tried to break away from stereotyped thinking appears to have and promoted a thoughtful introspection. In the implementation sphere, one may notice a shift from the state to the district as the unit of planning for organization of elementary education. Thus there is a structural change in organizational aspects.

1.6 UEE-Goals

The national policy further envisaged expansion of early childhood care and development activities especially for poor, disadvantaged and disabled children, through a multi-pronged effort involving families, and appropriate institutions.

Provision of accesses to elementary education for all children up to 14 years seems to have attained policy visibility. Universal participation till they complete the elementary stage through formal or equivalent non-formal education programmes was emphasized. Universal achievement of at least *Minimum levels of learning* was desired.

Moreover the policy provides for creation of opportunities to maintain and called for development of skills to persons who are functionally literate and through formal and non-formal channels. Creation of necessary structures and the setting in motion of processes, which could empower women and make education an instrument of women's equality, was promised.

A broad assessment of situation after nearly two decades of experience reveals that India has the largest number of illiterates and out of school children in the world which is 30% of the world's adult illiterates and 21.87% of out of school children. About 19 to 24 million children, in the age group 6-14, are out of school of whom about 60% are girls, and more than 35 million are adult illiterates in the age group of 15-35 of whom majority are women. The Public Report on Basic Education in India, an authentic appraisal of state of affairs in this sector, further dampen the enthusiasm of students of public policy besides a host of other reports.

However the policy makers cutting across party affiliation continue to lay emphasis on education especially elementary education. The benefits of investing in basic education, both for its intrinsic value in enhancing human capabilities, as well

as for its social development and economic growth, greater efficiency and better functioning of democratic institutions are often quoted. Policy pronouncement on the ability of education to empower women and men to acquire greater control over the circumstances that dominated their lives is frequently cited. Demographers categorically state that fertility regulation cannot be a matter of mere promotion of contraception. A number of works state that the socio-economic factors which strongly influence fertility behavior include female literacy. Aspects like infant mortality rate, sex ratio are related to the Universalisation of Elementary Education.

The UEE has a stronger regional and gender dimensions. The Indian experience encompasses the entire third world experience. At one end we have states such as Kerala which have achieved universal literacy as well as UEE in terms of school participation. Even this state may not be the best in terms of learning achievement with social indicators compared to Scandinavian countries. However on the other end of the spectrum we have states like, UP, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh and Orissa, MP with indicators worse than some countries in Africa. To the extent that gender disparity is pronounced, UEE is the problem of girl child. Teacher competence, motivation and performance are areas, which require greater attention. These ofcourse remain crucial inputs in Universalisation of Elementary Education.

The continuing challenge before the nation, therefore, is to enhance universal participation and universal achievement of certain minimum levels of learning. In terms of numbers alone this is the greatest challenge that human society ever faced

more so if one were to adhere to the task decided in the NPE - 1986, achieving universalisation before the commencement of **twenty** first century; it is now postponed to 2005 as part of Millennium goals- ironically set by G-8 the highly developed countries.

In the debate on rights based approach to development, the states role in public education assumes critically. In Indian context, while the Union and **the state** governments having their full share of responsibility; observers opine that people's involvement in educational development makes crucial difference to the task. While the challenge that confronts in this sector is formidable, studies on successful states like Kerala and Tamil Nadu provide useful lessons. The policy response ought to be individually and collectively be faced. All the state holders i.e. public, teachers and educators; NGO's the industrial sector, the media, politicians, panchayat leaders, grass root workers and others have to regard it as achievable task. Let's see how it through a whole circle as.

1.7 Primary Education -Major Interventions Since 1986

(a) Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL)

Addressing quality as the main policy instrument, the educational administrators evolved a scheme. India is one of the few developing countries, which took the initiative in 1991 to lay down norms for MLL at primary stage. This places emphasis on integrating different components of curriculum, classroom transaction, **and** evaluation. With these norms **the** programme **was** implemented through 18

voluntary agencies, research institutions, and SCERT's. The MLL programme through various institutional mechanisms was implemented throughout the country. The NCERT, Regional Institutes of Education (RIE's), SCERTs and DIET's are involved. In 1996-97, more than half of the states are associated with implementing the programme. Curriculum revision, rewriting of textbooks to make them competency based, enhancing their pedagogical value, training of teachers in the classroom processes are the major activities being undertaken. The DPEP has adopted MLL as a major strategy for improvement of quality for primary education. MLLs are a part of the large curriculum reform endeavour to achieve greater relevance and functionality in primary education.

(b) Operation Black Board (OBB)

The National Policy on Education 1986 further refined quality improvement of primary school. It tried to make school environment attractive. Efforts are made to give a face lift to building and additional material was supplied to schools. Motivating factors impinging on enrolment and retention are identified. This initiative was symbolically called 'Operation Blackboard'.

The scheme started off in 1987-88 with the motive of i) At least two reasonably large all-weather class rooms along with ii) two teachers of which one is a woman; iii)provisioning essential teaching and learning material including blackboards, maps, charts, a small library, besides toys; and games at the school.

The *Operation Blackboard* envisioned that the construction of school buildings be given as the responsibility of state governments. To begin with Ministry of Rural Areas and Employment earmarked 48% of **the** funds under Jawahar Rojgar Yojana (JRY) for construction.

The Scheme has been further extended to cover upper primary schools, provision was made for atleast i) one room for each class; ii) a Headmaster-cum-office room; iii) necessary toilet facilities; iv) a contingency grant of Rs. 1000 per annum; v) library facilities vi) essential equipment; vii) at least one teacher for each class/section. Primary schools with enrolments more than 100 and two teachers and now being provided with a third teacher.

The salary of one additional teacher is met by the Central Government for the plan period. Rs.50, 000 is provided to each school for essential teaching learning equipments including Rs. 10,000 for library facilities. In order to promote community participation in this venture; preference is given in selection to the villages where community contributes 20% (Rs.10, 000) towards equipment in which case Central contribution will be Rs.40000. However in Tribal (ITDA) areas entire 100% assistance will be provided by the Central Government. With these there is a definite improvement. There is an appreciable rise in retention though it is still short of the goal.

(c) Orienting Primary Teachers

Another initiative for strengthening the primary education was special orientation taken up to primary teachers in teaching languages, mathematics and environmental studies. Apart from state agencies other agencies are involved in this task.

The following five agencies participated in the gigantic task of making access to an achievable goal. Let's review the contribution of those agencies in different states.

(d) Shiksha Karmi Project

In Rajasthan since 1987 with the assistance from the Swedish International Development Agency, the Shiksha Karmi Project in universalisation is under implementation its objective is qualitative improvement of primary education in remote and of inaccessible backward villages in Rajasthan. The primary target group is girls. In a report it is stated that teacher's absenteeism is one of the major reason for low achievement of UEE. The Government of Rajasthan through Rajasthan Shiksha Karmi Board (RSKB) is implementing the project with the assistance of voluntary agencies.

UEE: Need for Public-Private Partnership

The project has been so designed to ensure that both the state government and non-governmental organizations work in partnership. This project is one of innovative educational interventions, aiming at overcoming major problems of poor

enrolment and high dropout of children, particularly girls. Siksha Karmi Project runs *Prehar Pathasalas, Angan Pathasalas, and Mahila Prakashan KenJras* as innovative activities.

Further this project succeeded in checking of teacher absenteeism, social and gender inequality in access through in a limited way and also addressed quality question. According to reports there has been a three-fold increase in enrolment of children in schools given to this agency. Furthermore, it is gathered that nearly fifth of those of where project is implemented that is a 62 percent rise in retention. A significant number of children covered by the SK schools are from scheduled caste and scheduled tribe households. The project as of 2003 covered 1785 villages in 113 blocks of Rajasthan. 4271 *Shiksha Karmis* provided primary education to approximately 1.50 lakh children in day schools *and prehar pathasalas*. Thus the experiment in public-private partnership to a large extent met the goals.

(e) Bihar Education Project (BEP)

Bihar is one of the educationally backward states. A number of initiatives are needed to reach the goal UEE. Bihar Education Programme is one of them launched in 1991 with the objectives of bringing about quantitative and qualitative improvement in the elementary system. It laid emphasis on the education of deprived sections such as Scheduled Castes (SC's) and Scheduled Tribes (ST's) and women. Participatory planning and implementation remain highlights of the project.

Some major achievements reported are i) emergence of a strong Mahila Samakya Component ii) organization of Village Education Committees' and Community involvement in programme implementation at grass root level; iii) offering non-formal education through NGO's.

The other objectives of the Programme include i).Universalization of Primary Education, as a composite programme of Universal access, universal participation and universal achievement (nearer to the minimum levels of learning) ii).Drastic reduction in illiteracy iii). Modification in the educational system to serve the objects of equality for women and their empowerment.iv) Inculcating equality and social justice in educational endeavours, v) Relating education to the working and living conditions of the people, vi) Laying special emphasis on all educational activities on science and environment.

The goal of social reconstruction through education does not remain a distant dream says a report. The Bihar Education Project (BEP) went through the processes to achieve goals. It registered appreciable progress in the problem plaguing the primary education sector in one of the largest states in the country. However it needs to be stated that much more needs to be done in Bihar as the retention levels suggest. Let's look another major state i.e., U.P's programme of Universalisation of Elementary Education.

(f) Uttara Pradesh Basic Education Programme (UPBEP)

Like Bihar Uttar Pradesh too attempted a major drive. A Project 'Education for all' prepared by the government of UP was approved for funding by the World Bank in June 1993. The progress of implementation for the last decade is reported to be satisfactory though more needs to be done. Let's get into details.

Nearly 10 years after implementation, the Uttar Pradesh Basic Education Programme appears to be showing remarkable results. Enrollment at the primary as well as upper primary school levels in the Uttara Pradesh Basic Education Programme districts has shown a major increase. At the primary level enrollment increased by 66.8% and at the upper primary level by 64 percent. If one compares girl's enrollment in project and non-project districts in UP, the increase is reported to be nearly 67% and 33.11% respectively. Improvements have also been recorded in the mid-term learning assessment conducted in 1996 in which composite mean scores for grade 5 in language improved over the baseline from **34.18** to 37.30 and mean scores from mathematics were higher in project districts as compared to the non-project districts.

Classroom activities also reflect a variety and 60% - 90% of Teachers report constructing and using teaching aids as compared to 25-60% in the baseline survey. The project has also built good capacity with the support of the state institute of Educational Management and Training which will serve as a training and resource institution for the northern region. Thus the special intervention programmes

intended for improving access, equity, retention, and quality-major goals of these programmes seem to be showing good results in major states.

(g) National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education (NP-NSPE)

One of the problems identified by policy planners for failure to retain children in schools is lack of nutritional meals. Union and states attempted to remedy the situation. NP-NSPE commonly known as mid-day meal scheme was launched on August 15, 1995. It must be stated that states like Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh have launched this programme much earlier with unidentical results. The supreme court directed the union government to implement this programme. The programme is intended to give a boost to universalization of primary education by increasing enrolment, retention and attendance, and simultaneously improving up on nutritional levels of students in primary classes (I-V). The ultimate aim under the programme is to provide wholesome cooked / processed food having a calorific value equivalent to 100gm of wheat / rice per student. Food grains (wheat / rice) at the rate of 3kgs per student per month were being given initially linked to attendance of 80% and community participation was sought. People's participation is ensured at every level like school location, micro-planning, training of core teams. Country wide reports show encouraging levels. The correlation studies linking this programme with the broad objective of the universalisation though available, are not many. However enquiries in study area chosen by researcher seem to be encouraging.

(h) Lok Jumbish Project

Lok Jumbish, a well known civil society initiative in Rajasthan. It has succeeded in setting up several new schools, non-formal education centers through systematic school mapping exercise with the help of local communities. In about a decade, 246 new primary schools 185 child labour (shikshakarmi) schools and 1016 NFE centers have been opened by the agency. The agency identified woman's education as priority area. It has set up Mahila Shikshan Vihars for providing quality education in a residential type of atmosphere to rural woman. It is reported that 6078 women members in 1611 core teams reported.

It has also initiated several innovative programmes activities like school health programme to generate awareness among the school children on health issues. Measures such as enrolling minorities to mainstream education, supply of the uniforms / free text books to schools seem to have resulted in better enrolment and retention of children, especially girls, in the schools. Low cost hostels for the benefit of tribal children also helped the cause in extending to cover 5.57 lakhs primary class children in the 4426 blocks comprising employment assurance scheme (EAS) / Revamped Public Distribution System and the lok jumbish initiatives calls for a more intensive analysis.

The project is implemented by "Lok Jumbish Parishad" an autonomous society registered under the Societies Registration Act. Decentralized management

structure is the hallmark of the UP. Lok Jumbish has been able to build partnership with the local communities.

1.8 The Role of International Agencies in Primary Education:

Strengthening of Primary Education:

(a) World Bank

Absence of a sound institutional arrangement for imparting primary education (according to a report of World Bank - Primary Education in India) is reported to be preventing India from rapid growth. In one of the reports it is stated that the country is not able to catch up with economies of the so-called Asian Tigers because of poor educational foundation. It is also stated as one of the reasons for low standard of living and high gender inequalities. While our country is at the top in the number of doctors, engineers and other high-tech personnel capable of competing with the best in the World, it may be shocking to note that average education of Indian worker is just around 2-4 years only in **the** schools.

The World Bank study stresses that making primary education compulsory is most urgent. The Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, in a collaborative research programme with the World Bank, brought out the report. It is **stated** in this report that country has the second largest education system after China with 67 million children aged 6-10 in schools. However the report noted that 32 million primary school children are not in schools. This leads one to infer that the returns on primary school education are not optimal. According to the report India's

average level of educational attainment has not yet reached the critical threshold where benefits are greatest and high economic growth rates are sustainable. What is required is policy response to reform the system to improve the educational attainment to reach an average of four to five years by the middle of next century.

It is widely known that primary education leads to better family health lowers fertility, and put breaks on population growth. It helps workers to take advantage of technological change which raises their productivity and learning.

To accommodate all eligible children in 6 to 10 age groups it is estimated that the country requires at least 1.3 million classrooms. The World Bank report is optimistic that the 80 per cent of the financial resources required will be available in the next decade. If fiscal discipline is observed by India, the study says that 80 per cent of six-year-old children will be in schools³. Banks interest in India's education raises suspicions as many hold the view that Indian nation can raise resources to meet its domestic compulsions like education for all.

In a related development the Supreme Court recently declared that for stable democracy children must be given *free and compulsory primary education*. The court ordered the authorities to ensure that compulsory education was provided to all children. The Band Mukti Morcha headed by Swami Agnivesh moved the court for abolition of child labour from U.P.'s carpet industry and to provide education, health care and dignified life for children. Observing that neglecting children is a loss to the

³ *Times of India*, (A Daily-English), April 28, 2001, p.7.

society as a whole, the two member bench in a 17 page order regretted that despite constitutional mandate children are denied access to basic and elementary education⁴

1.9 Print Media and Primary Education

Eenadu the third largest circulated daily news paper in the country organized a massive survey on status of primary education in Andhra Pradesh recently⁵. Reiterating the fact that Andhra Pradesh occupies 28th position in the literacy as per 2001 census (61.11%) it noted that in the states category 21 are before it in the rank order, a combined rank order along with union territories.

Attempting a fresh probe into the state of primary education in Andhra Pradesh the Eenadu survey selected 9813 teachers spread over 959 mandals⁶. A majority of teachers interviewed expressed dissatisfaction (70%) with the basic infrastructure facilities available in schools. Again equal number felt that curriculum prescribed for school children is irrelevant. A good number (33%) felt that the mandal resource persons are not relevant. What is interesting is that nearly 10% of teachers themselves felt that they lack commitment. More than 50% of teachers admit their children in a private school nearer to an urban area (this number touched 70% in case of Hyderabad). Around 55% teachers felt that parental difference is the main reason for low standards and quality obtaining in public schools.

⁴ *Times of India* (A Daily-English),. May 2,2002, p.7.

⁵ *Eenadu* (A Daily-Telugu),, 'District Special, Hyderabad", June 13,2005,p.2

⁶ A Mandal is a geographical unit in Andhra Pradesh headed by a Mandal Revenue Officer, Educational Officer etc. In a bid to take administration much closer to the people the erstwhile 350 odd taluks were divided into about 1200 mandals.

Of the other aspects nearly 50% respondents are of the opinion that the quality improvement programme those offered for updating knowledge levels are unimplementable.

Thus the media glare on primary education may serve as an eye opener for those interested in an honest feedback. But it is doubtful whether radical steps will be taken to remedy the situation as education system in every state is a victim of bureaucratization.

The English news papers too are responding to the situation. The Hindu some time ago in its lead page pointed out that gross enrollment ratio at the primary stage is fairly satisfactory in Andhra Pradesh, Orissa and Sikkim but is falling at upper primary stage. Further it was stated that a strong link could be established between literacy and universalisation of elementary education. If the latter is achieved, half the task is achieved. The Union Government has outlined a strategy, the salient features of which include: emphasis on retention and achievement rather than enrollment; strengthening the alternatives of schools, shifting the focus from States to districts while considering educational backwardness. It is observed that programmes meant for attainment of total literacy look-good on paper and seems to be well conceived but then the Achilles heel has been identified as the lack of sustained efforts⁷.

⁷ The Hindu (A Daily-English), May 3,2003, P.4.

1.10 Education and Development: Some Perspectives

Education is the cornerstone of political development and social development and is regarded as a principal means of improving the welfare of individuals. The Encyclopedia of Britannica defines Education as transmission of the values and accumulated knowledge of society. It increases the productive capacity of societies and their political, economic and scientific institutions. It also helps reduce poverty by increasing the value and efficiency of the labour offered by the poor and by mitigating the population, health and nutritional consequences of poverty. The social effects of education in developing countries are equally positive. According to Frederick Harbison and C.A. Myers, "Education is the key that unlocks the door to modernization"⁸. In the words of Goel, "Education affects economic development both directly and indirectly, and directly through productivity, employment, composition of labour force, division and mobility of labour etc., and indirectly through savings, limitation of the size of family and by inculcating the right kinds of attitudes and skills and by removing some of the obstacles to social change and progress"⁹. Recognising such importance of education, one of the Five Year Plan document stated that, "Education is the most important single factor in achieving rapid economic development and technological progress and in creating a social order founded on the values of freedom, social justice and equal opportunity"¹⁰.

⁸ Harbison F & Mayers. C.A., "Education, Manpower and Economic Growth - Strategies of Human Resources Development", *Oxford University Publishers*, New Delhi, 1974, p.2.

⁹ Goel S.C, "Education and Economic Growth in India", *Macmillan*, New Delhi, 1975, p. 573.

¹⁰ Government of India, Third Five Year Plan, Planning Commission, New Delhi, p. 572.

Although articulations slightly differ, all plan documents referred to the significant role of education, especially primary education.

Primary education is the most important constituent of the whole process of education policy. Primary education has two purposes -1) to produce a literate and numerate population that can deal with problems at home and at work and 2), to serve as a foundation upon which further education is built. Higher education and training need to rest on a solid foundation, which is essentially the product of the Primary Education System. In this respect K. R. Shah's observations though dated are still relevant which are directly focussed. He pointed out that, "The elementary level constitutes the base of the system of education. The super structure can be solidly created only if we pay attention at the base¹¹. Primary education has directed the positive effects on earnings, farm productivity and human fertility, as well as inter generation effects on child health, nutrition and education. In considering the effects of education on economic productivity, a wide number of studies conclude that investment in primary education ensures returns that are typically well above the opportunity cost of capital. In the early stages of growth for a developing economy, John Vaizey has seen three roles of education. First, education to supply skilled man power and technicians without whom physical capital in the country would be wasted. Second, to generate a climate for growth by giving the masses a capacity of thinking beyond their immediate needs and troubles. And the third to teach the

¹¹ Shah. K.R, "Expenditure on Elementary Education - 1950-51 to 1960-61", *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 1, No.6, 1969, p.324.

cultivators simple and elementary rural skills which will yield a small surplus over subsistence consumption and which can be the basis for physical accumulation¹². He further says that, "Education has the potential to destroy even the traditional attitudes which impedes the progress. However, in many countries, in the developing world, education systems have been ineffective in teaching students the core skills. Second, they have not provided all school-aged children particularly girls with the opportunity to attend school. As a result these primary education systems have jeopardized national efforts to build a human capital base for development".

Primary education in most of the developing countries is facing the problem of disparities in different educational levels and high rate of dropouts. Educational planners are now drawing distinction between elementary and primary education, while elementary education is offered till viii class for all those in 6-14 age group, from 1991 onwards the state and its agencies are restricting the schooling upto v class to all those in 6-11 age group children. The shift is generally attributed to paucity of resources, infrastructure besides availability of teachers. This may have to be seen in conjuncture with the liberalization, globalization and privatization policies came into force since 1991. The abridged obligations of the state even into schooling have its policy ramifications. The domain of state funded education looks limited now but still even the reduced obligation, observers feel is yet to be fully met if one goes by continuing high dropout rates in classes iv-v especially with regard to girl child education.

¹² Vaizey. J, "Economics of Education", *Penguin Publishers*, London, 1962, p. 127.

Disparities in the levels of educational development are a well-known phenomenon. Many studies have focused on the educational disparities between nations and even several states within the nation. However, inter-district disparities in educational development have not been studied depth. But such disparities pose a major problem in the process of policy formulation, and that is why many countries including India, justifiably emphasize on equity in all spheres including education at least in elementary stage.

1.11 Educational for All by 2000 AD: The New Delhi Summit

As stated, almost every Five Year Plan document highlighted the importance of role of education in economic growth and development and the need for reducing the disparities in education. A nine-nation Education summit held in December 1993 at Delhi held the view that failure of making education for all will result in the problems like social tension, health deterioration, demographic imbalance, which will ultimately hamper economic development. Policy initiatives to improve the school education are still continuing.

1.12 The 1986 Policy and New Initiatives

1986 policy an education is a water shed in giving a direction to educational development in the country. The following pronouncement bears testimony to this is, "The new policy will lay special emphasis on the removal of disparities and to equalize educational opportunities by attending to the specific needs of those who have been denied equality. An egalitarian society only can ensure success of

democracy. Equality is a principle of democracy and equal treatment before the law is guaranteed in the constitution. The problem we face today is how to bring about equality. There are gross distortions in the development of education in India today, the most glaring one being the disproportionate acquisition of educational benefits by some sections of the society leading to formation of asymmetries". Nearly two decades of implementation of 1986 policy show that the deprived received far less than the privileged few. This is partly because the social structure acts as a deterrent in the universal spread of education and partly because the over-arching economic inequality prevents the relative capacities of the advantaged and disadvantaged to profit from the opportunities that are available. Educational distribution relatively deprived rural population from urban. Again the dimension of disparity increases by the existing inequity between schedule caste and others and among male and female. Educational disparities are found to be wider within the states than among the states i.e. the inter-district disparity is very significant. For instance in one of the most educationally backward state with literacy levels much lower than All India average of 64 percentage plus, Andhra Pradesh is struggling to reach the national norms. Literacy levels of a number of districts poses a challenge.

1.13 Problem Facing Universalisation of Primary Education

Again let's look at the possible reasons for low achievement in the primary education. A very eminent educationist, advisor to the Government of India, Sri J.P.Naik, Member Secretary of Education Commission (1964-66) attributed the failure to five reasons, these include: "The first, the decision to separate education of

adults from that of children. We have accorded the lowest priority to adult education, spread of literacy, or even non-formal adult education which receives less than one percent of total educational expenditure.¹³ The causes of non-enrollment are extremely few in the literate or educated families and they are many in the illiterate or uneducated families.

The second reason for our failure is the wrong tool we are using to spread education among the masses. Our existing system of elementary education has a single point of entry (class-1 at the age say 5 or 6) sequential promotions from class to class at the end of each year, and an obligation on children to put in full-time attendance. All these years we have been depending almost exclusively on a single point entry and a full time, sequential and institutional system of instruction. Such a system can be availed of only by children who come from well to do families and can attend schools on a regular basis. But the bulk of our children come from poor families and is required to work. Many of them prefer to join at a much later age. Lack of programmes as part of time education, multiple entries, and etc. have contributed to the failure for bringing all the children under the fold of education.

"The third important reason for our failure is non-involvement of the people."¹⁴ Developmental programmes like universal elementary education, which

¹³ Tilak J.B.G. "Public Expenditure on Education in Andhra Pradesh - A Review of Trends, Issues and Problems", *NIEPA*, 1998, New Delhi.

¹⁴ J.P.Naik, "Universal Elementary Education in India" *New Frontiers of Education*, ed Mani Jacob, Vol. VII, No.3. July-sep, 1977, p.94.

affect every family and almost every individual, can **not** be handled by bureaucracy alone.

"To awaken parents to realize the value of education, to prepare them to make the sacrifices for the purpose, to sweep children into schools in a mass movement, to galvanize communities into action, to make schools more meaningful, to tap community resources for educational purposes and to create and maintain a mass movement without which such massive and mass-oriented programmes do not succeed, is essentially a political task and has to be attempted on a political basis." "The chances of the programmes success are rather bleak unless we realize this and take the necessary steps.

"The fourth major reason for failure is our inability to improve the living standards of the masses. A programme of universal education can not be built on the basis of abject poverty or in condition of inhuman existence. A programme of eradicating poverty ought, therefore, to have been accorded the highest priority and developed side by side with that of universal elementary education. But this was not done as programmes for eradication of poverty do not insist on beneficiary being literate nor they explicitly state that only those families will be considered for inclusion in state sponsored poverty alleviation programmes who send compulsorily **their** children to the schools. It is **not** necessary even now that a prospective beneficiary under any anti - poverty programme. The guidelines governing anti - poverty programmes do not even mention the need for being literate under

¹⁵Ibid,P.95.

'desirable' conditions. Infact it is observed by the researcher that being classified as a literate perhaps prompts bureaucracy to drop/ eliminate from the list of those eligible to receive state assistance towards poverty alleviation programmes. Therefore JP Naik's observation that removal of poverty ought to have been equal importance in programmes for popularizing elementary education must be seen in the light of later development where in poverty alleviation programmes are planned and implemented irrespective of the literacy status of the beneficiary or his/her children's educational status.

The fifth important reason for the failure of the programme is the cooling down in the missionary zeal of educated intelligentsia. The educated classes of India and other elite groups are now more interested in their own advancement and in their own welfare than in the well being of the masses. It is obvious for a major programme for the development of the common people like the provision of universal elementary education can not succeed in such an environment.

The common reasons given for our failure are two. They are sudden and large increase in population and lack of resources. When article 45 was introduced in the constitution, it was thought every child will be provided education if we enroll 560 lakhs children. At the end of the fifth plan, we were able to enroll about 998 lakhs of children and yet we are still far from reaching the goal.

The poverty **of** average family, especially **in rural** areas, has been another great obstacle to universal **enrollment**. **Millions of children are by force of**

circumstances potential wage earners right from the childhood days. Enrolling children from poor and weaker sections of the community viz., scheduled caste, scheduled tribes and landless agriculture labors is one of the problems facing universalisation of primary education. Most of guardians, being illiterate themselves, do not understanding the importance of education. They regard the child as an economic unit and hence they considered it better to engage the child in labor than to send him to school. The spread of compulsory education is further hindred by the caste system, untouchability, child mamages, dogmatism and many other social factors.

