A STUDY OF THE EXTENT

AND

CAUSES OF DROP OUTS

IN

PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN RURAL MAHARASHTRA

WITH

SPECIAL REFERENCE TO GIRL DROP-OUTS

Study Sponsored by
Planning Commission, Govt. of India

Conducted by
Indian Institute of Education

MARCH 2006

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
J. P. Naik Path, 128/2, Kothrud, Pune - 411 038

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◈ PREFACE

The problem of dropout has been continually troubling the primary education system not only in India but in other developing countries also. Dropout does not mean mere rejection of school by children. It leads to wastage of the funds invested in school buildings, teachers' salaries, equipment, textbooks and so on. It also means the existence of some deficiencies in the organization of the primary education system. The subject of 'dropout' or 'wastage' has been studied in India and other countries over the past 65 years and many of the reasons for this educational malady are now known. However, it is not easy to deal with the malady because its origin lies partly within the system itself which has been designed by scholars, politicians and administrators. Their intentions may be beyond reproach but the major lacuna in their designs has been the absence of a comprehensive dialogue with the people to understand their perception of education and of the place of the child in the family. This is the reason why several developing countries are now reorganizing the primary education system so as to make it people-oriented, instead of official-oriented.

It is the administrator's views on 'control' of the system and the teacher's view of the child as raw material to be controlled and shaped that has resulted in the linear nature and illogical uniformity of primary schooling. Recently, however, alternatives have been successfully tried out in countries like China, Indonesia, and some Latin American countries with considerable benefit. To adjust the system of education to the social, economic and cultural circumstances of the children and their community requires a people-oriented administration. Also, teaching-learning techniques need cultural adjustments so as to be more pupil-oriented than teacher-oriented as they happen to be at present in our country. The organization of vacations and holidays is rarely adjusted by our system to the occupational and cultural traditions of the community, and this prevents the children from participating at their level in festivals, ceremonials and occupations of interest, to the family and the community.

Decentralization of administration to the level of villages or at least a block of villages has to be considered seriously and systematically if universal primary education is to materialize. The proper area for selection and appointment of teachers could be the block so that they may be known to the community and find it easy to obtain community co-operation through dialogue and debate. Seasonal variations can be understood by a local teacher as a factor for adjusting the learning time and days during the year. Alongside, the teacher and the parents can utilize development schemes to enable poor families to increase their income and ensure that children are not required to earn their keep and miss the school for that reason.

The present study has found that all the usual causes of dropout exist in the blocks selected for study. It is also found that lack of proper roads essential to enable the children to walk to school is also one of the reasons for difficulties in school attendance in some areas. Perhaps, for a similar reason, and a few other reasons also, teachers' attendance in schools is irregular. Lack of proper road-communication can be one of the major causes for children's non-attendance and dropout. In Maharashtra, the salaries of teachers are now reasonably good and this is no longer a factor which would adversely affect the teacher's performance. But lack of supervision and also a lack of dialogue with the community due to the centralized nature of administration seem to be the major reasons for the teachers' disinclination to work in unfamiliar communities where they are posted.

Maharashtra has recently carried out a study of its socio-economic development. It has acknowledged the widespread incidence of dropout. The fact that one of the main reasons for non-attendance and dropout is the ill-health of the children caused by ignorance of hygiene and inadequate availability of health services, is however not highlighted. A large number of rural and tribal children suffer from worms, scabies, malnutrition, weak eyesight, dental caries and so on. Greater participation of primary health centres and sub-centres in promoting health programmes for the poorer sections in the villages, and particularly for children, may reduce the dropout caused by ill-health. Ultimately, one has to admit that the problem of dropout is not connected simply with school-related problems such as disinterested teachers and school infrastructure. In the rural communities, it is poverty, ignorance, superstition and cultural constraints (particularly relating to girls) that obstruct schooling. It may be possible to address these problems if government seeks the help of non-government organizations dedicated to the cause of health-education and poverty alleviation. Also, micro-level development planning from an integrated health and education standpoint may help evolve alternative systems of access to school and retention of all types of children in primary education. Attention to local contexts and a rational view of dropout may help achieve the goal of universal primary education fairly early.

Chitra Naik

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◈ Executive Summary

1) State Level Scenario

The Maharashtra state government, right from its formation on 1st May, 1960, committed itself to planned development of primary education. The planning process in the country started in the year 1951 with the first Five Year Plan. Maharashtra joined this process of socio-economic development through planning from the Third Five-Year-Plan onwards.

The programme of educational development was envisaged under the Second Plan. The Third Five-Year-Plan provided for the essential needs of free, universal and compulsory education in primary stage of standard I to IV.

The Fourth plan provided not only for a quantitative expansion of primary education but also aimed at qualitative improvement in the system, methods and facilities of education.

For the first time in the country, Maharashtra state published a Policy Statement of Educational Reconstruction in February, 1970. The statement announced a programme of long-term perspective planning for educational reconstruction linked with social and national goals. It suggested the transformation of the educational system so as to make it relevant to the needs and aspirations of the people through appropriate development of all stages of education, equality of educational opportunity, qualitative development of education co-ordination of educational planning with the planning of other sectors of development, and through the reorganization of teacher education, educational administration and the passage of suitable legislation.

Since the constitutional directive to universalize elementary education could not become a reality by 1960, the Fifth Plan envisaged facilities of education to 100 per cent children in the age-group of 6-11, and 60 per cent children in the age-group of 11-14. During the period of the Fifth Plan, a sub-plan for the educational development of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes was prepared, as 12 per cent of the population in the state belongs to the SCs and STs.

The Sixth Five-Year Plan, pointed out the critical role of education in the process of economic development and how it was the principal means for creating human capital of trained, competent manpower for implementing the process of development. Its approach was to ensure essential minimum education to all children upto the age of 14 years within the next ten years, particularly giving attention to school drop outs and to those groups which were in danger of being left behind because of their special circumstances. During the Sixth Plan period, a primary school was opened in every village in the State having a population of about 200 and above.

The Seventh Plan's objective was to universalize primary education in the 14 year age-group children, to reduce drop out rate, especially amongst girls. The objective of opening a new primary school within a radius of 1.5 km. in every area with a population of 200 within, was achieved during the Seventh Plan.

The new policy of universalisation of primary education was given priority in the Eighth Plan and a sum of Rs. 404.48 crore was spent on primary education. The enrolment of children belonging to 6-14 age-group was 84 per cent by the end of the Plan.

In Mahrarshtra, primary education in the rural areas is entirely the responsibility of the zilla parishads. Based on the recommendations of the Naik Committee, Maharashtra adopted the panchayati raj pattern which deviated form the model laid down by the Balwant Rai Mehta study team, by making the district body, the zilla parishad, a strong executive body at the district level rather than the block level body.

At the village level, Village Education Committees have been established as bridges between the schools and the society. The objective of establishing these committees was to get the cooperation of influential and educated villagers in the implementation of the various government schemes of primary education, to raise resources for maintaining schools, to participate in the socico-cultural activities of the school, to supervise the attendance of the students and teachers, to make available educational material and help the sale of crafts prepared by students, to maintain the school property through repairs, and to help the students gain from their knowledge and experience.

2) Schemes and Programmes

1. Primary Education Schemes, 2. Non-Formal Education, 3. Construction of School Buildings, 4. Schemes for Students Belonging to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Nomadic Tribes and Vimukta Jatis, 5. Book Bank, 6. Attendance Allowance for the Girl students, 7. Shaleya Poshan Aahar Yojana (National Programme of Nutritional Support), and 8. Scholarships.

The Government of Maharashtra decided (in 1987) that free education to girls be given from standard I to XII throughout the state in approved, aided and un-aided schools.

3) Objectives of the Study

The main objective was to examine the dropout in the selected districts with regard to :

- Extent of dropouts and absenteeism at each standard from I – VII (considering 1995 as the base year) with special reference to girl students.

- Cause analysis of the dropout problem with emphasis on dropouts by caste and gender.
- Comparative analysis of village, school and family characteristics with disparate educational profiles effecting dropouts and absenteeism
- Societal, parental and institutional factors that contribute towards enrolment and retention of primary school children with gender differentials.
- Factors that result in dropout of school children.
- To examine the societal, attitudinal and socio-economic environment associated with high dropout rates of girls at various levels of elementary school education.
- Interventions necessary for improving retention and reducing absenteeism at different levels.
- To study the reasons for dropouts from SC/ST/OBC and minority children.

Out of approximately 200 million children in the age-group 6-14 years, only 120 million are in schools. The overall dropout rate was 40 per cent at the primary level and 55 per cent at the upper primary level in 1999-2000 (India Vision, 2020). At all levels, Maharashtra has a lower dropout rate compared to the All-India average. However, dropout rate still remains a substantial problem to be addressed. It has to be noted that 22.53 per cent of the children in Maharashtra do not reach the upper primary level and a total of 39.14 per cent children do not reach the secondary level. Though the absolute dropout rates (boys and girls) are lower in Maharashtra, and are almost half the national level, the gender difference in dropout rates is higher in the State in comparison to the national average.

4) Hypothesis

The study proposes to test the following hypotheses :

- Whether there is a correlation between the female literacy level of a village and the drop-out rate among the girl students.
- Whether there is significant difference in the village/school characteristics between high and low drop out regions.
- Whether there is a significant effect of parents' educational level, socio-economic status of the family, and other family characteristics in causing drop outs.
- Whether and if so why there is an increase in drop-out rate with progressively higher standards of class.
- Whether there is an effect of gender and caste variables on school drop outs.
- Whether there is a relationship between drop out problem and availability of physical accurs to the school.

- Whether there is a relationship between retention and school related factors.
- Whether opportunity costs of sending children to school, especially girls are prohibitive.
- Whether there are attitudinal, societal and socio-economic causes for drop out among girls.
- Whether student absenteeism is a substantial problem in the schools.
- Whether teacher absenteeism is a substantial problem in rural schools.

5) Study Design

The study was based on empirical investigation in the selected villages of the identified districts in Vidarbha and Marathwada regions of Maharashtra. These investigations included a school-level inquiry and a household level inquiry. Attitude and opinion surveys were conducted with teachers, parents, school dropouts. Information was also attained regarding the village and facilities available which have a marked effect on schooling. Besides, supplementary information was collected from the records of educational offices at district, block and village levels.

6) Sample Selection

Maharashtra has a diverse topography with varied agro-climatic regions. Keeping the regional diversity in mind it was proposed to select the districts on agro-climatic basis. With this in view and the suggestions of the Planning Commission the districts were selected form Marathwada (1) and Vidarbha (2) regions. A drought prone district from Marathwada, a district from Vidarbha which as moderate rainfall and a tribal district from Vidarbha were selected. Further, these were districts where there is no DPEP Programme being conducted as DPEP intervention could have had a positive effect on retention of children in schools.

With these criteria in mind, the following districts were selected :

a) Marathwada – Beed, with lowest rainfall in the region.

   All the districts in Marathwada are covered under DPEP. One district had to be selected and this may give some insight into causes of dropout inspite of incentives like DPEP.

b) Vidarbha – Akola, with moderate rainfall and non – DPEP.

c) Vidarbha – Bhandara, a non-DPEP and tribal district.

Criteria for selection of the Blocks was on the percentage of total workers to total population. According to the 1991 District Census Handbook (not available for 2001), the percentage of total workers to total population was taken for selection of the Blocks in the respective Districts. One highest and one lowest block were selected from each District.

The Selected Districts and Blocks were :

a) Akola District (Vidarbha)

- Akote (lowest)
- Telhara (highest)

(Though Akola was lowest it could not be selected as it is an urban area).

b) Bhandara District (Vidarbha)

- Tusmar (lowest)
- Lakhandur (highest)

(Though Bhandara was lowest it could not be selected as it is an urban area).

c) Beed

- Ambejogai (lowest)
- Georai (highest)

Therefore, four villages from each block were selected randomly viz.

7) Conclusion

The main conclusions of the analysis in the three districts in relation to the factors causing drop out are presented.

1) The material conditions of education

Rural schools are generally at a disadvantage. This is true for school infrastructure in the first instance. Because of budgetary constraints, there is a growing tendency to mobilize local resources for building schools. This had led to a dual system : the public authorities keep the responsibility for school construction in the urban areas and local communities are given the same responsibility in rural areas. The result is a clear urban – rural split. In rural areas, the situation of improper building conditions is aggravated by the lack of sufficient funds for maintenance. In certain areas, therefore, school facilities are not only poor, but are simply dangerous for the users.

Schools in the rural areas clearly do not have the minimum equipment required for an effective teaching / learning process actually to take place. Ensuring at least minimum material resources for all these schools is therefore an absolute priority for the educational policies of these districts. Improving quality of education is essential and would help curb dropping out of children from school but would not be possible if this condition is not fulfilled.

A typical school does not exist. Material shortcomings are further reinforced by differences in human resources, both in terms of competence, motivation and stability of the teachers and in terms of school management through the presence or

absence of a head teacher with no teaching duties. Improving education quality is a must when we want to reduce and ultimately prevent drop out. This is true for both boys and girls.

2) Availability and quality of teaching staff

First of all, serious imbalances were noticed in the distribution of female teachers. It should be borne in mind that the absence of women teachers in rural schools may be a serious obstacle to improving girls' participation rates.

The lack of stability of teachers in rural schools is particularly worrying. Young qualified teachers who are posted to a remote area tend to try to move out as soon as possible. Consequently, they do not develop a sense of belonging nor do they build up a real commitment to the community they are supposed to serve. As has been seen, this lack of involvement is aggravated by the fact that in the same remote rural areas teachers prefer not to live in the community where they teach, but whenever there is a choice, to stay in a nearby center where they can find necessary services for themselves and for their families. This has a negative impact on the teachers' punctuality and regularly. In addition, this physical distance problem can only reinforce the cultural gap which often separates teachers form local communities. This results in lack of communication between teachers and parents regarding the performance and absenteeism of the pupils.

Yet another factor found to seriously limit the ability of teachers to devote themselves fully to their teaching job and to invest time in improving school functioning is the involvement of teachers in other official and other income generating activities.

As far as the reasons for dissatisfaction are concerned, it is interesting to note that deterioration of social status or declining respect from the community are hardly mentioned. The main reasons given for low job satisfaction by the respondents are salary and more generally speaking, the mediocre living conditions. Teachers are also preoccupied with the lack of equipment and the shortage of teaching materials in other classes. A third problem which they often mention is that they are not properly supported by parents of the pupils.

Two main conclusions can be drawn from these research findings. First, there is manifestly a certain number of objective constraints in the working and living conditions of teachers which are gradually eroding their availability and their commitment to their teaching job. Unfortunately, these constraints are not always given the necessary attention when quality improvement proposals are being worked out. Such proposals too often assume a level of involvement and dedication which is unrealistic unless complementary measures to alleviate the above mentioned constraints are taken. The second conclusion, which is more positive, is that the margin of manoeuvre for stimulating teachers' motivation is not limited to salary increases. Professional incentives, which are more affordable and which aim directly at the improvement of the working conditions in the classrooms, could have a powerful effect. These improvements would in turn help curb drop out.

3) Parents' perceptions

The fact that parents have stated lack of encouragement from the school, particularly in the case of girls relates to the *lack of faith in school as an instrument of social promotion*. Yet, parents continue to have a faith in the power of education related to parents' expectations of schooling and to their hopes for their childrens' future. In the rural areas, primary school is not perceived as an end in itself but the parents' occupational aspirations for their children are not unexpectedly, as ambitions.

The poor quality of schools is regularly quoted as another factor which negatively affects the demand for education. And this poor quality of schools indirectly influences school drop outs because it leads to the discouragement and demotivation of pupils (no encouragement reason). Despite this parents also contradictly state they are satisfied with the school. What can explain this contradiction between poor school quality and parents' satisfaction? Three factors can intervene. First, for many parents the village school is one of the few they know and as such they cannot compare it to a model school. Second, parents take the view that the quality of a school is determined mainly by the teachers. A third factor, which partly explains the second is that contacts between the parents and teachers are rather tenuous. A non-negligible proportion of them especially in the tribal area have never even met their child's teachers. The positive opinions of parents about the school quality are therefore no surprise.

Pupils' home environment certainly plays a role in school failure and dropping out of children. As seen earlier, many pupils in the rural areas live in houses without electricity and more often than not running water. Many children, especially girls are made to fetch firewood and potable water. Children have little contact with the written word outside of school due to paucity of reading materials and to the low level of education of parents. This last element is fundamental. Parents with little formal education on average are poorer, offer their children less opportunity to study are less able to assist the in school and need them more to help out at home or in the field. Moreover, such parents have generally a more limited knowledge of the language used in the school which is often different from the one spoken at home.

Two specific factors are further highlighted by the data on pupils' living conditions that make school attendance irregular leading to drop out : The fact, mentioned above, that children have to help with work inside and away from the house; and health problems. Although response on childrens' health is low, it is one of the main reasons invoked for absenteeism.

Bad teaching and other school-related factors are rarely mentioned as such by parents or teachers in the rural areas, but there is little doubt that they play an important role in demotivating students. Two aspects are disquieting here. Firstly, as they function at present, many schools are not capable of stimulating and sustaining the motivation of a considerable proportion of their pupils. Drop out is caused, at least in part, by factors inherent to school. A second cause for concern is that teachers in all three districts seem hardly aware of the school's responsibility for

pupil failure and drop out. They have a natural tendency to blame the pupils and their family environment and they do not believe very much in the school's ability to change things. This conviction is unfortunately strongest in rural areas, which is where repetitions and drop outs are most numerous.

These research results raise several education policy questions. The fact that parents in the rural areas keep faith in the value of schooling and that they are on the whole rather positive about the quality of schools, does not imply that education decisions-makers can simply shrug their shoulders, hiding behind the claim that school failure and drop out are social more than educational problems. There are limits to what schools on their own can achieve but this research also points at the responsibility of the school and at the need to adapt its functioning in order to achieve better results. At least four questions could be raised in this respect.

The first is to determine to what extent and how the school could adapt to family living conditions which vary widely from one rural setting to another. Some of the hypotheses that underpin traditional school organization, namely : children are available to attend school regularly, they are in good health, their parents can help them, etc. While it is clear that these hypotheses apply in privileged urban areas this is not the case in the rural areas. Therefore, adapting school practices to the specific living conditions of pupils (for example, adjustments in school hours and calendars, constructing crèches close to schools, opening reading centers at school, etc) seems indispensable to making schools more effective, which implies, putting into question the uniform organizational model that currently prevails.

The second question is even more complex. It is a matter of determining to what extent the school can go beyond mere adaptation and actively influence certain factors in its environment such as the level of education of parents (for instance through literacy and post-literacy programmes), or the state of health of children (for instance through proper school meals and illness-screening programmes). This question is far from new, but it remains relevant. Creation of student newspapers would give both pupils and parents better opportunity to read, which is of benefit in particular to the otherwise disadvantaged rural families.

Third, parental expectations of their children's educational and occupational career have to be taken into consideration when it comes to determining basic education policies. Most parents in the rural areas express the desire for their children to continue schooling and continue studying after they finish primary education and most hope for their son or daughter to find a middle level professional post which would take them out of the village. Voluntarist policies that fly in the face of parental demand and aspirations generally yield little fruit. But this does not mean that policy should simply reflect the demand and be prisoner to parents' expectations, at times unrealistic. If policies and planning have any meaning, it is precisely in the setting of goals and the formulation of collective projects. The key is to know who defines these projects and how. The urban elite for the rural masses? This is what often happens, without consideration for the needs and aspirations of local communities. Basic educational planners would gain much by listening to communities before acting.

Finally, the need for communication between policy makers and communities is reflected by a similar need for more communication between schools and teachers and their 'client': parents and students. Analysis of school withdrawals shows that teachers consider lack of parental support to be the main reason for failure at school resulting in drop out. These problems cannot be solved if contacts between parents and schools is almost non-existent. Such contacts need to be promoted also in order to break the vicious circle whereby defeatism of certain teachers echoes and sustains the discouragement of some pupils and parents.

4) Consequences for the agenda of planners and managers

The importance has been stressed in basic education planning of paying greater attention to the diversity of local situation. Therefore, the intention is not to offer receipes for the best strategy or strategies to develop this type of education, but simply to point out a number of themes that should be at the heart of planners' concerns.

a) Being more attentive to the demand side

The planning of education has not paid enough attention of demand issues. Most of the time it has assumed that demand is guaranteed, and that it is enough to make the school accessible for making children go. Similarly, the issue of whether the content of education is relevant and suited to community needs is debated at length among specialists, but rarely discussed with parents. The main reaction to parents who might not want to send their children to school has been to decree school attendance compulsory.

But compulsory education has little impact on poor parents who are not in a position to send their children to school regularly, because they need their help at home or in the fields, nor on children suffering from malnutrition or debilitating illnesses, or who have quit simply been discouraged by a negative experience at school. These problems of the interaction between supply and demand, deserve more attention than they generally receive. The study suggests that when decision makers want to introduce changes , they should realize that dialogue with the users of educational services is indispensable as is adoption of the changes to local realities.

The first challenge for the planner is to adapt the school to the real living condition of families, in order to make it culturally and economically more accessible and more attractive. To meet this challenge, he/she can learn from his/her colleagues in the non-formal education sector, who have always manifested great flexibility in the way they organize their programmes. For example, while recognizing that logistics may be more complicated than in the case of formal education, standardized school calendars and timetables could be adjusted, for they are often poorly suited to local conditions in certain zones, Similarly, one could relax rigid criteria of promotion and repetition that prevent normal progress of disadvantaged children.

Attempts to go beyond the simple adaptation of the supply is by exercising a direct impact on the demand factor that hinder regular school attendance. Among such measures one can randomly mention the following : literacy courses for parents and/or programmes to inform them or make them aware of the role they can play in making the schooling of their children more successful, organization of school meals, use of the school as a center of medical screening and health care for their children etc. These types of measures have often been successfully applied to projects on a limited scale, but they have rarely been generalized. Part of the reason, of course, is again lack of resources, But this sort of initiative also requires a considerable amount of time and commitment from local officials, including teachers; while there is in many cases a manifest lack of motivation and organization, often accompanied by indifference to the problems of families. These realities must be kept in mind when one asks the school to go beyond its traditional role and to exercise a direct influence on demand. What can be obtained from a particularly dynamic staff in a certain school is not necessarily transferable elsewhere. In fact, the success if this type of initiative is dependent first and foremost on the reinforcement of local management capacities, and on the ability to generate and maintain sufficient involvement by the teaching staff.

As a further point, the decision-maker should also be aware of the importance of parents' opinion and of what they expect from school for their children. In all cases, the school is seen primarily as an instrument of social promotion, and as a means for children to escape the harsh conditions of rural life. As a result, parents have a traditional and academic perception of education. For them, primary school serves essentially to teach their children to read and write and to prepare them for secondary school. Thus, it is not surprising that they are often suspicious of reforms that move school away from their traditional function.

Of course, there can be no development without proposals for change. Some tension between the objectives of education policy and the expectations of parents is quite normal, provided it does not simply amount to contradiction. When they want to introduce changes, decision-makers should realize that dialogue with the users of educational services is indispensable, as is adaptation of these changes to local realities.

It is likely that the above described measures to bring the school and pupils' parents closer together could also have an encouraging effect on these parents. But the two problems are not necessarily the same. There area host of reasons for parents not to want to continue to send their children to school because the cost (including the opportunity cost) is too high, or because they do not perceive schooling as being useful, or because they reject school for socio-cultural reasons. The first case is relatively easy to resolve, because it is solely a supply problem, but the other are more complex.

b) Investing more in the human factor

Officials responsible for education projects often give the impression that they put more faith in things than in people to improve the quality of education. Massive

investments are made in school buildings, in the production of textbooks, or in the distribution of teaching materials, without these investments being accompanied by appropriate teacher-training programmes. For example, the famous 'Operation Blackboard' consisted in supplying each primary school with the equipment necessary to teach properly. Unfortunately, the impact on the teaching process was limited, precisely because the necessary complementary measures of training and pedagogical support for teachers were not taken into consideration.

Decision-makers should take the teacher more seriously, as the crucial factor in the quality improvement process. At the macro-level this means paying more attention to the imbalanced distribution of teachers by areas. The study revealed considerable disparities in terms of the proportions of men and women, of professional qualification, of experience and of stability of the teaching staff. Although there are exceptions, the general rule is systematic degradation of these parameters as one moves from privileged urban zones to the rural zones. Moreover, these handicaps in terms of human resources only serve to accentuate those already mentioned in the area of material resources. Under these conditions, how could one expect school in basically rural areas obtain results comparable to those of school in privileged zones?

At the micro-level, the study shows that at least three serious problems arise. Often teachers are simply not available to do their work properly. Many of them are forced to have a second occupation to survive. In addition, teachers in the rural areas tend more and more to live in local centers that are far from their school, but that offer them a minimal level of material comfort and services. Commuting time is then added to the time spent on a second occupation, to the further detriment of time available for teaching. Then there is a manifest deterioration in the commitment of teacher which is directly connected with difficult living and working conditions and with declining salaries. Moreover, teachers in rural areas have a deep sense of being isolated or even abandoned, for two kinds of reasons. They feel that they are not supported by the central administration, and at the same time they are cut off from the communities where they work. Finally, one observes a lack of competence and often of confidence in being able to work better, partly because of insufficient initial and in-service training, but also because of a lack of adequate support in the form of various teaching guides and materials.