A majority of publications, unpublished documents cite following reasons for the shortfalls in the enrollment of girls: a) economic backwardness of the rural community b) lack of proper social attitudes in the rural areas for the education of girls c) lack of educational facilities in rural areas d) Lack of women teachers, e) Lack of proper supervision and guidance due to inadequate women personnel in the inspectorate, f) Lack of proper incentives to parents and children.

To overcome all these problems we will have to think afresh, fix a definite time span decide a clear cut policy , take the programme on war footing and stop not our effort till the goal is reached. There is enough evidence in the literature about the importance of education in the context of development of a society. Noble laureate Amartya Sen and well known economist Jean Dreze (1995)¹⁶ and Tilak (1997)

¹⁶ Dreze, Jean & Amartya Sen, "India-Economic Development and Social Opportunity", *Oxford University Press*, New Delhi, 1996.

¹⁷ have amply brought out the impact of education on social and economic development of any country. While discussing the value of education Sen and Dreze have emphasized the five distinct ways in which education is relevant all to human beings. These include: a) intrinsic importance: the opportunity to have education of great value for a person's freedom, b) Instrumental process roles: other than just being educated, education also helps a person to pursue many things which may generate more income, c) Instrumental social roles: increased literacy helps to promote public discussion on social needs and in turn can help expand the facilities for the public. It also contributes for the better utilization of the available services d) Instrumental process roles: the process of schooling can have many more benefits like elimination of child labor and facilities interaction with others, e) Empowerment and distributive roles: greater literacy helps to reduce gender based inequality and to resist oppression enabling the disadvantaged groups to organize themselves politically.

Thus the value of education as an important tool of human development has been well brought out. The impact of education on other spheres of human activity and thereby the need for investment in education was emphasized by a scholar in economics of education now with National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA), one of the think tanks as educational policy in India J.B.G.Tilak (1998). Elaborating the need for investment in education Tilak opines

¹⁷ J.B.G.Tilak, "Public Expenditure on Education in Andhra Pradesh-A Review of Trends, Issues and Problems" *NIEPA*, New Delhi, 1998,

that no nation goes bankrupt by investing in education of her people. To all those skeptics about lack of resources for education the above serves a useful purpose.

Again the need for universalisation of primary education has been repeatedly stressed in a number of independent in 90's studies. A recent study on Basic Education in India conducted by the PROBE¹⁸ the relevant parts of the PROBE reports at primary education in four states-Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, UP, and Rajasthan. These four states are popularly known as BIMARU states based on a sample of 188 villages, selected randomly. The study includes 195 government and 41 private schools. Teachers, parents and children studying in the sample schools were interviewed. The total sample includes 1,221 households, 2820 (6-14 years children), and 650 government and 186 private school teachers. The team gathered a number of arguments in support of Universal Elementary Education; some of the important points are: 1) Universal elementary education is a constitutional directive and has to be regarded as a fundamental right. Other rights such as right to personal liberty may be considered as part of the right to education. The team believes that the constitutional argument alone clinches the case for considering universal elementary education as an essential social goal. 2) Popular demand; the team felt that denial of implementation of universal elementary education is a form of contempt for popular aspirations as their survey indicated a massive popular demand for schooling. 3) Human capital; the third argument is **that** education is pertinent for economic success. The case for a broader view of the value of education does not entail a

¹⁸ "Public Report on Basic Education in India", PROBE team, *Oxford University Press*, New Delhi, 1999.

refusal of economic benefits. 4) Joy of learning; children who are taught in a supportive environment enjoy the schooling experience the friends, the play and the study. But the right to education has to be understood as a right education of a certain quality. 5) Individual well-being; education facilitates a whole range of activities that individuals would like to value for their own well-being apart from economic returns or the joy of learning. 6) Social progress; education is of value not only for the person who acquires it but also for others. When a young person from a deprived community acquires good education his or her abilities often help the whole community. An educated mother is more likely to send her children to school so that the benefits of education are compounded across generations Widespread education also helps to resolve social problems and promotes social progress. 7) political participation ; real democracy is a mirage as long as a large part of the population remains excluded from the political process which is caused by widespread illiteracy, 8) Social justice; India has a long history of social segregation based on caste, class and gender. The social segregation coupled with illiteracy has identified the social disparities and powerlessness to fight the injustice. Education, undoubtedly, is an important tool of self-defense.

Meanwhile individual initiatives in the universalisation of education particularly upto primary education received a kind of impetus with the strong arguments questioning poverty - education correlation. In an important initiative entitled 'Back to school' movement the dropout pupils and pushed into child labour are pulled out from the yoke of labour and pushed into structured and unstructured

schooling system. Shantha Sinha an eminent social worker and professor of political science University of Hyderabad through a voluntary organization, Mamidipudi Venkatarangaiah Foundation started a major initiative of identifying the child labour in and around Ranga Reddy district of Andhra Pradesh. According to a report published by MVF nearly 2.5 lakhs children of different age group were offering a capsule of missed schooling and were admitted to the eligible class in the schools located in their respective villages. The success of MVF in offering an alternative schooling improved the ecology of schooling beginning with enrollment, retention, and quality. These three because the objectives of the internationally funded DPEP. The precursor to the DPEP in fact is such innovative interventions in Andhra Pradesh and Rajasthan with slight modifications here and there. Professor Shantha Sinha was awarded Padmashri by Government of India and selected for Meghasay Award for her outstanding contribution in the field of education broadly classified to come under social work. Shantha Sinha in her impressive article 'child labour and education' discusses her experiment at length the problem of child labour and how it can be tackled through better education. The official figure of the number of child labourers is around at 17 million of which 2 million is engaged in hazardous occupations. It is stated that there is a need for a relook at the estimate of the number of children working as child labour. The figure of nearly 74 million was considered as inaccurate. Officially it is stated that leaves another 57 million children who are neither going to school nor to work. They are referred as 'nowhere children or missing' and a large number of girl children fall in this category. Shantha Sinha

views that formal education, especially in the formative years of a child in the age group of 5-11 years has an intrinsic value cannot be compensated by any other means. Hence it is suggested that the emphasis should be on motivation of parents and the mobilizing of community at large,¹⁹ than lumping all arguments under poverty.

Drawing on many years of experience of working with child labour in rural Andhra Pradesh she also argues that 'parents do want their children to be educated and further stated that citing poverty as a limiting factor is highly overrated.'²⁰

In government schools fee is low and we found no evidence of non-fee payments being demanded from items such as clean clothes, slates and books but even these are not high given the highly informal mode of operation of small village schools (uniforms, for instance are not required).The opportunity cost of children time is certainly an important consideration for some parents but school hours are short, and schooling can be combined with a substantial contribution to the household economy at other times. The point is that the willingness of parents to bear these costs such as they are and to coax their children into going to school may depend crucially on the quality of the schooling.²¹ On dropouts too a number studies are conducted. The following report gives an overview.

¹⁹ Shantha Sinha: "Child Labour and Education", Seminar, New Delhi, February 1999.

²⁰ Shantha Sinha "Child Labour and Educational Policy in India" CSD Paper Series1, *Centre for Sustainable Development*, LBSNAA, Musson, 1998.

²¹ Jean Dreze & Amartya Sen (Ed), "India's Development: Selected Regional Perspectives", *Oxford University Press*, New Delhi, 1996, p.82.

1.14 The Problem of Dropouts

Another important issue related to primary education is high dropout, which needs serious attention. Looking at the problem, it is clear that the purpose of primary education, which is to help the children to go up the sequential ladder of the educational system and make them literate, has little meaning to the rest of the majority of the children, who cannot proceed beyond class-V²². So the low rate of retention is considered to be the hurdle in the way to achieve the objective of Education For All 1993 Summit, i.e. Education for all by 2000 AD. The backwardness of it is a manifestation of desperate level of socio-economic development. In India, it was considered that the developmental process witnessed during the colonial period contributed to the accentuation of these disparities. Since time immemorial, education and development have been considered mutually inter-linked processes.

One of the objectives of the EFA - 1993 Summit is "removing the disparities through specific policy measures. These imbalances raise serious problem in the context of universalisation of elementary education. The National Policy on Education (1986) has observed, "Education in India stands at the cross-roads today.

1.15 Significance of Education:

Coming back to general perception about the significance education it may be stated education has been defined as an instrument for bringing social change.

²² Rao Amiya, "Primary Education Problems and Prospects", *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol. 15, No. 10, 1980, p.7.

Education determines mankind's future and the happiness of people. Experience has shown that its nature has been changing not only with the passage of time but also with the place and location. Education is of special significance of people emerging from long periods of bondage into self-rule and sovereign democracy. Education bears different meanings for different regions and under different political setup, which may mean something in a rural surrounding and something in an industrialized area. It is also sensitive to the type political ideology prevailing among different people. Even countries with many affinities tend to differ substantially in the theory and practice of education. This leads one to conclude that although there might be something multiple in the broader dissension of education, local demands and local conditions do have their impact and it is certainly not possible to treat educational practices as an 'important commodity'. The question that arises here is whether education can be acquired only in a school or in village? Though the whole world now believes in what Mahatma Gandhi said that, education begins with birth and ends only with death or what is otherwise called life long education,²³ contribution of education have to be seen from a particular dimension.

As such the significance of pre-school and post school years as well as the importance of the role of society has gained sufficient emphasis. One reason, for the growing belief in education is that we are realizing more and more that a welfare state needs an educated democracy with a sound sense of citizenship.

Education helps to develop **the** human beings in three aspects, firstly it is **the**

²³ All India Educational Directory, *All India Directories Publishers*, Chandigarh, 1972, p. 1.

acquisition of certain amount of knowledge; secondly it is requisition of culture, and Thirdly; it can be attainment of a suitable profession or national service if one wants to put it in more philosophical terms.

Education needs to be transformed into a powerful instrument and closely linked to national development. It must also be primarily oriented to the masses of Indian people who are still below the poverty line, create a new self-awareness among them, and by realizing their productive capacities enable them to participate effectively in nation-building. Whatever its value as seen by many thinkers, the gap between the intended objectives and actual achievements demand, attention of public policy students. New interventions have to be studied in depth for policy corrections. This prompted the researcher to select the topic.

1.16 Need for a Study

As already stated, the 2001 census reports indicate low percentage of literacy. International agencies like UNDP through HDI show poor rating of India. The commitments and provisions made in Indian constitution and different committee reports, on education point out low achievement in this section. However Indian government continues to initiate policies to strengthen elementary education. Another policy initiative was taken in 1998 to make UEE a success. All those in age group of 6-14 years are proposed to be covered through UEE with the support of non-state sectors like Department for International Development and World Bank, Since equal opportunity and universalization of education at primary stage is the

motto of Indian democracy, the first stage of education i.e., primary stage call for more and more studies. Questions are raised as to why it was not successful in India. Further an evaluation of interventions like DPEP in low literacy states like Andhra Pradesh offers a challenge.

1.17 Scenario in Andhra Pradesh

It is already mentioned elsewhere in this chapter Andhra Pradesh is one among the nine most educationally backward States in India. The total population is above 7 crores according to the 2001 census. Nearly 7% of the total Indian population, lives in Andhra Pradesh spread over 23 districts. According to 2001 census about 61 percent of population literate. The percentage was 44.11 % in 1991. The state lags behind the all- India average of 64%. An interesting feature is that there are some districts in Andhra Pradesh whose educational development is as high as that of Kerala's literacy. Paradoxically there are districts whose educational status measured in terms of literacy is as low as that of Rajasthan. Again there exists disparities between rural and urban areas in the field of elementary education. From 2001 census it is clear that in Andhra Pradesh, urban areas registered 75 per cent of literacy and while in rural areas it is just 30 per cent. Considering the dropout rates, around 70 per cent of the enrolled students leave the school before completing the primary stage and around 85 per cent leave before they complete secondary level. As high wastage rate is a threat to universalization of elementary education, an evaluation of current trends would be in order. The unevenness of districts in terms of literacy itself calls for an innovative probe. It is a challenge to a student of policy

analysis to study the processes of implementation of a new intervention aimed at universalisation of elementary education in Andhra Pradesh as a significant number of children especially in 6-14 years are out of the school system.

It is further challenging to study the intervention as a massive grant was obtained by government of Andhra Pradesh in 1998 to for the first since the formation of the state to implement the programme in 19 districts. For a student of policy analysis a study of processes of implementation offers an opportunity to understand how a public policy on universalisation of elementary education falling in the sphere of development administration gets implemented by a regulating administrative structure. For it needs to be stated that the DPEP through a new structure called special project directorate, headed by an All India Service officer was given overall responsibility. Further it needs to be stated almost all the personnel working in DPEP establishment are deputed from school education or hired from departments other than education.

The DPEP a highly visible and internationally funded project is headed by an officer of Indian administration service. To the students of policy research the Rs.720 crore intervention calls for intensive analysis. Hence the research intends to study the impact of this intervention. The following are the broad objectives of the study.

1.18 Objectives of the Study:

The study in an attempt to evaluate the achievement of District Primary Education Programme. The specific objectives are:

- To study the processes of implementation of District Primary Education Programme [DPEP] in terms of institutional arrangements.
- To review the progress of District Primary Education Programme [DPEP] in three mandals i.e. Durgi, Mangalagiri, and Tenali in Guntur district in quantitative terms as also qualitative terms.
- To study the causes for low enrollment among SC/ST and girls and suggest possible remedies.

Table: 1.2
Literacy: District-wise in Andhra Pradesh

Sl. No.	District	1991			2001		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Srikakulam	49.14	23.52	36.22	67.90	44.19	55.94
2	Vizianagaram	45.93	22.47	34.19	63.00	40.73	51.82
3	Vishakhapatnam	56.13	34.60	45.51	68.84	49.99	59.45
4	East Godavari	55.32	42.26	48.79	69.97	61.00	65.49
5	West Godavari	59.75	46.98	53.38	78.43	69.45	73.95
6	Krishna	60.54	45.54	53.17	74.57	65.05	69.91
7	Guntur	56.54	35.85	46.35	71.32	54.17	62.80
8	Prakasam	53.14	27.06	40.30	69.78	45.60	57.88
9	Nellore	58.04	36.99	47.61	74.45	57.24	65.90
10	Chittoor	62.61	36.44	49.75	78.29	56.48	67.46
11	Cuddapah	63.14	32.35	48.12	76.98	50.76	64.02
12	Ananthapur	55.92	27.61	42.18	68.94	43.87	56.69
13	Kurnool	53.24	26.04	39.97	67.36	41.07	54.43
14	Mahaboobnagar	40.80	18.03	29.58	57.87	32.83	45.53
15	Raga Reddy	60.43	36.91	49.07	75.02	57.03	66.31
16	Hyderabad	78.90	63.56	71.52	84.11	73.67	79.04
17	Medak	45.15	19.25	32.41	65.52	40.68	53.24
18	Nizamabad	47.33	21.35	34.18	66.27	40.57	53.26
19	Adilabad	45.05	20.60	32.96	65.56	41.38	53.51
20	Kanmnagar	50.79	23.37	37.17	67.86	44.19	56.00
21	Warangal	51.98	26.08	39.30	70.01	46.54	58.41
22	Khammam	50.04	30.53	40.50	67.04	48.16	57.72
23	Nalgonda	50.53	24.92	38.00	70.19	45.07	57.84
	Andhra Pradesh	55.13	32.72	44.09	70.85	51.17	61.11

Source: Registrar General Census of Andhra Pradesh 2001.

1.19 Area of Study

Guntur with its literacy rate 62.80 percent as per 2001 census is selected for the study as it has all the features of a district in the medium range. It offers both a challenge and an opportunity for academic study. Guntur is occupying ninth place among the 23 districts. The district has the potential to reach the national average in

literacy. The impact of the programme will be interesting to study as there is scope for improvement. Any improvement in literacy will have cascading impact on the development processes including a general increase in the number of those seeking admission into higher levels like plus two degree etc.

1.20 Methodology

As stated the objective of the study is to understand the processes involved in the implementation of new intervention in education i.e., District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) in Guntur District of the state of Andhra Pradesh. An attempt is made to evaluate the intervention in terms of four specified goals i.e. Access, Retention, Achievement, and Quality. Study of these key indicators of DPEP's intervention constitute core. The selected variables include: Total enrollment rate, girls and enrollment ratio percentage of SC and ST students to the total enrollment under access, retention rate - pupil teacher's ratio and girl's percentage to the total enrollment at primary level having a bearing on retention. How many moved from class one to five (covering both achievement and retention) as also possible impact of the training etc on quality. The cumulative effects of the access, retention and achievement are worth studying.

Validation of census data to obtain the information on number of school going children in the 6-11 years age group in the selected mandals is a formidable challenge faced by the researcher. Single age group census are not available till May 2005. Although DPEP administration has this data through household survey, there

appear to be a gap in the children of this age group. There appears to be underestimation of number of out of children. To satisfy the "estimated" number for 100 percent enrollment records appear to have been made ready. However the researcher went beyond the DPEP's enumerations and tried to accurately figure out the probable number of eligible children for enrollment. Had 2001 census single year age figures are available it would have served the purpose. Even after five years these figures are yet to be released. The researcher is rather compelled to go for approximation based on 1991 census taking into consideration the following.

- a) The single year age data provided by the Registrar General Census of India from census has its own limitations because of as '*age heaping*' of digit preference by the respondents.
- b) The data from census have been '*smoothened*' by rigorous demographic techniques.
- c) Taking these smoothened single year child population, the mandal level children in the age group have been estimated. These stood the test and are very close approximations in the age distribution of population given the present trends in population growths.

However the estimations for subgroups i.e., caste-wise in the population have not been done because it is very difficult to estimate subgroup level age distributions in the changing scenario of fertility in different socio-economic groups.

As already stated primary sources of the study includes questionnaire, interviews with teachers, students and other managerial cadre in both conventional school and DPEP School through appropriate tools.

Secondary sources include published records, reports containing information indicating total enrollment rate, literacy in each Mandal, number of institutions, girls and boys enrollment ratio, retention rate, quality of primary education, teacher - pupil ratio and girls and boys, proportion of SC/ST/BC to the total enrollment at primary level.

1.21 Selection of Sample: Mandal-wise, Village-wise and School-wise

Guntur district is divided into 57 mandals. The researcher selected three Mandals i.e. Durgi, Mangalagiri, and Tenali in Guntur district. These three Mandals are selected based on their location and in terms of development. Location-wise, the three Mandals in which sample Schools are drawn are distributed over three distinct Revenue divisions. Tenali is located in Tenali revenue division, Durgi Mandal is located in Narasaraopet revenue division, and Mangalagiri is located in Guntur division. It has been decided to select 10 Schools in each Mandal on the basis of random sampling. Thus the total sample works out to 30 Schools out of a total of 118 schools in three mandals, 30 schools i.e., 174th of the total schools constitute the sample. Further details of sample as follows:

Salient Features of Study Area

Name of the study area	Guntur district
Literacy percentage	62.80%
State average	61.11%
National average	64.5%
Total no of schools in Guntur district	2888
No. of mandals	57
No. of mandals selected for the sample	3
Total no. of schools in the sample mandals	159 recognised, 207 unrecognized
Selected for the study	30 only recognised (sample)
Total no of children enrolled in Guntur district	354889
Total no of 6-11 age group children in all three sample mandals	46839
Total no of children in the three mandals enrolled in selected schools for the study	6860

Thus the sample of the study consists of three mandals selected on the basis of multi-level sampling. 30 schools spread over 24 villages figure in the sample. The field work conducted from 2002-2003. All the Head Masters and Head Mistresses and teachers working in the 24 villages constitute the sample.

The study is divided into 6 chapters. The following is the scheme of chapter division.

1.22 Chapterisation

- Chapter 1 deals with the introduction on universalization of elementary education as a policy and priorities. And also deals with various earlier interventions on primary education in India and state of Andhra Pradesh.
- Chapter 2 Educational Development: Institutional Arrangement & Review of Literature.
- Chapter 3 District Primary Education Programme (DPEP): An Overview.
- Chapter 4 Guntur District: A Profile
- Chapter 5 Results and Discussion.
- Chapter 6 Conclusion.

What follows is a presentation of educational development in the country.

historical, cultural, political, and socio-economic for low achievement. It is necessary to review books, documents, reports (published and unpublished) to understand the reasons for the educational backwardness.

Higher education enrollment ratio is one of the lowest compared to developed and developing countries. According to one estimate while 16 crore children enroll in class 1, less than 90 lakhs reach higher education. If this trend itself is discouraging, scenario obtaining in the primary education sector leaves much to be desired and it demands heightened intervention by the state.

A quick look at the government of India's web report documents the following.

- (i) For the last 50 years a number of policy initiatives were taken to achieve universalisation of elementary education. A national resolve was expressed through Directive Principles of State Policy in 1950.
- (ii) 'Free And Compulsory Education Act' was passed in 2000 to ensure the goal of universal elementary education.
- (iii) Between 1950 and 2000 a number of policy initiatives were taken by the Indian state including Operation Blackboard (OBD) 1986 and launching District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) in 1998.
- (iv) National leaders and statesman like Gandhi, Tagore, Tilak, took a number of steps including "naai talim" to develop education.
- (v) Still there is way to go for achieving the critical minimum in the area of primary education.

(a) Lack of Policy on Inclusive Education: 1904

The Government of India Resolution of 1904 contained the following statement: "Four out of the five villages were without school, three boys out of four grew up without education and only one girl out of four attended any kind of school, the higher educationist pursued with an exclusive view to enter government service and in pursuit of English education." The statement was made more than a century. What needs to be reiterated is that the vision of national leaders is yet to be realized even after 100 years.

(b) Demand for compulsory primary education: 1906

The Indian leaders recognised the importance of primary education and formed the National Education Commission in 1906 and began to agitate for the introduction of compulsory universal primary education. In 1910, Gokhale introduced a bill in the imperial legislative council commanding thus, "A beginning may be made in the direction of making elementary education free and compulsory". Later, during the period 1919-22, partial control of central education department was handed over to Indian province under the provision of the Govt. of India Act, 1919. Primary education began to receive serious attention of the government only in the later period.

¹Mali, M.G., "Education in Masses of India", *Mittal Publishing House*, New Delhi, 1989, p. 23.

(c) Dominance of Private Initiatives: 1930's

In spite of the attempts made by different committees, primary education remained mostly in the hands of private agencies. In 1936-37, 62% of primary schools in India were private schools; 37% local board schools, and just 1% government schools. During the period from 1890-1920, the expenditure on primary education remained more or less a constant proportion of the total educational expenditure from local board and government funds, namely 30% to 35%.

Owing to the continuous neglect of primary education for a country, the Central Board of Education, in 1994, confessed that it is unconceivable that within a reasonable period, a real national system could be developed or evolved from what now exists not by methods hitherto followed but order that something better may be substituted. The report also pointed out the need for the adoption of sustained policy of free universal and compulsory education for building up a national system of education.

(d) Independent India & Compulsions of Free Education

After 1947, on attainment of independence, the universalization of elementary education was emphasized not only by the constitutional fathers but also by all the leaders of the country. When India became free, almost 85% of our population was illiterate and only about 31% of children in the age group of 6-11 went to schools.

The Indian constitution, recognized the significance of education for bringing out social transformation, guaranteed the provision of education to the citizens under the Articles 29, 30, 45 and 46. Further the directive principles of state policy stated that (DPSP) "The State shall endeavor to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this constitution, free *and compulsory education for all children* until they complete the age of 14 years". It remains to be fulfilled even in 2005.²

Further with regard to education of the SC and ST, the constitution (Article 46) further envisaged that, "The State shall promote, with special care, the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people and particularly SC and ST, and shall protect them from social injustice and all other of exploitation"³.

Many commissions constituted by the Government of India over a period however long back recognized the importance of education in national development and made important recommendations. For instance, the first Indian Education Commission appointed after the independence was headed by - D & Kothan (1964-66), in its report, stated that, "the destiny of India is being shaped, in her classroom"⁴. The report has further stated that in a world, based on science and

² Bill on Free & Compulsory Education

³ Government of India, The Constitution of India, Delhi, 1949, Article 46, p. 20.

⁴ Kothan Commission Report, "Education and National Development", *Ministry of Education* (HRD), GOI, New Delhi, 1964-66, p. 1.

technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare **and** security of the people.

The National Education Policy (NEP) further reiterated strong political will and commitment to the universalization of elementary education. The Programme of Action (PoA) for implementing the NEP has observed, "NEP gives an unqualified priority to universalization of elementary education. The change thrust in not **our** provision for access and enrollment, but also retention of children up to 14 years". The policy also called for improvement in the quality of education provided.

(e) Mechanism for Strengthening the Policy

The PoA makes pointed reference to the need for stepping up efforts for achievement of goal, for example between 1950-51 and 2000-2001; the number of primary schools increased from 2,09,671 to 8,58,392 and the number of upper primary schools from 13,596 to 1,98,004. The enrollment increased from 192 lakhs to 991 lakhs at primary level and at upper primary level from 31 lakhs to 333 lakhs, an unacceptable number of children are not having access to primary schools naturally alerted the policy planners. The figure is around 50% of the children without primary education. Nearly 1/3 **of** 6 lakhs schools in late 80's have only one teacher.⁵

⁵ Government of India Selected Educational Statistics, *Ministry of Education (HRD)*. New Delhi, 2001, p.33.

(f) How Literacy Rates Grew

In terms of literacy, India is still among the backward countries in the world, though there is a remarkable increase of literacy rate from 18% in 1951 to 64% in 2001. According to 1991 census, only 52.11% are literates. The gender gap is glaring: 63.9%, for males and only 39.4% are females. This shows a wide disparity in literacy between males and females. Comparing the literacy rate between 1991 and 2001, one can say that the literacy rate improved remarkably. There is no doubt that in 1991, 352 million persons are literate, but simultaneously, one must notice existence of 324 million non literates too. The growth of literacy rate by 8.5% during 1981-91 decade marks a slight improvement over the 1971-81 decade, during which literacy improved by about 7%. Would not be possible to remove illiteracy before 2040 AD.⁶ it needs to be stated that India has to attain total literacy as per millennium goals sounds impractical.

2.2 India vis-a-vis Other Countries: Literacy Front

"India would have the largest concentration of illiterate population in the world by year 2000 A.D., the country will have 54.8% of the illiterate population in the age group of 15-19 years. In absolute term, there were illiterates in 1991 (324 million) than in the time of independence (300 million) mainly due to population explosion as per demographers observation.

⁶ Census of India, "Provisional Population Total Rural-Urban Distribution", Series 1, Paper-2, New Delhi, 2001.

2.3 Progressive Increase in Illiterates

Despite the thrust on universalization of primary education and adult education for the last 50 years, the number of illiterates in the country progressively increased all through in percentage terms the picture is okay. According to the World Bank estimates of early 90's, "India would have the largest concentrate of the illiterate population in the world by the year 2000 A.D. The country will have 54.8% of world illiterate population in the age group of 15-19"⁷. Thus, it indicates the urgency and importance for removal of illiteracy in the context of taking the country to the threshold of twenty first century. Removal of illiteracy presents two sides of the coin. Adult education and elementary education. This thesis is more concerned with formal institutional perspective about the removal of illiteracy i.e., through primary education.

2.4 National Policies on Education: 1968,1986,1992 and After

After the draft policy of 1979, it was only in 1985, a fresh attempt was made to evolve a policy on education to suit the changing requirements of society. 'Challenge of Education' - a document - issued by the Ministry of Education, Government of India, is a confession of unmet promises made earlier through policy pronouncements. The document, released for public debate, makes a critical assessment of the education system in India⁸. It also proposed for evolving a new

⁷ Census of India Challenges of Education: A Policy Perspective, *Ministry of Education QIRD*), New Delhi, 1985, p. 24.

⁸ Challenge of Education: A Policy Perspective, *Ministry of Education (HRD)*, GOI, New Delhi, 1985.

policy on education. Based on this document, the Government of India formulated a fresh policy entitled the National Policy on Education, 1986. Some of the aspects of the new education policy, which are relevant for the present study, are briefly presented here⁹.

This policy has emphasized, among many other things, on the continuation of a national system of education with 10+2+3 structure. The national system of education is to be based on a national curriculum framework, which contains a common core along with other components. The new policy also emphasized on the removal of disparities and equalizing educational opportunities and on the need for a special focus on the educational development of Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribes and women. It gave greater importance to adult education, eradication of illiteracy, particularly in the 15-35 age groups. It emphasized on involving central and state governments, educational institutions, voluntary organizations and use of mass media like radio and TV in the task of eradication of illiteracy.

The new policy gave importance to launching a systematic programme of non-formal education for school drop-outs and working children who cannot attend formal schools. Use of modern technological aids to improve the non-formal education programme was also emphasized. The new policy also laid stress on an integrated approach to early childhood care and pre-primary education. The new

⁹ National Policy on Education, *Ministry of HRD*, GOI, Department of Education, New Delhi, 1986.

education policy, thus, resolved that by 1995, "all children would be provided free and compulsory education up to 14 years of age".

2.5 Debate on Common School Vs. Navodaya Vidyalayas

Another important area, where the new policy gave greater importance and attracted the attention of many people is the establishment of pace setting schools. The policy mentioned that these schools will be established in different districts of the country to help children with special talent. The broad aim is to serve the objective of excellence coupled with equity and social justice. This proposal led to the establishment of Navodaya Schools in many parts of the country. This is more attractive lot of criticism from left parties on the ground that the Navodaya Vidyalayas promote elitist culture. Certain state government even opposed it. Some of the other aspects that the new policy emphasized were vocationalization of higher secondary education, strengthening of open learning system at higher education level, delinking degree from jobs, development of the new pattern of the rural university on the lines of Mahatma Gandhi's ideas on education, encouraging technical and management education, use of modern educational technology and establishment of District Institute of Education and Training (DIET), to organize, preserve and in-service courses for elementary school teachers and for the personnel working in non-formal and adult education. After discussing the educational policy, we shall further examine the practical problems faced by the Indian education system.

The National Policy on Education (1986) has been slightly modified in the light of feedback. National Development Council has set up a subgroup on Literacy in April 1992 in order to give a boost to it. In the Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97), emphasis is given to the universalization of elementary education both through full-time formal school and part-time non-formal arrangement, particularly for the working children and girls. Policy pronouncements have been made on to expand early childhood education by attaching pre-primary schools to selected primary schools and through involvement of the voluntary agencies. Towards this end, measures such as the provision of primary schools or alternatives such as non-formal education centers within a walking distance of one kilometer to every child, opening of part-time schools with appropriate adjustments and modifications to enter to the specific requirements of children in hilly, desert, tribal and inaccessible areas are envisaged¹⁰. Efforts are also made for diversification through vocational training as well as modernization of the content and process of education. Other important aspects of the strategy include, making adequate provision for free ships and scholarships to poor and meritorious students, particularly those from Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribes and economically weaker sections.

Several political developments led to reappraisal of public policies on education.

¹⁰ Economic Survey, New Delhi, Chapter 9, 1992-93, p. 126.

For instance the VP Singh government at the centre announced a review of national policy on education. The Ramamurthi Committee Report on Education stated that, "continued high level of investment in higher education is contradictory to the results of studies on returns on education, which have brought out that lower levels of education have a higher average rate of return and lower levels of education contributes more to income distribution and reduction of poverty, besides economic growth"¹¹.

The congress which came back to power in 1991 attempted to reverse the attempts at reviewing national policy on education. The Narasimha Rao government appointed Sri N Janardhana Reddy the then chief minister of Andhra Pradesh as chairperson to review the report of Sri Acharya Ramamurthi. The Review Committee Report was presented as CAGE (Central Advisory Board of Education, Government of India) committee report 1992. It laid greater emphasis on the thrust areas of 1968 and 1986 policy on education and resolved to go a head with its policy directions including continuance and expansion of Navodaya Vidyalayas over which the left parties made an issue during the VP Singh regime.

Thus politics of education reforms influenced policy direction. Besides the review committee identified several policy priority areas to be included the Eighth Plan especially for attaining the goal of universalization of elementary education. Among other things, the committee emphasized universal enrollment, recommended

¹¹ Ramamurthi, "Towards an Enlightened Human Society", Report of the Committee for Review of the National Policy on Education, New Delhi, 1986, p. 154.

setting up of primary schools within one kilometer of walking distance for all children and suggested that non-formal education centre be opened for school dropouts, working children and girls, who cannot attend school. It was recommended that the Operation Black Board be extended to upper primary level and expansion of school level committee to include women and teachers.

Despite two national policies, study on impact of national policy on education show non-participation of poor in education. On educational deprivation Kiran Bhatt¹² published an intensity piece in 1998. The author reported that there has been an exaggerated emphasis on child labour and inadequate motivation among poor parents as major obstacles for achieving universalisation of elementary education. On the other hand the author reports that it is direct costs of schooling that is responsible for educational deprivation. Thus this study brought out clearly inability of poor to take advantage of policy on universal access.

There is a considerable debate on the impact of policy for promotion of primary education. The following reviews inform us about the interventions that took place in Andhra Pradesh and Bihar. In an interesting paper entitled Primary Education: Progress and Constraints, Ratna Reddy and Nageswara Rao¹³ stated that though Andhra Pradesh is doing better in school density, size and distribution of habitations, student-teacher ratio etc. owing to declining state support, the gains

¹² Kiran Bhatt, "Educational Deprivation in India", *Economic and Political Weekly*, July 11,1998,. P. 1859-63

¹³ V Ratna Reddy, R Nageswara Rao (2003), "Primary Education: Progress and Constraints," *Economic and Political Weekly*, March 22-29,2003, p. 1242-1251.

made are getting neutralized. Therefore, the authors pleaded for stepping up investment to primary education by the state. It is pointed out that Andhra Pradesh ranks 22nd among 28 States in terms of adult literacy. However, it ranks 11th in terms of per capita State Domestic Product. The State is in the middle category of per capita SDP while it is in the bottom category in the case of literacy. Therefore, one can say that the relationship between economic development and educational development is not automatic, though it is widely held that expanded educational opportunities is a necessary condition for development especially poverty alleviation. The case of Andhra Pradesh paradox concern. The State compares poorly with the all India averages in almost all indicators including rural urban disparities and general disparities. Andhra Pradesh is doing well in the case of ST literacy only. The three major important programmes initiated as part of national policy 1986, 1992 are Operation Black Board (OBB), Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Programme (APPEP), and District Primary Education Project (DPEP). While first one focused on infrastructure that is school buildings, teaching aids, playgrounds and additional teacher posts, the primary education project funded by Overseas Development Authority concentrated on improving the quality of schooling, construction of additional classrooms and teacher training. This programme was subsequently merged with DPEP after 1995. The DPEP has many incentive schemes, such as, mid-day meal/supply of dry rations for enhancing enrolment, regular attendance of the students, and reduction of dropouts and also maintain nutritional standards. The State Government initiated new schemes such as *Maa*

Badi (Our School), Chaduvukimdam (School), Akshara Sankranthi to improve access. The Vidya Volunteer Scheme was started to support single teacher schools.

The authors reported that "(DPEP) seems to have undue focus on enrolment resulting in dropouts. The dry ration programme encouraged fictitious enrolment. Further, the authors stated that DPEP initiative in 1993 did not appear to be effective in the state. In state, they are of the opinion that "stress needs to be on meeting social needs of rural population, which is inhibiting access to education, looking after younger siblings, etc." From the demand side, generation of productive employment and minimum wages, the authors wrote, goes a long way in reducing the household's dependence on the children. In other words, they maintain that rural economy has to be liberated from agricultural invulsion i.e., low employment, low wages and high participation. Finally, the authors concluded that the role of the State is to provide conducive environment for such activities. Socio-cultural aspects have to be taken into account while establishing schools for SC/ST population.

In an interesting article, Jean Dreze and Aparajitha Goyal¹⁴ published in *Economic and Political Weekly* (2003) reported that the initiative of providing the mid-day meals spurred by a recent Supreme Court Order will have a major impact on child nutrition and school attendance besides, social equity. They raised the issue that does the quality concerns relating to education deserve urgent education. The CES survey was conducted in Chattisgarh, Rajasthan and Karnataka.

¹⁴ Jean Dreze, Aparajitha Goyal, "Future of Mid-Day Meals", *Economic and Political Weekly*, November 2003, p.467 3-5001

In another article entitled Social Barriers as Impediments of Information Flow traces the reasons for educational backwardness. To strengthen the institutional arrangement for achieving the goal of universalization of elementary education, the village education committees are formed. These would also serve as methods for decentralization of school administration. The World Bank experts perceived the new institutional arrangement, i.e., the village educational committee as the most cost effective method, the Panchayat Raj institutions have now authority to directly participate in welfare and development activities owing to 73rd Constitutional Amendment. A study of the VECs shows that VEC are not effective as only 36% of parents of school going children especially the scheduled castes are aware of the village education committee. While the number is much lower in the case of non-school going respondents. The data collected through a DPEP sponsored study is undertaken in 19 rural districts, covering 15 to 20 samples. All the sample households belong to SC category. Thus, the institutional arrangement conceived to reinvigorate primary education does not seem to be working to the best advantage of the clientele groups. This study conducted in Andhra Pradesh further highlights need for narrowing down the information gap regarding participatory arrangements to achieve the goal of universalization of elementary education.¹⁵ In yet another study, by Prakash Lewis, focused on literacy and education of weaker sections in Bihar published in Social Change. The macro study covered all districts of Bihar, which

¹⁵ K S Chalam "Social Barriers as Impediments of Information Flow: A Study of Communication Channels among Dalits in Andhra Pradesh", *Social Action*, Vol.52 , October-December 2002, p.413-419.

continues to be lagging behind in terms of literacy. What needs to be taken **note in** the study is that the new educational policy is continuing to include the weaker sections. It is also stated that the policies are denying equal opportunities. Further, the study noted that though there is relaxation of qualifications for SC teachers, the policy document does not see the need for specific kinds of training to sensitize the teaching community to the vulnerability of these groups and create an awareness of the special role they are expected to play in this context. The author is of the opinion that "given the nature of social milieu of Bihar where casteism and feudalism have the upper hand, teachers from the scheduled castes could be subjected to humiliation in this unless social awareness is created among the teaching community as well as the officials". It needs to be stated here that the Bihar education project and the DPEP though are a step in right direction "they too are run at the dictates of international financial corporations" as raising the level of literacy alone is cited as the goal while there is no agenda for poverty alleviation or access to resources".¹⁶

One more study on the post 1986-92 policy is by Padma M. Sarangapani and A.R. Vasavi ¹⁷on DPEP, Karnataka. The authors made an interesting observation that the "DPEP seems to have contributed towards a willingness to believe that in this way the Central or State Governments can meet the obligations of ensuring education to the native people is by borrowing money. They are of the opinion that

¹⁶ Prakash Louis, "Literacy, Education **and the Weaker Sections in Bihar: Issues and Perspectives**", *Social Change*, September-December 2002, Vol.32 , Nos. 3&4, p.73-96.

¹⁷Padma M Saranagapani, A R Vasavi, "**Aided Progrmmes or Guided Policies? DPEP in Karnataka**", *Economic and Political Weekly*, August 9, 2003, p.3401-3407.

it may lead to dependency mindset. The launching of DPEP, the authors opine, in fact, that the State has not paid adequate attention to the decline of government schools in the urban poverty areas. It needs to be noted here that the bank's rationale for investment in education is based on four arguments.

- a) That of inducing higher rate of returns/increase productivity by having an educated labour force
- b) Making for more flexibility, efficiency and respectability of labour market that better quality education.
- c) Speeding up willingness to projects and use Green Revolution technologies and high yielding seeds and
- d) Enhancing women's education so as to lower fertility rates and incur less expenditure on illness etc., increase women's participation in labour force.

Striking similarities between the World Bank Policy document of 1997 and Government of India's National Policy on Education, the authors opined that although in state any such educationist terms, the education policy of Government of India has also informed by the same perspective since 1960s. Beginning with the Kothari Commission Report, it is evident in the National Policy on Education in 1996 and Programme of Action 1998. The latter two documents seem to have influenced DPEP's objectives and plan of action (MHRD 1995). It needs to be again stated that the DPEP design is directly not related to bank's interests in education. However, the structures such as independent society, joint review missions in which

lone agencies participate, financial norms imposed by the bank, formats that are used for planning and reports, all suggest to the influence it had on the programme. The authors attribute the role of World Bank in directing educational reform. For instance, in Karnataka, EDU Vision held a seminar in Bangalore funded and conducted by the state was graced by the presence of a number of World Bank personnel. Delivering the keynote address and releasing the document entitled Eduvision, shaping education in Karnataka, the Vice-President of the World Bank highlighted that he visualizes a future where markets play a significant role in education. He promoted the idea of autonomous schools, i.e., schools without public finances and non-profit as the model in future.

The authors stated that "these may substitute for genuine democratic processes and structures. Finally, the authors are of the opinion that the issue of equity and appropriate policy in education, at all levels in general, continues to be dodged by the State Government as this sector is put to frequent crises that the state faces with different education sectors and agencies. It is a quite challenging statement the authors made in the end "In the context of a fragmented political apparatus, a co-opted media and an indifferent intelligentsia, there is need to be more vigilant about such programmes and to seek alternatives which will enhance the systemic capacities and capabilities of the State". They felt that there is urgent need for educational programmes to derive from a policy that is built on norms of democracy, equity and self-sufficiency.

In another study placed on Web, Nirupama Bajpai and Sangeeta Goyal¹⁸ attempted a macro analysis of Primary Education especially on quality and coverage issues. Stating that India's literacy rate is steadily increasing over a century from 5% approximately to 65.5%. Taking a position that India moved forward in the spread of primary education the authors opined that the achievements in this sector is because of greater fund flow and focused approach. Noting **that there are** discrepancies between rural and urban areas, in terms of enrolment, achievement and retention, the authors quoted Dreze and Sen's (2002) study which documented thus "there may have been actually an increase in educational inequality in recent years if we take the quality of education into account due to expansion of private schools which are accessible to children from privileged backgrounds and decline in the quality of schooling provided by the public school system".

Commenting that DPEP, a post 1992 policy, information facilitated administrative decentralization and community participation to institute accountability within the school system, the authors concluded their study critically stating that quality of the education in India is the most problematic aspect.

Sudheer Reddy¹⁹ in another article quoted the UN General Assembly proceedings of November 20,1959 in which it is recorded that "mankind owes to the child the best it has to give". Quoting further, the author mentioned that "the child

¹⁸ Nirupama Bajpai & Sangeeta Goyal, "Primary Education in India: **Quality and** Coverage Issues", www.earthinstitute.columbia.edu

¹⁹ Sudheer Reddy K.S. "U.E.E. & Children **with** Special Needs", *Edu Tracks*, Vol. **4**, No. **2**, October 2004,p.21.

shall enjoy special protection, and shall be given opportunities and facilities by **law** and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity".

Outlining the urgency for meeting aspirations of children with special needs, the author listed the requirements. The post 1992 policy initiatives are no doubt laudatory but yet to make an impact. The DPEP, a major intervention perhaps did not take into consideration the children with special need.

The continuing struggle of primary education sector as a policy candidate for higher share in resources and policy attention cannot be disputed. Despite regime changes new political classes that were elected to rule continue to adhere to basic tenets of public policy on education though articulations differ. For instance, the Common Minimum Programme (CMP) of the present United Progressive Alliance (UPA) also promises to "address the issue of social exclusion ... commits to disadvantaged classes and social groups ..."²⁰

The survey of selected publications reveals that there is increasing awareness about the role of education in economic development. The efforts made after 1986/92 policy pronouncements though made appreciable progress need to be intensified. A detailed framework of the institutional framework for the implementation of DPEP is discussed in the next chapter.

²⁰ www.pmindia.nic.in, and www.punjab.orft.uk

2.6 Studies on Dropouts in Primary Education

Sapru ²¹ made an attempt to study the educational wastage and stagnation in India using the true cohort techniques. The study revealed that the wastage incidence was 75.09% in the case of boys and 84.74% in the case of girls. Another important conclusion drawn from this study was incidence of highest wastage in class-I. This showed on decreasing in subsequent grades.

The Agricultural Economic Research Centre of Delhi University ²² conducted a study on wastage and participation in primary education in rural India directed by A.K. Sen. Apart from examining the reliability of census sources and ministry sources regarding the enrollment data in primary schools, the study made an attempt to find out the causes for low retention (high dropout) in rural India. The study revealed that poverty leads to high opportunity cost in sending children to school. The study had made a number of suggestions regarding the provisions of subsistence allowance (mid-day meals) to school children changing the school season, examination dates to suit the agricultural activities in different regions in order to reduce the dropout rates in rural areas.

National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA, 1989)²³ has undertaken a study on primary education in Andhra Pradesh. The study

²¹ C.L. Sapru, "Educational Wastage and Stagnation in India", *NCERT*, New Delhi, 1967, p. 7.

²² Institute of Applied Manpower Research, *Wastage in Indian School Education*, New Delhi, 1967.

²³ NIEPA, *A Study of Administration of Elementary Education in Relation to the Programme of Universalization in AP*, New Delhi, 1989.

has taken 22 Educational districts in Andhra Pradesh, which are arranged in descending order according to their enrollment ratio in the age group of 6-13 in 1978. Two districts, each from the third and fourth quarter, were selected as the sample of the study. Subsequently, two blocks in each of the two districts, one with highest enrollment and the other with lowest enrollment in classes I-VII were selected. The major findings of the study were: the proportion of enrollment was significantly high from the homes with enlightened parents irrespective of caste. The enrollment of girls was less than that of boys and to attendance of the children suffered during harvesting and festivals. There were incidents of dropout in some of the sample villages, as high as 85.7% in case of girls.

Rajaiah (1987)²⁴, in his study of primary education in Andhra Pradesh, has taken into consideration of a number of aspects like enrollment, number of schools, internal efficiency, and public expenditure during the period 1956-57 to 1979-80. He has also examined the relationship between expenditure on primary education and other economic variables like state domestic product, literacy rate and productivity in agriculture. He found that aggregate enrollment of children in primary education rose by 10% during the period. The girl's ratio also increased from 37.1% in 1956-57 to 41.2% in 1979-80. 1956-59 between 1960-61, the retention rate in primary education was only 24% and it is increased to 35% in 1979-80. His study shows that in spite of upward trend in enrollment, the low retention

²⁴ B. Rajaiah, "Economics of Education, A Study of Primary Education in Andhra Pradesh", Mittai Publishers, Delhi, 1987.

rates slowed down the progress of primary education, which adversely affected the progress of literacy in the state.

Agencies like the Bureau of Economics and Statistics (BSE, 1970)²⁵ too conducted studies. In one study on wastage at primary school level in Andhra Pradesh a sample of 15 primary schools from Gannavaram block in Krishna District, Gooty block in Anantapur District and Husnabad block in Karimnagar District was selected. 20% of the students who discontinued their studies at various stages of primary education were surveyed during the period of 1963-64 to 1967-68. The main objective of the study was to ascertain the reason for wastage at the primary school level in A.P., and to find out the reasons for low retention of girls in classes VI to Vm. The main findings and conclusions of the study were that the enrollment of the girls in the primary school was the lowest in the Telangana region followed by Rayalaseema. Another important conclusion drawn from the study was that the percentage of dropout in different standards was perceptibly of large in case of girls than that of boys. It was found that the wastage and lower enrollment of girls in classes VI to VEQ were due to the economic backwardness of the families (poverty) and social backwardness of the area.

²⁵ Bureau of Economics and Statistical, "Evaluation Study on Wastage at Primary School Level in AP", Hyderabad, 1979.

Another study conducted by the Centre for Economics and Social Studies (CESS, 1988)²⁶ indicates the incidence of wastage in the East Godavari District of Andhra Pradesh. The study is based on micro-level data relating to three selected mandals in the district. Factors responsible for dropout and non-enrollment have been identified by direct interview method with coverage of 490 households spread over 13 villages. The findings of the study indicate that ST is subjected to the highest incidence of wastage compared to SC and others. During the period 1967-68 to 1973-74, the incidence was as high as 76% among the SCs and 72% among STs. The study further revealed that during 1980-81, on an average, 37.5% dropout at different stages. But the incidence has declined from 74% to 18% as we move from the backward to developed regions in the districts.

Regarding the causes for this large-scale wastage, a study published as early as in 1992, recognized poverty as the main cause of non-attendance and of withdrawal of children from village schools. The employment of child labour was also widespread²⁷. The Indian Education Commission, 1964-66 also agreed that about 65% of the wastage is due to poverty. The first and second survey of research in education brought out several studies on this aspect²⁸. Other studies conducted

²⁶ CESS, "Wastage in Primary Education: A Case Study of East Godavari District", Hyderabad, December 1988.

²⁷ J.H. Olbhard, "Village Education in India", The Report of the Commission of Inquiry, *Oxford University Press*, London, 1992.

²⁸ R.C. Dass, "An Investigation into the Problems of Wastage and Stop Nation at Primary Level of Education", *Gaunet Union*, 1970.

later pointed out that the main cause for this situation is poverty, for the largest number of dropouts are from poorer sections of the society. The other causes include general illiteracy of parents and lack of proper awareness among them, the opposition from the vested interests in the villages like landlords and richer sections, the practice of child marriages in the villages, lack of physical facilities in schools, lack of extracurricular activities, irregular teachers, teachers not staying in the villages, etc. Single teacher schools, which get closed frequently, also contribute to the dropout problem. Other causes are frequent transfers of teachers, lack of middle school and high school education in several villages and the poor quality of incentives provided by the government. Another important reason is the parental preference to send children for agricultural work during the peak season.

Irrelevant curriculum, lack of trained teachers and lack of accommodation, apart from the above-mentioned problems, lack of competent and adequate number of single teacher schools, etc. are some other problems associated with the system of Indian education.

J.P. Naik maintains ²⁹ that there has been an over-emphasis on uniformity of curriculum in all primary schools - urban as well as rural. This resulted in making curriculum irrelevant to the local needs.

Further lack of adequate number of teachers over burdened the existing teachers of the schools to look after unmanageable number of pupils in a single class

²⁹ J.P. Naik, "Some Perspective of Non-formal Education".

or they are required to look after more than one class simultaneously. This adversely affects the quality of teachers. They find it almost difficult to provide individual attention to each pupil³⁰.

Lack of adequate number of trained teachers is also another important problem. In a study, it was found that nearly 29.3% English teachers caused the fall in the standards of learning English. In another survey, it was revealed that freedom of choice of their subject added to it, inadequate pool of competent and devoted teachers, poor library facilities, absence of playgrounds and poor physical education programme rendered education poor in quality³¹.

Yet another study regarding single-teacher schools point out that the teachers have to handle a group of children of different ages, abilities, intensity and stages of learning, so that they come from one educational whole and most of their difficulties arise from the fact that he has to teach as many as six or seven subjects.

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2.7 Studies on Disparities in Education

Equality of opportunity is a fundamental value in modern world, even though equality of opportunity is not a cure for every form of inequality. As Marx says, "Between one country and another, even one locality and another, there will always exist a certain inequalities in the conditions of life. While it will be possible to

³⁰ N.R. Inamdar, "Educational Administration in the Zilla Panshad in Maharashtra".

³¹ S. Rajagopal, "A Critical Study of English Curriculum at the Primary and Secondary Education in Madras State", *Annamalai University*, 1972, p. 295.

reduce to a minimum, but never entirely removed". Alpine Dwellers will always have a different condition of life from those people living on the plains. The contemporary Indian situation is characterized by inequalities in all facets of life between the regions on the one hand and within the region on the other.

Though the concept of inequalities in education appears to be a concern for the present century, its origin can be traced back to the sixteenth and seventeenth century. The directive principle of the constitution of India states that the state shall, within the limits of its economic capacity; attempt to make effective provision for securing the right to education for all. Yet, even after four decades of independence, not less than 20% of the country's children have ever been to school of any kind. Needless to say, a large portion of this 20% is in rural areas.

Kamat (1968), Raja and Aggarwal (1982) " studied the achievement of objectives of five-year plan documents, i. Universalization of elementary education, ii. Eradication of illiteracy, and iii. Reduction of inequalities between regions, income classes, sex and caste groups. The results of the study show that there exist inter-regional, inter-group and inter-class disparities both in provision and utilization of educational facilities.

³² Kama! Raza and Y.P. Aggarwal, "Inequalities in the Level of Literacy: A Regional Dimension", Paper read at the 111 Annual Conference of Indian Association for the Study of Population, MIMEO, 1982.

Monis Raja and H. Ramachandran (1990)^M conducted a survey of Tumkur District of Karnataka State. Using the survey and correlation approach, they reached at the following conclusions: i. there exists sharp disparities in the educational level between the general and the scheduled caste and tribal population, ii. The general level of education in rural is on the rise and inter-strata disparities in educational levels are decreasing. Then suggesting an upward educational mobility of the weaker sections, iii. Scheduled and non-scheduled caste disparities are not strong when we consider female education.

Monis Raja, Aijazuddin Ahmed and Sheel C. Nuna (1990)^M conducted an all India analysis under NIEPA. The study takes into account the following disparities: educational development among the STs, SCs and other population on the one hand and among the male-female and rural-urban components of this population on the other. The analysis reveals, in general, that the rural-urban inequality is, perhaps, the lowest in Kerala and these disparities are low in Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, and Gujarat and in West Bengal. Secondly, the male-female inequality in the rural areas is more pronounced than that of urban areas at the aggregate all India level Thirdly, the inequalities are marginal at the middle stage of school in urban areas. Fourthly, the gross enrollment ratio shows a high degree of inequality at the secondary stage of education in rural areas.

³³ Moonis Raja & H. Ramachandran, "Scholarship and Rural Transformation", *NIEPA*, New Delhi, 1990.

³⁴ Moonis Raja, Aijazuddin Ahmed and Sheel C. Nuna, "Schooling Education in India", *NIEPA*, New Delhi, 1990.