Of course, there are no miraculous solutions to these problems, and one should not expect, for example, to be able to increase teachers' salaries overnight. But there is always some margin of manoeuvre which varies which should be utilized fully. Low salaries are a real problem with a direct effect on teacher performance. Even though as has been seen, this problem is not the only concern of teacher and opportunities for improving their effectiveness by non-financial incentives are considerable, one should immediately improve at least the management of salary payment, so as to reduce administrative bottlenecks and to guarantee that payment are made regularly. More innovative and further-reaching measures could also be envisaged, in particular the revision of salary structures and of rules governing promotions and transfers.

More specifically, it really is necessary to come back to the issue of incentives that might encourage women and teacher with good qualifications and experience to work in schools in rural areas. Similarly, one should examine the relative advantages and disadvantages of recruiting local teachers who may be less qualified but more deeply rooted in the community more highly motivated.

In terms of improving the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process in the classroom, the planner can intervene in different ways. The first priority is to offer teachers decent working conditions. The influence that material teaching conditions have on the moral of teachers has been seen. It is difficult to ask them to be regular and assiduous if the minimal resources requited to teach properly are not provided. This will vary from area to area but the role of planning is to identify disparities in teaching conditions and to provide compensatory resources to reduce these disparities and to ensure that the minimum is guaranteed everywhere.

The second priority is to pay greater attention to the quality of initial and in-service training. Investment in in-service training is generally at too low a level to have a real effect on the quality of the pedagogical process. Moreover, the substance of such training is often academic and too far removed from the everyday problems that teachers confront in the classrooms. The absence of adequate example of the weakness of present training systems.

Last, but not least, one should design the different support mechanisms for teachers as a coherent whole, explicitly directed at improving pedagogical practice in the classroom. Too often there is little or no connection between initial training, in-service training, supervision and pedagogical guides. This lack of coherence is confusing for teachers.

The study suggests first priority to offer teachers decent working conditions. The second priority should be to pay greater attention to the quality of initial and in-service training. One should design the different support mechanisms for teachers as a co-herent whole, explicitly directed at improving pedagogical activities in the classroom.

c) Bringing the school closer to the community

Just as the administrative hierarchy tends to blame the teachers for their lack of commitment, so the teachers themselves are blaming parents for the lack of interest, absenteeism and the high drop out rate of their children. At the same time, they make little effort to meet parents, whether by organizing meetings or by asking them to come to the school individually. This reflects weak teacher motivation, but also their conviction that parents do not have much to contribute to the school.

As for parents in rural areas, they have little contact with teachers, partly because they are hardly invited to do so, partly because the school is an alien world for them if they have not been to school themselves, and partly because they themselves do not really see what useful purpose such contact could serve. Their attitude is one of the passive but benevolent ignorance. They generally have a good

opinion of the school and find that teachers do a good job. They entrust their children to teachers without really expecting much accountability.

As a result, there is an abyss between the school and the parents, and the synergy that could be generated by good interaction between these two parties is not present at all. On the contrary, there is very much a vicious circle. Teachers do not solicit the co-operation of parents. Consequently, the latter feel less and less concerned by what happens at school, their own motivation and that of their children is weakened and this leads to failure and dropping out. The teachers, in turn, are convinced that they are not supported by families.

For the school to yield better results, it is necessary to break out of this vicious circle whereby parental discouragement is met with teacher defeatism. The question is how? Obviously, to solve the problem it is not enough to create a parents' association or a school development committee. Such organizations usually exist on paper but function poorly or not at all. In and of themselves, they do not guarantee a more positive attitude of teachers to parents, nor a sense of ownership on the part of parents vis-a-vis the school. As several studies have shown, the attitude of the staff, and especially the teaching staff, is of capital importance when one wants to achieve more open and more participatory functioning of schools. In fact, it is often more difficult to convince teachers to take this road than it is to convince parents.

Moreover, it must be accepted that it takes time to change habits and traditions, and consequently one must reason in terms of stages. In the immediate term, the most urgent task is probably simply to make the school more welcoming for its users. To achieve this, teacher should be made aware that they need families to do a good job, that they have to invite parents to become familiar with the school's life, in order to stimulate their interest and to obtain their support for the schooling of their children. The study points out that it is not enough to create a parents' association or a school development committee. Teachers should be made aware that they need families to do a good job, that they have to invite parents to become familiar with the school life in order to stimulate their interest and to obtain their support for the schooling of their children. Once the cultural gap separating parents and teachers has been bridged, more elaborate forms of participation become possible, and in particular more active involvement of parents in the school's management and control.

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◈ **CHAPTER – 1**

An Overview

1.1 Genesis of the Study

For over a decade now, the importance of five to eight years of schooling for all children has come to be accepted as a societal goal. Gone are the days when people, at least in the more educationally backward regions of the country, questioned the relevance of primary education in the daily battle for survival of the poor, particularly poor women. The District Primary Education Project (DPEP) has not only augmented available resources for primary education but has also given primary education the attention and priority it merits in the government. Conventional approaches to educational access have been challenged by new approaches such as the Education Guarantee Scheme. Some State Governments have showed willingness to collect information on out-of-school children by setting aside the "official" data generated by the system and actually enumerating children who were not attending school. The ball that was set rolling in the late 1980s in the wake of the National Policy on Education has gained momentum in the last five years. Renewed efforts to make primary education available to all children in the 6-14 age group have made a difference in many areas of this vast and diverse country.

This is not to say that all is well and we are poised to achieve universal elementary education in the next half decade or so. What this signals is that, for the first time in independent India, primary education is receiving some focused attention from political leaders and administrators. The overall social and political environment is positive.

Whatever the purported successes in the last 50 years and earlier when the country embarked on modern education and, grudgingly, or otherwise, accepted universalisation of elementary education as a societal goal, there has been a strata of children that has persistently escaped the net of schooling. The preliminary results from the 2001 census, several national Sample Surveys as also DPEP baseline studies have attempted to estimate the extent of non participation in primary schools. It has to be unfortunately admitted that innumerable programmes and experiments notwithstanding, these estimates range from a low of 61 million (NFHS 1993-94) or 77 million (NSS 1993-94) children to a high of 89.64 million (GoI/NSSO) and approximately 90 million in 2001 (estimated from household surveys alone under the aegis of DPEP programme in selected States). Definitional problems make it difficult to estimate the proportion of children who work. A large number of children are formally enrolled in school but continue to work. And then, there are the children whose work is "invisible", for example, girls working at home.

Close to two-thirds of out-of-school children are girls with, of course, significant variations by region, caste, tribe and community. Kerala and Himachal Pradesh represent major success stories, managing near universal participation, while the BIMARU belt lags far behind. And though, as a result of specific focus programmes for the girl child, the growth rates in enrolment for girls have dramatically improved to double that of boys in the primary stages (classes I to V) and even higher in the middle stages (classes VI to VIII) the situation remains worrisome.

Equally, if not more troubling, is the situation of children from SC and ST communities. Many of these communities are not only poor, but they also face a range of social exclusions that deprive them of the benefits of all publicly provided services, including education. The situation is far worse when we look at migrant communities, those once classified as criminal tribes and so on. The segregated settlement pattern in most of our villages, with houses of the deprived located on the margins – often replicated in urban slum settlements and shanty towns – adds to the difficulty of access.

Just adding more schools and teachers, even in the settlements of communities marked by low school participation, is insufficient since courses, language of instruction and pedagogic methods are designed to suit children from relatively high class and caste strata.

An even greater problem and one of immediate concern is that of drop-outs. Inspite of the remarkable expansion of elementary education system in the last few decades, a very large number of children in India continue to be out of school. Most of those who enroll in class I do not complete the eight years of education. The growing needs of primary education have not been met by all the efforts made so far and there continues to be fairly large gaps in the achievement levels of all children enrolled at primary stage, a very high percentage drop out even before reaching class V. Though most States of India have done well in enrolling more and more children in schools, their inability to retain them has been a problem. Considerable efforts have been made during the last decade to ensure that children do not drop out of school after initial enrolment. There has been significant decline in drop out rates between 1991 and 1999. This is more pronounced in the case of girls. Between 1991 and 1995 the drop out rate for girls declined from about 48 per cent to 38 per cent at primary stage (Classes I to V). If the same trend continues, as estimates indicate, 7 out of 10 girls who joined primary school in 1999 are likely to remain in the system for at least five years. It is also observed that the difference between boys and girls is narrowing, though the situation is not quite encouraging with respect to upper primary stage. It is essential to understand the crux of the problem of drop outs especially, the problem related to girls, even when various schemes related to elementary education have been implemented. This question requires empirical investigation and research. For the present study, the State of Maharashtra was taken which is quite an educationally forward state yet with considerable drop out in primary schools especially in rural areas.

1.2 National Scenario

Providing elementary education for all, with an ever-burgeoning population, has not been an easy task. However, the network of Primary Schools has expanded significantly. An estimated 95 per cent of the rural population living in 826,000 habitations has access to a primary school within a radius of 1 km and about 85 per cent of the population has an upper-primary school within a radius of 3 km.

There has been substantial expansion of primary and upper-primary schools in the country in the recent decades. According to the Sixth Educational Survey data, there are 5.70 lakh primary schools and 1.62 lakh upper primary schools.

Information on net enrolment ratio available from two sources namely, the Sixth All India Educational Survey with 30 September, 1993 as the date of reference and the 52nd Round of the NSSO for the year 1995-96 gives net enrolment ratio for children in age group 6 to below 14 years at 57.5 per cent. In other words, of the children in age group 6 to below 14 years, 57.5 per cent were enrolled in Classes I-VIII. The ratio was 64 per cent for boys and 50.4 per cent for girls. The ratio was 62.2 per cent for children in age group 6 to below 11 years and 44.8 per cent for ages 11 to below 14 years. The NSSO data for 1995-96 gives a net enrolment ratio of 66 per cent for Classes I-V and 58 per cent for Classes VI-VIII. Moreover, while gender gap in the ratios for rural areas was significant, more so, for classes VI – VIII, it was not so for urban areas. At State level, for Classes I – V the ratio was significantly lower than the national average for Bihar, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. Apart from these three States, for Classes VI – VIII, the ratio was also lower than the national average in the States of Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal. (National Human Development Report, 2001).

The drop out rate gives an indication about the wastage of school education and tends to undermine benefits of increased enrolments. Indicators such as drop out rate or school attendance rates qualitatively supplement the use of enrolment indicators to capture the flow aspect of educational attainment in any context. Though the drop out rate at national level for India has been declining, there is considerable regional disparity in the magnitude. As per the latest estimates available from the Ministry of Human Resource Development of students enrolled in Classes I – V, over 40 per cent dropped out in 1999-2000 as against 58.7 per cent in 1980-81 and 65 per cent in 1960-61. Similarly, nearly 55 per cent of students enrolled in Classes I – VIII dropped out in 1999-2000 as against nearly 73 per cent in 1980-81 and 78 per cent in 1960 – 61. The drop out rate has been higher for girls. It was 42.3 per cent for Classes I – V and 58 per cent for Classes I – VIII in 1999-00 as against 62.5 per cent and 79.4 per cent respectively in 1980-81. At State level, the drop out rate has been quite high in Bihar, Jammu-Kashmir, Orissa, Rajasthan, UP, West Bengal and most of the States in North East for Classes I – V and in Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Gujarat, Karnataka, Orissa and West Bengal, apart from the North Eastern States for Classes I – VIII in 1999-2000 (National Human Development Report, 2001).

A NSSO Survey for the year 1995-96 showed that the drop out rate increases cumulatively with level of education. It was estimated that of the ever enrolled persons in the age group 5 – 24 years, 21 per cent dropped out before completing

primary levels. Half the children dropped out before attaining middle level, over three fourths dropped out before attaining secondary levels and 9 out of 10 persons ever enrolled could not complete schooling. The drop out rate was least for those belonging to the highest expenditure class and maximum for those from the lowest expenditure class. Children from poorer sections of the society drop out in the early stages of education while those from the better off sections drop out at later stages. Among reasons for dropping out from schools, it was found that one-third of the drop outs were because either the children or their parents were not interested and nearly as many were on account of economic considerations, such as the compulsion to work for wages or looking after younger siblings. About 26 per cent cited, school and teaching curricula related factors such as unfriendly atmosphere in schools, doubts about the usefulness of schooling and inability to cope with studies as reasons for their dropping out. Among girls in rural areas, these factors accounted for over 75 per cent of the drop outs. Similarly, findings were reported in the PROBE report (Study Conducted in Some Selected States). They found that of the boys who dropped out, 35 per cent did not want to continue and 47 per cent were withdrawn from schools by parents who cited factors such as schooling being too expensive, requirement of children in other activities and poor teaching standards as the main reasons for their decision. The corresponding proportion for girls were 16 and 66 per cent respectively.

1.3 New Attempts for Development of Elementary Education

As seen earlier, the country has made impressive achievement in the elementary education sector. But the flip side is that out of the 200 million children in the age-group 6-14 years, 59 million children are not attending school; of this, 35 million are girls and 24 million are boys. There are problems relating to dropouts, low levels of learning achievement and low participation of girls, tribals and other disadvantaged groups. There are still at least one lakh habitations in the country without schooling facility within a kilometre. Coupled with it are various systematic issues like inadequate school infrastructure, poorly functioning schools, high teacher absenteeism, large number of teacher vacancies, poor quality of education and inadequate funds.

Various schemes were launched in pursuance of the emphasis embodied in the NPE and the POA.

The scheme of Operation Blackboard was launched in 1987-88 with the aim of improving human and physical resources available in primary schools of the country. Provision of at least two reasonably large rooms, at least two teachers and essential teaching / learning materials for every existing primary school were the components of the scheme. During 1993-94, the scheme was extended to cover upper primary schools. It provided for three rooms for primary schools, an additional teacher for upper primary schools and a third teacher for primary schools with an enrolment of more than 100. The scheme was implemented through the State Government.

Funds were provided to the states for procurement of Teaching-Learning Equipment (TLE) and payment of salaries to teachers appointed under the OB scheme.

The scheme was subsumed in Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan from 2002-03.

The District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) was launched in 1994 as a major initiative to achieve the objective of Universalisation of Primary Education (UPE). The programme is implemented through State-level registered societies.

The programme aims at providing access to primary education for all children, reducing primary dropout rates to less than 10 per cent, increasing learning achievement of primary school students by 25 per cent and reducing the gender and social gap to less than five per cent. The programme was structured to provide additional inputs over and above the Central / State sector schemes for elementary education. It fills the gap in the development of primary education and seeks to revitalise the existing system. The programme is contextual and included components like construction of classrooms and new schools, opening of non-formal / alternative school centres, appointment of new teachers, setting up of Early Childhood Education Centres (ECEC), strengthening of State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERTs) / District Institutes of Educational Training (DIETs), setting up of Block Resource Centres / Cluster Resource Centres, teacher training, development of teaching / learning material, research-based interventions, special interventions for integrated education to disabled children, education of girls, working children, SC/ST, etc.

Since its initiation in November 1994 when DPEP covered 42 districts in seven States, its reach has spread to 273 districts in 18 States. Eighty-five per cent of the project cost is shared by the Government of India (GoI) and 15 per cent by the concerned State Government. Both the Central and the State shares are passed on to the State Implementation Societies directly as grant.

Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE) has been accepted as a national goal. The Ninth Five Year Plan envisages UEE to mean universal access, universal retention and universal achievement. As a result of the efforts made by the Central and State governments, 94 per cent of country's rural population have primary schools within one km. At the upper primary stage, 84 per cent of the rural population have schools within a distance of three km.

The Central and State governments have over a period of time evolved strategies to check drop-out rates and improve levels of achievement in the schools, the key elements of which include; (i) creating parental awareness and community mobilisation; (ii) involvement of communities and PRIs (73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments); (iii) economic incentives; (iv) improvement in the infrastructure facilities in schools; (v) District Primary Education Programme initiative; (vi) National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education (Mid-day Meals Scheme); (vii) Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education; (viii) Teacher Education Schemes, and (ix) Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan initiative.

The Government formulated a revised Constitution Amendment Bill (93rd Amendment) and it was presented in Parliament. The Lok Sabha passed the bill on 28 November 2001. It was considered by the Rajya Sabha on 14 May 2002.

The main features of the revised Constitution (93rd Amendment) Bill are as follows : (i) Insertion of a new Article 2A to provide for free and compulsory education to all children of the age of 6-14 years in such manner as the State may, by law, determine; (ii) Substitution of existing Article 45 of the Constitution with the following : "The State shall endeavour to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of 6 years"; (iii) Insertion of the following new Clause in Article 51(A) of the Constitution relating to Fundamental Duties of the citizens : "(k) who is a parent or guardian to provide opportunities for education to his child, or, as the case may be, a ward between the age of 6-14 years".

The Scheme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) was evolved from the recommendations of the State Education Ministers' Conference held in October 1998, to pursue UEE as a mission. Approved in November 2000, the goals of SSA are : (a) that all 6-14 age children (i) are in school/Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS) / bridge course by 2003; (ii) complete five year primary education by 2007; (iii) complete eight years of schooling by 2010; (b) Focus on elementary education of satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life; (c) bridge all gender and social category gaps at primary stage by 2007 and at elementary education level by 2010; and (d) Universal retention by 2010.

The SSA will cover the entire country with a special focus on educational needs of girls, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and other children in difficult circumstances. The Ministry has also set-up a National Level Mission under the Chairmanship of the Prime Minister vide Resolution dated 2 January 2001. Grants were released to States/UTs for starting preparatory activities in 294 non-DPEP districts and for upper primary in 59 DPEP (Phase-I) districts. The PAB has also approved the District Elementary Education Plans (DEEPs) of 512 districts (253 DPEP districts and 259 non-DPEP districts) with an outlay of Rs. 1,106.26 crore during the year 2001-2002.

The Non-formal Education Scheme has been revised as Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education

The scheme of Non-Formal Education (NFE) was introduced in 1979-80 to those children in the age group of 6-14 years who had remained outside the formal system of schooling. The prime focus of this programme was 10 educationally backward States. But it also covered urban slums, hilly, tribal and desert areas. The programme was implemented both by the States/ UTs as well as NGOs in the ratio of 60:40 for running co-educational centres, 90:10 for girls' centres and 100 per cent assistance to voluntary agencies. A total number of 2,33,946 centres were run through State/UT governments and another 58,618 through 816 voluntary agencies.

In order to make the scheme a viable alternative to formal education, it has been revised as Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education (EGS and AIE). The revised scheme will cover all the unserved

habitations throughout the country where there are no learning centres within a radius of one km. and is a part of overall national programme framework for Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE), the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA). The pattern of Central assistance in the revised scheme is uniform in the ratio of 75:25 between the Central and State Governments. The revised scheme was made operational w.e.f. 1 April 2001 with enhanced cost parameters. The scheme has been made one of the components of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan w.e.f. 1 April, 2002. Greater powers have been delegated to the States for scrutiny and sanction of such proposals through the mechanism of State Grant-in-aid committees. An amount of Rs. 61.23 crore was released to State Implementing Authorities for running of 63,075 EGS Centres during 2001-02.

1.4 Maharashtra

1.4.1 Maharashtra Profile

Maharashtra located on the west coast abutting the Arabian Sea was carved out as a linguistic entity of Marathi-speaking people on 1st May, 1960 under the Bombay Reorganisation Act. It is the second largest (among India's 25 major States and 5 Union Territories) in terms of population and the third largest terms of area. As per the Census 2001, its population is 96.8 million or 9.42 per cent of the Indian population out of which number of females per 1000 males was only 922. The State is spread over 3,07,713 square kilometers. Its capital is Mumbai. One among the richer States, with a per capita income that is 40 per cent higher than the All-India average, Maharashtra's income is derived more from the secondary and tertiary sectors.

Maharashtra also has the country's second largest urban population with about 43 persons out of every 100 living in towns and cities. It has a large migrant population of which nearly 72 per cent speak Marathi which is the most widely spoken language. Other prominent languages are Hindi, Urdu and Gujarati.

Positioned between 16 N and 22 N latitude and 72 E and 80 E longitude, Maharashtra with a 720 km long coastline stretching from Daman in the North to Goa in the South, is bounded by the States of Gujarat (North-West), Madhya Pradesh and Chattisgarh (North and North-East), and Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka (South). It falls in the resource development zone called the Western Plateau and Hill Regions, one of the 15 such zones into which India is divided on the basis of the agro-climatic features.

Maharashtra's topography is diverse. It is classified into five broad regional groups viz.

a) Greater Mumbai

b) Western Maharashtra comprising of -

Nasik Division – Nasik, Dhule, Nandurbar, Jalgaon and Ahmednagar Districts with large tribal population with large landholdings, high level of landlessness, forests, a few fertile tracts and good rainfall.

Pune Division – Pune, Sangli, Satara, Kolhapur, Solapur Districts with relatively lower rainfall and smaller landholdings.

c) **Marathwada** consisting of Aurangabad, Jalna, Parbhani, Hingoli, Nanded, Osmanabad, Beed and Latur being dry with low and uncertain rainfall, large landholdings and some landlessness.

d) **Konkan** consisting of Mumbai, Thane, Raigad, Ratnagiri and Sindhudurg Districts on the coast where landholdings are small but more or less evenly distributed with not much irrigation facilities.

e) **Vidarbha comprising of -**
Amravati Division – Buldhana, Akola, Amravati, Washim and Yavatmal.
Nagpur Division – Nagpur, Wardha, Bhandara, Gondiya, Chandrapur and Gadchiroli.

The two divisions of Vidarbha cover part of a plateau with assured rainfall and medium to large landholdings and high levels of landlessness. Bhandara, Gondiya, Chandrapur and Gadchiroli districts have a large tribal population and forest cover.

1.4.2 Economy

Since its formation in 1960, Maharashtra's economy in terms of net SDP (State Domestic Product) grew at 4.73 per cent per annum till 1999-2000 and the per capita SDP at 2.43 per cent per annum. In comparison to the All-India performance over successive plan periods, Maharashtra's performance shows the non-agricultural sectors playing a major role, neutralizing the adverse implications of the poor performance of the primary sector. What is more important is that the growth rate has accelerated in successive decades. It is anticipated that primary education development in Maharashtra will depend on the SDP at constant prices which would indicate the overall growth in the economy. The State of the economy in Maharashtra will permit the State to not only qualitatively expand primary education, but also make qualitative inputs as well. The State's finances were under severe constraints and the implementation of the Ninth Five Year Plan as regards primary education was restricted.

Data on unemployment (Table-1) indicates rates that are lower than those recorded at the national level in rural areas, for both females and males. In urban areas

Table – 1

Unemployment Rate (%) Daily Status * : Maharashtra and All-India

Survey Period	Maharashtra				All – India			
	Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1972-73	7.80	12.70	NA	NA	6.80	11.20	8.00	13.70
1977-78	5.85	9.31	8.99	15.75	7.10	9.20	9.40	14.50
1983	6.25	7.23	9.05	10.44	7.50	9.00	9.20	11.00
1987-88	2.90	3.50	8.50	9.20	4.60	6.70	8.80	12.00
1993-94	4.60	4.00	6.00	7.80	5.60	5.60	6.70	10.50
1999-2000	6.30	6.90	7.70	10.00	7.20	7.00	7.30	9.40

Note : NA = Not Available

* Incidence of person-day unemployment is defined as a ratio of unemployed person-days to labour force person – days.

Source : GOM (2001 a)

the unemployment rate recorded in Maharashtra are higher than the national level. This points to a better performance in rural areas which could partially be explained by the role of State Specific employment programmes such as EGS.

Inter-district disparities in growth performance may be verified in terms of the simple outcome measure viz district-wise estimates of income and its composition. The estimates for 1998-99 bring out the following features – Dhule, with a per capita domestic product of Rs. 11,789 is the poorest district. Mumbai district on the other hand has a per capita domestic product of Rs. 45,471, which is almost four times the level obtaining in Dhule.

Economic factors have an influence on the development of primary education in the State as a whole. The educational developments in Maharashtra are discussed separately in the next chapter in detail.

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◈ **CHAPTER – 2**

Primary Education in Maharashtra

In the 100 years preceding Independence, many a social reformer and political leader in Maharashtra actively organized educational opportunities and teaching at different levels even as serious thinking and action on the status of women was taking place. Mahatma Phule started the first school for girls, a pattern that found favour with other social thinkers too, provoking a discussion on women's issues. The aim was to secure social progress at every level. Thus, the relative gender equality in contemporary Maharashtra's education system is a legacy of the historical trends. Private initiative and voluntary action in facilitating education has been a strong characteristic of Maharashtra.

2.1 Historical Background of Primary Education Development

The Maharashtra state government, right from its formation on 1 May 1960, committed itself to planned development of primary education. The planning process in the country started in the year 1951 with the First Five Year Plan. Maharashtra joined this process of socio-economic development through planning from the Third Five-Year Plan onwards. A survey of the Five-Year Plans facilitates the understanding of the evolution of primary education in the rural areas. Pune district (erstwhile Poona district) is well advanced in educational field and facilities for primary education are available in Pune city and in the district. During the First Five-Year Plan, among the schemes designed to assist the growth of primary education in the state, an important place was occupied by the scheme relating to the introduction of compulsory primary education on organized basis.

The programme of educational development envisaged under the Second Five-Year Plan resulted in the scheme of compulsory primary education being introduced in Pune district in the year 1947, when 298 villages with a population of over 1,000 according to the 1941 census were covered. The scheme was further extended in 1954 to 84 villages having a population of over 1,000 according to the 1951 census and later extended to 357 villages with a population of 500 to 999 and 682 villages with a population of less than 500. Thus, by 1951-52, compulsory primary education had been introduced in all the villages of Pune district, except some 75 villages which had a very small population. Hence, during the First Five-Year Plan (1951-52 to 1955-56) the number of primary schools managed by the District School Board (since 1961-62, taken over by the zilla parishads) in Pune

district increased from 688 to 1,195. The number of pupils in the age group of 6-11 years in these schools increased from 1,12,389 to 11,49,328.

An educational survey was carried out in 1957 for facilitating the planned expansion of educational infrastructure for the primary stage.

The Third Plan provided for the essential needs of free universal and compulsory education in primary stage for standards of I to IV. It tried to correct the imbalances in the growth of primary education in the different regions of the state, especially Vidarbha and Marathwada as compared to Western Maharashtra which includes Pune, through increased allocations and pointing out the need to harness the resources of local authorities and voluntary agencies. In Western Maharashtra, compulsory education for the age-group 7-11 years was introduced in 1948-49 in villages with a population of 1,000 and above according to the 1941 census. By the end of the Second Plan, except for about 580 stray villages which were very small, schooling facilities existed in the villages of Western Maharashtra, whereas in Vidarbha (Nagpur division) and Marathwada (Aurangabad division) compulsory education was introduced in 1965-66. The Second Plan made a provision of Rs. 385 lakh for the development of primary schools in the state at the rate of 2 per cent per year. There was an increase in the number of students enrolled in primary schools by about 14.4 lakh during this period.

Table – 2

Indications of Growth of Primary Education during Third Five Year Plan

Sr.No		1960-61	1965-66
I	Number of Schools (a) Primary (b) Middle	 25,418 9,446	 29,728 13,043
II	Number of Students (lakh) (a) Primary (b) Middle	 38.49 7.48	 53.04 12.51
III	Percentage of enrolment (a) Primary (age-group 6-11) (b) Middle (age-group 11-14)	 74.20 29.40	 90.19 39.99

The scheme to supply free textbooks to students in the first and second standard of primary schools was initiated in 1963-64. The scheme of free milk supply to pupils of primary schools, designed to improve their health, continued in the Third Plan and was extended to 239 schools in the scarcity areas also. The scheme of merit scholarships to primary students being implemented in Western Maharashtra was extended to Aurangabad division where 134 students benefited from it. The government spent Rs. 10,000 on these concessions.

Although there was a quantitative expansion in primary education during the first three plan periods of 1951 to 1966, the programme suffered from certain deficiencies such as shortage of trained teachers, equipment and buildings, slow progress of girls' education and large wastage in education. The Fourth Five-Year Plan provided not only for a quantitative expansion of primary education but also aimed at qualitative improvement in the system, methods and facilities of education.

The main objectives of the Fourth Plan were:

1. to transform the present educational system so as to relate it more intimately to the life, needs and aspirations of the people;
2. to improve the standards substantially and keep them continually rising;
3. to discover and develop talent in various fields; and
4. to increase facilities at all stages and in all sectors for creating greater equality of opportunities.

To attract more children to schools and to prevent absenteeism and drop outs, particularly girls leaving schools, a new scheme of mid-day meals in primary schools was introduced in Maharashtra in 1968-69. To improve attendance of girls in schools in scheduled areas, the Fourth Plan provided for free supply of textbooks, slates, uniforms, etc. Similarly, to attract women teachers in backward and rural areas for improving attendance of girls in primary schools, the Fourth Plan proposed the construction of 500 quarters at the place of employment.

The programme of revision and upgradation of curricula and textbooks, and the programme of training of teachers to enable them to modernize their knowledge and improve their professional competence was launched. State-level institutions such as, the State Institute of Education, Education Bureau of Government Examinations, etc., were also strengthened.

At the end of 1968-69, i.e., at the end of three years of Annual Plans, there were 44,058 primary schools in the state and enrolment and number of teachers in these schools was 60.45 lakh and 1.75 lakh respectively. On 15 July 1972, the number of primary schools was 46,013 and the enrolment and number of teachers was 68.47 lakh and 1.91 lakh respectively. There were only 1,300 villages without schooling facility in the state, most of which were having a population below 300 and were situated in inaccessible and difficult areas.

The position of population in the age-group of 6-11 years at the end of 1968-69 and that expected at the end of 1973-74 was as follows :

Table – 3

Percentage of Population

	1968-69		1973-74	
Region	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Boys**	**Girls**
Western Maharashtra	112.3	81.8	107.8	84.2
Marathwada	93.2	41.9	95.6	44.7
Vidarbha	95.1	66.8	98.5	68.1
Entire State	105.3	71.8	103.7	74.0

During the period of the Fourth Plan, the proportion of girls to total enrolment in standards I-V increased slightly from 40.1 per cent to 40.4 per cent and the proportion of women teachers to total teachers in primary schools increased from 23.1 per cent to 27.5 per cent. To promote girls education in scheduled areas a scheme of giving them free slates and stationery was implemented during the Fourth Plan. The amount spent on this scheme was Rs. 4 lakh, and a provision was made for Rs. 2.07 lakh for the year 1973-74. The scheme covered scheduled areas in Thane, Nasik, Jalgaon, Dhulia, Nanded, Amravati and Chandrapur.

During the Fourth Plan the government took the decision of introducing subject-wise teaching in standards V-VII and sanctioned teachers at the rate of 1.3 per division of these standards. During the year 1970-71, a survey was conducted throughout the state to ascertain the requirements of teachers of different zilla parishads for the introduction of subject-wise teaching. A backlog of 16,654 teachers was revealed by this survey which has been reduced to only 2,500 to maintain the 40 : 1 pupil-teacher ratio.

Thus, 24,042 posts of teachers had been created during the Fourth Plan to meet the demands of enrolment increase and subject-wise teaching in primary schools. To supervise the working of the schools and for academic guidance of teachers, 136 posts of ADEIs had been created. During the Fourth Plan, the post of headmaster in the scale of Rs. 145-250 was sanctioned for the primary schools having an enrolment of at least 200.

The Plan underlined the fact that the quality of education imparted in standards V-VII in a primary school was inferior to that imparted in the same standards in secondary schools due to lack of supervision, lack of subject teachers, and non-availability of equipment, library and laboratory facilities, etc. To improve the quality of their education, scheme of attaching standards V-VII in primary schools to secondary schools was initiated in the Fourth Plan and continued during the Fifth Plan. About 1,600 such classes were attached to secondary schools in 1972-73. About 9,600 such classes were attached to secondary schools upto the end of 1979-80 and during 1980-81, 144 classes of standard VII were proposed to be attached for which an outlay of Rs.155.52 lakh was proposed in the Sixth Plan.

For the first time in the country, Maharashtra published a Policy Statement of Educational Reconstruction in February 1970. It announced a programme of long-term perspective planning for educational reconstruction linked with social and national goals. It suggested the transformation of the educational system so as to make it relevant to the needs and aspirations of the people through appropriate development of all stages of education, equality of educational opportunity, qualitative development of education, coordination of educational planning with the planning of other sectors of development, and the reorganization of teacher education, educational administration and the passage of suitable legislation.

Since the constitutional directive to universalize elementary education by 1960 could not become a reality, the Fifth Plan envisaged facilities of education to 100 per cent children in the age-group of 6-11 and 60 per cent children in the age-group of 11-14 (including 50% on full-time basis and 25% on part-time basis). The

Planning Commission had included this programme in its National Programme of Minimum Needs and made available a central assistance of Rs.33.83 crore.

During the period of the Fifth Plan, a sub-plan for the educational development of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes had been prepared, as 12 per cent of the population in the state belongs to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. Although data related to their enrolment or percentage coverage of their population in schools was not available, the hard reality was that they were lagging behind in educational development. In the hilly and inaccessible regions, the population is sparser and therefore educational facilities do not exist there. Many children especially girls, are not sent to schools due to social backwardness and poor economic conditions of the parents. Therefore, this programme of universalisation of primary education was given the task of providing educational facilities in the hilly and backward regions as its first priority. Besides this, the following four special schemes were floated for promoting education for the SC/ST children.

Table-4

Special Schemes for Education for SC/ST

Scheme	Total Outlay	Outlay to be spent on SCs / STs (crore)
Book grants to girls (I-V) in rural areas	1.97	0.24
Uniforms to girls (I-V) of SCs/STs	2.76	2.76
Ashram schools	1.40	1.40
Production of books in local tribal dialects	0.05	0.05
Total	**6.18**	**4.45**

The total outlay of the Minimum Needs Programme for the entire nation was Rs.80.09 crore. The outlay of the sub-plan for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes totaling Rs.4.45 crore, is 5.5 per cent of the total.

The Sixth Five-Year Plan pointed out the critical role of education in the process of economic development and how it was the principal means for creating human capital of trained, competent manpower for implementing the process of development. Its approach is to ensure essential minimum education to all children upto the age of 14 years within the next ten years, particularly giving attention to school drop outs and to those groups which are in danger of being left behind because of their special circumstances, through appropriate programmes designed to promote “learning while earning”. The plan approved an outlay of Rs. 212.44 lakh for elementary education for the year 1980-81.

Elementary education forms part of the Minimum Needs Programme. At the end of 1978-79 there were about 49,374 primary schools in the state with an enrolment of 80.75 lakh students and a teaching staff of approximately 2.22 lakh. During 1979-8, 503 new primary schools were started, bringing the total of primary schools in the state to 49,877.

The position regarding enrolment in primary schools is as follows :

Table – 5

Enrolment in Primary Schools (1979-80)

Item	Unit	Position at the end of 1979-80
1. Class I-V (age-group : 6-11 years)		
(a) Boys	Lakh	46.71
(b) Girls	Lakh	34.99
(c) Total	Lakh	81.70
2. Class VI – VIII (age-group : 11 – 14 years		
(a) Boys	Lakh	13.16
(b) Girls	Lakh	07.27
(c) Total	Lakh	20.43

During the Sixth Plan period a primary school was opened in every village in the state having a population of about 200 and above. Thus, during the Sixth Plan, 1,300 schools, in addition to the existing 49,374 primary schools were to be opened in school-less villages. The Sixth Plan spent Rs. 2712 lakh for primary education.

In addition, a provision of Rs. 141.85 lakh had been made for the non-formal education programme in this Plan, and an outlay of Rs. 445.12 lakh was made for the Book Bank Scheme. During the year 1979-80 about 82,000 students benefited from the scheme of supplying free uniforms and writing material. An outlay of Rs. 118.90 lakh was made for the above scheme.

A scheme for the construction of quarters for primary teachers posted in tribal/forest areas, who find it difficult to find residential accommodation in rural areas, was taken up. Under this programme a grant of Rs. 10,000 per quarter was paid to the zilla parishads. An outlay of Rs. 40 lakh was provided in the Sixth Plan for construction of about 400 quarters.

To improve the quality of teaching in primary and secondary schools, a scheme of school complexes was introduced in 1968-69 and about 25 schools complexes were started in the Fourth Plan. In 1979-80, the schools complexes increased to 408 and in 1980-81, 72 new complexes were started. During the Sixth Plan the proposal was for 270 complexes with an outlay of Rs. 28.4 lakh.

The Seventh Five-Year Plan's objective was to universalize primary education in the 14-year age-group children, to reduce drop out rate especially amongst girls. During the plan period, the Dr.V.M.Dandekar Committee was appointed to study the problems and lacuna in primary, middle and higher education. The Seventh Plan programmes related to teachers and school classrooms were in keeping with the recommendations of this fact-finding committee. The expenditure incurred during

the Seventh Plan was Rs. 7,864.4 lakh and during the year 1990-91 it was Rs. 610.68 lakh. At the end of the plan, the enrolment for the age-group of 6-10 years was 122.9 per cent and for age-group of 11-14 years it was 80.5 per cent. The objective of opening a new primary school within 1.5 km. radius of every area with population of atleast 200, was achieved during the Seventh Plan.

The position of enrolment during Seventh Plan period and for the Annual Plan 1990-91 was :

Table – 6

Enrolment (1985-90) and (1990-91)

Enrolment in Classes	Seventh Plan 1985-90	Annual Plan 1990-91
I to V	10,090	10,370
VI to VIII	3,821	3,992
Total	13,911	14, 362

1. During the Plan, 1,468 villages were covered and 2,133 teachers were appointed for which an amount of Rs. 367.41 lakh was spent.
2. Under the Operation Blackboard Scheme, 3,560 single-teacher schools were opened and after 30 September 1986, were upgraded under the State Plan for which an amount of Rs. 1,4441.04 lakh was spent.
3. 165 *balwadis* were opened during the Seventh Plan for which an amount of Rs. 8.13 lakh was spent.
4. 720 part-time classes were started for which an amount of Rs. 15.73 lakh was spent.
5. Under the special facilities to SC/ST student in the Primary Schools Scheme, 5.86 lakh student were provided with uniforms and writing material for which an expenditure of Rs. 298.89 lakh was incurred.
6. Under the Book Bank Scheme, 41.03 lakh students were supplied with books for which Rs. 292.63 lakh were spent.
7. Grants were given to District Rural Development Agency (DRDA) for constructing 14,471 classrooms during the Seventh Plan for which Rs. 776.2 lakh were spent.

The thrust areas identified for the Eighth Plan (1992-97) were :

1. To accelerate the tempo of universalisation of primary education programme, especially in the tribal sub-plan area, hilly/inaccessible areas and other backward areas.
2. To reduce the drop out sates of the students at primary education level by launching special campaigns of motivation for weaker sections of the society.
3. To create congenial atmosphere in the rural and backward areas by involving local village bodies in the process of elementary education programmes.

4. To educate the economically weaker sections of the society about the importance of elementary education for their children, with the assistance of teacher organisations, voluntary organisations, volunteers from government and non-government institutions like Rotary Club and Lions Club. This was done to help create awareness among illiterates.
5. To encourage the weaker section families to send their children for primary education by taking ameliorative measures for their economic upliftment.

The 1987 educational survey had pointed out that there were 1,150 school-less villages which had no schooling facilities within the radius of 1.5 km and which had a population of 200. During 1990-91, 286 primary schools were opened in school-less villages for which Rs. 83.29 lakh were spent; 2,588 teachers were appointed during 1990-91 for which Rs. 362.51 lakh were allocated. Under the scheme of Operation Blackboard, single-teacher schools started after 30th September were to be upgraded to two teachers by the state government from its funds. During 1990-91, 383 schools were upgraded for which Rs. 73.37 lakh were allocated. For effective implementation of universal primary education, it was found necessary to open a *balwadi* in the campus of each primary school. In 1990-91, 1,088 *balwadis* were established.

2.2 Eighth Plan and Primary Education

The new policy of universalisation of primary education was given priority in the Eighth Plan and a sum of Rs. 404.48 crore was spent on primary education. The enrolment of children belonging to 6-14 years age- group was 84 percent by the end of the Plan.

During the Eighth Plan, special emphasis was on the implementation of the National Policy on Education and certain important schemes were given priority, which continued even in the Ninth-Five-Year Plan. According to the new revised policy of the government, a primary school would be opened in an area with a population of 100 and where no schooling facility existed within a radius of 1km, in hilly and inaccessible areas. During the Eighth Plan an expenditure of Rs. 91.27 lakh was incurred under this scheme.

To achieve the target of universalisation of primary education by the year 2000, primary schools for the children of sugarcane cutting workers were started to cover all the children belonging to the age – group of 6-14 years. The temporary workers and sugarcane cutting workers move along with their families from their place of residence to the sugar factories during September – April every year which causes a break in the education of the children. To deal with the frequent breaks in the education of the children of these workers it was decided to open 25 schools near the sugar factories. The sugar factories will provide classrooms and the schools will be managed by the zilla prishads. For this, training will be imparted to the teachers and the Block Education Officers. Allocation for the Annual Plan 1998-99 was Rs. 11.14 lakh and for the Annual Plan 1999-2000 was Rs. 20.1 lakh.

The expansion of primary schools has resulted in the appointment of primary teachers in the zilla parishad schools. Under this scheme, one teacher is to be appointed for primary schools (standard I to IV) having an enrolment of 40. If the enrolment is between 41 and 80, two teachers are to be sanctioned. If the enrolment is between 81 and 120 and average attendance is 60, three teachers are provided. In standard V to VII, teachers are appointed at the rate of 1.5 per division. Thus, during the Eighth Plan, 7,217 posts of teachers were created for which an expenditure of Rs. 8,563.76 lakh was incurred. The outlay for 1998-99 was Rs. 2,405.92 lakh, and for the Annual Plan 1999-2000 it was Rs. 2,285.72 lakh for 4,238 posts.

2.3 Child Participation after Eighth Plan

At the primary level, are most children of school-going age going to school in Maharashtra? How widespread is child labour? There are no straight forward answers to these questions. Different sources of data show different trends. Data from school sources show a very high enrolment rates but estimates from household surveys as part of the National Sample Survey (NSS) shows much lower participation in the education system and this gap, however, is as true for Maharashtra as it is for all of India.

The second round of the National Family Health Survey 1998-99 also asked all members of the respondents' households who are between the ages 6 and 17 whether they are currently attending school. Although there are some rural – urban variations, the compiled data shows that over 84 per cent of boys and 79 per cent of girls in this age-group in Maharashtra are going to school. Although the same indicators show a much higher level for Kerala, the Maharashtra numbers are considerably higher than the national average, which is 78 per cent for boys and 66 per cent for girls. Participation of girls in Maharashtra in primary schools has increased from 35.8 per cent in 1960 to 48.0 per cent in 1998. The number of women teachers has increased from 22.1 per cent in 1960 to 41.6 per cent in 1998 (Table –7).

Table – 7

Participation of girls in Primary Schools and Women Teachers

Year	% of Primary Students	Women as % of Primary School Teachers
1960	35.8	22.1
1965	37.8	24.8
1970	39.3	26.4
1975	41.3	29.1
1980	43.0	31.5
1985	44.7	35.9
1990	46.0	38.4
1994	47.2	40.1
1995	47.5	41.1
1996	47.6	41.1
1997	47.9	41.9
1998	48.0	41.6

Source : Directorate of Education, Government of Maharashtra for various years

In the year 2000, there was an enrolment of 12042145 children (of which 5779441 were girls) in 65585 primary schools and 268322 teachers. (Directorate of Education, Pune).

2.4 Drop outs

The drop out rates for the State show a strong increasing trend for each succeeding level of the school system. Data for the school year 1998-99 indicate that by the time children reach Standard IV only 85 per cent of the boys and 86 per cent of girls out of the cohort size of 100 who started in Standard I four years ago remain in school. These fractions dip further in Standard VII; 69 per cent of boys and 66 per cent of girls survive. While the drop out rates for boys and girls are quite similar at Standard IV, as they get older this ratio begins to diverge. The standard-wise drop out rates also show a steady increase through the school years till Standard VII (Table 8). The gender difference is smaller at the lower grade levels and increases as children get older and is most acute in the backward districts.

Table – 8

Drop out Rates by Standard in Maharashtra, 1998-99

Standard	Boys	Girls	All
Std 2	8	7	7
Std 3	7	6	7
Std 4	15	14	15
Std 5	18	20	19
Std 6	26	28	27
Std 7	31	34	32

Source : Directorate of Education, Government of Maharashtra

From the aggregate State-level or district-wise data, it is not possible to say who stays in school and who drops out and why. Even if disaggregated data were available, it is difficult to disentangle the push and the pull factors. On the push side, there are concerns about quality of schools. A poorly performing student is more likely to drop out of school as compared to a high achieving student. The NHFS-2 recorded over 40 per cent of boys in the age-group 6-17 saying they were not attending school as they were “not interested in studies” and only 13.8 per cent were quoted as saying that it “costs too much”. When a large proportion of children lag behind academically, the causes are often connected with the teaching-learning situation in the schools more than the characteristics of individuals. Another important ‘push’ factor related to elementary education is that in Maharashtra, the majority of student attend primary schools near by the zilla parishad or the municipality. It becomes important to study the extent and causes of drop outs in varied contexts in the primary schools.

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◈ **CHAPTER – 3**

Schemes and Programmes for Primary Education in Maharashtra

3.1 Evolution of Schemes / Programmes

Basic Education

To promote development of primary education on the basic pattern on a mass scale, a scheme for introduction of craft teaching in primary schools was initiated in 1947-48. It aimed at providing facilities for training primary teachers in crafts and teaching of crafts in schools. To implement this policy, short-term training courses in crafts were organized. The crafts introduced were spinning leading to weaving, kitchen gardening leading to agriculture, cardboard modeling leading to wood work, etc.

The policy of progressively converting primary schools into basic schools continued in the Third Plan. The plan made a provision for converting 150 full grade schools and 240 lower primary schools into basic schools with agriculture as the basic craft. Later this scheme was shelved due to non-availability of land.

The Third Plan pointed out that one of the major difficulties in the conversion of schools into basic schools was the paucity of trained basic teachers. Out of the 1,07,344 primary teachers, 66,444 teachers were trained by the end of March 1960. Since the annual turnover of the existing 173 training institutions in the state was 8,850, the plan had provided for 60 more training institutions to raise the turnover to 15,150 thus providing about 52,000 more trained teachers by the end of the plan, against the estimated requirement of 59,900 to be trained. The provision made for the teacher training programmes in the Third Plan was Rs. 175.22 lakh.

Training of Primary Teachers

The expansion of the facilities for primary education resulted in the urgent need for an increased number of trained primary teachers. To improve the quality of training in the training colleges, following important changes had been introduced :

(i) The rate of grants to non-government primary training colleges was increased from 50 per cent to 66.6 per cent from June 1955.

(ii) Rate of tuition fee grants for School Board teachers and backward class students in non-government colleges was increased from Rs. 60 to Rs. 72 per annum per student from June 1955.

(iii) Revised syllabus in primary training colleges comprising separate courses of two years duration for P.S.Cs. and S.S.Cs was introduced in 1956.

(iv) 80 per cent seats in non-government institutions were reserved for School Board deputed teachers from 1955-56.

Eleven training institutes were started in the State during the Third Plan to facilitate the training of teachers. This resulted in the rise of percentage of trained teachers from 62.26 to 79.8.

From June 1966, only trained primary teachers with S.S.C., D.Ed. were recruited in Maharashtra, exception being made in the case of women teachers and teachers belonging to backward classes.

During the Fourth Plan, there were 130 Colleges of Education in the state, teaching 3-year D.Ed. course. The annual output of these colleges was about 10,000 which exceeded the annual demand and hence a large number of D.Ed. candidates remained unemployed. Thus, it was decided to convert some of these colleges into in-service training institutions. This process began in 1972-73, and the object was to cover 13,000 candidates per annum.

During the Fourth Plan, the percentage of trained primary teachers had gone up from 83.5 to 87.6. Teachers appointed before January 1969, were extended a stipend of Rs. 60 and a loan of Rs. 30 per month during the period of training. Teachers deputed after January 1969 were, however, paid only interest free loan of Rs. 75 per month.

New Institutes for Better Education

To ensure qualitative development of primary education, the state government established the following institutions during the Third Plan period :

1. A State Institute of Education was established at Pune in June 1964 to study the problems arising out of the rapid growth of primary education and suggest improvements to deal with them.
2. State Institute of English was established in Bombay in October 1965 to provide training to teachers in training colleges and Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors (referred to as Extension Officers (Education)) in the methods of teaching of English in primary schools. Twenty-three lecturers received training in primary training institutes.
3. An Evaluation Unit was created in 1963 to conduct research and evaluation of aims and objects of education, methods of teaching and systems of examination for suggesting improvements.
4. A Bureau of Government Examinations was set up to conduct all examinations held at government level.

Schemes of Teachers

A pension scheme was introduced similar to the scheme for government servants, for primary teachers from April 1962. This included family pension to the family members of the teachers.

The National Teachers Welfare Fund was created by the government in 1962. Funds were collected on the Teachers' Day celebrations every year on the 5th of September. Over Rs. 12 lakh were collected for the Fund by the end of 1965-66. Financial assistance to the extent of Rs. 1.37 lakh was extended to the needy teachers or the dependents of deceased teachers.

A Council has been constituted on the lines of whitely Council to deal with the grievances of the teachers. The Council has representatives of the government and teachers.

The government has also initiated State Awards to primary school teachers for excellent service similar to the Government of India Awards. During the period from 1961 to 1966, 38 primary teachers received the awards. Vedic scholars are also honoured by the state government under this scheme.

Concessions like exemption from payment of fees by the wards of government servants, employees of the zilla parishad, etc., having income less than Rs. 1,800 were continued during the Third Plan. The state government spent Rs. 12.25 crore on the scheme and about 20 lakh students were benefited.

Primary teachers posted in tribal / forest areas find it difficult to get residential accommodation. A scheme of construction of quarters for primary teachers was, therefore, taken up. Under the Sixth Plan, an outlay of Rs. 40 lakh was made to the zilla parishads for the construction of 400 quarters at the rate of Rs. 10,000 per quarter.

Since May 1992, primary teachers working in the adivasi areas were paid an incentive allowance. However, since 14 August 1997, the allowance was stopped because the teachers did not stay at the place of work.

School Buildings and Equipment

The expansion of compulsory primary education necessitated the construction of new school buildings or the expansion of the existing ones to meet the increasing influx of students. In rural areas, the work of constructing school buildings was entrusted to the District School Building Committee which was granted funds by the government. It was not, however, possible to chalk out a programme of constructing school buildings as it was dependent on the receipt of one-fourth of the contribution from the villagers benefiting from the scheme. During the period of the First Plan, 62 school buildings were constructed by the District School Building Committee.