Jandhyala, B.G. Tilak (1984)³⁵ conducted a study on rural-urban disparities in education in AP. The study deals with elementary (primary and middle) levels of education in the state consisting of 23 districts. The data used in the study are basically the census report data of 1971 and 1981. The Sopher's index of inequality is used in this study to measure the degree of inequalities in the state. Besides this index, he also used the correlation approach to see the influence of various socio-economic variables explaining the disparities. The major findings of the study are: i. both with respect to literacy and enrollment ratio rural masses lag behind the urban masses, ii. There exist not only rural-urban disparities but also disparities between the economically backward Telangana and the developed coastal regions, iii. Inequalities between rural and urban females are higher than those among rural and urban males. The result of correlation approach says that poverty is one of the very important factors responsible for lower rates of literacy in rural areas and higher rates of rural-urban and sex inequalities in literacy ratio. Secondly, he found that the income of the local bodies positively influence the literacy and negatively the inequalities.

Kumar (1980)³⁶ assessed the inter-district inequalities in educational development in Karnataka. The study indicates that the literacy rate number of

³⁵ JBG Tilak, "Urban and Rural Neglect in Education: A Study on Rural-Urban Disparities in Education - AP", *Margia*, October 1984.

³⁶ Kumar, U.R., "Rural Disparities in Educational Development, Karnataka Regional Inequalities in India", edited by L.S. Bhatt, New Delhi, 1982.

schools, enrollment rates, wastage rates and teacher qualifications, etc. To measure the inequalities, co-efficient variation and gini co-efficient are computed for the composite index of educational development. The study reveals that the inequalities among districts in terms of educational development down over the decade 1961 to 1971.

Tilak (1979)³⁷ has made a study on the inter-state disparities in educational development in India. In order to find out the education distance among the various states, he constructs two kinds of weighted composite index of educational development: i. constant cost weighted index, ii. Varying cost weighted index. The analysis refers to the year 1974-75 for which the data is available. The study shows glaring inequalities in educational development among states in India. While the states like Kerala and Himachal Pradesh are very forward in educational development, states like Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, etc. are very backward.

Zaidi (1986)³⁸ has answered the disparities in educational development in different regions in India in general and in the various regions in the state of Uttar Pradesh in particular with the help of certain indicators of educational development. His study pointed out inter-state inequalities as well as inequalities within a stage in educational development.

³⁷ JBG Tilak, "Inter-State Disparities in Educational Development", *Eastern Economist*, 1979.

³⁸ Zaidi A.N., "Educational Planning and Regional Disparities in Education and Regional Development", edited by JBG Tilak, 1986.

Nuna (1989)³⁹ has made a study on inter-district disparities in educational development. The findings of his study are that thirty districts are in very high level of educational development. Sixty seven are high, hundred and fifty four are in moderate state, hundred and fifty eight are in low and three are in very low levels of educational development.

2.8 Education and Economic Development

Economic development of a nation cannot be separated from the educational level of the nation. Education becomes more necessary for economy and is linked closely to it as a major mediator between manpower demand and labour supply⁴⁰. Formal education plays a leading role in the formation of human resources development. In fact, one of the main functions of the education system is to supply qualified manpower to meet the demands of national economy and thereby contribute to its growth.

The developing societies, which have been poor and stagnant for centuries are in a state of revolt against poverty, disease, ignorance and exploitation by stronger nations. Further, they are no longer inclined to entrust their future or the judgment of colonial rulers⁴¹. The realization of this objective depends upon the

³⁹ Nuna, SC, "Regional Disparities in Educational Development Policy and Planning Inequalities", *NIEPA*. New Delhi, 1989.

⁴⁰ International Encyclopedia of Social Sciences, *The Macmillan Company and Nise Press*, Vol. 4, 1968, p. 510.

⁴¹ Frederick Harbison and C.A. Myore, "Education, Manpower and Economic Growth Strategies of mD", *MalgrandHill*, New York, 1964, p. 125.

educational level of the people of the nation. Thus, education is the key that unlocks **the** door to economic modernization. Paulo Freire put it succinctly when he observed: "If millions of men are illiterate, starved for letters, thirsty **for words, the** word must be brought to them to save them from 'hunger' and thirst"⁴²

A literate agricultural community can read and write a material, adopt **better** agricultural practices easily and quickly for which an illiterate has to depend upon personal resources. Taiwan has achieved a great deal of increase in agricultural productivity because of the exposure of its agriculturist to education. Japan's phenomenal post-war growth would have been impossible if it was not for the fact that 98% of her people can read and write⁴³.

Coming to India, which is predominantly an agricultural economy, the spread of education can stimulate the agricultural production, because the cultivator is now involved in a transaction in which an illiterate man is a great disadvantage. Scheme to improve agricultural methods and to improve the general conditions of rural poor depend crucially for their success upon the spread of education amongst the masses, which would ultimately raise the level of productivity, improve the occupational skills of the individuals and the quality of labour force. Thus, education results in

⁴² Paulo Freire, "Cultural Action for Freedom", *Penguin*, 1976, p. 11.

⁴³ A.S. Rama Swamy, "Education for High Productivity", *Kurukshetra*, Vol. 20, No. 2, October 16 1971, p. 16-17.

increase innovativeness and more effective performance of given tasks because of improved abilities⁴⁴.

For modern education affects the economy in a number of ways, not only does it increase the flow of skills, but enables people to acquire new techniques. Moreover, it has the potential to destroy the traditional attitudes, which impede the progress⁴⁵.

2.9 Education and Political Development

Political development can be understood as achieving equality of opportunities to all in the political field and greater participation of people in the political process. Education plays a crucial role in this process of political development. Absence of participation of the people in democratic processes will have an adverse impact on development. So, education helps in removing political immaturity of the people. Paulo Freire says that the greater the political immaturity of the people, the more easily they can be manipulated by those who do not want to lose their power⁴⁶. For those who are engaged in learning to read and write, come to a new awareness of self-hood and begin to look ethically at the social situation in which they find themselves. Often take the initiative in acting to transform the

⁴⁴ Venkata Subrahmanian, "Education and Economic Development in India: Tamil Nadu - A Case Study", *Fraudl Brother*, Delhi, 1980, p. 4.

⁴⁵ John Vaizey, "Education for Tomorrow",

⁴⁶ Paulo Freire, "Pedagogy of the Oppressed", *Penguin*, Middlesex, 1976, p. 116.

society that has denied them this opportunity of participation⁴⁷. It is further expected that the illiterate and poor can rise to their own liberation through literacy, dialogue and action⁴⁸.

It has become the common characteristic of all modernizing movements, whether revolutions or independent movements in Russia, China, the African countries, the Islamic world, and South East Asia have all had at the starting point of their struggle a fairly numerous and differentiated educated elite⁴⁹.

Education is more meaningful in the third world countries because democratic institutions cannot succeed without education. For, democracy functions only when the people are informed and has thirst for knowledge and exchange of ideas⁵⁰.

Education is the only instrument to effect a political change. The commitment to secularism, socialism and democracy will be realized when there is development in human resources in terms of knowledge and skills; it should impart attitudes and values against oppressive economic, social and political forces.

⁴⁷ Ibid, p. 9.

⁴⁸ Ibid, p. 29.

⁴⁹ Aparna Basu, "The Growth of Education and Political Development in India", *Oxford University Press*, New Delhi, 1974, p. 235.

⁵⁰ Sateswan Saxena, "Educational Planning in India: A Study in Approach and Methodology" *Sterling Publishers*, New Delhi, 1971, p. 5.

2.10 Education and Social Development

Education is also perceived to be one of the instruments of social change in all the developing countries. The whole gamut of literature on social change places high premium on the role of education as the most important vehicle of social change. However, the emphasis on education in contemporary times does not mean that education was not given its due place in earlier times. Scholarly concern with the relationship between education and other fields of social interaction is not new. Since Plato and Aristotle, political philosophers have affirmed principles embodied in the phrases, "as is the state so is the school" or "what you want in the state, you must put into the school"⁵¹. In other words, political thinkers too recognized the nexus between the educational and political System⁵².

Since the 18th century and age of enlightenment in particular, the role of education as liberator of mankind has come to be recognized. As 20th century and the age of democracy advanced the faith in education as the liberator of mankind increased. The views of conservatives and liberals are apt to be mentioned here.

While conservatives essentially believed that the purpose of education was to preserve and transmit certain values, the liberals believed that the school as an institution can play an important role in social reform for improving the lot of mankind. According to John Dewey, "it is the business of school environment to

⁵¹ See Plato's Republic

⁵²
Aristotle's Politics

eliminate so far as possible the unworthy features of the existing environment from influence upon mental habituations. As society became more enlightened, it realized that it was responsible not to transmit and conserve the whole of its existing achievements but to strive for a better future society. The school is its chief agency for the accomplishment of the end⁵³.

In more recent times, the famous Kothari Education Commission arrived at the conclusion that "what is needed is a revolution in education, which will set in motion the much-desired social, economic and cultural revolutions"⁵⁴.

The Marxist notion is that while education is an effective instrument to bring the desired change, that the educational system itself will only be serving vested interests, i.e. status quo is a well-known idea that qualifies the optimistic role attributed by Dewey. Then there is another notion, partly the offshoot of Marxist notion, that formal education organized and promoted by the conventional social system is needed counter-productive.

Endorsing view of Illich, Kurien, an Indian scholar, brought out nicely how "knowledge becomes the cleverest and the most powerful ally to the status quo in all societies everywhere"⁵⁵.

⁵³ John Dewey, "Democracy and Education", *Light and Life Publishers*, New Delhi, 1976, p. 20.

⁵⁴ Report of the Education Commission (1964-66), "Education and National Development", *Ministry of Education & Culture (HRD)*, New Delhi, 1971.

⁵⁵ C T Kurien "Educational Perspective for Tamil Nadu" in Malcom Adisheshaiah (ed), *Backdrop to the Learning'society*, *Madras Institute of Development Studies*, Madras, 1978, p. 25.

Bertrand Russell, even earlier, has gone further and argued "education in the modern world tends to be a reactionary force supporting the government when it is conservative and opposing it when it is progressive"⁵⁶.

In the words of Harold Silver, a contemporary scholar, "education has been seen both as a means of selecting and perpetuating elites. It is discussed in terms of class domination and social control but also of social liberation and progress. It has become more and more prominent in political manifestos and policies in economic calculation and family discussion. In bookshops and in the press, it has also become a major instrument of national policy. Educational system and educationalists have come together in educational movements, professional conferences and in attempts at educational policy at regional, national and international levels. Education has become one of the most sensitive notions to economic and political change"⁵⁷.

Social change can be understood as achieving equality of social status to all, greater social participation and acquiring new values of rational thinking. The relevance of education is realized by all societies. A.R. Desai, an eminent social scientist, states that the significance of education in modern societies cannot be over-estimated. Literates and educated people are prerequisite both for the maintenance and advancement of developing societies. The crucial need of education for the

⁵⁶ Bertrand Russell, "Education and Social Order", London-George, *Allen and Unwin*, 1971, p. 20.

⁵⁷ Harold Silver, "Education and Social Condition", *Methods*, London, 1980, p. 19.

people in various spheres of modern social life - economic, political, social, and ethical and others - has been unanimously recognized⁵⁸.

Education, being a vital instrument of social change, a developing society like India has to pay serious attention, particularly in view of the social transformation that the country is passing through. A system of education suited to the need for a society committed to modernization has to keep pace with the demands of both the expansion of knowledge and the accelerated velocity of social change⁵⁹.

In addition, in a developing society, which is in the grip of superstition and ignorance, the school is expected to undo what the home and its surroundings had done to the student in the process of early socialization. Gunnar Myrdal observes that literacy and general knowledge facilitates both children and adults in the acquisition of specific skills and may help to bring about a rationalization of attitudes. In turn, more rational attitudes provide a motivational preparedness that can facilitate the acquisition of literacy, knowledge and skills⁶⁰.

In this regard, a famous educationist Paulo Freire said that when an illiterate peasant participates in this sort of educational experience, he comes to a new

⁵⁸ A.R. Desai, "Rural Sociology in India", *Popular Publishers*, Bombay, 1976, p. 65.

⁵⁹ M.V. Raja Gopal, "Kothan Commission on School Education", *Recapitulation and Review*, *Telugu Vidyarthi Prachuranalu*, Machilipatnam, 1967, p. 7-8

⁶⁰ Gunnar Myrdal, "Asian Drama: An Inquiry into the Poverty of Nations", abridged by Seth S. King, *Allen Lane the Penguin Press*, London, 1972, 313-14.

awareness of self, has a new sense of dignity, and is stirred in a new hope⁶¹. In the process of learning, they discover that they are creators of culture and that all their work can be creative⁶². And at this stage, they would no longer be willing to be mere objects, responding to changes occurring around them; they are more likely to decide to take upon themselves the struggle to change the structures of society, which until now, have served to oppress them⁶³.

Regarding the social relevance of educating, V.K.R.V. Rao points out that education should provide the younger generation with that knowledge, which will enable them to explain many things that they see for which quite often irrational mythological explanations are given. He felt the weight of superstition is the greatest obstacle in the process of economic development, and therefore, education should develop a spirit of rationality; identify a spirit of human solidarity and a feeling of identification with the masses⁶⁴. In this regard, the observation made by Alva Mydra is quite apt, what but education can inspire the habit to probe instead of believe, to analyze critically instead of blindly accept, to weight alternatives and choose with eyes open towards the future⁶⁵. Thus, knowledge increases the power of

⁶¹ Paulo Freire, "Pedagogy of the Oppressed", *Penguin Education*, Middlesex, 1980, p. 8-12.

⁶² Ibid., p. 13.

"Ibid.

⁶⁴ V.K.R.V. Rao, "Education and HRD", *Allied Publishers*, Bombay, 1966, p. 61.

⁶⁵ Alva **Myidal**. "The Power of Education", in Emmet John Hugh (ed.) 'Education in World Perspective', *Lanen Books*, New York, 1965, p. 132.

reasoning and ability to analyze to relate facts and events in their proper sequence, to drawn inferences and to apply the conclusions to a given or new situation⁶⁶.

The school not only occupies a central place in the maintenance of social order in modern societies, it also typifies the way organizations work as agents of social control. Jackson with crowds with the public evaluation of their performance and with the exercise of power by stranger⁶⁷. As people and their ideas become adapted to the new ways of life, so will the schools, they in their will be one of the chief agencies through which change will be brought about, and this in turn will affect the economy of the whole country⁶⁸.

Thus the studies show how significant education is for social, economical, political development. However education policies have been noted to be incremental in their approach. The results obtained are always fell short of target. The main reason being mismatch between objectives and achievements for earlier programmes. The next chapter deals with the programmes, objectives of DPEP. Selected works on DPEP are also reviewed.

⁶⁶ S.C. Goel, "Education and Economic Growth in India", *The Macmillan Company of India*, Delhi, 1975, p. 11.

⁶⁷ Shipman, M.D., "Education and Modernization", *Faber and Faber*, London, 1971, p. 51-52.

⁶⁸ John Vaizay, "Education for Tomorrow", *Penguin*, London, 1966, p. 11

CHAPTER - 3

District Primary Education Programme (DPEP): An Overview

3.1 Introduction

Initiated in 1994, the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) is under implementation in 271 districts in the country across 18 states. District Primary Education Programme is part of Social Safety Net Credit Adjustment Loan under the Structural Adjustment Programme of the World Bank to India in 1991. The District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) is one that has to be seen as part of several initiatives under SAP. It was launched keeping in view the experiences of various drives for primary education. Unlike earlier compartmental approaches in 1994, it stands for holistic planning and management deemed necessary to achieve universal primary education, with a bias towards girl child. It means one of the major objective of DPEP is to narrow down current gender gap in opportunities for education, in terms of access, retention and achievement levels. Further, it promises to reach out to the children from the most disadvantaged groups/communities, again with a focus on girl child education. Educationally backward districts, with female literacy below the national average were taken as priority districts. In brief, the following are the main goals of this important intervention.

Accent on reducing the gaps in enrolment, dropout rates and learning achievements in between the gender and again in between social groups to less than 5%;

District Primary Education Programme (DPEP): An Overview

- To evolve suitable strategies for checking overall dropout rates for all students at primary level to less than 10%;
- Raise average achievement levels at least by 25% over existing levels by ensuring achievement of basic literacy and numeracy competencies and a minimum of 40% achievement levels in other competencies for all primary school children; and
- Alternatively provide access for all children to primary schooling or its equivalent through non-formal education.

Therefore the intervention seeks to operationally result in a) increasing the coverage of girls, b) improve their academic achievements; reduce gender disparities in respect of enrolment, retention and learning achievements. The mission's strategy is two fold.

- Make the education sensitive to the needs and constraints of girls and children (especially from disadvantaged communities), and
- Plan to generate demand for girls' education by creating enabling conditions for greater participation.

Realizing the need for continuous monitoring, which is achilles heel of earlier programmes, DPEP created such systems and structures which ensure upward and downward communication. Let's look at the arrangement in this regard:

- Evolving of a Project Management Information System (PMIS) it covers: a) Areas such as teacher deployment, b) Progress of civil works, c) Needs of training, d) Compulsion of research.
- The second level is District. Through an instrument entitled District Information System for Education (DISE). The DPEP elicits information on enrolment, teacher deployment, and classroom and performance. Some of the indicators include an indicator called Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER), Net Enrolment Ratio (NER), repetition rates, student classroom ratio and pupil teacher ratio. The data is disaggregated to know the progress in terms of gender and SC/ST.
- Monitoring mechanisms include: Bi-annual Joint Review Missions, research studies and, most recently, household surveys to estimate the number of out-of-school children to enable the government and donor partners to assess progress towards short-term, medium term and long-term development objectives.
- The DPEP MIS cell based in NIEPA developed the Index of Gender Equity and Index of Social Equity to ascertain progress towards gender and social equity objectives. This is regarded as a continuous exercise in reporting on progress of the intervention.

A. District Selection Criteria

Attempt is made to evolve a rational criterion for selection of a district eligible to be included in this intervention programme. It needs to be mentioned that the district is the 'unit' programme implementation. The selection is based on- 1) Female literacy levels below the national average, 2) whether organized a total literacy campaign (TLCs), if yes whether such campaigns are successful, whether it

led successful to enhanced demand for elementary education. Through an elimination process, such districts which satisfy the criteria are listed and identified for selection for implementation of DPEP.

B. Coverage

Initially 42 districts spread over 7 States (Assam, Haryana, Karnataka, Kerala, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra and Tamilnadu) were selected in 1994. It was extended to Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Orissa, Gujarat and Himachal Pradesh subsequently. By 2002-2003 for which information is available, the programme is reported to be covering 60% of the child population in the country spread over 271 districts. Majority of the DPEP districts have a high percentage of socially disadvantaged population, with low female literacy. The following table gives an overview of the state wise distribution of districts having DPEP projects.

Table: 3.1
DPEP Coverage - Phase I, II and III

States	No. of Districts
Andhra Pradesh	19
Assam	9
Chhattisgarh	20
Gujarat	15
Haryana	11
Himachal Pradesh	7
Jharkhand	17
Karnataka	6
Kerala	33
Madhya Pradesh	11
Orissa	16
Rajasthan	19
Tamil Nadu	7
Uttar Pradesh	54
Uttaranchal	6
West Bengal	10
Total	271

Source: Culled from Different Reports on DPEP Published by Government of India and Government of Andhra Pradesh

3.2 Funding

DPEP is a centrally sponsored scheme, and as per the financial allocations 85% of the project cost is shared by Government of India (GOI) and 15% has to be from the budgets of respective State governments. The Central share and State share are passed expected to be transferred to State implementation societies. The External funding, which is the main source is shown as Central government share. It may be mentioned again that several bilateral and multilateral agencies are providing financial assistance. The World Bank provided a credit amounting to US \$260 million (approximately Rs.806 crore) under phase I. The European Community

provided a grant of 1.50 million Euros (approximately Rs.585 crore) towards cost of the programme for DPEP in Madhya Pradesh. An agreement has been signed with IDA for a second credit amounting to US \$425 million for DPEP - II. The government of Netherlands provided a grant of US\$25.8 million for DPEP in Gujarat. The ODA released grant of \$42.5 (Rs.220 crore) to Andhra Pradesh.

From the available records it may be stated all in an amount of Rs.6938 crores is made available to DPEP under external assistance as per the records available to the research.¹

3.3 Salient Features

As stated intervention through DPEP is expected to show rise in enrollment levels by 5% of children in 6-11 years age group between 1998-2005. For the first phase the deadline was 5 years. Later it was extended by two years. Therefore the first phase was between 1994 to 1999, and the second phase is from 1998 to 2005. Meanwhile the government of India merged the programme with a new initiative entitled Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA) from 2002 onwards as the funding from external sources almost ceased.

For a student of public policy the following distinguishing features of a programme are of interest: How DPEP intervention is different from other earlier intervention programmes on primary education, has it achieved its intended purposes? What is the scenario obtaining now? Apart from these there are several

¹ India 2004, Government of India, *Ministry of Information and Broadcasting*, New Delhi, p.200.

other academic and other issues. As stated earlier a different strategy was adopted based on earlier experiences. The following are some features.

Holistic View: Policy planners expect DPEP to adopt or holistic approach, from the schematic to the integrated, with emphasis on convergence of existing programme and resources. This itself calls for a closer scrutiny as for the first time since independence a comprehensive strategy is evolved to realize the goal of Universalisation.

Decentralised Planning: District as the unit of planning and implementation. The key strategies of this district specific planning include conceptual clarity and sensitivity to local conditions. Specific approach is the local area planning or decentralized planning with disaggregated target setting.

Participatory Process: Realizing the need for a participatory process in such endeavours, functionaries, teachers, parents and community members working at various levels are proposed to be associated with programme planning and implementation.

Equity: Equity is stated as a major concern of DPEP. All plans strategies and interventions are expected to take into consideration specific needs of the disadvantaged groups such as scheduled caste, scheduled tribes, girls belongs to minority community and the disabled.

Community Ownership. The DPEP expects community to own up the programme goals by adopting and participating innovative methods of project planning and implementation.

3.4 Programme Implementation: Institutional Arrangements

The programme is concerned to be implemented through six levels - i) national, ii) state, iii) district, iv) block, v) cluster and vi) village. A management structure from a village to the Ministry of Human Resource Development was enrolled with built-in flexibility, and autonomy is put in place. Efforts are made to institutionalise an appropriate management culture in the implementation processes of primary education in the country. Let's look at these structures and their expected functions:

At the national level the broad functions are facilitation, capacity building, appraisal, co-ordination and overall direction. It is headed by the union minister of Human Resource Development. It is an apex body, expected to provide policy direction to the programme and review the progress. A Project board is headed by union education secretary. It is the empowered executive body with necessary financial and administrative powers to implement the programme. It recommends to the government policies on DPEP, considers annual work plan and is also expected to promote convergence besides approving norms for review. Joint secretary of the Department of Education is in-charge of DPEP will be the member secretary of both general council and project board. The ministry has a dedicated cell to implement the

programme entitled DPEP bureau which is expected to attend to Policy related activity and workout financial requirements to each state where it is in implementation. The board further provides norms for appraisal, supervision, monitoring, research and evaluation, reimbursement, procurement and technical support. Now Let us look at other supportive structures.

3.5 Supportive Structures

The Technical Support Group (TSG) of the DPEP is Educational Consultants India Limited (Ed. CIL) which provides professional and technical support. The National Resource Centers like NCERT, NIEPA and Lal Bahadur Shastri National Academy of Administration (LBSNAA), also provide expected to support, apart from Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) and Indian Institute of Management.

At the state's level the programme is implemented in a mission mode through a registered autonomous society; which has two sub-structures. General Council (GC) with Chief Minister as ex-officio president and Executive Committee (EC) headed by the chief secretary / education secretary of the state. The State project office (SPO) implements the project. The executive responsibility is given to the State Project Director (SPD) He/She also acts as the member secretary of the GC and EC. Planning and processes of implementation are done with the association of the community, NGO's, Teachers, Universities, national apex institutions and educationists. They are expected to be given adequate representation and voice in

District Primary Education Programme (DPEP): An Overview

management of the project at all levels State, district, block and village. Management structures of DPEP have many common features across the states in India. These include compact staff structure with appropriate, linkages with the State departments of education and other related departments and consultancies for accessing expertise in key functional areas. The state project management structure is supported by SCERT, and State institute of educational management and training (SIEMAT), State Resource Groups (SRG's) textbook agencies, and other institutes.

The district project committee is headed by the district collector or the chief executive officer of the Zilla Parishad. He/She at - District and sub-district level organizes and administers the programme. A Committee at the district level reviews the progress of DPEP in the district and works for widening of the network of supportive agencies. The committee has representation of NGO's, panchayats, educational institutions, village education committees and functional specialists apart from government departments.

Generally headed by the District Education Officer, the district project officers have been established as a separate structures in all the districts. Day to day implementation is managed by a full time district project coordinator (DPC) assisted by Assistant Project Coordinator. Staff of the department of education posted in the district including supervising officers and functional specialists are supposed to work closely with the district DPEP units. This unit is supported by District Institute

of Education and Training (DIET's), District Resource Group (DRG's), and Non Governmental Organisations (NGO's) and other agencies.

Some of the project districts also have Block Project implementation committee. The Block Resource Centre (BRC's) have to lend academic support. A group of villages came under cluster unit which have cluster resource groups.

At village level, there are village education committee (VEC), mother teachers association (MTA) and parent - teacher association (PTA) to oversee implementation of the project. Let's look at how village education committees are visualized to strengthen the programme.

Village Education Committees (VKC's)

Community structures include Village Education Committees in all villages to function as a link between the community and the primary education system. Women, disadvantaged groups, social workers and prominent persons represent these committees. The head-teacher of the village school and member of the village panchayat are ex-officio members of the committee. These committees have to assist in enrolment, retention and reduction of dropout rate, besides strengthening and maintaining the physical infrastructure of the schools. In some places, they raise contributions for schools, prepare village educational plans, appoint Para teachers and conduct house to house surveys and micro planning.

DPEP makes a provisioning of Rs.2000 per annum to each VEC as school grant. This money is supposed to be used for maintaining school facilities, furniture, health checkup etc. Besides VEC's there are other community-based structures like Mother Teachers Association (MTA), Parent Teacher Association (PTA), **and** Mahila Samakya Sanghams broadly conceived and constituted with an aim of providing support to the programme.

3.6 Programme Components and **Interventions**

One of the main objectives of DPEP is to fill in the existing gaps in the development of primary education and seek to revitalise the programme where it is dormant. The DPEP components include, community mobilisation, creation of community based structure, construction of classrooms and new schools, opening of non-formal and alternative schooling centers, appointment of new teachers, setting up of Cluster Resource Centre (CRC's) and Block Resource Centers (BRC's), teacher training, development of teaching learning material, distance education and special intervention for education of girls, the disabled children and scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children.