The nature of financial assistance for construction of schools was modified from 1962-63. The zilla parishads were to get grant-in-aid instead of loans for construction of school buildings. The financial assistance provided during the Third Plan period was Rs. 95 lakh. This means that a large part of the accommodation required for the proposed expansion (37,000 classrooms) in the Third Plan had to be found in rented premises.

Due to the rapid expansion of the schooling facilities, the problem of accommodation continued during the Fourth Plan also. To deal with the problem, grants amounting to Rs. 138 lakh had been paid to the zilla parishads. A provision of

Rs. 40 lakh was also made during 1973-74. The ceiling rate per classroom had been raised from Rs. 3,000 to Rs. 4,000.

The main problem faced by the primary schools in the State relates to accommodation. At present, a number of schools are held in the premises of temples, chawadis, dharmashalas or in hired premises. It was estimated that about 45,500 classrooms will have to be constructed if all the primary schools were to be provided with separate school buildings. During the Sixth Plan, the state government continued to grant 60 per cent of the actual expenditure of Rs. 4,000 per room, whichever was less, to zilla parishads. In tribal areas, the grant was Rs. 8,000 or 80 per cent of the actual cost, whichever was less. During 1979-80 about 458 school rooms were constructed. During the Sixth Plan an outlay of Rs. 292.8 lakh had been made for the construction of about 2100 classrooms for 534 schools which were without accommodation, and attention was given to preparing low-cost designs and type plans for the construction of classrooms.

Keeping in view the implementation of new education policy in the state since 1988-89, the construction of two-room units and / or single-room units of primary school buildings were proposed under the Operation Blackboard programme. The estimated cost of a single-room measuring 16'X20' is Rs. 90,000 in non-tribal sub-plan and Rs. 1,00,000 in tribal sub-plan area. Besides this, as per the pattern of Nirmiti Kendra, Pune, the estimated cost of a classroom measuring 16'X20' plus 20'X8' verandah is Rs. 65,000 which has to be approved by the government. Under this programme, 60 per cent of the total the remaining 40 per cent would be provided by the education department. During the Eighth Plan, an expenditure of Rs. 7,134.52 lakh had been incurred. The outlay for the Annual Plan of 1998-99 was Rs. 2,052.47 lakh and for the Annual Plan of 1999-2000, Rs. 1,607.55 lakh.

The Operation Blackboard programme provides for educational equipment to primary schools. Educational equipment have been provided to 1,268 primary schools at the rate of Rs. 7,215 per school. During the Eighth Plan, Rs. 104.72 lakh were spent under the scheme. Since 1995-96, equipment has been provided at the rate of Rs. 10,000. The outlay of Rs. 32.12 lakh is provided.

During the Eighth Plan, Rs. 2,114.96 lakh were spent for the scheme providing a pair of school uniforms and writing material to the students belonging to SCs / STs. An expenditure of Rs. 5,311.95 lakh was incurred for the scheme of attendance allowance to girls of SCs / STs, vimukta jatis / nomadic tribes, and economically weaker sections of the society.

To increase the quality of primary education the Maharashtra Government has, since 1994-95, established Central Primary Schools for implementation of the programme of generalization of primary education. The Eighth Plan spent Rs. 5,781.93 lakh on this scheme.

The Government of Maharashtra had also decided to establish the District Primary Board in 1994-95. This Board would control and guide the zilla parishad and other local bodies in matters related to primary education. A District Advisory Committee for every district and taluka level was established, for which Rs. 38.04 lakh were spent in the Eighth Plan.

The Scheme of Book Banks

The scheme of book banks has been started for primary schools, since because of poverty, students belonging to the backward classes face difficulty in buying the required textbooks. During the Eighth Plan period an expenditure of Rs. 1,525.79 lakh was incurred. It was decided (1996-97) to provide free textbooks to all the students studying in standard I to IV of Zill Parishad primary schools of the 103 blocks where the female literacy rate was below the national average. The outlay for Annual Plan 1998-99 was Rs. 386.73 lakh and for Annual Plan 1999-2000 was Rs. 486.64.

Pre-Primary Education

During the Second Plan it was emphasized that pre-primary education plays an important role in preparing the minds of young boys and girls for community life and an aptitude for learning. There were 22 pre-primary schools in Pune district, of which 20 were situated in Pune city only. The Hingane Stree Shikshan Sanstha at Karvenagar conducts a pre-primary teachers training college. These pre-primary schools were assisted by the government through a grants-in-aid programme. Thus, it is amply clear that the pre-primary schooling phenomenon was an urban reality.

The Fourth Plan emphasized qualitative improvement in primary education facilities. To promote this, the need for expanding the facilities for pre-school education was increasingly felt in rural areas since they created interest in schools at the pre-school stage. Such schools exist mainly in the urban areas and therefore to popularize the programme in rural areas a provision was made for grants-in-aid to 500 pre-primary schools in selected villages of fairly large population.

During the Sixth Five-Year Plan, a programme to start about 250 *balwadis* every year through the Plan was proposed. An outlay of Rs. 35 lakh was proposed for this programme.

To achieve the objective of universalisation of primary education, it was necessary that children in the age-group of 3-5 years should attend classes regularly, and to achieve this purpose *balwadis* were to be established on the campus of each zilla parishad school.

During the Eighth Plan, objectives of this scheme were spelt out as :

1. Children should be acquainted with school environment.
2. To inculcate good and healthy habits among children.
3. To develop the senses through the play-way method.
4. To reduce the drop out rate in primary schools.

In the Eighth Plan an expenditure of Rs. 1,723.67 lakh was incurred for starting 5,000 new *balwadis* and for maintaining old *balwadis*. The outlay for the Annual Plan of 1998-99 was Rs. 117.82 lakh and for the Annual Plan of 1999-2000 it was Rs. 52.97 lakh.

Vikaswadi

Acute poverty conditions do not allow the tribals to take interest in the education of their children. The scheme of *vikaswadis* had been started to attract the tribal children to the schools. It has provision for creche for the age-group of 1-3 years, *balwadi* for age-group of 4-6 years and a primary school for the 6+ age-group. The creche had been attached to the *vikaswadi* to relieve the elder children, especially the girls in the age-group of 6-11, from their responsibility of looking after the younger children in the family and enabling them to enrol themselves in the primary school. The younger children were to be admitted in the *balwadis* or creches depending on their age-group. In 1979-80, 21 such *vikaswadis* had been started which were to be continued in the Sixth Plan. An outlay of Rs. 3.15 lakh had been proposed for this programme.

3.2 Administrative Machinery

In Maharashtra, primary education in the rural areas is entirely the responsibility of the zilla parishads. Control over the educational administration of the zilla parishads is exercised by the government through inspections by the Deputy Director of Education. Schemes for qualitative improvement are also prepared by the Directorate of Education and sent to the zilla parishads for implementation.

The Director of Education is the head of the education department and is responsible for the implementation of the various educational programmes at the primary, secondary, higher secondary and higher education levels. The functions of the Director of Education can be categorized under three heads : administration, academic and evaluation. He manages the various programmes of school education within the changing context of the new policies formulated by the government. He finalises new plan proposals and innovative educational programmes with the help of academic and technical advice so far as their feasibility and effective methods and procedures for their implementation are concerned. He also discharges the academic responsibility of continuous evaluation of these educational programmes, with necessary feedback, to ascertain whether these programmes required revision or modification. The Director of Education is the main implementing authority for the education policy designed to meet the changing needs of the community in the state of Maharashtra.

In the discharge of his administrative functions, the Director is assisted by Joint Director of Education, State Project Controller, Deputy Director of Education, Accounts Officer, Senior Statistical Officer, Administrative Officer and O & M Officer, etc. The Joint Directors and the Deputy Directors assist the Director of Education in academic and administrative matters. The Assistant Director (Accounts) assists the Director in the function of maintaining the accounts of the department. The Education Directorate also has a separate statistical wing headed by a Senior Statistical Officer (class I) for collection and compilation of statistics related to educational activities.

The National Policy on Education 1986, with its emphasis on the universalisation of elementary education, is coordinated by the Director of Education through government, semi-government and voluntary agencies in the State. Educational programmes at the primary level are managed by the local self-government and private bodies. However, the general supervision related to direction, control and guidance is the responsibility of the Director of Education. At the state level, the Secretary (Primary Education) is responsible for handling / implementing primary education policy in consultation with the Minister for School Education. He along with his colleagues in the Directorate takes policy decisions related to the primary education. The policy guidelines are laid down by the Union Education Department.

The functions of the Directors as head of the department are as follows :

1. to advise the state government generally in educational matters;
2. to administer educational institutions established of maintained by the state;
3. to establish new educational institutions when found necessary;
4. to utilizes the funds provided by the government for educational purposes;
5. to supervise and control educational institutions managed by voluntary organisations, local bodies, etc;
6. to give technical advice to local authorities for effective implementation of the education schemes transferred to them;
7. to prepare five-year plans and annual plans for general education and implement them;
8. to advise the district planning and development councils for more funding to the district level schemes; and
9. to conduct research and development activities for the improvement of educational administration, teachers' training, etc.

Educational administration is carried out at three levels : state level, regional level and the district level. There are seven regions which are headed by the Deputy Director of Education. The Regional Deputy Director of Education is assisted by an Assistant Director, Science Consultant and Deputy Educational Inspector in academic matters and by an Accounts Officer (Class II) for financial management. Generally four districts are included in each region, except Aurangabad, Kolhapur, Nagpur and Greater Bombay regions.

The Regional Deputy Director of Education is mainly responsible for supervising the work of the District Education Officer and government institutions for primary education. He functions as the executive representative of the Director of Education and is responsible for coordinating the primary educational activities in his region.

The Maharashtra Pattern of Panchayati Raj

Based on the recommendations of the Naik Committee, Maharashtra adopted the panchayati raj pattern which deviated from the model laid down by the Balwant

Rai Mehta Study Team by making the district body, the zilla parishad, a strong executive body at the district level rather than the block level body. Accordingly, the Maharashtra Zilla Parishads and Panchayats Act was enacted which created two tires – zilla parishad and panchayat samiti. The village panchayats were already working under the Bombay Village Panchayats Act, 1958. Though the Naik Committee recommended a three-tier structure, consisting of the zillla parishad, panchayat samiti and village panchayat, it gave zilla parishads, and not the panchayat samitis, the central place; it recommended direct, instead of indirect, elections at the district level (since then this has been amended and any voter can contest form membership to the panchayat samiti); it did not give legislators ex-officio status on the district level body; and kept the District Collector outside the panchayati raj system. It also sought to place the district officials responsible for development under the control of the zilla parishad. In actual practice, a dual control operates wherein the district education officer, like other development officers, is directly under the control of the chief executive officer and also his education cadre officers in the education directorate of the state government. The Act has also given powers to the state government to provide support and direction and exercise suitable supervision and control over the working of the panchayati raj. One of the principal features of the panchayati raj in Maharashtra has been the separation of the executive function from the deliberative function. The policy-making function has been entrusted to the elected representatives of the people. One-third of the elected seats at all three levels of the panchayati raj are reserved for women who can give a push to the education of girls. Similarly, elected seats are reserved for the scheduled caste and scheduled tribes as per legal provisions.

To provide democratic direction and necessary supervision and support to the planning and execution of various types of civic services and development schemes and works approved by the zilla parishad, a standing committee and nine subject committees, one of which is the education committee, as provided statutory have been set up by the zilla parishad. The vice-president of the zilla parishad is automatically the chairman of the education committee. Eight other councilors of the zilla parishad are members of the education committee. The secretary to the education committee is the district education officer (primary education department). The committee meets every month and policy decisions related to primary education development in the district are taken.

Each community development block has a panchayat samiti. The chairman of the samiti is vested with both financial and administrative powers under the Act. The administrative powers comprise conducting and regulating meetings of the samiti, exercising supervision and control over the work of the block development officer and other officers and employees of the panchayat samiti. His financial powers relate to the sanctioning of certain development schemes financed from the block grants and also accepting tenders or contracts related to development schemes of costs laying, etc., within the legally prescribed limits. The deputy chairman presides over the meetings of the samiti in the absence of the chairman and also performs duties delegated to him by the chairman and also performs duties delegated to him by the chairman under prescribed rules. He is also responsible for inspection of

work in progress of any institution financed by, or under the jurisdiction of the zilla parishad and situated within the samiti area and sends his report to the chairman who has similar powers.

The panchayat samiti has the primary responsibility, given the limits of the funds at its disposal, for the promotion and management of primary education and social education as mentioned in the schedule II of the Act. The samiti prepares the primary education development plan for the block and submits it to the zilla parishad for incorporation into the zilla parishad's District Education Plan for the rural areas. It is responsible for preparing, executing, supervising and administering primary education development programme to be financed from the block grants given to it by the state government through the zilla parishad. The zilla parishad has no control over the block grants. With respect to the primary education schemes financed through the block grants, the samiti has to conform to the instructions of the state government.

The samiti has also to execute, maintain, supervise and administer education development schemes entrusted to it by the zilla parishad, besides any other function delegated to it by or on behalf of the zilla parishad.. It can recommend for consideration of the zilla parishad any work or development scheme which should be undertaken by the latter in the block or an increase in an existing tax and fee within the block. The Samiti is to keep the zilla parishad informed of its activities and conform to the instructions of the zilla parishad.

The block development officer (BDO) is the chief executive officer of the samiti and is appointed by the state government. Normally, he is drawn from the state government's newly created Maharashtra Development Service which is analogous to the State's Civil Service. He acts as an ex-officio secretary of the Samiti and attends its meetings, provides any information needed by members and maintains samiti's records. He is generally responsible to the chairman of the samiti for his official decisions and actions, though administratively he is under the control of the chief executive officer of the zilla parishad.

As an executive head of the samiti administration, he with the help of the block education officer assists the Samiti in the formulation of primary education development proposals to be submitted to the zilla parishad. He is responsible for ensuring the implementation of the samiti approved primary education development works and schemes as well as the maintenance of the completed ones. He is also responsible for the implementation of schemes and works entrusted by the zilla parishad or the state government to the samiti. The BDO is assisted by the block education officer (class II) who is in charge of primary education department responsible for the management of primary schools, building primary school buildings and their maintenance, sports grounds for primary schools and sports equipment. There are ten extension officers (class III) for education, of which eight posts are filled. They channelise part of their work through the sarpanchas and the village level workers-cum-panchayat secretaries.

The gram panchayat is composed of 7 to 15 members, depending upon the size of its population. The members are directly elected on the basis of adult franchise. One-third of the seats are reserved for women and there is reservation of

seats for SCs/STs in proportion to their population. The sarpanch (chairman) is elected by the members and is responsible for ensuring that the panchayat functions in accordance with the provisions of the Bombay Village Panchayat Act, 1958, decisions of the panchayat, and any directives of the zilla parishad, panchayat samiti and the state government. Views expressed in the gram sabha (village assembly) have to be considered by the panchayat and the sarpanch. The sarpanch is assisted by a secretary-cum-village level worker (VLW) appointed by the zilla parishad. He carries out both administrative and developmental functions. The panchayat is responsible for the maintenance and construction of primary schools.

At the village level, village education committees have been established as bridges between the schools and the society. The objective of establishing these committees was to get the cooperation of influential and educated villagers in the implementation of the various government schemes for primary education, to raise resources for maintaining schools, to participate in the socio-cultural activities of the school to supervise the attendance of the students and teachers to make available educational material and help the sale of crafts prepared by students, to maintain the school property through repairs, and helping the students to gain from their knowledge and experience.

In keeping with the National Education Policy of 1986, it was decided to educate all pupils in the age-group of 6-14; upto the year 2000. To raise the quality of primary education, the Maharashtra government in 1994-95 decided to establish central primary schools. A central primary school has been established for 10 primary schools. The trained graduate teacher of the primary school will be the head of the central primary school which is supposed to distribute educational material and give guidance to improve the quality of the primary schools.

The school grant is in the joint name of the chairman of the village education committee and the headmaster as a member of the committee. The committee decides which educational items are to be purchased. The government has supplied a list of 127 items for education which includes electricity, magazines, etc.

Inspection Machinery

The Government of Maharashtra had created Flying Inspection Squads in 1981 for each district for the smooth and regular running of primary schools. The inspection machinery was strengthened during the Sixth Plan to deal with complaints about irregular attendance of primary teachers and also their improper behaviour. The Deputy Director of Primary Education of the zilla parishad is responsible for the fixing of inspections of primary schools. He undertakes surprise visits to schools to ensure smooth and effective working of the school and to deal with the problem of absenteeism among primary teachers. The zilla parishad is authorized to create the post of an inspecting officer – ADEI (extension officer) for every 200 primary teachers of 40 schools in the district. In the tribal areas, one inspecting officer is sanctioned for every 15 to 20 schools. The extension officers (education), besides there inspection work of primary schools, have to carry out various administrative and academic functions for the developmental programmes entrusted to them by the zilla parishads and have to conduct enquiries also.

Primary education at the district level is in the independent charge of a class I education officer of the zilla parishad. The Maharashtra government has also created the post of a block education officer at the block level (tehsil level). There are 298 blocks in the state. The block education officer in the Maharashtra Education Service cadre belongs to class II and is responsible for exercising supervision and control through inspections of the primary schools. However, due to the dual control system, at the block level the administrative head is the BDO. For educational matters, the block education officer is the decision-making authority.

In order to train the officers of the education department, the state established a Maharashtra Education, Administrative and Planning Institute at Aurangabad in 1994-95. The main function of this institute is to conduct training programmes for officers from the block level to the mantralaya level. The Institute is headed by a director of the directorate.

The Government Examinations Bureau conducts various types of examinations, i.e., diploma and certificate courses, such as D.Ed., G.C.G./G.C.D. Certificates, etc. The Bureau also conducts competitive examinations for the grant of various scholarships at various levels of school education. It has also been entrusted the work of conducting entrance examinations for primary school teachers. To ensure the smooth conducting of various competitive examinations within stipulated time limits, the government has created this autonomous body headed by a Director (Examinations) along with some other posts.

The Bureau has a Commissioner having the status of a Joint Director and is assisted by three class I Deputy Commissioners and two Assistant Commissioners.

Training of Teachers

The Maharashtra government has also emphasized the importance of research and training and has set up the Maharashtra State Council of Education Research and Training Institute in 1984. This institute is responsible for the effective supervision of various educational programmes and activities and training for qualitative improvement in primary education. Research in the academic field has been utilized for this purpose. The Institute acts as an umbrella institution for the various state level educational institutions created for adopting new methods in pre-service and in-service vocational guidance, audio-visual education, training in English language, training in science and other areas of education. The State Institute of Educational Technology has also been brought under it.

It organizes 15 district-wise training programmes every year for *balwadi* teachers, to strengthen elementary education by inculcating interest in the young minds in education.

It has started the scheme of 'Geet Manch' which has 15 selected songs to be taught in the district courses to attain the goal of national integration.

The Council conducts studies and action research for different problems of primary education referred to it by the government. It brings out a research bulletin on educational research, research reports and articles on modern educational

technology, etc. It organizes workshops for primary teachers on action research methodology for conducting scientific studies of various educational problems.

It also revises the curriculum for primary education. Competency based curriculum was prepared in 1995 for the subjects of language, mathematics, environmental science and has been progressively implemented in standard I to V. This was followed by elimination of annual examination system and introduction of a competency based education system by the government to avoid suicide cases, failures and drop outs. The Institute had also developed tools for continuous and comprehensive evaluation. Presently, the government has reintroduced the examination system by working competency based testing. Continuous evaluation of the student and offering remedial measures to improve the competency of the student would require a more favourable teacher-student ratio than the present one of 1:60/70.

A Statewide Massive and Rigorous Training for Primary Teachers (SMART-PT) was carried out by the Institute in competency based syllabus. Training was provided to 1,68,290 primary teachers (standards I and II) during the year 1997-98. Similar training was provided to about 1,70,000 teachers teaching standards III and IV in 1998-99.

Pursuing the new education policy, the government decided to establish 14 District Institutes of Education and Training in June 1995. At the state level, there is the Maharashtra State Education Institute.

A population Education Cell was established in 1981. *Jeevan Shikshan*, a Marathi magazine, is published and about 60,000 copies are distributed per month to the central primary schools.

The State Institute of Science Education, Nagpur was established in 1968 to promote improvements in the teaching and learning of science and mathematics through supervision and guidance and by organizing orientation courses and workshops at the state, regional and district levels.

The State Board of Teacher Education with 77 training colleges, having 108 divisions, arrange in-service training programmes of 23 days duration for primary teachers. The district education officers (primary) depute primary teachers from within the district for the in-service training.

3.3 Schemes and Programmes

Primary Education Schemes

The programme of universalisation of primary education requires that the facilities for primary education should be available within walking distance of 1.5 km from the residence of students. To implement this policy, grants are being paid to the zilla parishads for making available the required facilities of primary education within the area of 1.5 km on the basis of the Fifth Educational Survey of villages and habitations having a population of 200 and above.

The zilla parishads manage primary education in the rural areas and in the areas of non-authorised municipalities. Out of 59,299 primary schools in the State, 49,647 are managed by zilla parishads. In western Maharashtra, primary education is administered as per the provisions laid down in the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947. In the areas of the non-authorised municipalities, primary education is administered by the zilla parishads for which these municipalities are required to pay their contribution. The zilla parishads are paid grants for primary education on 100 per cent basis; the grants include the pay, allowances and contingencies, etc., paid to the primary school teachers. Pension and other retirement benefits have been extended to primary teachers since 1 April, 1961.

Although, primary education is the responsibility of the zilla parishads, some voluntary agencies are also running private primary schools and they are paid grants-in-aid through the zilla parishads since 1980-81. The payment of salaries to the teaching and non-teaching staff through co-operative banks has been introduced. However, this study does not cover approved private primary schools since they do not exist in the villages selected.

Since the government's policy is to promote universal education for all children belonging to the age-group of 6-14 years (upto VIII standard) by the year 2000 it has started primary schools for the children of sugarcane cutting workers. In Maharashtra, the total number of families employed by the sugar industry is about 5 lakhs. They migrate from approximately 25 tehsils to the sugar factories during a particular season covering the period October to May. This seasonal migration results in the disruption of the education of the children of temporary and sugarcane cutting workers. Hence seasonal schools have been opened in the vicinity of the sugar factories.

The Government of Maharashtra decided (1987) that free education to girls be given from standard I to XII throughout the State in approved, aided and un-aided schools.

Non-Formal Education

A primary school has been opened in each revenue village except in a few which are sparsely populated. Many children in the rural areas cannot attend full time schools because of their poverty and household work, resulting in high drop out rate. Therefore, the government started the scheme of part-time classes for such cases during the Fifth Five Year Plan for non-formal education. The idea of non-formal education was given by the Central Advisory Board of Education. The Board had pointed out that the traditional system of education will not achieve the goal of universal education of the age-group of 6-14 years. The argument was that the system of elementary education, with its single point of entry and subsequent promotions year after year, is very costly and so the Board had recommended the scheme of non-formal education to be implemented by the zilla parishads. Under this scheme, a part-time teacher conducts classes for children in the age-group of 9-14 year, at a time convenient to them either in the morning or in the evening. The teacher is paid an honorarium of Rs. 100 per month and the children attending these

classes are provided free textbooks, stationery, etc. The syllabus of standards I to IV is taught in these classes and the students are expected to complete the syllabus within two years.

Construction of School Buildings

The zilla parishads are paid grants for construction of school buildings, additional classrooms, and also for repairs and maintenance of primary school buildings. This practice was started in the year 1978-79. In the absence of adequate accommodation, the schools are located either in rented buildings or in the premises of temples, chavadies, etc. Since 1989-90, the government is extending grants to DRDA from its Jawahar Rojgar Yojana for construction of primary school for construction of primary school buildings; 60 per cent of the expense is borne through the Jawahar Rojgar Yojana and 40 per cent by the education department. Right upto 1990-91, the share of the education department in construction was 20 per cent. The condition of the primary school buildings is not satisfactory. Since the cost of construction has been increasing, it has been difficult to undertake new constructions. The government has approved a plan, giving the size of the school room as 16'X20' with a verandah of 8'X20'.

To ensure adequate number of trained teachers in primary schools, training facilities for D.Ed. course have been provided in government and non-government junior colleges of education in the state. Several in-service training programmes are also organized for the improvement of the quality of primary teachers in the field of education. Non-government junior colleges of education are paid grants-in-aid. To ensure regular payment, the salaries of the teaching and non-teaching staff are paid through the co-operative banks.

To raise the percentage of enrolment, average attendance and ensure improvement in the quality of education in the primary schools in rural areas, an incentive in the form of a cash award of Rs. 100 each to the teachers of two selected single-teacher primary schools and Rs. 500 each to the two selected multi-teacher primary schools in each district has been introduced.

To promote girls' enrolment in primary schools, incentives in the form of cash awards of Rs. 100 and a certificate is being given to the primary school teachers and extension officers in the State.

Schemes for Students belonging to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Nomadic Tribes and Vimukta Jatis

The attendance and enrolment of students, especially that of girls belonging to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, nomadic tribes and vimukta jatis, is very low and not satisfactory. The scheme of supply of free uniforms and writing material to the students of standards I to IV of zilla parishad schools was introduced in 1978-79 to reduce the drop out rate. Under this scheme, two sets of uniforms and writing material are supplied to eligible students. The writing material, such as slates, pencils, exercise books, etc., is supplied to eligible students and the expenditure on this is fixed at Rs. 10 per pupil and Rs. 70 per uniform. The government has made

the special provision to provide free textbooks to all students of Class I to IV for schools under the 103 blocks which have low percentage of women's literacy as compared to the national level.

A stipend of Rs. 40 for boys and Rs. 50 for girls belonging to the tribal community is being given for those studying in standards V to VII as an additional incentive to reduce their drop out rate.

Book Bank

A significant section of the population in rural, tribal and hilly areas of Maharashtra lives below subsistence level. Since they cannot provide their school-going children with the necessary textbooks, the drop out rate in such areas is very high at the various stages of school education. With a view to helping such students, the Book Bank scheme was started in 1976-77 and supplies were made of sets of textbooks to the students belonging to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, vimukta jatis, nomadic tribes and other deprived sections of the community in the primary schools run by zilla parishads. The textbooks are to be returned at the end of each academic year and are replaced at the end of three years. However, students of standard I and II are not expected to return the books which get replaced every year. If the eligible students exceed 25 per cent of total enrolment, the zilla parishad is expected to provide textbooks purchased from the Text Book Bureau from its own resources. This scheme was introduced for standards I to IV in the year 1976-77 for the first time. In the year 1977-78, it was extended to standard V to VII, and the following year to standard VIII. The book bank scheme is now being operated for all standards upto the secondary stage.

Minimum educational requirements are being provided to the primary schools under the Operation Blackboard as required by the new education policy. This centrally sponsored scheme came into existence in 1988-89. This centrally sponsored scheme provides for the conversion of all single-teacher schools into two-teacher schools. Besides providing for educational equipment, libraries for students and teachers have also been established in schools. A contingency grant of Rs. 500 is being sanctioned to all schools for replenishing the material supplied under this scheme since 1994-95. This contingency grant has now been raised to 4 per cent of the salary grant.

To promote effective understanding of latest developments in subjects through practicals and experiments by primary school students dwelling in rural and remote areas, the medium of television has been introduced in 4,000 primary schools managed by the zilla parishads in Maharashtra. A grant of Rs. 5.20 crore has been sanctioned for providing colour television to the schools.

Attendance Allowance for the Girl Students

The scheme of attendance allowance to girls studying in primary schools was started in January 1992 to reduce the rate of drop out. Under this scheme, Rs. 1 per day is paid to the parents of the girls studying in standards I to IV for 220 working days in a year. It covers all scheduled tribe girls and girls belonging to the scheduled

castes and nomadic tribes, residing in or outside the tribal sub-plan area and whose parents are below poverty line.

Shaleya Poshan Aahar Yojana (National Programme of Nutrition Support)

The Government of India launched (1995-96) a National Programme of nutritional Support (NPNS) to students studying in the primary schools. Under the NPNS scheme, food grains (rice) equivalent to three kilograms per student studying in standards I to V per month, are distributed to all the students whose attendance is a minimum of 80 per cent in the school. The scheme envisages the availability of 100 grams of cooked food every day to the eligible students in the school itself, once the infrastructure (comprising kitchen, utensils, etc.) has been created. The programme is designed to achieve the goal of universalisation of primary education by increasing student enrolment and attendance, and by reducing the incidence of drop outs in primary education. The programme is being implemented in Maharashtra in stages, in different blocks covering standard I to V. During 1996-97, it covered mostly the girl students to raise female literacy rate. At the state level, in 1997-98 the number of beneficiaries was 83,85,065 and the rice distributed was 2,51,55,195 quintals.

In Maharashtra the scheme was started in 1995-96. During 1996-97, it was implemented in the rural areas covering 200 blocks in 27 districts. In 1997-98 the scheme was extended to 100 blocks and two more districts and the benefit was given to the students in schools of urban areas, including students in private schools on 100 per cent basis. In 1998-99, the scheme covered the newly created nine blocks and partly aided private primary schools in all the 309 blocks. To implement the scheme the Government of India provides rice free of cost and the reimbursement of transportation charges at Rs. 50 per quintal. However, as of now, due to the resource crunch the scheme covers only the girl students.

Scholarships

The bright and deserving students in the rural areas are awarded scholarships by the state government through the zilla parishads. The award is on the basis of the results of middle school scholarship competitive examination conducted by the Bureau of Maharashtra State. Scholarship is awarded in standard V and renewed every year, subject to satisfactory progress. The rate of scholarship from standard V to VII is Rs. 50 per month since 2 August, 1995. Ten sets of scholarships are given for each district for meritorious students of senior primary school.

Open merit scholarship is granted to the students in senior primary schools on the basis of the results of a competitive examination conducted every year by the Bureau of Maharashtra State Examination, Pune. Since 30 March, 1994, the revised rate of scholarship is Rs. 25 for the standards V to VII. Scholarships cover a period of 10 months in one academic year and continue for three years.

3.4 Action Plan for Universalisation of Primary Education

The Maharashtra government has prepared a plan of action for 'Universalisation of Primary Education and Literacy Programme'. Under this action plan, which is being implemented since 1994-95, a contingency grant of 3 per cent (now raised to 4% of the salary grant) is sanctioned for the provision of infrastructural and educational facilities to the primary schools managed by the zilla parishads. Accordingly, the contingency grant is used for purchasing necessary teaching and learning materials (TLM) to prepare the teaching aids and to repair and maintain the TLM and machines provided to schools.

The zilla parishads are provided with grants for conversion of single-teacher schools into two-teacher schools under the central scheme of Operation Blackboard, to increase enrolment at the primary school stage. Since 30 January 1996, the norms for sanctioning the post of primary teachers are : one post of primary teacher for enrolment upto 15 and two posts of primary teachers to schools having enrolment of 16 to 80. Thus, single-teacher schools with an enrolment of more than 15 students have two positions of teachers to achieve the goal of universalisation of primary education.

With the expansion of the primary schooling facilities, the zilla parishads have been granted additional posts of primary teachers. The norms for the creation of posts of primary teachers since 1996-97 are as follows : 1:3 teachers for each class of standard V, VI and VII, if the average attendance is 20, 15, 15 respectively in non-tribal areas and 15, 10, 10 respectively in tribal areas. If the average attendance in each class of standard V to VII is less than the above minimum prescribed, the number of teachers is decided on the basis of the number of students in all the three standard, and it is two teachers for 40 students in non-tribal areas.

3.5 Integrated Child Development Services

The Union Ministry of Social Welfare and, since 1985, the Ministry of Human Resource Development at the central level, has become the nodal ministry for overall policy formulation and coordination in child welfare development. The Ministry has the Department of women and Child Development headed by Director. One Additional Director is fully responsible only for the Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS). In Maharashtra, the Department of Women and Child Welfare is responsible for implementing the centrally sponsored ICDS.

The Fifth Plan ushered in a new era with a shift in focus from child welfare to child development and an emphasis on integration and coordination of services. The National Policy on Children adopted in 1974 provided the framework for the integrated approach to the development of services for children. The ICDS, with a package of services comprising immunization, health check-ups, referral, supplementary nutrition, pre-school education, and nutrition and health education, was launched in 33 blocks in the country on an experimental basis. A school health programme was also started. Maternal and child health services in rural areas were

strengthened. The national programme of Basic Minimum Needs included some services which directly benefited children :

1. 100 per cent coverage of safe drinking water in urban and rural areas.
2. 10 per cent coverage of primary health service facilities in rural and urban areas.
3. Universalisation of primary education.
4. Extension of mid-day meal programme in primary schools to all rural blocks, urban slums and disadvantaged sections.
5. Provision of connectivity to all unconnected villages and habitations.

The ICDS programme, launched in 1975, aims at an integrated delivery of a package of health, nutrition and educational services to children below six years of age, pregnant women and nursing mothers. The objectives of the ICDS are: (a) to improve the nutritional and health status of all children in the age-group of 0-6 years; (b) to lay the foundations for proper psychological, physical and social development of the child; (c) to reduce the incidence of mortality, malnutrition and school drop outs; (d) to achieve coordination of policy formulation and policy implementation amongst the various departments to promote child development; and (e) to enhance the capability of the mother to look after the normal health and nutrition needs of the child through proper nutrition and health education.

The ICDS involved considerable organization and coordination at all levels. Therefore, 33 experimental projects (18 normal, 11 tribal and 4 urban) were sanctioned in 1975-76.

The focal point for the delivery of the ICDS package is the *anganwadi* in every village. The *anganwadi* is managed by an *anganwadi* worker recruited locally and assisted by a helper. The work of the *anganwadi* workers is supervised by the *mukhya sevikas*. A Child Development Project Officer is directly in charge of each ICDS project. The BDO has the overall responsibility for the schemes in the block. The health infrastructure in the project area is strengthened by adding one medical officer, preferably a lady doctor with a diploma in child health, two lady health visitors and an auxiliary nurse midwife, and by increasing the number of primary health centers. The scheme places great emphasis on the involvement of voluntary agencies and community participation.

The training of the ICDS functionaries is crucial. The child development project officers, *mukhya sevikas* and *anganwadi* workers are trained at selected institutions. Orientation training for the health staff is organized in selected medical institutions. Workshops for state level officers and regional workshops for project level officers are organized for the expeditious delivery of health services.

The Sixth Plan saw the consolidation and expansion of the ICDS programme, with the sanction of 1037 projects.

A new focus has been given to education and literacy under the new education policy and the technology mission on literacy. The new policy of 1986 has

emphasized full integration of child-care and pre-primary education both as a feeder and as a strengthening factor for primary education.

To implement the National Policy on Education (NPE), 23 task forces were constituted in 1986 to prepare the Programme of Action (POA). The POA provides for the actions to be taken so as to implement the directions of the NPE. The major thrust areas covered under the POA and relevant to the study are:

Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) programme as a support service in the Universalisation of Elementary Education, Non-Formal Education and Operation Blackboard.

The POA aimed at the upgradation, expansion and strengthening of the existing ECCE programme which, *inter alia*, includes ICDS; assistance to Early Childhood Centres (ECCs), *balwadis,* and day-care centres; pre-primary schools; and maternal and child health services.

The ECCE was to carry out the role of a support service in the universalisation of elementary education as well as for human resource development, and was directed towards the most underprivileged groups, especially those who are still outside the mainstream of formal education, such as, the girl child. It would integrate child-care and pre-primary education, both as a feeder and a strengthening factor for primary education. Recognising the holistic nature of child development, such as, nutrition, health and social, mental, physical, moral and emotional development, the ECCE was to be integrated with the ICDS programme, wherever possible.

According to the POA, every child should be assured access to the fulfillment of al basic needs. It had suggested that 70 per cent of the target groups (children of 0-6 years) should be covered by all services by the year 2000, whereas health and nutrition services should be extended to all needy groups. ECCE facilities should be established in all tribal development blocks. Since the early childhood and education programmes are bound to expand, corresponding training facilities should be made available to all functionaries, and that these programmes should be followed up with evaluation by independent agencies every five years, and with improvements in the quality of the services.

The Seventh Plan continued the strategy of promoting early childhood survival and development mainly through the ICDS which continued to be the major integrated national programme. In 1991, the number of sanctioned ICDS projects was 2,594, of which 1656 were in rural areas, 711 in tribal areas and 227 in urban slums. By the end of December, 1991, about 129 lakh children below six years of age and more than 27 lakh pregnant and nursing mothers were getting supplementary nutrition under ICDS. About 67 lakh children of 3-5 age-group were getting pre-school education services.

During the Seventh Plan and Annual Plans 1990-92, for pre-school educational development, in addition to the ICDS, 4365 early childhood education centres were assisted through the grants-in-aid to voluntary organizations.

The Eighth Plan emphasized human development, and gave priority to the development of specific programmes and services directed at children. The world declaration on the survival, protection and development of children in 1990 resulted in the preparation of a plan of action as a guideline of action for the government. Child development programmes in the Plan gave high priority to preventive services, which are family and community based, to combat high infant and early childhood mortality and morbidity.

Children belonging to the poor and the underprivileged sections of the population would be covered by basic minimum child development services. The strategy was integration and convergence of services, better coordination among health, family planning, education, social welfare, nutrition, water supply, and sanitation programmes at all levels – center, state, rural and urban. It would design area and beneficiary-specific schemes for child development, utilizing local resources and institutions. The capabilities of the families, especially of the mothers, to look after the basic health, nutritional and emotional needs of the children in the age-group of 0-6 years, would be enhanced through non-formal modes of learning. Social discrimination against the girl child would be effectively countered through a massive campaign, to ensure equal treatment and equal opportunities for their growth and development.

The national programme of ICDS is the basic strategy for child survival and early childhood development with special focus on areas predominantly inhabited by the tribal people, scheduled castes, drought-prone regions and urban slums. The programme aimed at quality improvement of services by removing the existing constraints in immunization, delivery of supplementary nutrition and pre-school inputs. Nutrition and health education of mothers and community participation in running the *anganwadi* was emphasized. The ICDS infrastructure at the village and supervisory level was to be used for early detection and identification of physical handicaps children below six years of age and for the support to the family welfare programme. The programme was to be supported by the convergence of environmental sanitation, hygiene and safe drinking water supply.

The training of ICDS functionaries would have to be augmented. The Integrated Nutrition Education Scheme was launched in 1988 to equip grass-root level workers of different departments with basic knowledge of food, nutrition and health. 210 education camps / orientation training courses were organized in the Seventh Plan for *anganwadi* workers, multipurpose workers, auxiliary nurse mid-wives (ANM), lady health visitors, health education and adult education instructors and *gram sevikas*. During 1990-91, 81 such courses were organized. However, the training courses are inadequate to cover a large proportion of the workers.

A system of decentralized monitoring and qualitative feedback to assess the efficiency and cost effectiveness of the ICDS would have to be developed. Paper work by the *anganwadi* worker (AWW) would have to be reduced to the minimum. The AWW and the Child Development Project Officer (CDPO) will have to be trained to use the data generated from the records kept by the *anganwadi* worker to monitor both the inputs and the outputs.

The ICDS should act as an input for the strengthening of the elementary education programmes, especially the retention of children in the schools. This should be followed by the improvements in both, the physical facilities and the quality of learning. The non-formal education for children who, for economic reasons, cannot spend time in the regular primary schools would also have to be strengthened.

The Maharashtra government is implementing the ICDS in 151 blocks all over the State-both rural and urban, and its focus is on nutrition, to reduce infant and maternal mortality and morbidity and to improve the functional efficiency and productivity of the weaker sections of the society. The nutrition programme for school-going children upto IV standard provides ready to eat food packets called *paushtik ahar* or 150 ml of milk at places where primary dairy cooperative societies are accessible.

The Mahila and Bal Kalyan Department is also implementing a major School Feeding Programme which covered 10,46,969 beneficiaries during the Eighth Plan in the State.

A major programme of direct nutrition intervention was the Supplementary Nutrition Programme (SNP) introduced in 1970-71. The supplementary nutrition feeding programme for children below six years of age was primarily targeted in the Seventh Plan the SNP continued to be implemented in the ICDS project areas for 300 days a year.

The outlay in the Eighth Plan, actual expenditure for the year 1992-97, outlay Annual Plan (1997-98) and outlay for Ninth Plan (1997-2002), with related targets and achievement for the ICDS nutrition programme are as follows :

Table – 9

Targets and Achievements of the ICDS Nutrition Programme

(Rs. in Lakh)

Sector	Target Eighth Plan (1992-97)	Eighth Plan Achievement Target	Annual Plan (1997-98)	Target for Ninth Plan (1997-2000)
No. of Projects	50	125	23	80
No. of Beneficiaries	50,00,000	2,03,800	4,85,875	13,52,000

Thus, in the rural areas, the central government has launched the ICDS, which is being implemented by the Department of Women and Child Development and has thus bypassed the panchayati raj institutions by taking over the function of pre-primary education and nutritional programme for pre-primary school-going children. The role and potential of the panchayati raj institutions have not been taken seriously by the central government. The ICDS programme was launched to achieve integration and coordination of services for child development but resulted in the creation of a parallel scheme with its own bureaucracy and massive funding in

rural areas. This duplication of institutions for the same goals of child welfare and development works at cross-purposes leading to the wastage of scare resources. The UNICEF has also assisted the ICDS in a big way.

The feedback on the impact of ICDS projects pointed out a faster decline in the incidence of infant and early childhood mortality. It is also revealed a better utilization of vitamin A, iron-folic acid, and immunization services in the ICDS project areas as compared to the non-ICDS areas. The implementation of the programme was, however, handicapped by the inadequacy in the cold chain for vaccine, irregular supply of nutritional supplements, inappropriate food, low coverage of 'under-three year old' children, and weak coordination between the health, social welfare and women and child development departments at the field level. Nutrition and health education of mothers and the participation of the community were also inadequate.

People's participation in child welfare and child development is crucial. Programmes related to nutrition haven't succeeded to the desired extent due to apathy and lack of community participation. The programmes are seen as something being done by the government for the people and the people expecting it as their legitimate due. People perceive these as governmental programmes, not of immediate relevance to them, specially since the benefits of preventive programmes don't have high visibility. Unless the community is involved in the process of planning of these programmes right since their inception, it would be difficult to enlist their cooperation and participation. The focus will have to be on community involvement and participation of local voluntary organizations and the panchayati raj institutions.

The ICDS, which follows a package-based approach, is effective but should be expanded to cover more areas. The coverage of the programme has been very low. Children of the age-group of 0-1 year cannot benefit from the nutrition provided at the *anganwadis*. A demand has been made for the supply of milk. Immunization coverage to mothers and children is very small. The ICDS takes up only ante-natal care, and that too inadequately, and infant mortality which is linked to a large variety of factors, basic of which is health care, is not even touched by the Programme. It is thus just touching the periphery of the acute problems of mortality amongst mothers and children. The programme, if it has to prove effective, should be linked with the concerned departments (health, women and child development, etc.) of the state government. Not only was effective coordination between the central government and the state government necessary but also with the panchayati raj bodies, which were duplicating pre-primary education through *balwadis* and having severe funding problems with their nutritional programme for primary school-going children.

The Eighth Plan had pointed out that the absence of an effective machinery for coordination of policies and programmes implemented by the different departments for nutrition has been a great handicap. It recommended the setting up of a high-powered Nutrition Council at the national level, to facilitate the development of an integrated food and nutrition policy and its monitoring. It would be responsible for nutrition surveillance for the country's population, especially the vulnerable groups. At the state level too, a similar coordination body is necessary.

The ICDS scheme of *anganwadis* would have to be carefully coordinated with the education and health schemes of the panchayati raj institutions. It needs to be emphasized that the directly implemented centrally sponsored national schemes like the ICDS, etc., and the related panchayati raj or state government schemes should not be independent, parallel and competing systems but inter-dependent, complementary and mutually supportive channels for an integrated system for the universalisation of primary education.

3.6 Implementation of Panchayati Raj

The L.N. Bongirwar Committee on Panchayati Raj (1971) had concluded that the achievements of the panchayati raj bodies have been substantial, even spectacular, in setting up new primary schools.

A study of the impact of panchayati raj in Pune district in Maharashtra by K.B. Srivastava has pointed out that infrastructural facilities related to education have been substantially expanded and improved by the direct initiatives or indirect assistance given under the panchayati raj system. A majority of the rural people are making increasing use of these facilities. The elected representatives are helping the rural poor who have access to the benefits of government sponsored schemes. The statutory reservation of seats for the SCs/STs has enabled their representatives to participate more substantially in the decision-making process than before.

However, the study points out that under the panchayati raj system, planning for the district has remained restricted in scope. The creation of an independent district planning agency – District Planning and Development Council – in 1974 further restricted the scope of the zilla parishads. Primary education, with which PRIs are so closely concerned, is a state sector scheme implemented by the zilla parishads.

Though there is harmony and understanding between elected representatives and the bureaucracy within the panchayati raj, quite often the former tend to pressurise the latter for petty matters – such as transfer of teachers, locating schools in certain places of their choice, etc. The general feeling is that the teachers are highly politicized, perhaps because of their being more educated than others in the village.

Primary education has also been affected by party politics. Political parties and independent candidates have been participating keenly in recent decades in the panchayati raj elections as well as in decision-making process and other activities of the parishad. This process of politicisation of panchayats has impacted the development of primary education in terms of where to locate schools, transfer of teachers, appointment of teachers and for using teachers for political campaigning etc.

Historically, Western Maharashtra, under the British rule, had been developed educationally. Several missionary schools and colleges had been established in this region. After independence this British legacy and planned developed of primary education in the successive Plans resulted in the majority of villages having a population of above 200 being covered by primary education. Maharashtra has succeeded in quantitative expansion of primary education to almost all its regions.

However, much needs to be done to provide quality education to children in the rural areas. Thus, quality education has become the priority since the Fourth Plan. This would entail motivated trained teachers preferably residing in and around the school since the region under study is poorly connected by road transport, equipment such as furniture, blackboard, etc., in good working condition, school buildings which are not leaking and creating health problems, and efficient and effective implementation of schemes designed to retain the girl child in the school

The teacher is the key person in improving the quality of primary education in the rural areas. His salary as of now is being paid by the taluka teacher (taluka master). Recently, the zilla parishad has decided to credit his salary to the banks because the taluka teacher and headmaster were making recoveries from his salary under different pretexts. The procedure followed for payment of salaries is that the zilla parishad deposits teachers' salaries in the taluka master's office. The concerned headmaster collects the cheque for the teachers' salaries of his school from the taluka master and encashes it from the zilla cooperative bank. Later, once he reaches the village, he begins the distribution of the salaries. This creates security risks of handling so much cash and transporting it around. Besides, the main complaint against the taluka master and the headmaster is that they arbitrarily impose cuts in the salaries of the teachers leading to their financial and other workload related exploitation. The reasons given for the cuts are that higher officials and taluka office-bearers, during their visits, have to be taken care of. Some of them are agents of the postal recurring deposit scheme and compulsorily make the teachers open an account and make large contributions so that the taluka master can earn his commission. At the level of the headmaster, the teachers cuts are made during its distribution for opening postal savings accounts, official and unofficial visits, etc. The general feeling was that they have no access to the higher-ups from the zilla parishads or the education directorate only, the Kendra pramukhs and extension officers and the BEO are accessible to them.

For the regular inspection of schools, office-bearers and officials from the zilla parishad and taluka level visit the schools every year. This takes on the form of a major celebration and the contribution for the hospitality of the officials is collected from the teachers' salary in most schools. Cuts are also made regularly for various reasons in most schools, since many years. Grievances regarding arbitrary cuts in the salaries of teachers were not entertained in the zilla parishad. On 22 November, 1999, the vice-president of the zilla parishad and chairman of the education committee intervened and decided that from the month of December the teachers salaries would be deposited in the banks and teachers were expected to open savings bank account.

The launching of centrally sponsored development programmes, such as the ICDS, which is basically a nutrition programme for children in the age-group of 0-6 years but also manages pre-primary education, is a parallel programme in the rural areas. The simultaneous co-existence of such a central scheme has trivialized the role and potentiality of the panchayati raj institutions in the universalisation of primary education. Besides duplicating a bureaucratic machinery, the limited resources are being thinly spread in managing parallel schemes for the same objective. On one

hand, the 73rd amendment to the Constitution has strengthened the panchayati raj institutions by supplementing their resources through central funds to be distributed by the Finance Commissions. On the other, the presence of central schemes, such as Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE), Early Childhood Centres (ECCs), etc., have bypassed the panchayati raj institutions by taking over their functions. This institutional duplication for the achievement of similar and mutually interlinked objectives results in the spreading of available resources thinly, thereby reducing the effectiveness of the schemes and programmes. The need for the coordination of interrelated activities for child education and development implemented by the various departments at the central and state levels is self-evident. In the present context of globalisation, which has simultaneously been followed by decentralization in developing countries, panchayati raj institutions will have to be strengthened to promote literacy for the girl child, in fact for human development in the rural areas.

The District Rural Development Agencies (DRDA) have further deprived the panchayati raj agencies of their functions of action planning and programme implementation. The DRDAs are responsible for the construction of the primary school buildings, but the responsibility of maintenance of these buildings is with the panchayati raj institutions. This has resulted in the neglect of the function of maintenance of school buildings which does not involve large sums of money and therefore is not a lucrative proposition. However, the special agencies like the DRDAs do not themselves implement schemes, but use the panchayat samitis to get the work done. But all the same, the functions and the powers of the panchayati raj institutions do get reduced. The creation of the District Planning and Development Council in 1974 has further restricted the panchayati raj institutions' scope for district education development planning. Presently, the zilla parishads only implement the State's schemes for primary education. The process of feedback, leading to revisions and modifications of existing schemes and initiation of new schemes, does not seem to operate.

Recently in 1999, the chairperson of the Committee for Panchayati Raj in Maharashtra, P.B.Patil, pointed out that the panchayati raj implementation in Maharashtra was lagging behind the neighbouring states of Gujarat, Karnataka, West Bengal, etc., because the bureaucracy had usurped the authority of the elected representatives by taking out government resolutions for the implementation of the new schemes. The powers given to the elected representatives by the Act were being narrowed down by the taking out of circulars by the bureaucracy.

The Gram panchayats do not have gram sevaks to carry out the work of the panchayats. The financial position of the gram panchayats has deteriorated since 1970, since they do not have any financial powers. The panchayati raj in Maharashtra has been supported financially by the centrally sponsored Jawahar Rojgar Yojana since 1989, but something needs to be done to make the gram panchayats financially viable. The government is still sitting on the recommendations made by the first finance commission set up on 23 April, 1994.