Community participation is part of the intervention in DPEP. The programme has to create opportunities for the involvement of the community including minorities, women and the socially deprived groups, making them stakeholders in the primary education system. This being first large scale attempt to involve community participation for achieving universal primary education, a wide range of

media strategies are adopted for community mobilisation in the programme. Kala Jathas have been extensively planned using folk forms, puppet shows, traditional media, street plays, films and songs to create awareness about the need for spreading the significance of education. Rallies, workshops, meetings, house-to-house campaigns and special camps are also expected to be planned to motivate parents to send their children to school. Posters, banners, hoarding, pamphlets, folders and brochures are also thought of to create an environment conducive to realize the objectives.

3.7 Physical Infrastructure

Realizing the Need for Additional Schools, Classrooms

DPEP undertook construction of new school buildings, classrooms, repair work, provision of drinking water and toilet facilities and also developing infrastructure for BRCs, CRC's, DIET's, SIEMAT and SCERT. DPEP also supports construction of ECCE centers, residential schools, multi grade centers, partition walls, boundary walls etc. further, DPEP recognizes the community as the major stakeholder in the provision of infrastructure as this creates sense of ownership and pride in this village. The community is expected to act as a watchdog over the works being done departmentally or through contractors.

With all the efforts, still the project may miss out clientele groups. Therefore in order to realize the objective of access to remote and schoolless habitations, the DPEP attempted to evolve Alternative Schools (AS) structures. This will promote

school participation or working children, street children, and children of migrating communities, slum children and other marginalised groups. Normally schools are run for about 250 days in a year with a minimum of three hours per day. However the alternative schools are being thought of to offer schooling from 2 to 5 years. The experiment is flexible in terms of duration and pace of learning.

A number of alternative schooling models and strategies are being tried out in project districts, depending on specific needs and requirements. For instance, there are seven as models in India. Some models of alternative schools are i.e. 1) Back to School campaign in Andhra Pradesh; ii) Makhtabs and Mad rasas in Assam and UP; iii) Alternative Schools in Madhya Pradesh; iv) Multi-grade schools in Kerala, v) Alternative Schools in Tamilnadu; vi) Residential schools in Gujarat; vii) Suhar Schools in Maharashtra.

3.8 Pedagogical Renovation and Quality Improvement

Quality improvement is one of the stated objectives of DPEP and focus is on ensuring improvement in teaching learning processes. This is being attempted through renewal of curriculum and teaching learning material (TLM), teacher training and empowerment, provision of decentralised academic support and capacity building of institutions.

a) Teacher Training

Teachers are central to the programme as they can bring about changes in classroom processes, through commitment, creativity and innovation. In service

teacher training was not attempted systematically up until DI'EP is operationaliscd. Training is not conceived as a one-time exercise, it is being followed up with regular and on-going academic exercises.

b) Academic Support Institutions

It may be stated that teacher development is a continuing process with regular academic support. The CRC's (Cluster Resource Centric) plans such inputs for a group of 8 to 10 villages, and BRC's (Block Resource Centre) for a group of 8 to 10 clusters. The block or mandal level resource centers are being set up to provide on-site support to teachers in terms of school visits, demonstrations and feedback, teacher training, material preparation discussion of specific problems at monthly meetings etc.

DIETs which provide academic and resource support to elementary education have been identified as technical and professional resource institutions. DIETs have taken up number of activities. Inservice teacher training include sensitizing them about academic monitoring and supervision, planning for action research, Mapping out Total Literacy Mission (TLM).

The state councils of Educational Research and Training also extended academic support. The faculties of SCERT are involved in a range of quality improvement interventions. Thus a net work of DI'EP implementation appears to have taken care of all conceivable steps to organize a massive intervention. The

experiment deserves a close look by policy makers and others for not only feedback but also documentation of expected outcomes. Now let's review a few studies.

3.9 Studies on DPEP: Review

It may again be noted that Universalization of elementary education is stated as the policy priority at the national level. The National level Policy on Education 1986, called for a thrust in elementary education. The focus is on the following specific areas:

1. Universal access and enrollment
2. Universal retention of children in schools up to 11 years
3. Quality concerns to enable all children to achieve minimum levels of learning

In order to achieve the above, new strategies are thought of formulated. One of them is to make a plan district specific to develop educationally backward districts. This is the major departure one can notice in the post 80's strategies for educational development. The programme of action 1992 categorically states this.

Evaluation of DPEP can be attempted through an assessment in terms of a) Access b) Retention c) Quality d) Equity which incidentally are the goals of the campaign for universalisation. Let's look at what are the broad parameters through which these can be assessed and evaluated.

i) Access

- a. Access can be measured by the number schools opened.
- b. The second one is whether basic infrastructure is ensured.
- c. Whether sufficient members of teachers are available.

ii) Retention

Some Factors that influence retention selected for the study includes:

- a. Structural measures like provision for additional classrooms.
- b. Whether summer Schools for unenrolled and drop out children or organized or not.
- c. Whether steps are taken to constitute for overall improvement of ecology of teaching, learning and for seeking their support in retention etc.

iii) Quality

Some of the aspects that have a bearing on overall quality include:

- a. Whether Training to teachers is provided or not.
- b. Whether special grant for preparing teaching / learning materials is sanctioned and availed or not.
- c. Whether new text books are generated or not.

iv) Equity

- a. Whether there is a noticeable increase in the enrollment of Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, and Backward Castes pupils.
- b. Whether the intervention resulted in decrease of gender gap or not.

Thus the study intends to investigate achievement of goal of universalisation through the above objectives.

Evaluation of public policies constitutes part of the policy process itself. Though 1968, 1986 and 1992 policy outcomes are not comprehensively evaluated, internationally funded DPEP seem to have made some difference. Evaluation being part of this intervention some state agencies are commissioned by government of India for a review of the programme. Agencies like NIEPA, NCERT, and Ed.cil etc are associated with evaluation. Besides a study by NIEPA, individual studies are also reviewed primarily to know the processes of implementation, including problems there of. What follows is a brief review of available and selected studies.

a) Access

A study conducted by National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) found that DPEP phase -1 districts have done better in terms of enrollment from 1993-94 to 1996-97. The increase in enrollment between DPEP and non -DPEP districts in four states- Madhya Pradesh, Haryana, Maharashtra, Assam ranged from 3.7 percent to 16.8 percent. In Kerala and Tamil Nadu, where child population is reported to be declining, decrease in enrollment in DPEP districts is lower than that of non DPEP districts. Overall Enrollment in 1996-97 in 39 out of 42 DPEP phase -1 districts stood at 6,30,000 compared to six lakhs in the earlier years".

² A(->iiiiwnl Ynsli, "Access niul Kelention - The Impact of DPI'I', National overview", *Dept of Education. Government of India, cil.CII. \()W.*

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Further a national trend analysis conducted by NIEPA in 42 districts of DPEP, phase-1 showed an additional enrollment of 13.5 lakhs children (1995-96 and 1997-98). Over 5.7 lakhs children were enrolled during 1997-98 alone. The highest increase is in Assam followed by Haryana (15.9%) and Maharashtra (14.6%) in 1996-97. When compared to national average of 9.4 percent the achievement is impressive. In 1997-98 the highest increase in enrollment was in Madhya Pradesh (10.5%) among DPEP phase-1 states³. Enrollment of children on primary school has been positively influenced by ECCE centers. Children coming from ECCE centers are more regular and reported to be coming cleaner to school⁴.

Shukla (1994)⁵ conducted a study on the levels of attainment of primary school children in various states' of DPEP in India. In his study pupil's achievement was found to be positively related with father's education, facility for learning and educational environment at home. Jangira (1994)⁶ while giving the results of Baseline Assessment Studies [BAS] of the eight DPEP States' found that students scored low in reading as well in mathematics because the lack of fathers education.

³ Aggarwal Yash, "National Trend Analysis of Access and Retention", *Dept of Education, Government of India*, lid.CIL 1998.

* "Rally Childhood Care and Education in DPEP-1: An Assessment, Department of Pro- School Elementary Education", *NCERT*, 1997.

⁵ Shukla, "Attainments of Primary School Children in Various States, *Indian Educational Review*", Vol.29, *Uo.\,NCT.IU* New Delhi, 1994, P.23-25.

⁶ Jangira N.K, "Learning Achievement of Primary Education School **Children** in Reading and Mathematics: Research based Interventions in Primary Education - The DPEP Strategy", *Indian Educational Review*, Vol.29, No. 1, *hX'I-RT*, New Delhi, 1994, p.46.

Satvir Singh & R.R. Saxena (1995)⁷ has shown how mother's as well father's education and occupation has positive association with pupils achievement and are mostly consistent across the states. This was found out through their achievement in mathematics in various States' substantially with in Schools from the highest 80.4% in Kerala to the lowest 39.4% for Karnataka. In language the corresponding position fifth class 86.3% for Kerala and 54.8% for Karnataka. Andhra Pradesh is also reported to be having these disparities. It is therefore felt that such interventions are necessary for better achievement in educationally backward district like in Andhra Pradesh.

Student's performance is found to be good in public funded primary Schools. This case was proved by V K. Jain & OP Arora (1995)^K in their Baseline Assessment Studies [BASJ]. The students of Kerala registered better performance in Mathematics and language also because they have access to full cycle of primary Schooling. One of the limitations of the study is its scope. Access has to be studied in a context. It is not clear whether it is a major aspect of the study or not.

K.B. Rath (1995)⁹ conducted the study on effects of pupil and school level variables on the achievement of SC/ST students, for which data was collected under

⁷ Satvir Singh & R.R. Saxena, "Achievement Differences und School Effects", *Indian Educational Review*, Vol.30, No. 1, NCERT, 1995, New Delhi, p.7.

^K V.K. Jain & O.I. Arora, "Effects of School Level Variables on Achievement **Gap between 13oys and Girls**", *Indian Educational Review*, Vol.30, No. 1, NCI:RT, New **Delhi, 1995. p.30.**

⁹ KB. Rath, "Effect or Pupil and School level Variables on the Achievement of Scheduled Caste / Scheduled Tribes Students", *Indian Educational Review*, Vol.30, No 1, NCHRT, New Delhi, 1995, p.57.

BAS, covering 44 DPEP districts'. This study found that parental education helped pupils achievement. Father or mothers Illiteracy and poverty causes not to send their children to Schools; its effects in decrease of SC/ST students enrollment.

The above studies based on three major variables like coping with mathematics & language and parental education and poverty. As a policy researcher found some gaps in these studies. Commissioned studies on selected aspects are necessary for policy correction. Micro level studies throw more light on access. However not all studies are focusing on the type or nature of the school, number of teachers in the school and the social implications that take place. Some studies have to be undertaken to understand the aspects that determine access. Let's now look at a study on retention.

b) Retention

N.K. Ambasht & K.R. Rath (1995)¹⁰ conducted a study on effect of household community and Schools factors on the enrollment, retention and achievement of Scheduled Tribes children at primary level. Study found that active role played by Village Education Committee is strongly correlated to higher retention in primary Schools. Further this study suggests that construction of new school buildings in tribal areas is not enough. Provision for books in tribal languages is necessary to retain children in tribal language. Further there is need for promoting

¹⁰ N.K. Ambasht, K.B. Rath, "A Study of the Effect of Household Community and School factors on the Enrollment, Retention and Achievement of ST Children at Primary Level", *Indian Educational Review, VoUO*, No. I, NCMV, New Delhi. 1985, IM29-130.

awareness about the significance of education through cultural programmes. Further it is also necessary to recognize the need for a full-fledged district level officer to take care of the educational need of tribal communities. Other aspects of retention seem to have been by and large.

c) Quality

How financial and human resource development improves quality of teaching and learning in particular for in-service training for teachers was covered by a study. The provision of grants to school resulted in improvement of quality as also expenditure on text book updating and curriculum development. These two findings help us to understand how it promotes quality of primary education in a crucial area. In a major departure from the established practice, the government of AP commissioned a study on impact and expenditure review on education¹¹. This study reported that better teachers and qualified teachers, relevant curriculum, and better textbooks can ensure quality. Thus this study focused on how financial incentives will enhance quality.

At the macro a very relevant study was conducted by an educationist. A study on 'Public Expenditure on Education in Andhra Pradesh: A Review of Trends & Issues and Problems', conducted by J.B.G. Tilak (1998)¹² recommended

¹¹ Andrew Lawson, Gorgina Rawle, V. Ralna Reddy, 13. Shiva Reddy, Harold Thomas "Government of Andhra Pradesh **Impact** & Expenditure Review for School Education", Draft Report, *Oxford Policy Management, Oxford*, 2002, p.122.

¹² Jandyala B.G. Tilak, "Public Expenditure on Education in Andhra Pradesh: **A Review of Trends** Issues and Problems", *N/TA*, New Delhi, Aug 1998, P. 167.

enhanced allocation to education (at least to the extent of 6% GDP). It was also stated that the proportion of spending on education be increased from 35% to 40% in total government expenditure. Higher allocations, the author felt strongly promotes quality of education.

While the study above underscored the need for stepping up investment in public education, a related study cautions us about implications of neglecting public funded education.

Ruddar Datt (2002)¹³ stated that there is negligence of government Schools and felt that lack of finances affected performance of government Schools. All the goals of UEE like enrollment and retention, quality were neglected. When compared to private sector Schools, these government Schools have poor infrastructure, lack of sanitation, lack of drinking water facilities, lack of good buildings etc. One more major finding of this study is quality of teachers in these Schools also not very high; dominant presence of single teacher Schools are one more finding. DPEP proposed to address these issues including quality, qualitative training for teachers, sanctioning of the special grants for Schools and teachers and teacher training centres.

The above studies are mainly concerned with financial aspects for education. As a policy researcher it must be stated that finance is only one of the factors to improve the quality of education though it is central to all other concerns. However,

¹³ Ruddar Datt, "Education Policy and Equity" (Hnk.Sudha Roo. Ed. i.e. Educational Policies in India: Annly^dinniiRWi^w of Promise and Performance), AV/s/M,, New Delhi, 2002, P.399-404.

there are some factors other than the finances which will influence the quality of education. Enhancement of the funds or allocation of the more and more funds no doubt plays a vital role in quality. Furthermore, DPEP perceives quality in a different perspective. Hence, study of both policy formulation and implementation are important than the financial aspects alone to improve quality of education.

Teacher training programmes under DPEP intervention found training as compulsory for teachers at their respective institutions. These include: Block Resource Centres [BRCs] and Cluster Resource Centres [CRCs] and District Institute for Educational Training [DIET's] etc. This was a most important point investigated by the G. Viswanathappa¹⁴ and his team. The team studied on "Impact of State Resource Group training programme on teachers class room practices and learner achievement in DPEP districts of Andhra Pradesh". A major finding is that quality of education can be provided only through well trained teacher, interesting curriculum and textbooks. A point that seems to have been overlooked by the study is need for special grants and incentives necessary to improve the quality of education. DPEP is expected also to improve the quality of education.

Individual grants to teachers, special grants to schools are very important to achieve improvement of quality of education¹⁵. This was the one of the major

¹⁴ G. Viswanathappa I) Basnvayya U. Lnkshimirmiyuna C. Jangaiah, "Impact of State Resource Group (SRG) Training Programme on Teachers Class room Practice and Learners Achievement in DPEP Districts of A.P", *Regional Institute of Education*, Mysore, 1999.

¹⁵ Research Evaluation and Studies Unit, Technical Support Group for DPEP: "Utilization and Effectiveness of Teachers grant mid School grant in DPEP States", New Delhi, September 1997.

findings of the study conducted by the research evaluation and studies unit, a technical group for DPEP. It was proved through studies during first phase of DPEP. One more finding is that the grants are released towards end of the year. This team recommended that the grants ought to be released in the beginning of academic year, which will contribute to improving quality of the teaching. It was felt that better training institutions are necessary for the improvement of overall quality.

Establishment and strengthening of BRCs and CRCs at their respective places are also necessary for strengthening the training the quality of education. This was found by the study conducted by the educational consultants India Ltd.¹⁶ A Study on sub-district structures records that these centres do provide better training to teachers. Further these are found to be useful to the VECs members and MRP's and MEO's. Therefore it can be stated that BRCs and CRCs are useful for quality training.

R. Govinda & N.V. Varghese (1992)¹⁷ identified minimum facilities necessary in a primary school for quality education especially in terms of a school building. It is necessary for the study to note that there is a separate classroom for each of the five grades (class 1,2,3,4,5), adequate number of trained teachers possessing minimum prescribed qualifications, blackboards in usable condition with

¹⁶ Educational Consultation India Ltd, "Study on Sub-districts Structures BRCs & CRCs in DPEP 1" Slates", *Government of India*, New Delhi, 1996.

¹⁷ R. Govinda & N.V. Vnrghese, "Quality of Primary Education: An Empirical Study", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, Vol. No. 1, New Delhi. 1992.

chalk and duster in each classroom, textbooks, and writing material with all children in the class room. Provision for qualitative infrastructure facilities to the school plays an important role in improving the teaching, learning achievement. Cumulatively it will enhance school quality. Key interventions through DPEP monitoring and evaluation are also felt necessary.

d) Equity

Under the DPEP interventions equity concerns cover enrolment and dropouts (especially SC/ST's and girls). Disparities between the region and states are also studied. Relevant reviews are presented below.

Universal primary schooling is still a distant goal. Particularly for females amongst the socially disadvantaged groups i.e. SC/ST, Muslim and OBC's in remote rural areas and urban slums. There is a clear disparity among the States in this regard. Especially in female literacy and in tribal areas. K.C. Nautiyal (1995) ¹⁸ found that proportion of Scheduled Tribe females with primary level of education varies from 0.7% in Andhra Pradesh to 25.1% in Mizoram. A study by VN Reddy ¹⁹ found that the gross enrollment ratios for girls are less vis-a-vis boys; both at **the** primary and the upper primary levels in rural areas of the major states in India. In the case of urban areas the differences are not substantial. Gender disparities in the gross

¹⁸ K.C. Nautiyal, "Disparities in Public Expenditure on Primary Education and their Impact on Equality, Quality and Quantity", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, Vol. IX, No.4, 1995, p.364.

¹⁹ V.N. Reddy, "Gross Enrollment, Drop out and Enrollment Ratio's in India: A State Level Analysis", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, Vol IX, No.3, July 1995, P.240.

enrolment ratios both at the primary and upper primary levels in urban areas are smaller as compared with those in rural areas.

In a study of BEP (Bihar Education Project) ²⁰ it is suggested that teachers punctuality and regular attendance helps increase the quality, along with raise of enrolment and attendance of students especially SC/ST's and of girls.

A Majority of SCs and ST's, it was found in Bihar fall well below the poverty line. The percentage of SC population living below the poverty line was estimated to be 44.7%. And 52.6 % of ST population is living below the poverty line. There has been no change in the occupational pattern of the SCs and ST's and they still constitute bulk of the cultivator's class, agricultural landless workers, constitution workers and workers in the unorganized sector. They suffer from long periods of unemployment and under-employment. Poverty, ignorance and lack of employment opportunities and so on, led to exploitation. A large number of SC/ST children discontinued their studies prematurely, before completing the level for which they were enrolled²¹. Such a situation obtains the specific policy need to provide a better lives to the SC & ST's. The Government of India intends to empower these sections through education. Hence, the policy makers want to justify DPEP programme.

²⁰ Government of Bihar: "Bihar Educational Project", *United India Press*, New Delhi, 1996.

²¹ S.K. Panth, "Is Education a Priority for Scheduled Castes: A Study of Three Districts of Bihar", *Indian Journal of Social Work* Vol. 61, Issue January 2000, P.67.

Karuna Chanana (1995)²² made a comparative study of 'Gender Inequality in Primary Schooling in India: The Human Rights perspective'. The gender gap in educational opportunities is still continuing. It is found that women who account for nearly half the Indian population are deprived of the right to education, information, knowledge skills and thinking associated with formal education. Such studies perhaps informed the DPEP which attempted a correction.

In another study on 'Gender Gap' Kusum K. Prem (2002)²³ observed that there are wide gaps within among females and within different caste and tribal groups. Similarly, regional disparities among different states and within the state among different population groups. Rural and urban disparities cut across all other disparities. She feels that there are no special inputs for improving the quality of educational attainments. She drew the attention of the policy makers in continuance of two types of school system despite our professed policy of pursuing the goal of common school system. Another important point worth to be noted from this study is that there is need for a critical appraisal incentives offered to vulnerable groups.

²² **Kamina** Chunana, "Gender Inequality in Primary Schooling in India: The Human Rights Perspective", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, Vol. X, No.4, Oct. 1996, P.362.

²³ Kusum K. Prem, "Access Equity and Hqunlity in Eduעותion", **K. Sudha Rao (ed.) Educational Policies in India; Analysis & Review of l'roinisc and, PerformtHICS. NIEPA, New Delhi, 2002 p. 179-198.**

In a study on 'Girls Enrollment' Usha Nayar (1995)²⁴ found that ill effect of male unemployment are passed on to women and children, particularly girls. These have to attend to domestic chores and sibling care. Hence they either do not join school or drop out. She strongly feels that if this trend continues, it will affect the goal. Low parental education and apathy to education of daughters, and low access and provision of educational facilities are also some reasons for the lower enrollment of girls.

DPEP plans correct the above deficiencies including the general gap by establishment of Early Childhood Centres [ECE]. These centres are taking special care for girl's enrollment and retention. Not only this some awareness campaigns programmes are also conducted through VEC's, School Committees and Teacher Parental Association. So that, as a policy researcher I want to go deep into this and to find out various DPEP interventions to improve the overall primary education in the State of Andhra Pradesh and more specifically on Guntur districts.

The following inferences can be drawn from the studies reviewed above.

- a) All the studies are commissioned by apex bodies like NIEPA and NCERT.
- b) The scope is restricted to access, retention, quality, equity.
- c) No study is exclusively focused on all the four objectives in a educationally backward district like Andhra Pradesh.

²⁴ Usha Nayar, "Gender Issues in Primary Education", *Indian Educational Review*, Vol.30, No.1, NCERT, New Delhi, 1995, p.224.

- d) No comprehensive study was undertaken in Guntur district.
- e) Most of the studies are institutional and very few are individual works.

Therefore the researcher proposes to study the main objectives of DPEP especially in Guntur district which is neither in the category of high level literacy nor low levels literacy but in the median category. Study of impact of DPEP Guntur is rewarding as this has vast scope for improvement.

3.10 Progress of DPICP in Andhra Pradesh and Ciinlur District

DPEP Andhra Pradesh is implemented in two phases. In first phase the program is implemented in five districts Vizianagaram, Nellore, Kurnool, Karimnagar and Warangal. Based on it, the program is subsequently extended to 14 districts, four districts from Coastal Andhra region i.e. Srikakulam, Visakhapatnam, Guntur and Prakasam, three districts of Rayalascema region i.e. Chittoor, Cuddapah and Anantapur and seven districts from Telcngana region i.e. Mahaboobnagar, Medak, Nizamabad, Adilabad, Karimnagar and Nalgonda

3.11 Status of DPEP in Guntur District

Here I would like to give briefly the progress report of DPEP in Andhra Pradesh especially in Guntur district up to the April 2002: in all 5227 new primary Schools are planned to be opened, and 225000 pupils were enrolled²⁵. In Guntur 189 schools arc opened and 19664 aic pursuing education.

²⁵ "Andhra Pradesh District Primary Education Programm [APDPHPJ Progress - DPEP I & II Districts", *Directorate of School Education, Hyderabad, 2002.*

Appointment of Teachers

In all primary Schools started under DPEP, 4374 regular teachers **were** appointed and 2211 teachers are to be appointed by the end December 2002. In particularly the Guntur district 189 new primary Schools **are opened** and 19664 pupils were enrolled and 49 regular teachers were appointed, 140 teachers to be appointed by the end of 2002 December.

With a view to enhance enrollment of girls and their retention, government started 5529 Early Childhood Centres [ECE] within the premises of school. In Guntur district 460 Early Childhood Centres are now operational. These ECEs enable girl children, leave their young ones in ECEs to attend school. Trained personnel handle these centres.

An effort is made to redesign the teaching techniques through DPEP intervention and training methods. A fresh look into the methodology of teaching will lead to the evolving of participatory training, strategy with impetus on activities generated by teachers and taught. Quality refers to the attainment of expected behavioral changes among children in cognitive, effective and psychomotor domains. Quality is focused in DPEP programme by adoption of two fold strategy 1). Improving teaching competencies and classroom practices through activities. 2).

The criteria followed for selection of habitations for opening of new schools are 1). General habitations with a minimum population of 300, in case of SC/ST habitation 200 population and in the school less habitation of the district descending order of population. 2). School less habitation with high family literacy 3). School habitations with girl population.

District Primary Education Programme (DPEP): An Overview

Organizing recruitment training programme for all the Mandal Resource Persons [MRP] and Mandal Education Officers [MEO] and teachers. From 1998 - 2002, DPEP State Directorate conducted the training programmes for MRC's & MEO's and teachers very regularly. So far 132254 teachers attended training programmes at various training institutes of DPEP. 733 MRP's & 260 MEO's attended these training. In Guntur 9867 teachers, 177 MRP's & 59 MEO's attended training.

With a view to help the schools and teachers to develop teaching, learning material for each primary school, DPEP is provided with an annual grant of Rs.2000/- and every primary teacher with Rs.500/-, Similarly each teacher training centre is sanctioned an annual grant of Rs.2000/-. DPEP State Directorate recorded that 7422 schools 22266 teachers and 1367 teacher training centres got these grants. Guntur DPEP has not availed this grant.

Further DPEP provides opportunities for people's participation in educational development. Across the state it is reported that there are nearly 30,500 Village Education Committees [VEC] and 33314 School Committees were formed. Nearly 43,530 parent teachers associations are also formed at the primary school level. In Guntur district 2,500 VEC's and 2,574 School Committees were formed and 2,594 parent teachers associations are formed.

3.12 Conclusion

The above brief analysis shows how district primary education programme is designed for target achievement by the end of December 2005. DPEP interventions

District Primary Education Programme (DPEP): An Overview

are different from the earlier interventions like Operation Black Board [OBB] and Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Programme [APPEP] as DPEP attempts both micro, macro interventions in primary education. However it needs to be stated that DPEP target achievement depends on effective implementation. These are likely to indicate the prospects of achievement of 'education for all'¹ by the end of 2005. The literacy rate of Andhra Pradesh was 44.08% in 1991 and rose to 61.11% in 2001. Hence it is necessary to study the process of implementation of DPEP intervention in order to attain target. . Guntur can reach the international norm of 'education for all' if the policy correction are put into implementation.

The next chapter presents a profile of Guntur district as a study of it helps us to know its strengths.

CHAPTER - 4

Guntur District: A Profile

The name 'Guntur district is nothing but extension of the name of the town Guntur'. It is located between the north latitudes of 15° 18' and 16° 50' and the east longitudes of 70° 10' and 80° 55'. It is bounded on the north by the district of Nalgonda and Krishna. On the east by the Bay of Bengal and district of Krishna, on the South by the district of Prakasam and the West by the districts of Prakasam, Mahabubnagar.