The two-day State and Union Territories' Education Secretaries' Conference held in New Delhi in November 1999, endorsed the proposal to bring a bill to amend the Constitution of India to make elementary education a fundamental right of all children up to the age of 14 years and a fundamental duty of parents and guardians of children in this age-group. Although the Eighth Plan emphasized privatisation of the economy and the state's commitment to human development for which 100 per cent literacy is a precondition, the public investment in this sector is grossly inadequate. Primary education will have to be subsidized on a 100 per cent basis, for ensuring better quality of education, better targeting of beneficiary groups (instead of only caste as a criteria, economic backwardness should be included as a criteria immediately), and at the same time creating additional assets, such as rationalization of training institutes for better performance of teachers. An inspection machinery, not for regimentation of the task of imparting of education but for allowing for flexibility and time to turn the process of teaching into a joyful experience, letting loose creativity to deal with all kinds of resource constraints needs to be developed. The conference persuaded the central and state governments to increase public investment in education to 6 per cent of the GDP over the next five years. It emphasized decentralized planning, improved delivery system, enhanced people's participation and improvement capacities of panchayati raj intuitions to manage and supervise local schools, which just abut sums up the issue in this study.

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◈ **CHAPTER – 4**

Research Methodology

The study was conducted in the state of Maharashtra to investigate the issues related to dropout in the primary schools in rural Maharashtra with special reference to the girls-students.

4.1 Objectives of the Study

The main objective was to examine the dropout in the selected districts with regard to :

- Extent of dropouts and absenteeism at each standard from I – VII (considering 1995 as the base year) with special reference to girl students.
- Cause analysis of the dropout problem with emphasis on dropouts by caste and gender.
- Comparative analysis of village, school and family characteristics with disparate educational profiles effecting dropouts and absenteeism
- Societal, parental and institutional factors that contribute towards enrolment and retention of primary school children with gender differentials.
- Factors that result in dropout of school children.
- To examine the societal, attitudinal and socio-economic environment associated with high dropout rates of girls at various levels of elementary school education.
- Interventions necessary for improving retention and reducing absenteeism at different levels.
- To study the reasons for dropouts from SC/ST/OBC and minority children.

Out of approximately 200 million children in the age-group 6-14 years, only 120 million are in schools. The overall dropout rate was 40 per cent at the primary level and 55 per cent at the upper primary level in 1999-2000 (India Vision, 2020). At all levels, Maharashtra has a lower dropout rate compared to the All-India average. However, dropout rate still remains a substantial problem to be addressed. It has to be noted that 22.53 per cent of the children in Maharashtra do not reach the upper primary level and a total of 39.14 per cent children do not reach the secondary level. Though the absolute dropout rates (boys and girls) are lower in Maharashtra, and are almost half the national level, the gender difference in dropout rates is higher in the State in comparison to the national average.

4.2 Hypotheses

The study proposes to test the following hypotheses :

- Whether there is a correlation between the female literacy level of a village and the drop-out rate among the girl students.
- Whether there is significant difference in the village/school characteristics between high and low drop out regions.
- Whether there is a significant effect of parents' educational level, socio-economic status of the family, and other family characteristics in causing drop outs.
- Whether and if so why there is an increase in drop-out rate with progressively higher standards of class.
- Whether there is an effect of gender and caste variables on school drop outs.
- Whether there is a relationship between drop out problem and availability of physical accurs to the school.
- Whether there is a relationship between retention and school related factors.
- Whether opportunity costs of sending children to school, especially girls are prohibitive.
- Whether there are attitudinal, societal and socio-economic causes for drop out among girls.
- Whether student absenteeism is a substantial problem in the schools.
- Whether teacher absenteeism is a substantial problem in rural schools.

4.3 Study Design

The study was based on empirical investigation in the selected villages of the identified districts in Vidarbha and Marathwada regions of Maharashtra. These investigations included a school-level inquiry and a household level inquiry. Attitude and opinion surveys were conducted with teachers, parents, school dropouts. Information was also attained regarding the village and facilities available which have a marked effect on schooling. Besides, supplementary information was collected from the records of educational offices at district, block and village levels.

4.4 Sample Selection

Maharashtra has a diverse topography with varied agro-climatic regions. Keeping the regional diversity in mind it was proposed to select the districts on agro-climatic basis. With this in view and the suggestions of the Planning Commission the districts were selected form Marathwada (1) and Vidarbha (2) regions. A drought prone district from Marathwada, a district from Vidarbha which as moderate rainfall and a tribal district from Vidarbha were selected. Further, these were districts where

there is no DPEP Programme being conducted as DPEP intervention could have had a positive effect on retention of children in schools.

With these criteria in mind, the following districts were selected :

a) Marathwada – Beed, with lowest rainfall in the region.

All the districts in Marathwada are covered under DPEP. One district had to be selected and this may give some insight into causes of dropout inspite of incentives like DPEP.

b) Vidarbha – Akola, with moderate rainfall and non – DPEP.

c) Vidarbha – Bhandara, a non-DPEP and tribal district.

Criteria for selection of the Blocks was on the percentage of total workers to total population. According to the 1991 District Census Handbook (not available for 2001), the percentage of total workers to total population was taken for selection of the Blocks in the respective Districts. One highest and one lowest block were selected from each District.

The Selected Districts and Blocks were :

a) Akola District (Vidarbha)
   - Akote (lowest)
   - Telhara (highest)

   (Though Akola was lowest it could not be selected as it is an urban area).

b) Bhandara District (Vidarbha)
   - Tusmar (lowest)
   - Lakhandur (highest)

   (Though Bhandara was lowest it could not be selected as it is an urban area).

c) Beed
   - Ambejogai (lowest)
   - Georai (highest)

Therefore, four villages from each block were selected randomly viz.

- Akote Block (Akola District, Vidarbha)
  Palsod
  Ruikhed
  Varun
  Wadali Deshmukh
- Telhara Block (Akola District, Vidarbha)
  Karla Bk.
  Khandala
  Manabda
  Wadi Adampur
- Tusmar Block (Bhandara District, Vidarbha)
  Bagheda
  Chicholi-1
  Dongarla
  Madgi

- Lakhandur District (Bhandara District, Vidarbha)
  Chaprad
  Chicholi
  Madeghat
  Mandhal
- Ambejogai (Beed District, Marathwada)
  Kunbephal
  Limbgaon
  Satephal
  Talegaon (Ghat)
- Georai (Beed District, Marathwada)
  Bagpimpalgaon
  Kekat Pangri
  Rohital
  Takhar Aadgaon

Ten households from each village were selected where there were dropout children but randomly.

Thus, the study covered :

- Three Districts (Two from Vidarbha and one from Marathwada)
- Six Blocks
- 24 Villages
- 240 Households

4.5 District Profiles

The locale of the study was Maharashtra recognized by the Planning Commission as "educationally forward". From the State, the two districts selected from Vidarbha region were Akola and Bhandara and the one district selected from Marathwada region was Beed.

4.5.1 Vidarbha Region

a) Akola District

Akola district has a population of 16,29,305 having 840883 males and 788422 females and a sex ratio of 938 (2001 Census). The district which has always been in the forefront of all national and political activities and which is a developing and progressive district forms part of Vidarbha region of Maharashtra. It is situated on the Deccan Plateau.

Neither boundary of any state nor sea touches the boundaries of Akola district. It is situated in the centre of landmass. To the north is Amravati district. It also surrounds the eastern side of Akola district. Washim district that has just been carved out from Akola district lies to the southern side. The boundaries of Akola district and Buldhana district are common on the western side of Akola district. The total geographical area of the district is 5417 sq. kms. The rural population 61.52 per cent and urban population is 38.48 per cent (2001 Census). According to the 1991

District census (Figures not available for 2001), the Scheduled Caste population was 10.58 per cent out of the district's population and population of Scheduled Tribes was 6.66 per cent. Density of the population is 301 per sq.km. the total inhabited villages are 878 (2001-2002).

As far as literacy is concerned, total literacy (2001) is 81.77 per cent with male literacy at 89.22 per cent and female literacy at 73.82 per cent. The district has 1121 primary schools with an enrolment of 223000 and 5000 teachers with a teacher-pupil ratio of 43 (2000-2001). For the same reference year the number of secondary schools was 300 with an enrolment of 166000 and 4000 teachers with a teacher-pupil ratio of 38. From Akola district, Telhara and Akot blocks were selected for the study.

The Telhara block covers an area of 559 sq.kms with 94 inhabited villages and 7 uninhabited villages. There is one town in the block. The total population (2001) is 156756 with 80914 males and 75842 females. Rural population is 137850 with 71141 males and 66709 females. The urban population is 18906 with 9773 males and 9133 females. According to 1991 Census SC population is 11217 with 5707 males and 5510 females & ST population is 8325 with 4279 males and 4046 females. The total number of man workers as per the 1991 Census is 55832 with 2514 partial workers and 72202 non-workers. In Telhara block, the total literacy (2001) is 66.88 per cent with male literacy at 74.07 per cent and female literacy at 59.21 per cent. In the rural areas, the literacy is 65.94 per cent, for males literacy is 73.24 per cent and for females it is 58.21 per cent. The same in urban areas is total literacy 73.66 per cent, male literacy 80 per cent and female literacy 66.67 per cent (2001 census).

From this block, four villages were selected viz. Karla Bk., Khandala, Manabda and Wadi Adampur. The respective literacy rates for these villages according to the study survey are 95 per cent for males and 80.0 per cent for females in Karla Bk., 80 per cent for males and 60.0 per cent for females in Khandala; 83.0 per cent for males and 70.2 per cent for females in Manabda and 70 per cent for males and 45.0 per cent for females in Wadi Adampur. The village data is given in the Appendices.

The Akote block covers an area of 865 sq.kms with 138 inhabited villages and 39 uninhabited villages. There is one town in the block. The total population (2001) is 18906 with 9773 males and 9133 females. The rural population is 151709 comprising of 78039 males and 73670 females. The urban population is 80796 with 41826 males and 38970 females. According to 1991 census, SC population in Akote is 20775 with 10686 males and 10089 females. ST population is 19813 with 10123 males and 9696 females. The total number of main workers as per the 1991 Census is 81454 with 3042 partial workers and 111198 non-workers. In Akote-block, the total literacy (2001) is 66.24 per cent with male literacy at 74.17 per cent and female literacy at 61.95 per cent. In the rural areas, the literacy is 67.10 per cent; for males the literacy is 74.36 per cent and 59.46 per cent for females. The same in urban areas is total literacy at 70.37 per cent, for males it is 73.81 per cent and for females literacy rate is 66.66 per cent.

From this block, four villages were selected viz. Varun, Palsod, Ruikhed and Wadali Deshmukh. The respective literacy rates for these villages as per the study survey are 70 per cent for males and 50 per cent for females in Varun; 69 per cent for males and 61.0 per cent for females in Ruikhed and 69.44 per cent for males and 86.1 per cent for females in Wadali Deshmukh.

b) Bhandara District

Bhandara district has a population of 1136000 having 573000 males and 563 females with a sex-ratio of 982 (2001 Census). Bhandara district forms a part of Vidarbha region. Its geographical area is 3717 sq. kms. which is 1.21 per cent of Maharashtra. The area is mostly hilly and covered with forests. In Bhandara district, the main forest area covers Tumsar, Bhandara and Sakoli blocks. To the north is part of Madhya Pradesh, to its east lies the newly carved Gondiya district, to its south is Chandrapur district and to the west lies Nagpur district. The rural population is 84.56 per cent and urban population is 15.44 per cent (2001 Census). According to the 1991 Census (Figures not available for 2001), the Scheduled Caste population was 18.98 per cent and scheduled tribe population was 10.73 per cent. Density of the population is 306 per sq. km. the total inhabited villages are 775 (2000-2001).

According to the 2001 Census, the total literacy rate was 78.68 per cent with male literacy at 89.11 per cent and female literacy at 68.11 per cent. The district had in 1999-2000, 866 primary schools with an enrolment of 136000 and 4000 teachers with a teacher-pupil ratio of 29. For the same reference year the number of secondary schools was 237 with an enrolment of 12400 and 4000 teachers with a teacher-pupil ratio of 32. From Bhandara district, Tumsar and Lakhandur blocks were selected for the study.

The Tumsar block covers an area of 802.50 sq. kms. with 136 inhabited villages and 12 uninhabited villages. There are 2 towns in the district. The total population (2000-2001) is 213820 with 107302 males and 106518 females. Rural population is 166043 with 83181 males and 82862 females. The urban population is 47777 with 24121 males and 23656 females. According to the 1991 Census, SC population is 26000 with 13000 males and 13000 females & ST population is 25000 with 13000 males and 12000 females. The total number of main workers as per the 1991 Census is 8600 with 7800 partial workers and 99500 non-workers. In Tumsar block, the total literacy (2001 Census) is 79.18 per cent with male literacy at 98.08 per cent and female literacy at 68.26 per cent. In the rural areas, the literacy is 76.47 per cent with males at 88.34 per cent and females at 64.62 per cent. The same in the urban areas is total literacy is 88.30 per cent with males at 95.93 per cent and females at 80.61 per cent.

From this block, four villages were selected viz. Chicholi, Madgi, Bagheda and Dongarla. The respective literacy rates for these villages according to the study survey are 86.81 per cent for males and 86.3 per cent for females in Chicholi; 86.67 per cent for males and 77.7 per cent for females in Madgi; 81.04 per cent for males and 56.0 per cent for females in Bagheda ad 81.32 per cent for males and 72.3 per cent for females in Dongarla.

The Lakhandur block covers an area of 459.60 sq.kms with 84 inhabited villages and 5 uninhabited villages. There are no towns in the block. The total population (2000-2001) is 113499 with 57027 males and 56472 females. Rural population (2001) is 11300 with 57000 males and 56000 females. The entire block is rural hence there is no urban population. According to the 1991 Census, SC population is 23000 with 12000 males and 12000 females & ST population is 8000 with 4000 males and 4000 females. The total number of main workers as per the 1991 Census is 57400 with 5100 partial workers and 50200 non workers. In Lakhandur block, the total literacy (2001 Census) is 73.20 per cent with male literacy at 85.64 per cent and female literacy at 60.73 per cent. In the rural areas, the literacy is 73.20 per cent with males at 85.64 per cent and females at 60.73 per cent. There is no urban population hence no literacy figures for the urban area.

From this block, four villages were selected viz.Chaprad, Madeghat, Chicholi and Mandhal. The respective literacy rates for these villages according to the study survey are as follows. Literacy for Chaprad village were not available. For Madeghat, the literacy is 69.2 per cent with 79.39 per cent for males and 58.8 per cent for females; for Chicholi the corresponding figures are 67.1 per cent with 73.03 per cent for males and 60.9 per cent for females and the figures for Mandhal are 94.0 per cent with 95.89 per cent for males and 92.1 per cent for females.

c) Beed District

Beed district has a population of 21,60,000 having 11,21,000 males and 10,39,000 females and a sex ratio of 927 (2001 Census). The district is bounded by Jalna district to the north, Parbhani and Latur districts to the east, Osmanabad district to the south and Ahmednagar district to the west. The total geographical area 10615 sq.kms. The rural population is 82.08 per cent and urban population is 17.91 per cent (2001 Census). According to the 1991 Census (figures not available for 2001), the Scheduled Caste population was 11.31 per cent out of the district population and population of the Scheduled Tribes was 0.95 per cent. Density of the population is 203 per sq.km. The total inhabited villages are 1346 (2001-2002).

As far as literacy is concerned, the total literacy (2001) is 60.48 per cent with male literacy at 80.69 per cent and female literacy at 55.38 per cent. The district has 2011 primary schools with an enrolment of 346000 and 9000 teachers with a teacher-pupil ratio of 40 (2001-2002). For the same reference year, the number of secondary schools was 438 with an enrolment of 216000 and 6000 teachers with a teacher-pupil ratio of 37. From Beed district Ambejogai and Gevrai blocks were selected for the study.

Ambejogai block covers an area of 1184.5 sq. kms. with 95 inhabited villages and 1 uninhabited village. There are 2 towns in the block. The total population (2001) is 235415 with 122719 males and 112696 females. The rural population is 166138 with 86384 males and 79754 females. The urban population is 69277 with 36335 males and 32842 females. SC population is 53000 with 28000 males and 26000 female & ST population is 4000 with 2000 males and 2000 females. The total number of workers as per the 1991 Census is 95700 with 11000 partial workers and 107900 non workers. In Ambejogai block, the total literacy (2001) is 73.56 per cent

with male literacy at 84.29 per cent and female literacy at 61.90 per cent. In the rural areas, the literacy is 70.19 per cent; for males the literacy is 91.95 per cent and for females it is 57.49 per cent. The same in the urban areas is 81.46 per cent with male literacy at 89.75 per cent and female literacy at 72.34 per cent (2001 Census).

From this block, four villages were selected viz. Satephal, Kubephal, Talegaon (Ghat) and Limbgaon. The respective literacy rates for these villages as per the study survey are 54.97 per cent for males and 42.2 per cent for females in Satephal; not available for Kumbephal; 76 per cent for males and 24 per cent for females in Talegaon (Ghat) and 90 per cent for males and 80 per cent for females in Limbgaon.

Gevrai block covers an area of 1601.1 sq.kms with 193 inhabited villages, 4 uninhabited villages and 1 town. The total population (2001) is 261087 with 133918 males and 127169 females. Rural population is 232595 with 119150 males and 113445 females. The urban population is 28492 with 14768 males and 13724 females. According to the 1991 Census, SC population is 29000 with 15000 males and 14000 females & ST population is 4000 with 2000 males and 2000 females. The total number of main workers as per the 1991 Census is 105100 with 22000 partial workers and 109200 non workers. In Gevrai block, the total literacy (2001) is 65.31 per cent with 78.04 per cent for males and 52.00 per cent for females. In the rural areas, the literacy is 63.70 per cent with males at 76.74 per cent and females at 50.08 per cent. The same in the urban area is 78.26 per cent with males at 88.32 per cent and females at 67.53 per cent.

From this block four villages were selected viz. Takhar Aadgaon, Bagpimpalgaon, Rohital and Kekat Pangri. The respective literacy rates for these villages as per the study survey are 50.06 per cent male literacy and 96.8 per cent female literacy for Takhar Aadgaon; not available for Bagpimpalgaon; 60.14 per cent for males and 54.4 per cent for females for Rohital and 68.2 per cent for males and 47.3 per cent for females in Kekat Pangri.

All the selected blocks from the three districts are predominantly rural. All the villages have primary schools in the village. The primary schools are all zilla parishad schools. The percentage of boys and girls going to schools is very high in all the selected villages. The study has attempted to probe into the causes of drop out in the selected sample of villages in the selected blocks of the identified districts.

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◈ **CHAPTER – 5**

Status of Primary Schools and School Management

Primary education imparted through the formal school structures forms one of the aspects of this study. The kind of infrastructure and amenities available has been a contributory factor to the drop out problem. While one can give a variety of functional definitions to a formal primary school, the basic identify of a school is commonly perceived in terms of the physical existence of a building with classrooms where teachers and teachers interact. Can this be safely assumed with regard to primary schools in India? Perhaps not. In fact, various surveys have revealed that a large number of primary schools in the country do not satisfy these requirements even to the barest minimum. The Sixth All-India Educational Survey conducted by the NCERT specifies that there is at least one primary school within walking distance of one kilometer for every child covering about 94 per cent of the population and this is so in Maharashtra too. Official statistics do not essentially differentiate between schools with different levels of infrastructure. They count these institutions with sub-minimal facilities as well as those (though, not a large proportion) with the best infrastructure in terms of building, classrooms, teachers, play ground, and so on under a single category. If the drop out problem is the concern, then quality of infrastructure is important. Hence it becomes necessary to make an analytical assessment of the status of infrastructure facilities in a meaningful manner.

Four villages from each block of the identified districts were selected for the study. In all, the study was conducted in 24 villages (8 villages in each district). From each village one school was taken; Thus there are 24 schools.

5.1 Management distribution of the schools

All the schools in the selected villages are from Std. I to VII. They are all zilla parishad schools. In rural areas, Private Schools are almost non-existent at least in the selected project area. This feature indicates the general pattern of schooling facilities in the State and country wherein governmental intervention is the most common phenomenon in the rural areas. In reality, with very few exceptions, all the schools in rural areas are part of the government managed system of schooling. This is especially true if the area is relatively only backward.

5.2 School type, distance and enrolment of students

Table-10 gives village-wise details of the distribution of schools by type, distance and enrolment of students.

Table-10

School type/distance and enrolment of students

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Type of school	Distance from village	Total Students
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	ABOVE 300
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	ABOVE 300
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	ABOVE 300
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	ABOVE 300
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	ABOVE 300
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	1 TO 7th	ABOVE 3KM	ABOVE 300
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	ABOVE 300
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	101 TO 200
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	1 TO 7th	1 KM	ABOVE 300
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	ABOVE 300
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	1 TO 7th	1 KM	ABOVE 300
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	ABOVE 300
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	1 TO 7th	IN VILLAGE	201 to 300

School education in Maharashtra is divided into different levels as (a) primary which corresponds to grades I to IV; (b) upper primary or middle covering grades V to VII; (c) secondary level which includes Grades VIII, IX and X and (d) higher secondary covering Grades XI and XII.

The highest grade in a school is important from the point of view of other facilities that may be available in these schools. It is generally understood, and rightly too, that schools with higher grades attached to them may have better facilities in comparison to similar schools with only the lower grades. For example, other things remaining the same, a primary section attached to a higher secondary school may have better facilities available than in a primary school. Availability and

use of facilities such as a library by primary school students is directly dependent on whether the school has provision for higher secondary stages or not.

All 24 schools in the sample are primary schools upto grade VII. All the schools are located in the village with the exception of Kubephal, Ambejogai block, district Beed and Bagpimpalgaon, Gevrai block, district Beed where the school is one kilometer away. The school for Karla Bk. village in Telhara block of Akola district is more than 3 kms. away which makes it difficult for children to attend the school. This leads to absenteeism and finally drop out. A majority of the schools have an enrolment upto 300 or above 300. Only the schools in Satephal village, Ambejogai block of Beed district shows an enrolment of 101 to 200. Thus, the primary schools tend to function in relative isolation from educational facilities at higher levels.

5.3 Distribution of students by Caste (School Enrolment year 2003-2004)

Details of distribution of students by caste for the School Enrolment year 2003-2004 is given in Table –11.

Table – 11

Distribution of Students by caste (School Enrolment Year 2003-2004)

Village	Block	District		SC-Boys	ST-Boys	Gen-Boys	SC-Girls	ST-Girls	Gen-Girls	Total
Chicholi	Tumsar	Bhandara	Total	22	11	61	27	12	70	203
			%	10.84	5.42	30.05	13.3	5.91	34.48	100
Madgi	Tumsar	Bhandara	Total	19	5	153	35	4	168	384
			%	4.95	1.3	39.84	9.11	1.04	43.75	100
Baghede	Tumsar	Bhandara	Total	13	16	170	13	14	167	393
			%	3.31	4.07	43.26	3.31	3.56	42.49	100
Dongarla	Tumsar	Bhandara	Total	13	3	119	6	3	92	236
			%	5.51	1.27	50.42	2.54	1.27	38.98	100
Chaprad	Lakhandur	Bhandara	Total	56	0	129	37	4	120	346
			%	16.18	0	37.28	10.69	1.16	34.68	100
Madeghat	Lakhandur	Bhandara	Total	33	11	102	22	9	102	279
			%	11.83	3.94	36.56	7.89	3.23	36.56	100
Chicholi	Lakhandur	Bhandara	Total	40	63	57	25	40	66	291
			%	13.75	21.65	19.59	8.59	13.75	22.68	100
Mandhal	Lakhandur	Bhandara	Total	25	3	115	40	1	117	301
			%	8.31	1	38.21	13.29	0.33	38.87	100
Wadi Adampur	Telhara	Akola	Total	27	10	128	29	11	122	327
			%	8.26	3.06	39.14	8.87	3.36	37.31	100
Manabda	Telhara	Akola	Total	32	0	84	46	0	72	234
			%	13.68	0	35.9	19.66	0	30.77	100
Karla Bk.	Telhara	Akola	Total	72	20	113	44	17	87	353
			%	20.4	5.67	32.01	12.46	4.82	24.65	100
Khandala	Telhara	Akola	Total	46	37	77	31	14	80	285
			%	16.14	12.98	27.02	10.88	4.91	28.07	100

Varun	Akote	Akola	Total	71	7	77	58	9	78	300
			%	23.67	2.33	25.67	19.33	3	26	100
Palsod	Akote	Akola	Total	21	44	77	25	53	62	282
			%	7.45	15.6	27.3	8.87	18.79	21.99	100
Ruikhed	Akote	Akola	Total	41	18	63	37	25	53	237
			%	17.3	7.59	26.58	15.61	10.55	22.36	100
Wadali Deshmukh	Akote	Akola	Total	48	30	126	33	46	113	396
			%	12.12	7.58	31.82	8.33	11.62	28.54	100
Satephal	Ambejogai	Beed	Total	22	0	65	22	0	83	192
			%	11.46	0	33.85	11.46	0	43.23	100
Kumbephal	Ambejogai	Beed	Total	46	86	92	51	71	96	442
			%	10.41	19.46	20.81	11.54	16.06	21.72	100
Talegaon	Ambejogai	Beed	Total	32	35	65	25	37	54	248
			%	12.9	14.11	26.21	10.08	14.92	21.77	100
Limbgaon	Ambejogai	Beed	Total	3	18	74	5	38	86	224
			%	1.34	8.04	33.04	2.23	16.96	38.39	100
Takhar Aadgaon	Gevrai	Beed	Total	19	46	101	13	37	88	304
			%	6.25	15.13	33.22	4.28	12.17	28.95	100
Bagpimpalgaon	Gevrai	Beed	Total	20	106	60	18	89	35	328
			%	6.1	32.32	18.29	5.49	27.13	10.67	100
Rohital	Gevrai	Beed	Total	57	110	65	60	92	49	433
			%	13.16	25.4	15.01	13.86	21.25	11.32	100
Kekat Pangri	Gevrai	Beed	Total	30	56	65	40	62	28	281
			%	10.68	19.93	23.13	14.23	22.06	9.96	100

In the selected villages of Bhandara district, 8.31 per cent SC boys, 13.29 per cent SC girls, 1.00 per cent ST boys, 0.33 per cent ST girls and 19.59 per cent general category boys and 22.68 per cent general category girls are enrolled in this district is more than that of boys. In the selected villages of Akola district, 12.12 per cent SC boys, 8.33 per cent SC girls, 7.58 per cent ST boys & 11.62 per cent ST girls and 31.82 per cent general category boys an 28.54 per cent general category girls are enrolled in the primary schools. Remarkably, the percentage of ST girls enrolled is more than that of ST boys. In the selected villages of Beed district, 10.68 per cent SC boys & 14.23 per cent SC girls, 19.93 per cent ST boys & 22.06 per cent ST girls and 23.13 per cent general category boys & 9.96 per cent general category girls are enrolled in the primary schools. Here too we find the number of SC & ST girls enrolled is more than that of SC & ST boys. The numbers enrolled in the general category are higher in all three districts except in Beed where the enrolment for girls is less than SC & ST girls' enrolment.

5.4 Position of teaching staff

Perhaps the significant factor which distinguishes one school from another, directly influencing their quality, is the number of teachers working in the primary school. Needless to say that the size of the teaching staff is necessarily related to the total enrolment in the school. Nevertheless, the number of teaching staff

available for teaching in the seven different grades of the primary school would finally determine the effective time available for teacher-pupil interaction on any school day. This is an important factor contributing to retention of children in the school thereby preventing drop out.

Table-12 gives details regarding total number of teachers, sex-wise distribution of teachers and the student-teacher ratio.

Table-12

School Teachers information

			Teacher				
VILLAGE	**BLOCK**	**DISTRICT**	**No. of teachers**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**	**Student teacher Ratio**
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	Five	2	3	5	40.1
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	ABOVE 5	6	5	11	35.1
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	ABOVE 5	5	5	10	38.1
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	ABOVE 5	3	5	8	29.1
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	ABOVE 5	7	2	9	40.1
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	ABOVE 5	10	0	10	Not given
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	ABOVE 5	6	1	7	40.1
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	ABOVE 5	7	0	7	43.1
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	ABOVE 5	5	2	7	45.1
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	ABOVE 5	7	1	8	29.3
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	ABOVE 5	5	3	8	44.1
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	ABOVE 5	5	3	8	36.1
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	ABOVE 5	3	5	8	38.1
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	ABOVE 5	4	3	7	40.1
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	ABOVE 5	4	2	6	40.1
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	ABOVE 5	7	2	9	41.1
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	ABOVE 5	2	4	6	32.1
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	ABOVE 5	9	6	15	30.1
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	ABOVE 5	6	2	8	31.1
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	ABOVE 5	8	1	9	25.1
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	ABOVE 5	7	2	9	40.1
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	ABOVE 5	8	2	10	32.1
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	ABOVE 5	8	6	14	33.1
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	ABOVE 5	5	3	8	32.1
			Total	139	68	207	

Except in Chicholi village Tumsar block, Bhandara where there are five teachers we find there are more than five teachers in the other village schools. On the whole, for all three districts, the total number of male teachers is 139 with only 68 female teachers. As was mentioned earlier, the number of teachers in a school has a direct impact on the organization of teaching activity and on the quality of the teaching-learning process. The minimum number of teachers required in a school to

ensure one teacher for every grade is seven. This requirement is fulfilled in all the sample village schools except Chicholi in Tumsar block of Bhandara district. The teacher-pupil ratio varies from 25.1 to 45.1.

A visit to the schools in the rural areas was quite revealing . In most cases, students belonging to different grades are grouped together. They sit together either in a classroom or outside the so called school building which, in any case, is poorly ventilated and with no sufficient lighting. Many of the students may not have text-books or, at times, writing materials. The teachers try to teach these children in one way or another. This factor largely contributes to absenteeism finally leading to drop out.

5.5 School building and classrooms

Table-13 gives the details about the school building and classrooms.

Table – 13

Schools building information

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Building	Own/rented	Condition	No. of classrooms
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	OWN	GOOD	Five rooms
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	NR	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	OWN	GOOD	4 ROOMS
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	OWN	BAD	4 ROOMS
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	OWN	BAD	ABOVE 5 rooms
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	OWN	BAD	4 ROOMS
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	OWN	BAD	ABOVE 5 rooms
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	OWN	BAD	ABOVE 5 rooms
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	TEMPER.	NR	ABOVE 5 rooms
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	OWN	GOOD	ABOVE 5 rooms

All the schools in the sample villages have a school building which is owned by the school. There was no response from Madeghat and Bagpimpalgaon villages. All the headmasters with the exception of those at Ruikhed, Wadali Deshmukh,

Satephal, Kumbephal and Takhar Aadegaon stated that the school building was in good condition. As regards the number of classrooms, all schools except that at Ruikhed have 5 or more classrooms. The question of whether there is an adequate number of classrooms for separately teaching learners of the seven different grades constituting the lower and upper primary sections is quite important for assessing the quality of education which reflects on retention of children in the school. Needless to state that the existence of a congenial physical environment is basic not only for an effective transaction of the curricular inputs but also for ensuring healthy conditions for the children and teachers during the school hours.

5.6 School facilities

Table - 14 (a) gives details of other facilities like playground and drinking water in the schools.

Table – 14 (a)

School other information

			Playing ground		Water facilities		
VILLAGE	**BLOCK**	**DISTRICT**	**Ground**	**Own**	**Water**	**Source of water**	**Storage water**
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	YES	Hand-pump, Well	NO
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	NO	No	YES
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	YES	hand-pump	YES
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	YES	WELL	YES
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	YES	TAP WATER	YES
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	NO	NO	NO	No	YES
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	NO	No	YES
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	NO	NO	YES	TAP WATER	YES
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	NO	NO	YES	TAP WATER	NO
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	YES	YES	TAP WATER	YES
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	NO	YES	TAP WATER	YES
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	NO	NO	YES	NR	YES
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	NO	NO	NO	No	NO
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	YES	YES	Hand-pump	YES
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	NO	NO	YES	TAP WATER	YES
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	NO	NO	YES	TAP WATER	NO
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	NO	NO	YES	TAP WATER	YES
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	YES	YES	TAP WATER	YES
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	YES	YES	Hand-pump	YES
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	YES	YES	Hand-pump	YES
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	YES	YES	Hand-pump	YES
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	NO	NO	No	YES
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	YES	NO	No	NO
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	YES	NO	No	YES

16 schools spread over Bhandara, Akola and Beed districts have facility of a playground while 8 schools do not have a playground. Of the first category 14 have

their own playground. Two schools used other open space hear the school location as playground.

Regarding drinking water facilities, 17 schools reported having water source while 7 schools did not have any water source facility. Of these that had the facility 9 schools had tap water while 6 schools had hand pump facility one had a well and one school did not respond. 19 schools reported having storage water facility. Provision of such facility is a must in schools. Availability of piped water (tap water) also means the availability of relatively cleaner water suitable for drinking purposes. Underground water sources are known to contain a high proportion of iron which causes different kind of stomach ailment. Water drawn, particularly from a hand-pump, is not considered suitable for drinking purposes. However, in the absence of any other sources of water, the school children continue to depend on this source in some schools.

Table – 14 (b) gives the school-wise toilet facility. Proper toilet facilities in the school are as important as provision of drinking water when we consider the fact that we are dealing with children in the primary school age-group.

Table – 14 (b)

School wise toilet facility

			Boys		Girls	
VILLAGE	**BLOCK**	**DISTRICT**	**Toilet**	**Condition**	**Toilet**	**Condition**
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	NO	0	NO	0
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	NO	0	NO	0
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	GOOD	YES	Poor
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	NR	YES	NR
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	NO	0	NO	0
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	BETTER	YES	BETTER
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	NO	0	YES	GOOD
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	NO	0	NO	0
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	NO	0	NO	0
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Poor	NO	0
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	NO	0	NO	0
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Poor	YES	Poor
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	GOOD	YES	GOOD
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	0	NO	0
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	0	NO	0
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	0	NO	0

We find that 14 schools have toilet facilities for boys of which 10 reported the conditions were good. Two reported the conditions were poor and one did not respond. For girls too, 14 schools responded there were toilet facilities of which 10 schools stated they were in good condition. One reported the facilities were poor and one school did not respond.

Most of the schools which stated there were facilities and in good condition for both boys and girls are from Bhandara and Akola districts. Beed district responded very poorly to this provision.

Table - 15 gives distribution of schools with respect to electricity, setting and medical facilities.

Table-15

School wise Electricity, sitting and medical facilities

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Electricity	Bench	Medical check	First-Aid box
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Yes	Yes	yes
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Yes	Yes	NO
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Yes	Yes	NO
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Yes	Yes	yes
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Yes	Yes	yes
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Yes	Yes	yes
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	NO	NO	Yes	NO
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Yes	0	yes
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Yes	Yes	yes
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Yes	Yes	yes
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	NO	Yes	yes
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Yes	Yes	yes
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Yes	Yes	yes
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Yes	yes	NO
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Yes	yes	NO
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	NO	yes	yes
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	NO	Yes	yes	yes
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	NO	NO	yes	yes
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Yes	yes	yes
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Yes	yes	yes
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Yes	yes	NO
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	Yes	0	yes
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	Yes	yes	yes
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	Yes	yes	yes

A study of the table reveals that all the schools with the exception of one school in Bhandara district and five schools in Beed district have the provision of electricity in the school. All schools except four (1 in Bhandara, 2 in Akola and 1 in Beed districts) have benches for the children to sit on. Medical check-up has been

conducted in all the schools medical first-aid is available in 18 schools and not available in 6 schools (3 in Bhandara, 2 in Akola and 1 in Beed districts).

5.7 Educational Facilities

Table - 16 gives details of all educational facilities available in the schools.

Table – 16

Educational facilities

			Black Board			Shelves		Table	Rack
VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Board	Condition	No. of boards	Shelves	No. of shelves	Table	Rack
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	yes	Good	7	yes	2	yes	no
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	yes	Good	8	yes	10	yes	YES
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	yes	Good	13	yes	3	yes	YES
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	yes	Good	14	yes	2	yes	YES
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	yes	Good	18	yes	6	yes	YES
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	yes	Good	8	yes	6	yes	YES
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	yes	Good	8	yes	1	yes	no
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	yes	Good	7	yes	2	yes	YES
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	yes	Good	10	yes	7	yes	YES
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	yes	Good	8	yes	7	yes	no
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	yes	Good	7	yes	6	yes	YES
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	yes	Good	14	yes	7	yes	YES
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	yes	Good	8	yes	7	yes	YES
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	yes	Good	7	yes	4	yes	YES
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	yes	Good	7	yes	4	yes	YES
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	yes	Good	12	yes	12	yes	YES
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	yes	Good	7	yes	1	yes	NO
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	yes	Good	19	yes	2	NO SUFFICIENT	NO SUFFICIENT
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	yes	Good	10	yes	7	yes	YES
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	yes	Good	8	yes	5	yes	YES
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	yes	Good	11	yes	2	yes	YES
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	yes	Good	7	yes	4	yes	YES
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	yes	Good	8	yes	6	Yes	YES
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	yes	Good	7	yes	4	Yes	NO

All schools have reported having blackboards which are in good condition. The number of blackboards vary from 7 to 18 in the schools probably depending on the number of classrooms and sections too. There are shelves for keeping books and other material which again vary from 1 to 12 in the sample schools. There are tables for the teachers and children in the schools.

5.8 Teaching Material Facilities

Table – 17 gives the distribution of teaching material facilities.

Table – 17

Educational Teaching material facilities

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Books	Charts	Posters	Science kits	Maths-boxes	Tool Box	Graphs	Sports material	Recreational Equi.
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	yes	Yes	no	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	NO	yes	Yes	YES
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	YES
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	YES
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	yes	Yes	no	NO	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	YES
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	yes	Yes	no	Yes	yes	NO	yes	Yes	YES
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	NO	yes	Yes	no
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	0	yes	Yes	YES
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	yes	Yes	no	Yes	yes	NO	yes	Yes	YES
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	YES
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	YES
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	YES
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	yes	Yes	YES	Yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	YES
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	yes	Yes	YES	yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	yes	Yes	YES	yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	yes	Yes	YES	yes	yes	NO	yes	Yes	no
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	yes	Yes	YES	yes	yes	Yes	yes	Yes	no
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	yes	Yes	YES	yes	yes	NO	yes	Yes	YES
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	yes	Yes	YES	yes	yes	NO	yes	Yes	no

All schools gave a very good response to the availability of teaching material. Books, charts, posters, science kit, mathematics boxes, graphs and sports material are all available in the sample schools. As regards tool box 8 schools reported there was no tool box available in the schools. Only 12 schools reported having recreational material. Though teaching material is available it is essential to know how far it is used during the teaching-learning process to make lessons interesting to the students. If the teaching-learning cannot hold the attention of the children it is very likely that the children will drop out of school. How far they are used will be known from the teachers' interviews discussed in Chapter 6.

Table-18 gives data on library facilities available in the schools.

Table-18

School Library facilities

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Library	Total books	Home issuing	Reference books	Books for students	Newspaper/ Magazine
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	Yes	442	yes	Yes	yes	yes
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	Yes	409	yes	Yes	yes	yes
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	NO	0	NO	NO	yes	yes
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	Yes	290	yes	Yes	yes	yes
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	Yes	150	yes	Yes	yes	yes
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	Yes	365	yes	Yes	yes	yes
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	Yes	100	yes	NO	yes	yes
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	Yes	638	yes	Yes	yes	yes
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	Yes	150	yes	Yes	yes	yes
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	Yes	250	yes	NO	yes	yes
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	Yes	277	yes	NO	yes	yes
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	Yes	256	yes	Yes	yes	yes
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	Yes	100	yes	Yes	yes	yes
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	NR	NR	yes	NO	YES	yes
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	NO	NO	NO	Yes	yes	NO
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	Yes	274	yes	Yes	yes	yes
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	Yes	145	yes	NO	yes	yes
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	Yes	306	0	Yes	yes	yes
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	Yes	54	yes	Yes	yes	yes
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	Yes	NR	yes	Yes	yes	yes
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	Yes	350	yes	NO	yes	yes
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	Yes	400	yes	Yes	yes	yes
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	Yes	254	yes	NO	yes	yes
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	Yes	400	yes	NO	yes	yes

All the schools responded affirmatively that there was a library in the school with the exception of 2 schools and one no response. These schools are from Bhandara and Akola districts. The total number of books vary from 54 to 442. Two school libraries reported having no books in the library and 2 schools did not respond to this question. Home issuing of books took place in all the schools with libraries. Most schools (15) reported having reference books. The point here is who helps children understand how to use the reference books. It is important that the teacher spares time during the day to explain and help children use the reference books. Besides, it is also important to make children understand how to use the references so it can help in day to day learning. The teacher has a very important role to play here as most of the parents are illiterate.

5.9 Incentives for Students

Table - 19 gives data on various schemes being implemented in the schools as incentives for children coming to and attending schools.

Table – 19

Incentives for the students

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Mid-day	Made	Uniforms	Free books	Regular Attending
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Villagers	yes	NO	yes
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Villagers	0	yes	yes
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	NO
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Villagers	yes	yes	yes

All schools are implementing the schemes of providing mid-day meals (prepared by the villagers), uniforms (except one school), and free text books (except one school). It was reported by the headmasters that children attended school regularly but this information is doubtful considering the largely prevalent phenomenon of irregular attendance in the rural areas.

5.10 School Management

Mere assessment of the status of infrastructure facilities or human resources in a primary school does not necessarily reveal the quality of its functioning. It is the efficiency with which these resources are put to work, the work climate operating in

the school and the leadership provided, that determine the school quality enhancing regular attendance of the children thereby facilitating retention of children in schools. It should be noted that the physical and academic infrastructures provided in a school are only the accessories to learning and not an end in themselves. A school is essentially a human organization where adults and children interact with the common purpose of transmitting and acquiring new knowledge, skills and attitudes. Viewed from this angle, organizational and managerial dimensions of the school occupy a place of central importance in understanding the school quality. These factors impinge not only on the level of utilization of the existing resources but also on the nature of the teaching-learning process and the ensuing climate for human interaction and learning that takes place in the school. It is therefore important to analyze the way the functioning of primary schools is organized, the type of leadership available and the various factors, external as well as internal to the school that influence the managerial effectiveness and efficiency of a primary school. An attempt is made to find some answers to these relevant questions based on data collected from the responses of the headmasters to a questionnaire and through direct observation by the team of field investigators during the regular functioning of the schools.

Every primary school represents the efforts of society to create an organizational arrangement for imparting education to children. Consequently, certain aspects of the organization and management of primary schools are determined from outside based on the norms of operation and methods of control and monitoring evolved and prescribed by society for the whole system of primary education. The state and district level machinery has been discussed at length in Chapter 2. Here, an analysis of the organizational arrangements operating in the school has been attempted.

The administrative arrangement at the district and intermediate levels determine the overall context in which each individual school has to function. It determines the scope and limits for power, authority and responsibility of the school vis-à-vis the external control by the administrative machinery. In operating a school in this context, the role of the headmaster has invariably been found to be the crucial factor determining the process that take place within the school as well as their relevance and effectiveness for achieving pre-set goals. The role that a headmaster can effectively play is dependent on a number of personal and environmental factors. For instance, a headmaster who *is not adequately equipped* in terms of professional training can hardly be expected to play a leadership role in the school. But, what role a headmaster can play is also limited by certain school specific factors such as the size of the school and number of teachers. Similarly, it is also determined by the kind of support he/she receives from the external supervisory authorities.

5.11 Qualification and experience of headmaster

Table - 20 gives details of the qualifications of the headmasters. It can be seen that a large number of headmasters (18) have completed their D.Ed with 2

having completed the B.Ed. too. Four teachers have P.T.C. training while only one has completed the SSC.

Table – 20

Professional Qualification of Headmaster

Sr.	VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Qualification
1	CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	D.Ed
2	MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	D.Ed
3	BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	D.Ed
4	DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	B.Ed
5	CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	D.Ed
6	MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	D.Ed
7	CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	D.Ed/B.Ed
8	MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	D.Ed
9	WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	D.Ed
10	MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	PTC
11	KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	D.Ed
12	KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	PTC
13	VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	SSC
14	PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	D.Ed
15	RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	PTC
16	WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	PTC
17	SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	D.Ed
18	KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	D.Ed
19	TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	D.Ed
20	LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	D.Ed
21	TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	D.Ed
22	BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	D.Ed
23	ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	D.Ed
24	KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	D.Ed

Importance of possessing professional training by the headmasters is obvious as they have to, as part of their duty supervise the academic work of the teachers including class-room teaching and provide necessary guidance. Another related aspect is whether the headmasters have undergone any training in planning and management either prior to becoming a headmaster or afterwards. On discussion it was found that no such training had been imparted to them. They only referred to the Mass Orientation of School Teachers, a general training given by the SCERT and it is not related to institutional planning and management.

Apart from examining the educational and professional qualifications of the headmasters, it is interesting to find out the length of service done by them in the field of school teaching. Table - 21 gives details of these aspects.

Table – 21

School Management - Headmasters role and teachers

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Length of service as HM	Work allocation with teachers	Involvement of teachers in Administration
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	5 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	6 TO 10 YRS.	Equally application	Some Extent
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	5 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	5 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	5 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	5 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	5 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	2 YRS.	Equally application	Some Extent
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	1 YRS.	Discussion with	Some Extent
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	3 MONTH	Discussion with	Some Extent
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	2 MONTH	Discussion with	Great Extent
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	5 YRS.	Equally application	Some Extent
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	5 YRS.	Discussion with	Some Extent
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	5 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	6 TO 10	Discussion with	Great Extent
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	8 MONTH	Discussion with	Great Extent
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	6 TO 10 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	3 YRS.	Discussion with	Some Extent
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	3 YRS.	Discussion with	Great Extent
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	1 MONTHS	Equally application	Great Extent
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	11 TO 15 YRS.	Equally application	Great Extent
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	5 YRS.	Equally application	Great Extent
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	1 MONTHS	Equally application	Great Extent
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	11 TO 15 YRS.	Equally application	Great Extent

As can be seen from Table-21, the headmasters have had experience of service from 5 years with the exception of 5 headmasters whose experience is below one year. The latter could possibly be because the teacher who is in charge of the school administration is only a “teacher” and not a “headmaster”. It has already been observed hat none of the headmasters possess institutional and management training. It appears that seniority is the only consideration for promotion and possession of pertinent training is not considered. Definitely, the capability or otherwise of a teacher to provide leadership finds no place in the criteria for promotion of teachers to senior posts.

5.12 Organization of work

A major dimension of school management is the way in which regular activities of the school are organized. Is there an annual calendar of activities for the whole school? Are daily activities organized according to a pre-drawn schedule? Or, are the regular activities organized according on a day-to-day basis? What about the distribution of work among teachers? Do the headmasters take into consideration the specialization of the teachers in dividing on work allocation? There are important questions indicating the style in which teaching-learning activities of the school are organized which has an effect on the interest of children in the school activities and learning.

Table-21 in 5.11 shows that all the headmasters have discussions with the teachers as regards work allocation. Interestingly, this phenomenon especially noticed in Government schools is reflected here as all the schools are Z.P. Schools. All including the headmaster is involved in classroom teaching on a full-time basis. As far as the teaching is concerned, much has to be done to make it an interactive process which would help in holding the attention and interest of the children. For if the interest and creatively in a child is aroused, he/she gets engaged in the learning process and the school becomes an attraction for the child.

Preparation of an annual calendar was found to be totally absent in these schools. Observations during the field visits and discussion with school authorities clearly show that no such pre-drawn calendar of activities is adhered to even though some of them may maintain a "notion calendar" essentially for the attention of the higher authorities. Thus, it becomes difficult for the headmaster to monitor the progress of work. Needless to say that the absence of adherence to such a structured programme schedule for the year makes the activities of the schools largely directionless and practically beyond the scope of any monitoring mechanism. This could be a contributory factor to the cause of drop out.

How are day-to-day activities of the school organized? 60 per cent headmasters admitted that there is no time-table prepared and a flexible schedule is adopted on a daily basis. 40 per cent stated that a pre-drawn time-table is prepared and followed for daily activities. It was observed that some schools have the time-table only for having one while others follow the time-table strictly for organizing the daily schedule of activities. There seems to be an inherent problem in the existing system for monitoring the adherence to a time table by all concerned. Particularly in schools where there is multigrade teaching, following a rigid timetable for classroom teaching is probably very different. The teacher, in these schools, has to be not only conscious of the curricular prescriptions for teaching different subjects but has also to be extraordinarily capable of balancing the limited time available for classroom interaction between the demands of different grades, subjects and the possible special attention needed by the weak students. Even in schools with an adequate number of teachers, the practice of assigning one teacher to one grade for teaching all the subjects leaves the onus on the individual teacher for following a pre-drawn time table and provides very little scope for external monitoring of this aspect. This perhaps has a significant impact on the teaching learning process affecting attendance and drop out of children.

A major dimension of school management relates to different teachers. What is the approach adopted for this purpose in the sample schools? Do the headmasters consult their colleagues before deciding on work allocation? Is the specialization of the teacher taken into consideration for allocation of work.

If we refer back to Table-21 we find that the headmaster discusses with the teachers the allocation and distribution of work. There is no variation in the response pattern. In the Zilla Parishad Schools, having specialized teachers is not a major issue especially in those schools where multigrade teaching is adopted and all teaches including the headmaster are involved in classroom teaching on a full time basis.

Another dimension examined in the context of organization of work is the proportion of devoted by the headmaster for school administration and classroom teaching. It is often considered that every headmaster should be first a teacher and then an administrator. Seen from this angle, involvement of headmasters in classroom teaching seems to be important. What is the situation prevailing in the sample schools?

Table-22

Involvement of headmasters in administration and teaching

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	Time Devoted Adminstration by HM.	Devoted teaching HM.
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	20%	80 to 100 %
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	21 TO 30 %	60 TO 80 %
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	22 TO 30 %	40 TO 60 %
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	40 TO 60 %	30 TO 40 %
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	60 TO 80 %	30 TO 40 %
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	20%	60 TO 80 %
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	21 TO 30 %	60 TO 80 %
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	40 TO 60 %	40 TO 60 %
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	80 TO 100 %	20%
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	60 TO 80 %	21 TO 30 %
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	40 TO 60 %	40 TO 60 %
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	60 TO 80 %	21 TO 30 %
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	40 TO 60 %	30 TO 40 %
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	21 TO 30 %	40 TO 60 %
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	40 TO 60 %	30 TO 40 %
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	40 TO 60 %	20%
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	20%	60 TO 80 %
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	30 TO 40 %	30 TO 40 %
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	21 TO 30 %	60 TO 80 %
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	40 TO 60 %	30 TO 40 %
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	20%	60 TO 80 %
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	60 TO 80 %	20%
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	60 TO 80 %	20%
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	40 TO 60 %	60 TO 80 %

As can be seen from Table-22, there is considerable variation in the proportion of time spent by headmasters for administration and classroom teaching. In Bhandara district the time spent by headmasters on administration ranged from 20 per cent to 60 per cent; in Akola district it ranged from 21 per cent to full time i.e. 100 per cent while in Beed district it ranged from 20 per cent to 60 per cent. This explains the amount of administrative work headmasters have to do in the different schools in different districts. The school headmasters also specified that they are satisfied with the time they devote for academic work which is again varied as seen from Table–22 (from 20 per cent to 100 per cent). However, some felt dissatisfied with the fact that they cannot devote adequate time to academic work including classroom teaching.