Various etymological explanations are given for the name. Some believe that connotes *Kitmta* meaning pit of land. The local kings or chiefs used to fire guns from this land to mark the mid day. The town where the days are marked by firing from a *hunt a* was named after the pit and that is how it is referred to as Guntur. The satavahanas, who came to power in the region of the Maurya dynasty, ruled from Dhanyakatakam in this district, which flourished as the centric for Telugu culture and civilization. This great city subsequently decayed and transformed itself into Dharanikota on the banks the Krishna.

4.1 Historic and Cultural Heritage

The District occupies a very conspicuous and prominent place in the freedom struggle. Great leaders hailing from the district like Konda Venkatappaiah, Unnava

Laxminarayana, Gollapudi Sitarama Sastry, Acharya **N.G. Ranga**, **Vavilala Gopala Krishnaiah** played a prominent role in the freedom movement. **The construction and extension of the great irrigation system of Krishna and Godavari resulted in concomitant improvement in demand for labour. This in turn strengthened the administration. Once this took place, the need for a separate district of Guntur was felt and realised in 1904. In the 1960's the right bank canal of the Nagarjuna sagar project brought prosperity to the arid and dry areas in the district.**

4.2 Stages in Formation of the District

Guntur district was formed on the P¹ October 1904. The erstwhile Krishna district was divided into East Godavari, Guntur and Nellore. Thus in 1904, **Guntur** was constituted into a separate independent district with the areas of the taluka of Tenali, Bapatla, Guntur, Sattenapalli, Narsaraopet, Vinukonda and palnadu of old Krishna district and Ongole taluk from Nellore district. Again on first July 1909 Tenali taluk was split into two taluks namely Tenali and Repalle. This administration division was retained intact till February 1970.

The Ongole taluk from Guntur district got separated in February 1970 and a new district is carved out called Ongole district. Officially it is referred to as Prakasam district. Thus Guntur lost Ongole taluk. **It is left with only eight taluks** namely 1. Guntur 2. Sattenapalli 3. Tenali 4. Repalle 5. Bapatla, 6. Narsaraopet, 7. Vinukonda and 8. Palnadu. With effect from 1st November 1977 again, these eight taluks were reorganized into eleven taluks by upgrading the sub-taluks of

1 Mangalagin 2. Ponnuru 3. Macherla as taluks bifurcating the old taluks of Guntur, Bapatla and Palnadu respectively.

Later, 1980, Chilakaluripet taluk was formed as 12th taluk taking parts from Narasaraopet and Guntur taluks. During 1981-82, Repalle taluk was sub divided into Pallapatla and Repalle; Tenali into Tenali and Emani, Guntur taluk into Guntur and Prathipadu; Sattenapalli taluk into Sattenapalli, Tyalluru and Rajupalem; Vinukonda Taluk into Viiukonda, Ipuru and Gurazala into Gurazala and Piduguralla. Thus 19 taluks came into existence by the end of 1981 -82. Though it was contemplated in 1981-82 to constitute Amialhaluru and Tadikonda also as taluks to coincide with the 21 Panchayat Samithis, yet they did not come into existence.

A further administrative reorganization took place in mid 80's. Fifty-seven Mandals have come into existence with effect from 25th May 1985 in the place of erstwhile taluks. The main objective of the Government in keeping Mandals is to take administration closer to the people and to create more manageable unit of administration.

Guntur district is well known for the men for sacrifice, courage, intellect, leadership, educational advancement. The famous Telugu poet of modern times "*Sri Currant Joshuva*", holding the title "*or'Navayuga Kavi Chakravarthi*" and famous radical writer "*(indi/uiti Venkaia Chalum*" hail from this district.

The health and educational services of the Roman Catholic Church (RCM) Andhra Evangelical Luther Church (AELC), Church of South India (CSI) and Baptist church stand apart through generations.

4.3 Demographic Characteristics

The district with such historic and cultural background may possibly reflect it in its typical demographic characteristics. The demographic features of district are presented in table 4.1.

Table: 4.1
Guntur District: A Demographic Profile

Sl. No.	Dimensions of Characteristics	Details
1	Area	11391 sq.km
2	Total no of revenue mandals	57
3	Total no of inhabited villages	692
4	No of towns	15
5	Density	360/ sq.km
6	Population	4465144
	Rural population	3179384
	Urban population	1285760
	Male	2250279
	Female	2214865
7	Scheduled Caste population	818005
	Males	414712
	Females	403293
8	Scheduled Tribes population	208157
	Males	106101
	Females	102056
9	l-iterates	2455965
	Male	1407402
	Female	1048563
	Literacy rate	62.5%
10	Education	
	School going age group children	514402
	Degree colleges	32
	Junior colleges	51
	Schools including Upper primary and High Schools	736
	Primary schools	2888
	Enrolment in Degree Colleges	21504
	Enrolment in Junior Colleges	13217
	Enrolment in Upper Primary and High Schools	
	Enrolment in Primary Schools	354889
11	Total workers	2190299
	n) Cultivators	389821
	h) Agriculture laborers	1073447
	c) Mouse hold industry	53117
	dj Other wnkiM-s	673854
	Workers as % of total population	49.1%

Source: 1. Collected from Records of DFO, Revenue, and Statistics Departments of the Guntur District.
2. Registrar General, Census of India 2001.

The District occupies an area of 1391.00 sq.kms. The density of population is 361 per sq.kms. According to 2001 Census, the total population of the district is 44,65,144 of which 31,79,384 lakhs is rural and 12,85,760 lakhs is urban. Translated into percentage the rural population in the district is 71.20% while that of urban is 28.80%.

The SC population in the district forms 18.3% of the total while ST accounts for 4.7%. It may be relevant to mention here that out of the 264 towns in the State, 15 are located in this district. This perhaps is an index of the development of the district.

The important rivers that traverse through the district are Krishna, Gundlakamma, Musi, the Chandravanka and Naguleru. The climate in this district is generally very warm in summer. Rainfall received is about 814 mm. Of this 499mm is received through southwest monsoons between June and September. The black and red soils are prominent in the district. This is explained by the fact that 69% of the total area of the district is black soils while 24% of the total area has the red loamy. The black soils of the district are considered most fertile. Small extent of alluvial soils is also found along the banks of Krishna River.

4.4 Major Characteristics with reference to Economic Resources

The forest area in the district is 1617.00 sq. kms. This constitutes 14.2% of the total area of the district. Guntur district forms part of Indian peninsula shields, which is considered to be technically stable and is endowed with rich mineral wealth.

There are **substantial** resources of limestone, lead, zinc, copper, clay, quartz, slates etc. The limestones are massive, and flabby. The fine granite identified resources is estimated at about 2455 million tones.

There are 36 electric substations existing in the district. Almost all the main villages in the district are electrified as on 31.3.1999. Of the 1019 hamlets in the district, 723 hamlets have been electrified. Explained in percentages, it may be stated that about 71% of hamlets are electrified while the rest are yet to receive electrification.

Agriculture is the main occupation of rural population in the district. The district occupies foremost place in the State for the cultivation of food and non-food crops especially paddy, cotton, tobacco and chillies. With the advent of Nagarjuna sagar project and the effort made by the government to provide minor irrigation facilities during the decade, the irrigated area has been increased from 876760 during 1990-91 to 2000-01. Guntur has become a pioneer to tobacco and cotton trade in the entire country. Cement is being exported from Tadcpalli and Macherla factories. There are 143 agricultural market committees with 36 market yards transacting business in important commodities like cotton, paddy, groundnut, chillies and turmeric. Limestone and polish stones are being exported from Gurazala, Piduguralln, Dacheipalli and Mnchcrla factories. The district is rich both in marine and inland fish. The marine fishermen population is 60,000 out of which 20000 are active fishermen.

There are 34 large and medium scale industries functioning in the district with a capital investment of Rs. 12981 lakhs providing employment to 10651 persons. There are 600 small-scale industries functioning with a total capital investment of Rs. 106 lakhs providing employment to 3931 persons.

There are 324 banks in the district. Out of these 247 are commercial banks, 30 cooperatives and 45 pertaining to regional rural banks. In addition there is one branch of Andhra Pradesh State Financial Corporation and 1 branch of Andhra bank fisherman cooperative society limited.

With a length of 81.95 kms the national highway-5 from Calcutta to Chennai passes through the district. The length of the road maintained by public works department is 3384.45kms. Zilla parishad maintains 1747.22Kms and Mandal Parishad maintains 1598.72Kms. Bus transport is maintained by APSRTC in the district by plying 1000 buses.

There are many places of tourist interest in the district like Ainaravarathi, Agnigundala, Aminabnd, Bapatla, Bellankonda, Dachepalli, Nizampatnam, Durgi, Guntur, Kotappakonda, Tadikonda, Mangalagiri, Macherla, Ponnur, Pedakakani, Piduguralla, Rentachintala, Sangnm jagarlamudi, Tadepalli and Suryalanka.

4.5 Education Profile of the District

Guntur district was divided into 3 Revenue Divisions on the basis of economic development i.e., Guntur, Tenali and Narsaraopet divisions. It also consists of 57 mandals. This mandal system exists since 1985 onwards. "Achampeta, Amaravathi, Bellamkonda, Guntur, Krosuru, Thadepalle, Mangalagiri, Tadikonda, Pedakurapadu, Sattenapalle, Rajupalem, Muppalla, Phirangipuram, Medikonduru, Pedakakani, Vatticherukuru, Pratlupadu, Pedanandipadu (total 18) mandals come under the Guntur Revenue Division. Macharla, Rentchintala, Gurazala, Dacheppalle, Machavaram, Piduguralla, Karempudi, Durgi, Velldurthi, Bollapalle, Nakarikallu, Edlapadu, Nadendla, Narsaraopeta, Rompicherla, Ipur, Savalyapuram, Vinukonda, Nuzendla, Chillakuluripeta (total 20) mandals come under the Narsaraopeta revenue division. Duggirala, Kollipara, Kolluru, Vemuru, Tenali, TSundur, Chebrole, Kakumanu, Ponnur, Amruthalur, Cherukupalle, Bhattiprolu, Repalle, Nagaram, Nizampatnam, Pittalavaripalem, Karlapalem, Bapatla (total 19) mandals come under the Tenali revenue division.

Government of Andhra Pradesh appointed the Mandal Education Officer (MEO) for each mandal since 1985. The main functions of the MEO are to look after the educational aspects in the mandal.

The literacy rates have increased steadily in the past 4 decades. **In terms of** literacy compared to other coastal districts in Andhra Pradesh, Guntur is one of **the** backward districts. As mentioned earlier it occupies 9th place in the state. In 1951, the

literacy rate of district was 17.30% with 24.33% male and only 10.04% **female**. In 2001 literacy rate was 62.5% it is just above the State average. Of this 71.2% were male and 53.7% were female. These indications show that there is a massive improvement in the female literacy rate by the year 2001. Even in 1991 the literacy was 46.35% and male and female literacy was 56.54% and 35.85% respectively. By 2001 there seems to be a sudden upward slant in the literacy curve.

Percentage of literacy increased steadily though it never attained the target of 'total literacy'. The variations in the literacy rate among the male and female and SC and ST sections was found to be high. SC's and ST's literacy rates were very low. Among Scheduled Caste, the literacy population is a dismal 37.49% and among scheduled tribes the literacy is 20.90%. Compared to the attainment of the counterparts of other Coastal districts in Andhra Pradesh, it is even lower. The main reason for this is a large chunk of population is settled in the rural areas. Most of the SC/ST households are economically backward, and mostly depend on the agricultural labour. Yet another reason for this is the lower value and priority attached to the education. This trickles down to a lower importance associated with education, especially school education. Such illiteracy and low awareness resulted in certain superstitions prevail in their society even today.

For the improvement of the school education, the Government of Andhra Pradesh introduced a number of programmes, such as the *Operation Black Board*, *Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Programme*, *Non Formal Schools*, *Ashram*

Schools are a few to name. However none of these programmes could reach their target.

As yet another new initiative, in the year 1998, Government of India implementing the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP). The DPEP emerged out of the findings of low literacy rates among women in the census data. Thus the low percentage of female literacy jolted the Government to take appropriate steps to promote female literacy. As a first step, school enrollment of girls was encouraged. As a consequence, from 1998 onwards a shift in the emphasis of district administration was observed. This in fact culminated in an increased enrollment of girl children as well as the children from SC and ST communities. The figures mentioned in table.4.2 reveals the facts mentioned above.

Table: 4.2
Schools in Guiliir District: Type, Management, Enrollment and Teachers

Management	State Govt.	MPP/ZPP	Municipal	Pvt. Aided	Pvt. Unaided	Total
Primary Institutions	23 (0.5H)	2353 (71.45)	223 (0.72)	256 (8.86)	33 (1.14)	2888 (100)
Enrollment (All)	2055 (0.5H)	272122 (76.68)	29699 (8.37)	43759 (12.33)	7254 (2.04)	354889 (100)
Teachers	61 (0.74)	6712 (81.15)	472 (5.71)	841 (10.17)	182 (2.20)	8268 (100)
BC Students Enrollment	620 (0.53)	87512 (74.74)	9375 (8.01)	16981 (14.50)	2603 (2.22)	117091 (100)
SC Students Enrollment	371 (0.32)	89663 (76.69)	8550 (7.31)	17480 (14.95)	852 (0.73)	116916 (100)
ST Students Enrollment	411 (1.41)	23023 (78.89)	2585 (8.86)	2764 (9.47)	399 (0.37)	29182 (100)
BC Teacher	11 (0.41)	2195 (81.75)	136 (5.07)	289 (10.76)	54 (2.01)	2685 (100)
SC Teacher	6 (0.37)	1414 (57.15)	90	88 (5.43)	24 0-W	1622 (100)
ST Teacher	8 (5)	148 (92.5)	1 (0.62)	2 (1.25)	1	160 (100)

Source: DEO Office, Guiliir.

Total number of schools in the district is 3624 as per the records in the 2002. Of these 2888 are the primary schools, 291 are upper primary schools, 420 are high schools and only 3 are the higher secondary schools. The logic behind this is drastically reduced number of upper primary schools (291) from (2888) primary schools prompts one to think that the large dropout rates at this stage is an accepted assumption by the educational planners themselves. These schools were managed by the different managements. It was found that 2376 schools are managed by State Government Mandal Praja Panshads (MPP), and Zilla Praja Parishads (ZPP), On

other hand 223 schools are found to be managed by Municipality while 256 schools are private aided, and only 33 are unaided schools.

Total enrollment of the district is the 6,47,978, of these 3,54,889 is primary school enrollment (I-V). Looking at caste wise distinction of enrollment the Backward Classes (BC's) enrollment in the district (I-V) is 117091, Scheduled Caste pupil's enrollment 1 16916 and Scheduled Tribes pupil's enrollment 29182.

Out of this total enrollment at primary level, 2,72,122 children are enrolled in schools managed by MPP/ZPP. This is found to be followed by the second largest enrollment in private aided schools where 43,759 are found to be enrolled. Only 29,699 children are found to be enrolled in Municipal schools. A negligible size of 7254 children are found to have joined private unaided schools. Thus figures clearly indicate people preference for MPP/ZPP schools.

Teacher recruitment showed an increase in the district. Now there are 16108 teachers are there, of them 8268 are the primary (I-V) school teachers. Among them 2685 are BC, 1622 are SC teachers and 160 ST teachers. The Teacher -Pupil ratio in the district is on an average 46. With the increase in school enrollment and recruitment of teachers, the percentage of literacy in population is also expected to increase. Table 4.3 depicts enrollment details of the three selected mandals.

Table: 4.3
Maiulal-wise Distribution of Schools: Enrolment, Teachers-wise

Category Wise	Name of the Maiulal	Durgi	Manglagiri	Tenali	Guntur District Total
Enrollment	No. Of Schools	30 (1.04)	53 (1*4)	95 (3.29)	2888 (100)
Enrollment	Boys	2337 (1.31)	3618 (2.03)	5396	177877
	Girls	2241 (1.27)	3982 (2.25)	5908 (3.34)	177012 (100)
	Total	4578 (1.29)	7600 (2.14)	11304 (3.19)	354889 (100)
BC Enrollment	Boys	1302 (2.11<)	1 505 (2.52)	1796 (3.00)	59788 (100)
	Girls	1016 (1.7*)	1597 (2.79)	2022	57303 000)
	Total	2318 (1.9S)	3102 (2.65)	3818 ^•27;	117091 000)
SC Enrollment	Boys	634 (1.05)	1426 (2.36)	2158 (3.58)	60347 (100)
	Girls	591 (1.04)	1317 (2.33)	2280 (4.03)	56567 (100)
	Total	1225 (1.04H)	2743 (2.37)	4438 (3.H)	116916 (100)
ST Enrollment	Boys	414 (2.63)	147 (0.93)	497	15757 (100)
	Girls	329 (2.45)	105 (0.79)	566 r ^	13425 (100)
	Total	743 (2.55)	252 (0.H7)	1063 (3.64)	29182 (100)
Total Teachers	Men	87 (1.9H)	43 (0.9H)	96 (2. W	4400 000)
	Women	11 (0.2H)	96 (2.4H)	191 (4.94)	3868 000)
	Total	98 (1.W)	139	287 (3.47)	8269 (100)
Teacher-Pupil Ratio	T.P. Rat	55	54	45	46

Source: DUO Office, (jimliir.

As per table 4.3 the **total** enrollment in the district is **3,54,889**, distributed across 2888 schools, spread over 57 mandals. Thus on an average the schools in each mandal enrolls about 61.50 children. In terms of percentage this comes to about 1.7% enrollment in each mandal. Compared to this district average **the** percentage of enrollment in Tenali (3.34%) and Mangalagiri (2.14%) are found to be higher while the enrollment in Durgi (1.29%) is lower. The reason for this being that Tenali and Mangalagiri are basically urban regions while Durgi comes under rural sector. **The** same fact also holds good in case of enrollment of SC, ST and BC children.

It may be interesting to have a detailed profile of the three mandals included in this study.

Table: 4.4
Profile of Sample Mandals: Durgi

No	Dimensions of Profile	Details
1	Area	405.3 sq km
2	Total no of revenue villages	24
3	Total no of inhabited villages	0
4	No of towns	0
5	Density	110/sqkm
6	Population (only rural)	44640
	Male	22682
	Female	21958
7	Scheduled Caste population	7278(16.3%)
	Males	3709
	Females	3569
8	Scheduled Tribes population	3810 (8.5%)
	Males	1937
	Females	1873
9	Literates	18494(48.2%)
	Male	11688(60.1%)
	Female	6806(35.9%)
	Literacy rate	48.2%
10	Education	
	School going age group children	5103
	Degree colleges	0
	Junior colleges	1
	Schools including UP and US	37
	Primary schools	30
	Enrolment in JC	140
	Enrolment in UP and MS	6604
	Enrolment in Primary Schools (above 1 1 years were also in primary classes)	5679
11	Total workers	26796
	a) Cultivators	8106
	b) Agriculture laborers	14263
	c) Household industry	430
	ri) Othor workers	3997
	Workers as % of total population	60.0%

Source: 1. Culled from Records of DFO, Revenue, and Statistics Departments of the Guntur District.
2. Registrar General, Census of India 2001.

4.6 Profile of Durgi [V1;jml:lil

The name Durgi is derived from 'Durga' the Goddess. On the eastern side of the village, at a distance of 19 Kms to the South-west of Gurazala town a metal road from Gurazala, Macherla and Velduithi connects it. On the Southern side of the village there are hill ranges, with reserved forests; while on the western side is the Buggavagu reservoir. There are nine Kakatiya inscriptions were there in the village. This village is famous for the carving of stone idols. Hence Government of India has started a stone carving industry at this place, for imparting training in this art. Like any other rural area, this place reflects general economic poverty. Majority depend upon agricultural labour. Incidentally it is also known as Naxal prone area in the district because of proximity to Nallamala forest. About 60% of population engages work. Of these 30.3% are in cultivation, 53.2% are in agricultural labour. Only a meager 1.5% are engaged in cottage industry. About 14.9% are engaged in miscellaneous jobs.

Durgi mandal was formed with 24 villages and one town. The total population of Durgi is 44640, Of these 22682 are male and 21958 are the female. Total number of literates in the mandal is 18494. Total SC population is 7278 of which 3709 are male and 3569 are female. The percentage of SC population in the mandal is 16.3%. Out of them 50.96% are male and 49.03% are female. Total ST Population in the mandal is 3810 of these 1937 are male and 1873 are female. The percentage of ST population of the mandal is 8.5% of these 50.83% are male and 49.16% are female.

Literacy rate of the mandal is 48.2%. Of this 60.1% is male and 35.9% is female. This mandal has total of 30 primary schools. These 30 schools together have enrolled 4578. Of these 2337 boys and 2241 are girls. The enrollment of Backward Class (BC) students is 2313. Of this 1302 are male and 1016 are female. Enrollment of SCs is 1225 with 634 male and 1591 female. Total ST Enrollment is 743 of with 414 male and 329 female. Total number of teachers in the mandal is 98. Of these 87 are male and 11 are female teachers. There are 35 BC teachers and 14 SC teachers and only one teacher belongs to the ST community. In the mandal teacher pupil ratio is 1:55. The profile of the Mangalagiri and Tenali will be found in contrast to Durgi. Table 4.5 represents the overall profile of Mangalagiri mandal.

Table: 4.5
Profile of Sample Mmandals: Mangalagiri

SI. No.	Dimensions of Profile	Details
1	Area	142.99 sq.km
2	Total no of revenue villages	12
3	Total no of inhabited villages	11
4	No of towns	1
5	Density	218/sq.km
6	Population	136264
	Rural population	72915
	Urban population	63349
	Male	69009
	Female	67255
7	Scheduled Caste population	22325
	Males	11468
	Females	10857
8	Scheduled Tribes population	3239
	Males	1660
	Females	1579
9	Literates	84000
	Male	47273
	Female	36727
	Literacy rate	69.6%
10	Education	
	School going age group children	15756
	Degree colleges	
	Junior colleges	
	Schools including Upper Primary and High Schools	18
	Primary schools	52
	Enrolment in Degree Colleges	
	Enrolment in Junior Colleges	
	Enrolment in Upper Primary and High Schools	
	Enrolment in Primary Schools	11527
11	Total workers	60584
	a) Cultivators	5728
	b) Agriculture laborers	20862
	c) House hold industry	7124
	d) Other workers	26870
	Workers as % of total population	45.5%

Source: Compiled from Records of DUO, Revenue, and Statistics Departments of the Guntur District.

> ... itsvixirtirCn'ieml. (Census of India 2001.

4.7 Profile of Mangalagiri Maïidal

Situated on the Vijayawada-Madras trunk road about 13 KM. from Vijayawada and 19 Kms from Guntur, Mangalagiri has carved for itself a great name almost from prehistoric times. Its name indicates its situation on the hillock; after which the town itself is named. It is known as the "hill of bliss". The unique feature is the famous temple of Lakshmi Narasimhaswamy, referred to as "Panakala Narasimhaswamy" by virtue of the offering of sweet syrup. Independence movement saw a number of good political leaders in this place. This place is a good abode of communist party. Many communist political leaders have their origin here. Their contributions to the post independence democracy and socialism is highly significant. It is the place known for good cotton fabrics widely exported. Work participation rate in the mandal is 44%. Of this 9.5% are cultivators, 34.4% are agricultural laborers. Another 11.8% are engaged in household industries. Significantly large percentages (44.4%) are found to be engaged in miscellaneous jobs / labour.

Mangalagiri mandal was formed with 11 villages and one town. The total population of Mangalagiri is 136264 where 69009 are male and 67255 are the female. Total number of literates in the mandal is 84000. Total number of S.C. population is 22325 with 11468 male and 10857 female. The percentages of S.C. Population to total population in the mandal 16.4% of them 51.36% are **male and** 48.63% are female. Total number of ST. population in the mandal is 3239 of **these**

1660 are male and 1591 are female. The percentage of ST population to total population of the mandal is 2.4% of these 51.25% male **and 49.12% is female.**

Literacy rate of the mandal is 69.6%. Of this 77.4% is male and 61.7% is female. There are 53 primary schools. The total number of enrollment 7600. Out of this 3618 are boys and 3982 are girls. Enrollment of total number of Backward Class (BC) is 3102. Of this 1505 are male and 1597 are female. **The enrollment of SC students is 2743.** Of these 1426 are male and 1317 are female. Total ST Enrollment is 252 of these 147 are male and 105 is the female. Total number of teachers in the mandal is 139 of these 43 are men and 96 are women teachers. In the mandal, teacher pupil ratio is 1:54. There are 54 BC teachers and 14 SC teachers and one teacher belongs to the ST community in the mandal. Comparable to Mangalagiri is the profile of Tenali.

Table: 4.6
Profile of Sample Mandals: Tenali

SI. No.	Dimensions of Profile	Details
1	Area	127.51 sq km
2	Total no of revenue villages	13
3	Total no of inhabited villages	12
4	No of towns	1
5	Density	1604/sq.km
6	Population	225021
	Rural population	70351
	Urban population	153756
	Male	112816
	Female	111291
7	Scheduled Caste population	37421
	Males	19196
	Females	18225
8	Scheduled Tribes population	7725
	Males	3860
	Females	3865
9	Literates	150924
	Male	81758
	Female	69166
	Literacy rate	75.2%
10	Education	
	School going age group children	25878
	Degree colleges	7
	Junior colleges	16
	Schools including Upper Primary and High Schools	26
	Primary schools	95
	Enrolment in Degree Colleges	6585
	Enrolment in Junior Colleges	4395
	Enrolment in Upper Primary and High Schools	2358
	Enrolment in Primary Schools	12101
11	Total workers	85857
	a) Cultivators	5189
	b) Agriculture laborers	25719
	c) Household industry	3533
	d) Other workers	51416
	Workers as % of total population	38.3%

Source: 1. Compiled from Records of D.V.U, Kevemie, Amravati. 2. Registrar (General, Ministry of India 2001).

4.8 Profile of Tenali Mandal

Tenali is centrally located between Vijayawada and Guntur with the same distance of 25 km from cities side. This place is strong of sound economically, politically, socially, and culturally. It is famous for art and architecture. This place gained reputations during the Independence movement. The Independence movement drew good number of leaders, poets, writers, artists etc from here. It is one good business centre in Andhra Pradesh. Here most of the people depend on agriculture while a large number are also engaged in fruitful business. Tenali is also known as "Andhra Paris"

Tenali mandal was formed with 13 revenue villages and 12 inhabited villages and one town. Tenali total population 224107 of these 112816 is male and 111291 are the female. Total number of literates in the mandal is 150924 of these 81758 is male and 69166 are the female. Total number of SC population is 37421 with 19196 male and 18225 female. The percentage of SC Population to total population in the mandal is 16.69% of them 51.29% are male and 48.70% are female. Total number of ST population in the mandal is 7725 of these 3860 are male and 3865 are female. The percentage of ST population to total population of the mandal is 3.44% of these 49.96% male and 50.03% is female.

Literacy rate of the mandal is 75.2%. Male and female literacy rates are 81% and 69.4% respectively. There are 95 primary schools in the mandal. **Total** enrollments in these schools is 11304, where 5396 are boys and 5908 are girls. **Total** enrollment of Backward Class (BC) students is 3818. Out of this 1796 are boys and

2022 are girls And SC student's enrolment is 4438 of which 21 58 are boys and 2280 are girls. Total ST students enrolment is 1063 of this 497 are boys and 566 are girls. The mandal has recruited 287 teachers. Of this 96 are male and 191 are female. There are 99 BC teachers and 45 SC teachers one ST women teacher. In the mandal teacher pupil ratio is 1.45.

CHAPTER - 5

Results and Discussion

This chapter deals with the analysis and results of the data. The results are discussed in the light of both secondary and primary data. The secondary data refers to various sources such as Census 2001 and district level records made available by DPEP. The primary data constitutes the collected information from the thirty selected schools, spread over 24 villages in three mandals.

The results are discussed under four main heads, viz. Access, Retention, Quality and Equity. Since the objective of this study is to test the major objectives of DPEP, it would be more meaningful to discuss the results under these heads to fulfill the objectives of this study.

The primary data collected are put to univariate and multivariate analysis. The statistical analyses applied to the data range from computation of simple percentage calculation to applying analyses of variance (ANOVA).

The results are discussed on the actual and projected figures of the entire population of the State, district and sampled mandals as well as for **the** sampled schools. This treatment of data will be observed in the relevant contexts. **The** sequence of presentation follows the same sequence of objectives laid down by **the** DPEP.

5.1 Access

The critics of primary education have, time and again, pointed out at the restricted access to education. Access to education was found to be limited because of unequal distribution of schools along geographical locations, stringent admission rules, lack of awareness, parental illiteracy, combined with lower priority allocated to schooling owing to economic compulsions, etc. The DPEP intended to amend primary education on all the above aspects so as to enhance the access. The main objective of the DPEP is to bring all school age children under its wing, thus paving the way to universalization of primary education. The DPEP was launched in Andhra Pradesh in 1997-98. Ever since its launching, it worked towards increasing the enrollments in schools.

The efforts of the DPEP towards this goal should reflect in the census data of 2001. Table 5.1 displays the enrollments at the levels of the State, district as well as the sampled mandals.

Table: 5.1
Distribution of School Age Children: State, District and Man da I-wise

	6-11 years age Population			Primary School Enrollment 1 st -5 th Class			Percentages		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boy*	Girls	Total
Andhra Pradesh	43,92,155	43,86,284	87,78,439	38,94,649	37,97,762	76,92,411	88.67	86.58	87.63
Guntur District	2,56,562	2,57,840	5,14,402	1,77,877	1,77,012	3,54,889	69.33	68.65	68.99
JDurgi mandal	2,618	2,587	5,205	2,925	2,836	5,761	111	109	110
Mangalagin Mandal	7,898	7,858	15,756	5,660	5,867	11,527	71.66	74.66	73.15
Tenali Mandal	12,892	12,986	25,878	6,153	5,948	12,101	47.72	45.80	46.76

Source: Census-2001

Table 5.1 may be named as the Tunnel Table¹. Because, like the shape of a funnel, the information on school age population and their enrollment follows the order of wide to narrower levels of State, district and selected mandals.

According to the table, 87.63% of school age children are enrolled in schools. Among them, 88.67% are boys and 86.58% are girls. However, in Guntur district, only 69% of school age children go to school. Out of this, 69.33% are boys and 68.65% are girls. This wide gap between the state and the district figures is appalling. Guntur is considered to be a district politically and economically strong. Among the 23 districts of Andhra Pradesh, it occupies 9th rank in literacy. In this context, the lower enrollment figures of the district raise an alarm for the future literacy status of the district.

Examining the figures of the mandal level, it is intriguing to observe that Durgi records a 110% of enrollment of children between the age group of 6-11 years. This indicates that the enrollment is 10% more than the population in that age group. This anomaly points at the folly of fixing targets for any intervention programme. Apparently, the officials at mandal level, in their over-enthusiasm to meet the target, have enrolled children below and above this age group. Such over-enthusiasm has an inherent fallacy. Because the problem is either in the estimates or recording of age of the children. One may tend to enroll a large percentage of out of target group children, while leaving out a large percentage of children from the target group. This has the potential danger of leaving back a considerable percentage of target group

children enrolled and thus forming a large chunk of population for future intervention. Such trends in any intervention may not be considered a healthy practice.

The enrollments in Mangalagiri and Tenali, as per 2001 Census, are 73.15% and 46.76% respectively. Here, we may observe a typical trend of high enrollment in rural areas (Durgi) and relatively lower enrollment in semi-urban (Mangalagiri) and urban (Tenali) areas.

This may be attributed to the probability of lack of proper administrative resolve and efforts in urban interventions. At implementation levels, absence of local committees, or their ineffective functioning are the main factors for failure of intervention in urban areas.

It may be relevant to examine the population and enrollment of school age children in the selected villages from where the sample schools are drawn. Table 5.2 presents the figures.

Table: 5.2
Distribution of School Children in 6-11 Age Groups: Village-wise

SI. No.	Village Name	No. Schools	Total Enrollment of Study Villages			6-11 Years Age Population			Percentages		
			Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Durgi											
1	Adigoppula	2	733	580	1313	563	537	1100	130	108	119
2	Atmakur	1	191	180	371	204	194	398	93	93	93
3	Dharmavaram	1	187	195	382	187	187	374	100	104	102
4	Durgi	2	655	544	1199	515	507	1022	127	107	117
5	Kolagutla	1	251	247	498	224	216	440	112	114	113
6	Mutukuru	1	659	657	1316	547	543	1090	120	121	120
7	Nidanampadu	1	66	63	129	27	25	52	244	252	248
8	Obulesupalli	1	225	246	471	310	317	627	82	78	75
	Total	10	2967	2712	5679	2577	2526	5103	115	107	111
Mangalagiri											
9	Atmakur	1	682	693	1375	411	405	816	165	171	168
10	Chinakakani	1	267	213	480	345	322	667	77	66	72
11	Krishnayapala	1	65	95	160	99	111	210	65	85	76
12	Nidamaruru	2	145	127	272	390	396	786	37	32	35
13	Nowluru	1	1156	1209	2365	1257	1245	2502	92	97	95
14	Nutakki	2	700	597	1297	643	628	1271	111	95	102
15	Pedavadlapudi	2	773	823	1596	821	817	1638	94	100	97
	Total	10	3788	3757	7545	3966	3924	7890	95	95	95
Tenali											
16	Angalakuduru	2	417	369	786	560	579	1139	74	64	69
17	Burripalem	1	170	166	336	212	216	428	80	77	79
18	Jaggadiguntapalem	1	113	132	245	256	235	491	44	56	50
19	Katevaram	1	445	470	915	770	761	1531	58	62	60
20	Kolakaluru	1	719	702	1421	1058	1047	2105	68	67	68
21	Kopalle	1	123	152	275	381	370	751	32	41	37
27	Nandivelugu	1	468	493	961	446	448	894	105	110	107
23	Pedaravuru	1	241	224	465	458	475	933	53	47	50
24	Sangamjagarlamudi	1	696	686	1382	362	374	736	192	183	188
	Total	10	3392	3394	6786	4503	4505	9008	75	75	75

Source: Registrar General of India census -2001

Table 5.2 shows the population and total enrollment figures of school age children in the villages from where the sample schools are drawn. It may be observed that Durgi shows a 111% of enrollment. This is coinciding with the percentage figures at the mandal level. This establishes the representatives of the sample villages. The explanation given for the mandal level also holds good for the village level.

The percentage of enrollment in the villages in Mangalagiri and Tenali are 95% and 75% respectively. The same trend of high enrollment in rural and lower enrollment in semi-urban and urban areas were also observed at mandal levels in table 5.1.

It may now be appropriate to examine the enrollment figures of the schools included in the sample.

Table: 5.3
Distribution of Children 6-11 Age Groups in Sample School

Sl. No.	Village Name	No. Selltools	Total Enrollment of Study Villages			6-11 Years Age Population			Percentages		
			Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Durgi											
1	Adigoppula	2	733	580	1313	563	537	1100	130	108	119
2	Atmakur	1	191	180	371	204	194	398	93	93	93
3	Dharmavaram	1	187	195	382	187	187	374	100	104	102
4	Durgi	2	655	544	1199	515	507	1022	127	107	117
5	Kolagutla	1	251	247	498	224	216	440	112	114	113
6	Mutukuru	1	659	657	1316	547	543	1090	120	121	120
7	Nidanampadu	1	66	63	129	27	25	52	244	252	248
8	Obulesupalli	1	225	246	471	310	317	627	82	78	75
Total		10	2967	2712	5679	2577	2526	5103	115	107	111
Mangalagiri											
9	Atmakur	1	682	693	1375	411	405	816	165	171	168
10	Chinakakani	1	267	213	480	345	322	667	77	66	72
11	Krishnayapala	1	65	95 ¹	160	99	111	210	65	85	76
12	Nidamaruru	2	145	127	272	390	396	786	37	32	35
13	Nowluru	1	1156	1209	2365	1257	1245	2502	92	97	95
14	Nutakki	2	700	597	1297	643	628	1271	111	95	102
15	Pedavadlapudi	2	773	823	1596	821	817	1638	94	100	97
Total		10	3788	3757	7545	3966	3924	7890	95	95	95
Tenali											
16	Angalakuduru	2	417	369	786	560	579	1139	74	64	69
17	Burripalem	1	170	166	336	212	216	428	80	77	79
18	Jaggadiguntapalem	1	113	132	245	256	235	491	44	56	50
19	Katevaram	1	445	470	915	770	761	1531	58	62	60
20	Kolakaluru	1	719	702	1421	1058	1047	2105	68	67	68
21	Kopalle	1	123	152	275	381	370	751	32	41	37
22	Nandivelugu	1	468	493	961	446	448	894	105	110	107
23	Pedaravuru	1	241	224	465	458	475	933	53	47	50
24	Sangamjagarlamudi	1	696	686	1382	362	374	736	192	183	188
Total		10	3392	3394	6786	4503	4505	9008	75	75	75

Source: Registrar General of India census -2001

Table 5.3 presents the village population **and** enrollment figures in **the** selected 30 schools. The only difference between table 5.2 and 5.3 is that while table 5.2 presents the total enrollment figures of all the schools in the village, table 5.3 separates the enrollment of only those schools in the village included in the sample. Thus, though the village population figures **are the** same in both the tables, the enrollments differ. According to table 5.3, the ten sampled schools in Durgi enrolled 52% of children. Referring back to table 5.2, it may be said that out of 111% enrolled in schools, the selected ten DPEP schools enrolled 52% of children. This indicates that about 50% of the enrolled children attend schools other than the DPEP schools. In case of Mangalagiri, out of the 95% (refer table 5.2) total enrolled children, the ten selected DPEP schools could attract only 19%. In Tenali, out of the 75% total enrolled children (refer table 5.2), only 35% joined the DPEP schools.

This reflects on the cost-effectiveness of the DPEP. Considering the intervention planned on a war-footing and the services of the machinery involved, the results in terms of enrollment in DPEP schools appear to be rather low. This, perhaps, calls for a SWOT analysis and reorganization of functioning of the intervention in a pragmatic way.

The main target group of DPEP is to increase access for socially disadvantaged group, viz. children coming from the SC, ST and BC backgrounds. Because, these are the groups, which were, otherwise, unable to enter schooling

owing to numerous hurdles. The DPEP is intended to remove these blocks through several Government Orders (GOs) and increase access for these groups. Whether these GOs and the 'Maa BadC (meaning 'our school¹) project vide GO MS No. 34, dated 9th July 1999, could really led to the increase access to the disadvantaged group may be an essential observation. Table 5.4 presents the enrollment of children from the socially disadvantaged groups in the 30 sampled schools in the three mandals.

Table: 5.4
Distribution of Enrolled Children: Caste-wise*

Mandal Name	Total Enrollment	BC	SC	ST	Total
Durgi	2639 (38.47)	1031 (39.06)	557 (21.10)	217 (8.2)	1805 (68.36)
Mangalagiri	1522 (22.19)	622 (40.86)	359 (23.58)	66 (4.3)	1047 (68.74)
Tenali	2699 (39.34)	989 (36.64)	524 (19.41)	62 (2.2)	1575 (58.25)
Total	6860 (100)	2642 (38.51)	1440 (20.99)	345 (5.0)	4427 (64.53)

* Figures in parentheses indicates percentages

Table 5.4 reveals that out of the enrolled children in 30 DPEP schools in Durgi, 68.34% are from socially disadvantaged groups, and the remaining 21.66% are from forward castes. Of this 68.36%, the majority (39.06%) are from BC community, 21.10% from SC and 8.2% from ST background. Mangalagiri also shows that among the enrolled 68.74% are from disadvantaged groups. Of this, 40.86% are from BC, 23.58% are SCs, while 4.3% are STs. The same trend is observed in case of Tenali, where out of the enrolled children, 36.64% are BCs,

19.41% SCs and 2.2% STs. Looking at these figures, the DPEP seems to have achieved in widening its access for the socially advantaged groups.

Attracting the target groups involves successfully creating awareness and motivation in them. This depends upon the processes of implementation of DPEP by these agencies, the leadership, etc. of the specific region. The leadership and style of functioning may differ from mandal to mandal. Hence, it may be relevant to look into the significant differences in enrollment across mandals.

Table: 5.5
Enrollment Differences: Mandal-wise obtained Through ANOVA

Mandals	Mean	F	Significance
Durgi	63%	4.56	p< .01
Mangalagiri	34%		
Tenali	52%		
Total	50%		

Table 5.5 puts forth the results of ANOVA done to find out if the three mandals differ significantly in enrolling the target children. The results reveal a significant difference at $p < .01$ level. The mean values reveal that Durgi has the highest enrollment (63%) followed by Tenali (52%). Mangalagiri showed the least enrollment with only 35% of target children joining DPEP schools.

This suggests that the rural areas attained the objective of enhancing access to the disadvantaged in a more effective way compared to urban and semi-urban. It is interesting to observe that there is a wide difference in the enrollment of target groups between Mangalagiri and the other two mandals. The reason for this may be

the semi-urban status of Mangalagiri. In Durgi, which is a rural area, the urban influence is low. Further, the availability of alternate schools, established by private enterprise, is also low. As a result, the motivation campaign of DPEP to send every child to school might have resulted in the target population enrolling their children in the available DPEP school. While this explanation about Durgi, taken in isolation, may sound convincing, the lowest percentage of enrollment in Mangalagiri (35%), a semi-urban area, may intrigue us. This can be explained by analyzing the location of the target groups in these two areas. Tenali's target population are located in its slums. The presence of alternate schools like private unaided and aided schools, perhaps, prove more expensive for them. Thus, the target children, motivated to join schools, may choose DPEP schools. The low target group enrollment of Mangalagiri must be interpreted in the light of the previous table. It may be recalled that only 19% of school age children are enrolled in DPEP schools. As per the above table, in Mangalagiri, out of the children enrolled in DPEP schools, only 35% belong to the disadvantaged sector. This indicates that the efforts of DPEP seem to have failed to attract the disadvantaged group children to DPEP schools. It calls for a separate study to understand the main reasons for this. These differences in the percentage of access for the disadvantaged groups may be attributed to the effective functioning of the implementing personnel at different regions. There should be proper orientation and reorientation of the objectives of DPEP to various layers of functionaries in different region. Every individual involved in the programme must have a clear insight into the programme objectives and long term and short term goals of attaining

them. Thus, a proper understanding of the objective of increasing access and the method of attaining it must be ensured.

5.2 Retention

The second objective of DPEP is retention. Enrollment figures indicate the fulfillment of the objective of access. Enhancing the access may be achieved through a campaign mode. Campaign mode creates a euphoria in the people and there may be a real increase in enrollment as knee-jerk reaction. However, unless there is proper planning to retain the enrolled children, the long term intervention like DPEP may suffer a serious setback. Retention of enrolled children is possible by appropriate curricular reforms, innovations in teaching and satisfying the *need hierarchy* of children. If the basic needs of children are taken care of by the curricular and methods of teaching, the retention levels of enrolled children will be high. Again, this calls for application of professional skills and tactics to achieve this. There may be regional differences in the inherent or acquired skills of the personnel along the hierarchy in different regions. Table 5.6 shows the differences in drop out rates in the three selected mandal samples by presenting the results of ANOVA. Drop out rates is the negative indicator of successful retention levels.

Table: 5.6
Dropouts: Mandal-wise

Mandals	Mean	F	Significance
Durgi	36%	16.127	p< .000
Mangalagiri	29%		
Tenali	20%		

Table 5.6 shows the results of ANOVA reflecting the significant differences in drop out. At the outset, it may be stated that the drop out rate is considerably high ranging between 20%-36% across the three mandals. It may be observed from the above table that Durgi, which showed the highest enrollment (refer table 5.1) also showed the highest percentage of drop out (36%), while Tenali, that ranked the last in enrollment (refer table 5.1), showed the least percentage of drop out (20%) with Mangalagiri taking the middle position shows 29% of drop out rate. These differences in drop out rates across the three mandals are found to be statistically significant at $p < .000$ level. The high percentage of drop out rates suggests that the second objective of DPEP, 'Retention' has met only with moderate success.

There may be several reasons for high drop out rates. The most significant of these may be identified as the curriculum that is remotely relevant to the child's environment and the teaching learning process that is least attractive and participatory for the child. These two aspects, though taken care of by the DPEP at policy level, will have to be examined carefully at implementation level. These aspects would be separately dealt with while discussing the success in the quality aspects.

5.3 Quality

There are several indicators of quality. The most concrete and observable indicator is the infrastructure. The intangible aspects of quality in education are the

quality of teachers, their multi-faceted characteristics, the professional training inputs, etc. The last unit of quality is reflected in the achievement levels of the students. All these aspects are discussed under this head.

Let us take up the mandal-wise analysis of school characteristics first:

A Nature of Schools

The infrastructure of a school may be considered one of the most important features. Table 5.7 reveals the details of building type of the schools in the three mandals.

Table: 5.7
Infrastructure Facilities in Samples Schools: Mandal-wise

Mandal	Pucca	Partially Pucca	Kaccha	Tent	No Building	Total
Durgi	10	-	-	-	-	10
Mangalagiri	8	2	-	-	-	10
Tenali	6	2	-	-	2	10

The figures in table 5.7 reveal that all the 10 schools included in the sample from Durgi mandal have pucca buildings, while only 8 out of 10 school buildings of Mangalagiri and 6 out of 10 school buildings of Tenali have pucca building. While the remaining 2 buildings of Mangalagiri are partially pucca. Here, some classes are being held in pucca building, while others are conducted under the shelter of a temple or under a tree. On the other hand, in Tenali, out of the 10 schools included in the sample, only six have pucca buildings, two partially pucca, while two schools have no building at all. It may be paradoxical to see building infrastructural facilities

in an inverse relationship with the general development of the mandal Tenali, which is supposed to be the most developed of the three mandals, has least number of schools enjoying the facilities of a pucca building. On the other hand, Durgi, which is totally rural- based mandal, has all the ten schools enjoying pucca building. This suggests that the government schools gain priority in rural areas but lose their priority in urban areas.

While infrastructure reveals one part of the story related to the importance given to the school, the opportunity for continuation of education speaks about the other part. A primary school, with an extension of upper primary or higher secondary school, is certainly rated higher than the school restricted to primary classes with no channel for upward mobility. In this context, the sample schools may be classified as only primary schools, primary with upper primary schools and primary with high schools. It will be interesting to compare them on the scope for upward mobility.

Table: 5.8
Levels Instruction: Mandal-wise

School Category	Primary Only	Primary with UP	Primary with HS	Total
Durgi	8	1	1	10
Mangalagiri	8	2	0	10
Tenali	6	0	4	10
Total	22	3	5	30

Table 5.8 reveals an interesting phenomenon if analyzed in relation to the table 5.7. While table 5.7 revealed an inverse relationship between development and school infrastructure, this relationship is reversed in case of vertical opportunity of schools. It is observed from the table 5.8 that out of ten schools in Tenali, four primary schools have extension upto high schools. In Mangalagiri, out of ten schools included in the sample, two have extension upto upper primary level. In case of Durgi, out of the ten schools included in sample, eight limit themselves to primary levels; one has extension upto upper primary and one upto high school level. Thus, the verticality of the schools shows no definite pattern.

It may be noted that all the 30 schools included in the sample are co-educational. This is understandable, because normally at primary level, separate schools are not established for boys and girls. However, often in rural and semi urban areas, despite opportunity for vertical mobility, the enrollment may show gradual decline. One of the major reasons for this is the absence of separate schools for girls with inadequate toilets and water facilities, etc.

Prior to the year 2002, the rural and semi-urban schools suffered from two major setbacks. One of them is the absence of gender segregation at high school level, as discussed above. The second lacuna is the absence of pre-schools to bridge the gap between home and the school for a child before formal enrollment in a primary school at the age of six years. The urban areas popularized the concept of pre-school from early 1980's. Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) of

Government of India established several Anganwadies across rural India. Yet the three selected mandals even by the end of 2002 showed a total absence of pre-school. However, the DPEP, Government of Andhra Pradesh, seems to have realized this void and established 461 ECE Centres in Guntur district in 2004. These centres are attached to the primary schools. This may be noted as a positive development though it took place much later in the year 2004.

Such quality related strings like attachment of preschool, gender-wise segregation at high school level, etc, to a large extent, depends upon the concern, perseverance, commitment and achievement motivation of the concerned administrative personnel. It may be relevant here to examine the management bodies of the schools included in the sample. Table 5.9 reflects the variation in management bodies of the schools included in the sample.

Table: 5.9
Distribution of Schools Management-wise

School Management	Tribal Welfare Department	Local Body(MPP/ZPP)	Private Aided	Private Un-aided
Durgi	1	8	1	0
Mangalagiri	0	9	0	1
Tenali	0	10	0	0
Total	1	27	1	1

Table 5.9 categorizes the schools management wise: Tribal Welfare, Local body, Private Aided and Private Un-aided management. It may be relevant here to refer the definition of an 'approved school'. An approved school, by definition,

refers to the school under the management of Central Government/State Government/Local authority or under any other management recognized by **the** competent authority for the purpose of the act (Andhra Pradesh Education Act, 1982) and receives substantial aid from the government or local authority or both. Going by this criterion, all the management bodies mentioned in the table can be recognized as approved schools.

Tribal welfare schools come under the management of Integrated Tribal Development Agency (ITDA), headed by a Project Director belonging to the Indian Administrative Service.

The local body managed schools came into existence as an offshoot of 73rd constitutional amendment. The local body schools refer to the schools managed by Zilla Praja Parishad (ZPP) and Mandal Praja Parishad (MPP). This body is headed by Mandal Education Officer (MEO). This body, at macro level, is managed by the members of Village Education Committee. The Sarpanch of the village is ex-officio Chairperson. At micro level, it is managed by School Education Committee, where the members are local parents, two women representatives and two members of **the** ward.

The private aided schools are managed by private bodies with partial grants from the government for specific heads such as teachers' salaries, infrastructural development etc. The private un-aided schools are initiated, financed and managed by individual enterprise.

Table 5.9 classifies the sampled schools in each mandal into the management categories, as described above. It may be observed that in all, there is a single school managed by ITDA, located in Durgi mandal. The table reveals that out of 30 schools in the sample, 27 are managed by local bodies. These 27 are distributed across the three mandals. All the ten schools in Tenali, nine schools of Mangalagiri and eight of Durgi are managed by local bodies.

The only private aided school in the sample is located at Durgi and the only private unaided school is located in Mangalagiri. Looking at the mandal wise distribution it may be noted that Durgi has one ITDA-managed school and one private aided and eight schools managed by local bodies. Mangalagiri has nine local body managed and one private unaided schools. All the ten schools of Tenali included in the sample are local body schools.

Though not specifically categorized in the table, it is important to mention here that two out of nine schools, managed by local bodies in Mangalagiri, are Urdu medium schools. This reveals the specific attention given to cater to the needs of the minority community. Planning and designing the schools as per local needs signifies high importance to quality dimension in interventions like DPEP.

The main function of the management is to provide direction and guidance to the teachers. Thus, the magnitude of managerial responsibilities relates to the size of teaching and non-teaching staff coming under their management. The managerial efficiency is reflected in optimizing the teaching learning process. One of the measures of project-mode administration of social sector programmes in filling up of the sanctioned posts in each category, as human resources are critical to the success of such interventions. Table 5.10 reveals the sanctioned and filled posts of teachers and non-teaching staff in each mandal and the posts lying vacant.

Table: 5.10
Staff Categories: Mandal-wise Distribution of Teaching and Non-Teaching

Mandal name	Durgi	Mangalagiri	Tenali	Grand Total
Total teaching posts sanctioned	58	37	92	187
Total No. of teachers employed	53	35	84	172
Post Vacant	5	2	8	15
Total non-teaching posts sanctioned	3	4	10	17
Total No. of non-teaching employed	3	4	9	16
Post Vacant	0	0	1	1

B. Teachers Background

It is observed that Durgi mandal has 53 teachers against 58 sanctioned positions. Thus, five posts remain vacant. Mangalagiri has 37 sanctioned positions of

teachers. With 35 teachers in position only two posts remain vacant. In case of Tenali, against 92 sanctioned posts, only 84 are in position and eight positions remain vacant. However, the picture is not this bleak in case of non-teaching positions except in Tenali, where only one non-teaching post is lying vacant, the other two mandals have all the sanctioned posts filled. The vacant teaching positions in all the mandals are certainly a matter of concern as this has a direct bearing on the quality. More so, because these schools have, on an average, three teachers per school. There are also single teacher schools. Inadequate building facilities, clubbed with teacher absence, may prove disastrous for school education. Teachers constitute the backbone of education in schools. Studies have proved the relevance of teacher characteristics for effective learning. The caste, class, gender affiliation of teachers plays a crucial role in enrollment, retention and achievement of students. It may be interesting to examine the characteristics of teachers.

Table: 5.11
Teachers: Gender-wise and Mandal-wise Distribution

Teachers	Durgi	Mangalagiri	Tenali
Male	44	15	43
Female	10	20	41
Total	54	35	84

There is a huge difference in male and female teachers recruitment. The table will give a picture of gender distribution of teachers across the three mandals. The schools in Tenali, are predominantly taught by male teachers. In contrast,

Mangalagiri mandal has more number of female teachers. Out of 53 in Durgi, 43 are male and 10 are female. In Mangalagiri, out of 35, 15 are male and 20 are female teachers. In Tenali, the distribution is more or less equal. Here, out of 84 teachers, 43 are male and 41 are female teachers. This may be because the female teachers find it difficult to work in rural schools. The male teachers, who are appointed in rural areas, take it up with an arrangement to commute to the work place daily. But the girl child enrolment will improve with more number of female teachers in schools. This is an essential aspect for the rural schools. This vicious circle has to be broken. Yet another factor observed in this table is in the recruitment itself. It can be observed that the three mandals, taken together, has recruited 101 male teachers against only 71 female teachers. Perhaps, a gender balance in recruitment is an essential reform to be brought by the government.

Apart from the gender affiliation of teacher, the caste affiliation too is likely to play its role in effective learning. The following table examines it.

Table: 5.12
Caste Affiliation of School Teachers Across **Three Mandals**

Mandal	SC	ST	BC	Others	Total
Durgi	11	2	19	21	53
Mangalagiri	5	0	14	16	35
Tenali	21	0	15	48	84
Total	37	2	48	85	172

Table 5.12 explains the caste-wise distribution of teachers in three mandals. It may be observed from the table that a highest number of teachers hail from forward castes (85), followed by Backward Castes (48). The number of SC teachers is relatively low (37), while there are just two teachers from ST background. In Durgi, a rural mandal, where 21% enrolled children belong to SC background, only 20 teachers are from SC background. In Mangalagiri where 23% of student enrollment is from SC background, only 14 teachers are from SC background. In case of Tenali, only 19% of enrolled students belong to SC category, while 21 of teachers hail from SC background. It is felt that the matching proportion of teachers from the caste background of students may enhance a sense of affiliation among the students.

Constitution of school education committees may ensure autonomy of the stake holders. But along side there should be ample opportunity for innovation and professionalism in the functioning of schools. This can be ensured by appropriate teacher training programmes. Thus teacher training ensures the quality aspect of DPEP schools.

C. Training

The DPEP intervention envisages in-service training to all the teachers in DPEP districts. This training is meant to enhance the capabilities of the teachers in the sphere of new methods of instruction. The methods in the training are on developing creativity in the students. The other aspects of the training include

imparting basic education, participatory skills and preparation of models and charts. The teachers are trained by the master trainers and resource persons. Trainers are trained in making the trainees realize the need to change the attitudes to meet the new developmental challenges and to enhance their commitment levels. While these are some of the very innovative aspects of training, a resistance to this training is observed among the senior teachers who are used to the traditional methods.

A strong trainer group is formed to train up the teachers. A State Resource Group, with lecturers of DIET and selected Mandal Resources Persons (MRPs), constituted the trainer group. The State Resource Group provided the major inputs. Teachers were trained in activity approach. Professionals from *ACTION AID*, *Ed.CIL*, *State Resource Group (SRG)*, members from DPEP were invited as Resource Persons. They were asked to observe the performance of teachers in the classroom using the material developed during training programme. Every activity developed during and after the orientation programme by the SRG members was analyzed, and thus, field-tested. Apart from the teachers, the administrative personnel are also given training inputs.

Teacher training was for a duration of five days. This was preceded by a booster-training programme for three days only. The objective of this is to prepare them with a mindset to receive the main training. The emphasis during this may expose the teachers to variety of activities to teach Language and Maths. Teacher training programmes are conducted under the supervision of the State Resource

Group members and Academic Monitoring Officers. The main objective of the training was to improve the teaching capabilities and provide quality education to the primary school children. Apart from the teachers, the Mandal Education Officers (MEOs) were also exposed to a five-day training programme.

The training programmes are expected to enhance the quality of teaching learning. The important agents of change are the Head Teachers of school. It is imminent to provide training to them so that the inputs would percolate down, and the others receiving training would receive proper support from above. Table 5.13 describes the training received by the Head Teachers of the sampled schools.

Table: 5.13
Levels of Training: Mandal-wise

Training of HTs Centers	Cluster	Block	District	Total
Durgi	0	7	2	9
Mangalagiri	8	1	1	10
Tenali	0	6	1	7
Total	8	14	4	26

Table 5.13 shows that the Head Teachers of all the ten schools in Mangalagiri and nine schools in Durgi underwent training, while the Head Teachers of only seven schools in Tenali received any training. Thus, the sample in Tenali seems to have suffered from the training input deficit. The table reveals that out of the 27 Head Teachers who received training, only four were trained at district level. Out of this, two are from Durgi, while one each is from Mangalagiri and Tenali received only

cluster level training. The district level training is considered to be rich in quality. Because, the availability of Resource Persons and wide sharing of experiences among peer group at this level ensures better prospects of exposure. On the other hand, at mandal and Cluster level training, the Resource Persons are possibly trained at district level. This cannot rule out watering down the inputs at a peripheral level. Considering from this angle, Mangalagiri seems to be lagging behind in terms of qualitative inputs, while Tenali seems to have suffered a setback in terms of quantity as only seven out of ten Head Teachers received the training.

The Teacher training programmes have been conducted in three phases in the district. These are conducted in three spells of one day, two days and more than two days each. Programme is meticulous with provision for guest lectures by Resource persons in each area of deficit. Case demonstration of each problem, group discussion by the participants, pre and post-test were conducted to assess the improvement in teachers about integrated education and an innovative tips as to how to handle children in a classroom.

The training contents are no doubt important. Besides this the duration of training also contributes to the quality. Because learning and refining certain skills calls for practice and need to be preceded by unlearning and attitude change. This requires longer periods of learning and to facilitate habit formation and lateral learning. Tables 5, 14 examine the training from this angle.

Table: 5.14
Duration of the Training: Mandal-wise

Duration of Training	One day	Two Days	More than Two Days	Total
Durgi	0	0	9	9
Mangalagiri	8	0	2	10
Tenali	2	1	4	7
Total	10	1	15	26

It may be observed that out of the 26 training programmes conducted 15 are for duration of three or more days, 10 are one day training programmes and only one is a two day training programme. Even in this aspect Durgi scores high with all the nine head teachers attending training for a longer duration, followed by Tenali. Eight out of ten head teachers in Mangalagiri attended only one day training. Thus Mangalagiri seems to have harboured a disadvantage in terms of training duration.

Yet another factor contributing to quality is the level of trainer. Table 5.15 displays this factor.

Table: 5.15
Level of Trainers: Mandal-wise

Training Conducted by	MRCC	TRCC	Distance Resource Person	Total
Durgi	0	7	2	9
Mangalagiri	0	9	1	10
Tenali	1	6	0	7
Total	1	22	3	26

The exposure and levels of handling topics by a district level resource person is expected to be higher than that of those in mandal and taluk levels. On this account too, Mangalagiri is the recipient of a relatively lower input, with nine head teachers receiving training at taluk level. Durgi could have two teachers trained by district resource persons; Mangalagiri could train one head teacher by district resource person while Tenali had none.

As important as the training is the follow up of training. The training impact would be sustained and reinforced only with a close follow up, preferably by the resource person. Table 5.16 provides a fair picture of this.

Table: 5.16
Visits of Mandal Resource Person

No. of. Visits by Coordinator / MPRs	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	Six	Total
Durgi	0	0	2	4	2	2	10
Mangalagiri	1	2	5	1	1	0	10
Tenali	0	0	1	1	0	4	6
Total	1	2	8	6	3	6	26

It may be observed from the table that the head teachers of Tenali had a better follow up of training. Out of the six head teachers four received six follow up visits by MRP's. Durgi is in a second position where most of the head teachers received four to six followups. Mangalagiri on the other hand seems to have suffered a weak followup of training with seven out of ten head teachers receiving three or less followup visits.

Efficiency of teacher functioning to a large extent depends upon the administrative capabilities of the school committees looking after the management.

D. School Committees

Community participation is stated as an integral part of the DPEP vocabulary. These committees are the primary interface between school and community. However, evidence from the field indicates that they either do not function or seem to function with no genuine sense of participation and commitment. Further, despite the mandated composition of VEC to ensure gender and social equity, in reality the VECs seem to uphold the interests of the dominant group in any village across the three mandals. As per DPEP norms, the VEC of a village should have representation from the SC community, women, and two parents of children studying in the Government schools, with the head teacher of the Government schools as its Member-Secretary. However, in reality the official VEC has been "replaced" by another VEC that has been constituted by the mandal education wing. It led to power struggles. Membership of the Village Education Construction Committee (VECC), which is formed out of the VEC, is sought after because they are **vested** with **the** power of allocation of funds for construction of school building; It is quite shocking to see members of the VEC openly discussing the possibility of misappropriation of school building funds in front of the researcher in the focused group discussions. In the members perception VECs role is influenced by local politics. Quite often, **the** researcher was told, the VEC is used to exert influence, extract benefits and

distribute patronage. Participation of the women members in VEC's is restricted. It is sad to note that most members have no knowledge of their role, vis-a-vis school level education.

Politics of patronage sharpened a hiatus in the school committees as they are on the political clout they wield. The focused group discussion revealed that government schools in dalit colonies got or did not get facilities depending on caste and class factors. Some schools in the main village gained by being closer to the high school. The caste chemistry and inter play of different social groups determined the nature and extent of facilities including the membership of the VEC.

However there are some interesting dimensions in this too. In Guntur district the role of women's self-help groups and local dalit activists deserve a mention. Participation in some areas is not noticeable high. They are almost dormant. In some cases it led to activism, especially in relation to the school in the dalit area. Young dalit men allocated time to local school and took a few classes too! Absentism is thus checked. Where there is only one teacher, the community leaders came forward to teach. Their participation in teaching helped to handle crisis situations of multigrade classroom. They organized extra-curricular activities and provided some help for the betterment of the school. The teachers of these schools reported that the women's groups should be credited for the high rate of enrolment and retention at the primary level. They have been enthusiastic participants of enrolment campaigns at the beginning of every academic year for the past six years. Women's self-help

groups (SHGs) are not only active, but are very clear about their role - they perceived themselves as the support structure for the school. They kept in touch with the headmaster throughout the year, and their engagement with the school ranges from organizing rallies for student enrolment, supplying sweets during school functions, persuading parents to make extra efforts to enhance their village academic performance to demanding improved facilities for the school in panchayat meetings. Some residents allowed girls of the school to use their toilets. They provided drinking water to the students and also persuaded reluctant neighbours into extending these facilities to the children.

The study of these three mandals shows the emergence of women's voices and the growing recognition that they are major players in the enterprise of getting children to school. Hence, apart from this the researcher witnessed success of DPEP efforts to encourage women to be more active at the local level through the creation of Mother Teacher Associations and holding of mother-daughter fairs and one-third reservation in the VEC (also reinforced by the PRIs). Thus, the context calls for a fresh and concrete interpretation of community participation. The VEC's therefore encouraged genuine participation of families of children who attended government schools. It is a general observation but calls for a comprehensive study of document on different experiences of community participation across villages in mandals and districts.

School committee is constituted of members, officials and members of **the** community. Such community **participation** is **assumed to enhance functional** efficiency of schools. However, this is possible only when it is fairly represented by members from various social backgrounds. The following table examines it.

Table: 5.17
Composition of School Committee: Mandal-wise

Mandal Name	SC		ST		Others		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Durgi	6	6	3	6	9	8	38
Mangalagiri	5	8	1	3	12	12	41
Tenali	7	4	1	1	13	14	40
Total	18	18	5	10	34	34	119

Table 5.17 gives the composition of school committee with male and female members. School Committees are formed with village locals and school teachers. These committees are treated as the micro planning implementing agencies. These committees shoulder the responsibility of improving the school facilities, increasing the enrollment percentage, etc. Association of such committees with implementation process indicates decentralized policy planning and implementation in primary education. The table above presents the strength of the various community people in **the** committee. It may be noted that the committee has **higher proportion of female** members in all mandals. This, perhaps, is done with an assumption that women, identified as good home managers, would extend the same skills in the organization of school also. Further, it may also be one among many approaches to empower women. Yet another reason may be that, women, as **the** prime childcare agents, have

a better insight into the needs of a school where the children study. The caste representations of the members are in line with the caste distribution in population.

The school management committee administers the school. In villages, where there is more than one school, the schools are managed by Village Education Committee. Constitution of such committees is an attempt towards democratization of educational institutions. The quality is assumed to be best maintained if the clientele group has representation in the decision making bodies. Thus, the local bodies constituted by the community members is expected to function as the best vigilance of total quality assurance.

As has already been mentioned, the last unit the main index for quality is the achievement levels of students. If all the other dimensions of quality are properly taken care of by the DPEP, the results of it certainly would reflect in achievement levels of students. Table 5.18 describes the achievement differences of students across the three mandals. The results of ANOVA done in this regard is presented in the table.

Table: 5.18
Levels of Achievement: Mandal-wise

Mandals	Mean	F	Significance
Durgi	89.61%	11.003	p< .000
Mangalagiri	98.72%		
Tenali	90.86%		

Achievement of the students is one of the main indices of quality. The final aim of universalization of primary education is to mainstream the socially disadvantaged children. This objective is met only when large percentage of the enrolled disadvantaged children show high achievements. Table 5.18 depicts the percentage of enrolled disadvantaged children who achieved their academic targets. The table shows Mangalagiri registering the highest percentage of achievement (98.72%) and Durgi registering the lowest percentage (89.61%). This can be explained in the light of the enrollment details. Referring back to table 5.6, it may be recalled that Durgi also registered the highest percentage of dropouts. Durgi, being the rural mandal, where most of the teachers are male, the teaching learning quality may be qualitatively different. Further, the teachers' place of residence has a significant role in the quality and quantity of interaction with the children as well as the parents. If a teacher is a local resident he would have a grip over the community. His/her interaction with the students, outside the school hours, has a direct bearing on the quality of education. Durgi, being the rural mandal of the three, has many male teachers, who may be commuting there from a place of their residence in an urban area. Further, as has been pointed out elsewhere, studies have proved the efficacy of female teachers over male teachers, particularly at primary level.

Tenali registers about 90% achievement among the disadvantaged. This is closer to the percentage registered in Durgi. This can be explained referring back to table 5.4, which displayed the percentage of the disadvantaged in the enrollment. As per that table, the disadvantaged children constituted 58% of the enrollment. Tenali,

being the urban mandal, even among the advantaged group, the general tendency is that only those with a low SES would enroll in the government schools. Thus, **the** material poverty is likely to be more pronounced in deciding the choice of school. The material impoverishment also is reflected in the infrastructure of **the** school. Referring back to table 5.7, it may be observed that Tenali suffers with the lowest infrastructural facilities. Inadequate infrastructure in urban areas sets the greatest limitation to the teaching learning. Because, the available open space and safe mobility is relatively restricted in these areas. The only logical inference to explain higher achievement levels in Mangalagiri is the employment of about 50% female teachers there.

It is observed that none of the three mandals enjoy the advantage of quality on all dimensions. So far as the characteristics of quality are concerned, the mandals are found to enjoy a differential advantage on various dimensions.

It would have given a very good insight if DPEP selected at least one mandal with all the quality inputs. This would have given an understanding of the impact of quality on access and retention.

5.4 Equity

The last objective of DPEP is to ensure equity. Equity refers to ensuring of gender equality in educational set up. Because, right from pre-independence, the female literacy has been consistently low. It was assumed that the lower female literacy has a detrimental effect on overall literacy. The literacy campaigns came up

with the slogans like 'educate a woman and you educate a family' and so on. **The** significance of female literacy was emphasized as an effort towards women empowerment. It was argued that the basic hurdle in women empowerment is women illiteracy. With the assumption that promotion of girl-child education is a real investment for women empowerment, the DPEP took special initiative in ensuring enrollment of girl children. Towards this objective, they **even created a** special part for 'Girl Child Officer'. This official shoulders **the** responsibility of enrolling all girl children in schools.

If the DPEP's efforts towards this are successful, it should reflect in an improved condition of girls in enrollment and retention. The main indicator of this is a statistically non-significant difference in gender on the dimensions of enrollment and retention.

To examine this, we may refer back to certain tables presented and discussed in the context of access and retention. The gender aspects were not discussed earlier because the statistical tests were not significant in the context of gender differences. But it may be relevant to discuss them in the context of attaining the objective of equity.

A comparison of enrollment of boys and girls in the age group of 6-11 years, as per 2001 Census, can be had from table 5.1. According to this table, the percentage of enrollment of boys and girls throughout the state is recorded as 88.67% and 86.58% respectively. In Guntur district, the enrollment of boys is

69.33%, while that of girls is 68.65%. The percentage of enrollment of boys and girls is also found to be comparable in Durgi (boys = 111%, girls = 109%), Mangalagiri (boys = 71.66%, girls = 74.66%) and Tenali (boys = 47.72%; girls = 45.80%). The fact that the enrollment differences across the two genders are **not** found to be significant suggests that the programme is successful in equally attracting the children from the two genders. A reference to table 5.2 shows this in a more pronounced way. Table 5.2 presents the total enrollment of children in **the** selected villages. It is found that in Tenali, the enrollment of boys and girls from among the population of school age children is equal at 75% each. In Mangalagiri too, the enrollment of boys and girls is equal at 95% each, while in Durgi, it is comparable with the enrollment of boys at 115% and girls at 107%. Erstwhile, **the** parents, particularly from disadvantaged groups, preferred to send the boys to schools but not the girls, thus showing a significantly high percentage of enrollment of boys but not girls. The results of table 5.1, presenting a comparable percentage of enrollment of children from both genders, suggests a change in the mindset of **the** parents in disadvantaged groups. This change, probably, is the result of continuous awareness programmes targeted for these groups.

Erstwhile, among the enrolled children, the drop out rates of girl children used to be significantly high. Because, the girl children were mostly used for **the** purposes of sibling care. However, the results of the thirty sampled schools revealed that there is no difference between the genders on the dropouts. The table is **not** presented under 'retention' precisely because the ANOVA showed **no** significant

difference. This suggests that if the children drop out of school, it is not because of their gender, but because of other reasons, which apply equally to both the genders. This itself suggests a good success of DPEP on the objective of equity.

Further, the equity aspect can be viewed positively if the achievement levels are equal for both boys and girls. While discussing achievement under quality, the achievement differences between the genders were omitted, because the results were not statistically significant. This is yet another indicator that the enrolled boys and girls are equal in their achievement levels.

In a nutshell, it may be stated that the DPEP could achieve the objective of equity indicated through enrollment, retention and achievement.

5.5 Conclusion

The Highlights of the Results

The salient findings of the study are summarized below:

1. The Post-DPEP intervention shows a significant increase in enrolment figures of students in primary schools all over the State. The same trend seems to have tricked down to district and Mandal levels. Thus, the major impact of DPEP intervention is seen in enhanced access into primary schools.
2. The study pointed out that the DPEP intervention succeeded in attaining the objective equity. This can be observed from gender equity in dropout rates at various primary grades. Further, the gender equity also observed in the achievement levels of school children in primary classes.

3. The DPEP seems to have attained only a moderate success in meeting the objectives of retention of students. This is evident from a discouraging rate of dropout among children enrolled in the schools.
4. The DPEP does not seem to have taken the quality objective very seriously. This is evident from the inadequate infrastructural facilities, the insufficient attention given to vertical mobility of enrolled students, the attention given to the professional training for the teachers etc.
5. Fixation of target by the intervention programme like DPEP revealed a potential danger of enrolling children above and below the age of target group. This is observed by more than 100% enrolment of children belonging to the specific age groups. This may leave out some of target group children without enrolling them. This may form a group for non-formal education in future. Thus, a lopsided programme of one intervention programme may lead to a proposal for a future intervention programme the same target group. This is not a healthy trend.
6. Intervention of DPEP seems to have targeted socially disadvantaged groups in rural areas and also relatively developed urban areas compared to a semi-urban area.

CHAPTER - 6

Conclusion

The foregoing discussion notes that the District Primary Education Programme is one of the most significant policy interventions since independence. The DPEP addressed the issue of primary education in holistic perspective, evolved suitable institutional mechanisms for implementation. The financial resources are allocated keeping in view the targets to be achieved. Indicators show that the policy makers facilitated a decentralized institutional set up with adequate provision for participation through school/village education committees. The programme is being implemented since 1998.

The expected outcomes of the programme are (a) enhanced access through increased enrolment (b) higher retention (c) better quality and (d) Equity measured in terms of the objectives of the study indicates the following:

The DPEP implementation machinery succeeded in enhanced access with an enrolment ranging from 75 - 111%. However the intervention could not increase retention beyond 5% while the official target is 10%. The researcher notes that the DPEP only partially succeeded to maintain quality measured in terms of infrastructure, gender parity in teachers and training.

Conclusion

The functionaries for accessing quality are less quality conscious than anticipated. There are indicators suggests that whenever women teachers are available, there the research found higher prevalence of retention and quality. This phenomenon needs further investigation as the researcher concentrated on all the four objectives of DPEP (Chapter three)

As far as equity is concerned, the DP IIP planners visualized equity in terms of better ratio between boys and girls. The study shows that by and large this goal is achieved. Opportunities for education are availed equally. The percentage of achievement appears to be much better than was the case with earlier interventions. (Chapter five) In terms of dropouts, the study shows that more boys and girls in rural areas are dropping out than in urban areas. This is attributable to the presence or absence of female teachers. (Chapter 5)

Observations regarding the continuation of different committees detailing the participation can be gleaned through chapter five.

In addition to data collected with the help of schedules the researcher organized three focused group discussions in the three mandals. These discussions covered aspects concerning planning and organization of DPEP in selected villages.

The discussions are revealing that some of the members of the Village Education Committees¹ are quite critical of the processes of implementation of DPEP. For instance the allocation of money for generating innovative study

Conclusion

materials is not given in time thereby contributing to **the dilution of quality**. A majority of members of the Village Education Committee are of the opinion that teacher absenteeism is the cause for low achievement. Caste politics, polarization based on social background hampered the efforts of some leaders to make education a priority area. On the other hand empowered youth played constructive role by making themselves available to the schools whenever such necessity arose. The women of certain villages organized meetings in support of education for all and offered all help necessary to make girls feel comfortable.

Such gestures on the part of the community helped the DPEP to achieve the goal at least to a limited extent.

At the macro level the DPEP has to take into consideration the fact that the growing hiatus between potential learners and those actually enrolled deserves critical look. In urban areas especially the gap between the probable number eligible to join schools is high compared to the actual enrolment (Chapter five). The gap between projected figure out of school children and the actual number of school children enrolled in some mandals is as high as 50% (Chapter four)

This does not mean that the DPEP has not succeeded. This only underscores the need for heightened efforts to fill the critical gaps by expanding the coverage and consolidating the gain.

Conclusion

As a piece in policy evaluation research DPEP affords a challenging opportunity to the students of public policy as a major effort at including the excluded. More studies are needed to strengthen the programme both in terms of policy and implementation.

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English Editions:

The Hindu
Times of India

Economic Times

Sunday Times

Telugu Editions:

Andhra Jyothi

Eenadu

Vaaritha

Annexure-II

Questionnaire

A. School Location Particulars

1. Village Name / Ward No. _____
2. Block / Municipal Name _____
3. Rural / Urban (1/2)

B. School Particulars

1. School Name _____
2. Year of Establishment of School
3. School Category
 - Primary (1) / Primary with upper primary (2)
4. Type of School
 - School for Boys only (1) / School for Girls only (2) / Co-education (3)
5. Lowest class in the school
6. Highest class in the school
7. Managed by Education Department (1) Tribal Welfare Department (2) / Local Body (3) / Private Aided (4) / Private Unaided (5) / Other (6)
8. Staff Category

	No. of posts sanctioned	No. in position
Teaching staff	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
Non-Teaching staff	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
9. Total students in primary classes

10. SC students in primary classes
11. ST students in primary classes
12. Students with disabilities

C. Teachers in Position

1. Category (for teachers in position only)
- | | Male | Female |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. Principal/Head Teacher | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b. Teachers (excluding head teacher) | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
2. Distribution of teaching staff by caste
- | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. Scheduled Caste | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b. Scheduled Tribe | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c. BC | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d. Others | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

D) School Committee Composition

- | | Male | Female |
|---|--------------------------|---|
| Total | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| SC | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| ST | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| No. of School Committee meetings held in the last three months
(Between July-September 2000) | | <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> |

E) Facilities

1. Type of school building [pucca (1) / partially pucca (2) / kuccha (3) / Tent (4) /
No Building (5)]
2. Status of school building [private (1) / Rented (2) / Government (3)]

3. No. of classrooms

F) Enrollment (All Students)

Class	Class Y"		Class 2		Class 3		Class 4		Class 5	
No. of Sections										
Children Enrolled	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Total										
Repeaters										
New Admissions										
BC Students										
Students given free textbooks										

(i) Knrollmct (SC Students)

Class	Class 1		Class 2		Class 3		Class 4		Class 5	
No. of Sections										
Children Enrolled	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Total										
Repeaters										
New Admissions										
BC Students										
Students given free textbooks										

FT) Enrollment (ST Students)

Class	Class 1		Class 2		Class 3		Class 4		Class 5	
No. of Sections										
Children Enrolled	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Total										
Repeaters										
New Admissions										
OBC Students										
Students given free textbooks										

School Observation Schedule

Q1

1.1. Where was the training of HTs (Head Teachers) organized?

Cluster (1) Block (2) District (3) No training (4)

—
—

1.2. Duration of training

One day (1)

Two day (2)

More than two days (3)

—

1.3. Training conducted by

MRC (1)

TC (2)

District resource person (3)

—
—

1.4. Whether Data Collection Format/Concept was explained clearly?

Yes (1)

No (2)

Partially (3)

1.5. Whether the doubts were fully removed

Yes (1)

No (2)

Partially (3)

1.6. Whether the same teacher who obtained training provided the data for 1999-2000
DISE Data Capture Format for this school

Yes (1)

No (2)

—
—

Q2

2.1. Did the school receive the School Summary Report?

Yes (1) No (2)

2.2. If yes, was it shared with the School Committee?

Yes (1) No (2)

2.3. Did the school summary report reflect the real situation in the school?

Yes (1) No (2)

Q3

3.1. No. of visits by MRP (Mandal Resource Person) Coordinator to the school in the last three months

3.2. No. of teachers who received in-service training under DPEP in the last one year (30th September 1999 – 30th September 2000)

...

Researcher Feedback Schedule

Dates of visit to the school:

Was the school open on the day of the visit? Yes **No**

If no. when was the school visited second time (Date)? _____

Was the school open on the second visit? Yes No

(In case the school was closed on both the days, contact the supervisor for replacement of the school to be surveyed. Replacement should be resorted to only in exceptional cases)

Attribute/s pertaining to the Principal (P)/Head Teacher (HT) and (he Investigal on

Attribute	Response from the School				
	Very Good	Good	Average	Poor	Very Poor
Initial reaction of the P/HT					
Response of the P/HT to provide information					
Availubiiity of records					
Condition of records maintained					
Updation of records maintained					

N.B.: P. HT refers to Principal/I lead Teacher.

Children enrolled/attending school on **the day of the survey**
 (Date of Visit.....01-2002)

Class	Enrollment						Attendance					
	Total		SC		ST		Total		SC		ST	
	B	G	B	i	B	G	B	0	B	B	G	B
Class I			i									
Class II			i									
Class III			i									
Class IV			1						1			
Class V			i									1

'Enrollment' means, the number of children on roll, as entered in the school register.

'Attendance' means, the number of children present on the day of the survey.

Suggested area/s for improvement of quality of data reporting

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.....

No. of teachers present on the day of the visit

Grades for which annual examination is conducted (take details with reference to the annual examination held in March/April 2001)

No. of students	Class I		Class II		Class III		Class VI		Class V	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Enrolled										
Appear at exam*										
Passed										

* If the examination is not conducted at the end of a grade. Write "NA" in the appropriate column. School following 'no detention policy' should indicate "NA^M" for grades for which examinations are not held.