Regarding Supervision, it was gathered through discussions that only 40 per cent visited *at least once a month* and the remaining said that they visit whenever they get time or when the other teacher wants. Even though this aspect could not be further explored, the general impression one gets from the teachers is that classroom visits by the headmaster is not a common phenomenon; in fact, some teachers did not even approve the practice.

5.13 Community involvement in school management

It is a truism to say that the responsibility for educating a child lies jointly with the *school*, the *home* and the *community*. Therefore, from the point of administration it becomes necessary for the school authorities to obtain co-operation and involvement of parents and community members in school development activities. Also, the quality of learning taking place in the school as reflected in the behaviour of the children needs to be assessed by the school as well as the parents together through formal and informal means. In fact, applying corrective measures for retention of children in the school demands co-operation and involvement of parents as a pre-requisite.

In order to sustain community involvement in school activities it becomes necessary to create a stable mechanism for interaction between parents, community members, school authorities and teachers. Do such forums function in all sample schools? How often do parents and school authorities or teachers meet?

Table – 23 gives information on the details of PTAS in the schools.

Table – 23

Is there a Parents-Teachers association in the school

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	**PTA**	**PTA Regular**	**Total attendance**	**No. of attendance**	**Parents attendance**
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	10	10	YES
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	232	57	YES
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	0	25	18	YES
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	158	145	YES

CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	10	8	YES
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	10	7	YES
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	7	6	YES
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	NO	No	No	No	No
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	YES	15	11	YES
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	YES	15	13	YES
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	YES	17	15	YES
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	0	0	0	YES
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	YES	8	8	YES
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	YES	10	8	YES
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	YES	10	7	YES
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	YES	15	10	YES
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	YES	11	8	YES
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	YES	11	11	YES
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	YES	50	30	YES
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	YES	22	15	YES
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	YES	11	10	YES
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	YES	11	8	YES
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	YES	0	0	YES
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	YES	15	12	YES

It may be seen that all the schools except one in Bhandara district have reported having a PTA in the school. Further questioning on this aspect revealed certain interesting facts. It was found in the rural localities that some of the villages have School Development Committees. This is what the headmasters refer to as PTAs. But closer scrutiny showed that these are not active bodies and do not have much influence on school functioning. Though 21 school headmasters reported that PTA meetings take place once a month and all parents attend such meetings, responses of some teachers and the views expressed by some parents do not support this claim. Even where some interaction between parents and teachers takes place, it is not a regular feature. Sometimes, it refers to the occasional visits of the parents for receiving the progress reports of their wards while in some cases it refers to the visits of community members during certain cultural programmes or other celebrations in the schools as it happens in many rural schools. Sometimes, it refers to the visits of the individual parents concerned with the performance of their wards. On the whole, the level of interaction between school and community is very weak and there is no active involvement of community members in the rural areas in the management of school activities.

Table - 24 gives data regarding the setting up of a Village Education Committee and its participation in school functioning.

Table-24

Village Education Committee in the school (VEC)

VILLAGE	BLOCK	DISTRICT	**VEC**	**Period**	**No. of VEC members**	**VEC attendance**
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Bimonthly	11	0
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Bimonthly	13	9
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Bimonthly	12	8
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	Bimonthly	7	5
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Monthly	12	12
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Bimonthly	13	10
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Bimonthly	8	8
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	Bimonthly	12	10
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Monthly	10	9
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Monthly	14	9
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Monthly	15	14
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	Monthly	13	0
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Monthly	11	7
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Monthly	10	8
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Monthly	13	9
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	Monthly	15	12
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Monthly	10	8
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Bimonthly	13	0
TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Bimonthly	10	7
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	Monthly	12	10
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Bimonthly	8	0
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Bimonthly	10	6
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Monthly	7	6
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	Bimonthly	9	0

All the schools in the three districts reported that there is a Village Education Committee in the respective villages. All the VECs hold either monthly (50 per cent) or bimonthly (50 per cent) meetings. The number of VEC members varies from 7 members to 15 members. Attendance of the VEC members in meetings regarding school functioning is not very encouraging. In fact 5 schools reported no VEC members attend the meetings while others reported dismal figures with the exception of one school where 14 out of 15 members attended the meetings.

Conceding that interaction is weak, it was felt pertinent to find out the topics and issues discussed during PTA and VEC meetings. The major problems discussed during such meetings are (a) learning problems of children (56 per cent); (b) facilities in the school (51 per cent); (c) teaching in the school (44 per cent); (d) cultural activities (37 per cent); and (e) financial contributions for the school (32 per cent). Apart from these topics, it was found that "absenteeism" among the teachers is an important problem discussed during such meetings in 83 per cent of the sample schools. 62 per cent mentioned that the VEC tries to mobilize financial support from community members. Except for a few cases, the main source for mobilizing funds is parents (about 58 per cent). Some even tried to approach local businessmen for this purpose (7 per cent).

One important factor affecting drop out is the functioning working days of the school. Table - 25 gives data regarding this aspect.

Table – 25

Does the prescribed school working days have an effect on

			Attendance			Drop out		
VILLAGE	**BLOCK**	**DISTRICT**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Impact on attendance**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Impact on drop out**
CHICHOLI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	0	NO	NO	LESS PRESENTI
MADGI	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	INCREASES PRESENTI	NO	NO	0
BAGHEDE	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	0	NO	NO	0
DONGARLA	TUMSAR	BHANDARA	NO	NO	0	NO	NO	0
CHAPRAD	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	LECTURES NOT REGULAR,HENCE PRESENTI LESS	NO	NO	0
MADEGHAT	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	CAN NOT CONCENTRATE –FULL TIME	NO	NO	0
CHICHOLI	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	YES	YES	CULTIVATION PERIOD	NO	NO	0
MANDHAL	LAKHANDUR	BHANDARA	NO	NO	0	0	0	0
WADI ADAMPUR	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	YES	CULTIVATION PERIOD	YES	YES	LESS PRESENTI
MANABDA	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	YES	FESTIVAL PROGRAMME	NO	NO	0
KARLA BK.	TELHARA	AKOLA	YES	YES	CULTIVATION PERIOD	NO	NO	0
KHANDALA	TELHARA	AKOLA	0	YES	GIRLS PRESENTY IS VERY LESS	NO	NO	
VARUN	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	YES	CULTIVATION PERIOD		YES	GIRLS ARE NOT INTERESTED
PALSOD	AKOTE	AKOLA	YES	0	NO PLANNING OF WORK	YES	YES	MIGRATION
RUIKHED	AKOTE	AKOLA	NO	NO		NO	NO	0
WADALI DESHMUKH	AKOTE	AKOLA	NO	NO	NO PLANNING OF WORK	NO	NO	
SATEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	NO	NO		NO	NO	0
KUMBEPHAL	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	YES	YES	CULTIVATION PERIOD	NO	YES	BECAUSE OF HOUSE WORK GIRLS DO NOT COME TO SCHOOL

TALEGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	NO	NO		NO	YES	ECONOMICAL CONDITION
LIMBGAON	AMBEJOGAI	BEED	NO	NO	0	NO	NO	0
TAKHAR AADGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	NO	0	NO	NO	0
BAGPIMPALGAON	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	NO		NO	NO	
ROHITAL	GEVRAI	BEED	YES	YES	INCREASES PRESENTY	0	YES	BECAUSE OF HOUSE WORK GIRLS DO NOT COME TO SCHOOL
KEKAT PANGRI	GEVRAI	BEED	NO	NO	0	YES	YES	5th TO 10th STD. STUDENTS DO NOT COME BECAUSE OF MIGRATION, WORK in FACTORIES

Headmasters reported that the prescribed working days of the school has an effect on the attendance of both boys and girls in the school (54.2 per cent). Classes are not regular especially during the cultivation period or during festivals and then there is no planning of work. Attendance of girls was particularly less in one Khandala village school in Telhara block of Akola district. Headmasters could not particularly say whether this was one of the reasons for drop out but this could be a major cause in the case of girls. Besides, they felt migration due to economical conditions contributed to the drop out of children from schools.

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◈ **CHAPTER – 6**

The Teacher and The Teaching-Learning Process

School provides the setting where teachers and students interact, curriculum is transacted and learning takes place. How well the children are educated in the school, leading to their all round development, arousing their learning leading to acquisition of basic knowledge and skill components is directly dependent on what happens in the school. The classroom teaching-learning process is at the core of what transpires in the school on a typical school day and is one important factor contributing to the holding power of the school preventing children from dropping out. And the teacher who plans, directs and participates in the teaching-learning process is the key figure influential in keeping children in the school system by imparting quality activities in the classroom. An analysis of the dropout factor also has to focus substantially on these two dimensions, namely, *teachers* and the *teaching-learning process*. One has to begin by answering a number of questions related to these two dimensions in order to understand how they are likely to influence the quality of educational activities organized in primary school and their consequent impact on retention of children in school through arousing interest in learning.

It should be recognized that teachers influence the learning of students not only through classroom teaching but also through their own personality, unique perceptions and personal behaviour which are embedded in not very apparent dimensions such as their family background, rural-urban orientation, educational qualifications, attitudes toward learning and expectations from the learners, satisfaction with their work and so on. The kind of ambience for learning that teachers create in their schools is the interactive product of all these characteristics within the school setting on one hand, and the learners, and what they bring along with them to the classrooms, on the other.

6.1 Personal background of teachers

Table - 26 gives the distribution of the number of teachers in the sample for study.

Table – 26

Distribution of number of teachers in sample

District	No.of teachers	%
Akola	16	33.3
Beed	16	33.3
Bhandara	16	33.3
Grand Totalssssss	**48**	**100.0**

The number of teachers in the sample include 16 teachers each from Akola, Beed and Bhandara districts; thus 48 teachers in all were interviewed. An attempt has been made to describe the sample of teachers in terms of their age and sex composition, their parental background, the size and structure of the family, the conditions of living and the average earnings.

a) Age and Sex Composition

As per the requirements currently prescribed, one has to complete twelve years of general education and tow years of professional training of recruitment as a teacher in the primary school. This implies that the minimum age to join the profession of teaching at primary schools is around 20. What is the age composition of sample of teachers selected for the study? Table-27 gives the distribution of the sample teachers by age.

Table – 27

Distribution of teachers by age

Age group	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
18 to 29	9	7	1	17
%	56.3	43.8	6.3	35.4
30 to 39	7	6	12	25
%	43.8	37.5	75.0	52.1
40 to 49		2	2	4
%	0.0	12.5	12.5	8.3
Above 49		1	1	2
%	0.0	6.3	6.3	4.2
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

In Akola district, 56.3 per cent of the sample teachers belong to the 18 to 29 age group while 43.8 per cent belong to the 30 to 39 age group. In Beed district we find a variation in the age group as 43.8 per cent belong to the 18 to 29 age group, 37.5 per cent belong to the 30 to 39 age group, 132.5 per cent are in the 40 to 49 age group while 6.3 per cent belong to the above 49 age group. In Bhandara district we also find a variation with 6.3 per cent in the 18 to 29 age group, a large number viz 75.0 per cent in the 30 to 39 age group, 12.5 per cent in the 40 to 49 age group and 6.3 per cent in the above 49 age group. In the rural areas, the number of teachers consists of teachers who teach all classes and all subjects. In Akola and Beed the percentage of teachers in the younger age group reflects their interest in making a teaching career since they can take up D.Ed. training after 12 years of schooling but there is also the possibility that the educated younger persons are unable to find other respectable jobs in their respective areas and take up to teaching having done D.Ed. In Bhandara, the major age group of teachers is 30 to 39, the middle group. These teachers reside in the neighbouring areas and find it possible to commute to the school in the sample villages for teaching. It becomes necessary then to study their professional qualifications.

Sex composition of teachers hold a place of special significance in rural areas as it is generally considered that the presence of women teachers in the schools

helps increase attendance and retention of girls in the primary stage. Table-28 gives the distribution of teachers by sex.

Table – 28

Distribution of teachers by sex

Dist	Female	Male	Total
Akola	7	9	16
%	43.75	56.25	100
Beed	6	10	16
%	37.5	62.5	100
Bhandara	6	10	16
%	37.5	62.5	100
Grand Total	19	29	48
%	39.6	60.4	100.0

However, the trend we get to see in the sample is that the percentage of male teachers is more than that of the female teachers. In Akola district, there are 43.75 per cent female teachers as against 56.25 male teachers; in Beed district there are 37.5 female teachers as against 62.5 male teachers and in Bhandara district there are 37.5 per cent female teachers as against 62.5 per cent male teachers. There is need for creating better facilities in rural areas for women to take up teaching assignments, particularly in terms of residential arrangements. Very often, a teacher working in rural areas is the sole breadwinner of the family, as there is not much scope of employment for both male and female members of a family to be remuneratively employed. This clearly highlights the relationship between the status of economic development of the area and participation of women in the teaching profession.

b) Distribution of teachers by caste

The Indian Constitution recognizes certain backward sections of the population based on their caste affiliation or tribal origin as Scheduled Castes (SC) or Scheduled Tribes (ST). In all recruitment in the Government Sector a policy of positive discrimination is adopted in favour of these sections. Data was collected to find out the proportion of teachers belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes to others. This is important as one of the three areas selected for the study has predominantly tribal population. The distribution is given in Table – 29.

Table – 29

Distribution of teachers by caste

Caste	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
General	2	7	1	10
%	12.5	43.8	6.3	20.8
Other backward	10	5	10	25
%	62.5	31.3	62.5	52.1
SC	2	1	2	5
%	12.5	6.3	12.5	10.4
ST	2	3	3	8
%	12.5	18.8	18.8	16.7
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

Among Akola, Beed and Bhandara districts we find that 43.8 per cent teachers in the general category are found in Beed district followed by 12.5 per cent in Akola district and 6.3 per cent in Bhandara district. The percentage of OBCs is the same in Akola nad Bhandara districts at 62.5 per cent which is 31.3 per cent in Beed district. As regards Scheduled Castes, again Akola nad Bhandara districts both have a representation of 12.5 per cent SC teachers with Beed district at 6.3 per cent. There is representation of Scheduled Tribe teachers with Beed and Bhandara districts at 18.8 percent and Akola district at 12.5 per cent. The latter indicates a positive effort to employ teachers from the local tribal communities although it is ten as compared to OBCs category.

c) Parental background of teachers

The study involves schools drawn from rural areas of varying characteristics with a highly underdeveloped rural area to a comparatively priviledged one. Therefore, it was considered interesting to analyze the social background of the teachers. Specifically, three dimensions have been considered, namely :

i) place of their origin (rural or urban);

ii) occupation of the father; and

iii) educational level of the parents

It is interesting to observe that more than 75 per cent of teachers in the rural sample in all the three districts are of rural origin with only 18.8 per cent in Akola district selected area being of urban origin and 25 per cent in Beed district selected area being of urban origin. Bhandara district records all 16 teachers being of rural origin. (Table – 30)

Table – 30

Distribution of teachers by place

Place	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Rural	13	12	16	41
%	81.3	75.0	100.0	85.4
Urban	3	4		7
%	18.8	25.0	0.0	14.6
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Having analyzed the rural-urban background of the teachers, the next question we try to answer is related to the parental occupation. Information in this regard has been collected on the occupations pursued by the teachers' fathers. According, teaches have been classified broadly into five categories. The first category, namely, 'farmers' are basically 'cultivators' representing the upper socio-economic strata of the rural peasantry. 'Labour' includes teachers whose parents are 'agricultural labourers' which socio-economically represents a relatively poorer section of the rural society. 'Workers' are manual labourers and artisans who again represent a poorer section of the rural society. The services is a road category

mainly consisting of white-collar workers who hold permanent positions in the organized sector of employment. (Table – 31).

Table – 31

Occupation of father

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Dead	1		2	3
%	6.3	0.0	12.5	6.3
Farmer	5	5	7	17
%	31.3	31.3	43.8	35.4
Labour	1	2	2	5
%	6.3	12.5	12.5	10.4
Service	7	7	2	16
%	43.8	43.8	12.5	33.3
Worker	1	1	1	3
%	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.3
None	1	1	2	4
%	6.3	6.3	12.5	8.3
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

We find a variation in the parental occupation of the teachers. In Akola and Beed districts only a small section of teachers come from poor economic background as most teachers (43.8 per cent in each district) come from families of 'services'. However, in Bhandara district, the proportion of farmers (cultivators) category is more (43.8 per cent) and it is quite representative in Akola & Beed district (31.3 per cent). Agricultural labourers and manual workers from a small percentage compared to the other two categories. Again only 1 teacher each in Akola and Beed districts and 2 teachers from Bhandara district came from families where the father had no occupation.

As regards the mothers' occupation it was found that 56.3 per cent in Bhandara district, 68.8 per cent in Akola district and 75.0 per cent in Beed district were not working. There was very small representation in the other occupations which did not show any significance.

In Tables 32 and 33, the teachers from the sample areas have been distributed according to the educational levels of their fathers and mothers respectively.

Table – 32

Fathers Education

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
College	4	5	1	10
%	25.0	31.3	6.3	20.8
Dead			1	1
%	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.1

Illiterate	1	3	4	8
%	6.3	18.8	25.0	16.7
Literate		1	5	6
%	0.0	6.3	31.3	12.5
Secondary	7	2	2	11
%	43.8	12.5	12.5	22.9
Primary	4	4	3	11
%	25.0	25.0	18.8	22.9
Not replied		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

Table – 33

Mothers Education

	Akola	**Beed**	**Bhandara**	**Total**
Dead	0	0	1	1
%	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.1
Illiterate	2	11	11	24
%	12.5	68.8	68.8	50.0
Literate	2	1	2	5
%	12.5	6.3	12.5	10.4
Secondary	9	1		10
%	56.3	6.3	0.0	20.8
Primary	3	3	2	8
%	18.8	18.8	12.5	16.7
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

As regards fathers' education, Table–32 shows that in Akola district, fathers education level is quite satisfactory being indicating that the teachers come from reasonably educated families with only 1 teacher having illiterate father. In Beed district we also find almost the same condition except that 3 teachers of the 16 sampled teachers have illiterate fathers. In Bhandara district, comparatively, teachers having college educated fathers is only 6.3 per cent as against 25.0 per cent in Akola district and 31.3 per cent in Beed district. Teachers with secondary level educated fathers were 43.8 per cent in Akola district and 12.5 per cent each in Beed and Bhandara districts. The percentage of teachers with fathers educated upto the primary level was 25.0 per cent in Akola an Beed districts and 18.8 per cent in Bhandara district. Illiterate fathers were more pronounced in Bhandara district at 25.0 per cent.

As far as the educational levels of mothers are concerned we find there is a high level of illiteracy in Beed and Bhandara districts at 68.8 per cent (11 out of 16 teachers fell in this category) and 12.5 per cent in Akola district. Percentage of teachers with mothers educated upto secondary level was highest in Akola district at 56.3 per cent, 6.3 per cent in Beed district and none in Bhandara district. Those

with mothers educated upto primary level was 18.8 per cent in Akola and Beed districts and 12.5 in Bhandara district. Among the three districts, Bhandara district lags behind in female education being a backward, rural and predominantly tribal area.

d) Family Characteristics

It may be interesting to find out the specific characteristics of the personal families of the teachers. Two aspects have been examined in this connection : The type of families - nuclear or joint – in which they live and the family size in terms of the number of children they have. This reflects on their familial support system and responsibilities which tells on their performance in the classroom and time they get for preparation of lessons. Table-34 gives the distribution of the teachers according to family type.

Table – 34

Type of families

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Joint	11	10	11	32
%	68.8	62.5	68.8	66.7
Nuclear	5	6	5	16
%	31.3	37.5	31.3	33.3
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

With respect to the family type it is interesting to note that out of the sample of 16 teachers in each district, 10 and more teachers live in joint families. As for the family size as indicated by the number of children, the trend can be observed as in Table – 35.

Table – 35

Total number of children

Total children	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
		1	2	3
%	0.0	6.3	12.5	6.3
One	8	4	3	15
%	50.0	25.0	18.8	31.3
Two	4	5	8	17
%	25.0	31.3	50.0	35.4
Three		2	3	5
%	0.0	12.5	18.8	10.4
Four		2		2
%	0.0	12.5	0.0	4.2
No	4	2		6
%	25.0	12.5	0.0	12.5
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

In Akola district, the trend was a family size of one child at 50.0 per cent while in Beed and Bhandara districts the trend was of two children viz. 31.3 per cent and 50.0 per cent respectively. However, though not in Akola, in Beed district, 12.5 per cent each had three and four children too while in Bhandara district, 18.8 per cent had three children.

e) Housing conditions and personal possessions

Under what conditions do teachers live and what are their possessions at home? Do the conditions significantly differ among teachers in the different districts. There are the next set of questions examined with regard to the personal background of the teachers. These factors are important not only for understanding the relative comfort in which the teachers live but they also contribute to defining their social and economic status.

Table-36 gives information on the type of accommodation the teachers have. It is interesting to note that a fairly large proportion of teachers in the three districts possess their own houses. It is highest in Akola district (68.8 per cent) followed by Bhandara district (62.5 per cent) and Beed district (43.8 per cent). With regard to the type of construction of the houses in which the teachers are living, a very clear trend can be observed, as seen in Table-37. In Akola district most teachers have cement construction houses (62.5 per cent) with only 37.5 per cent having mud/stone construction. In Beed district, 68.8 per cent have houses with cement construction, 25.0 per cent with asbestos roofing and only 6.3 per cent having houses of mud/stone construction. In Bhandara district, a major number of teachers live in houses of mud/stone (50. per cent) with 43.8 per cent having houses with cement construction.

Table – 36

House ownership

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
OWN	11	7	10	28
%	68.8	43.8	62.5	58.3
RENT	5	9	6	20
%	31.3	56.3	37.5	41.7
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table – 37

Type of house

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
NR			1	1
%	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.1
Cement	10	11	7	28
%	62.5	68.8	43.8	58.3
Asbestos		4		4
%	0.0	25.0	0.0	8.3
Stones	6	1	8	15
%	37.5	6.3	50.0	31.3
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table-38

Facilities at Home

Water facility	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Tap water	15	7	10	32
%	93.8	43.8	62.5	66.7
Well			1	1
%	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.1
Radio	12	9	7	28
%	75.0	56.3	43.8	58.3
Table-chair	16	13	13	42
%	100.0	81.3	81.3	87.5
TV	13	14	14	41
%	81.3	87.5	87.5	85.4
Sofa	4	1	11	16
%	25.0	6.3	68.8	33.3
Electricity	15	14	16	45
%	93.8	87.5	100.0	93.8
Refrigerator	4	1	1	6
%	25.0	6.3	6.3	12.5
Latrine	13	6	12	31
%	81.3	37.5	75.0	64.6
Bathroom	16	13	14	43
%	100.0	81.3	87.5	89.6
Cycle	7	6	8	21
%	43.8	37.5	50.0	43.8
Motor	2	2	4	8
%	12.5	12.5	25.0	16.7
Scooter	2			2
%	12.5	0.0	0.0	4.2

As can be seen from Table – 38, 93.8 per cent teachers in Akola district have access to piped tap water followed by Bhandara district at 62.5 per cent and 43.8 per cent in Beed district. Only 6.3 per cent in Bhandara district have to make use of wells. All teachers have some furniture at home. Possession of a sofa seems to be a luxury in Beed district.

Most of the teachers reported that they have electricity connected. It is surprising to note, that though Bhandara district is a tribal area, they are in possession of electricity. Good lighting facility at home goes a long way in facilitating reading and preparation for the teachers. With electricity, do the teachers have access to modern mass media such as radio and TV? It is found that possession of radio is quite common but possession of a TV is more of a common feature. Although all the three districts are in a tropical zone where the mercury rises significantly during the summer months, possession of a refrigerator appears to be a real luxury for a primary school teacher. While only 6.3

per cent each in Beed and Bhandara districts have this facility, only 25 per cent in Akola district have this facility. Most of the teachers have toilet facilities and bathroom facilities. However, this may be a separate enclosure which is used for the required purpose.

Most of the teachers commute to the school by cycle, very few have possession of a motorbike and while only 12.5 per cent have a scooter in Akola district this is not to be seen in Beed and Bhandara districts.

f) Availability of reading material

To be an effective teacher, it becomes imperative to develop proper reading habits. It is not enough to read only the textbooks prescribed but it is also equally important to regularly read newspapers and other general material. How are the teachers placed in this respect?

Table – 39 gives details about this aspect.

Table – 39

Facility of reading

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Magazine	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
Textbooks			1	1
%	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.1
Magazine/Books		2		2
%	0.0	12.5	0.0	4.2
Books/Textbooks		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
Newspaper /Magazine/Books			2	2
%	0.0	0.0	12.5	4.2
Newspaper /Magazine/textbooks	1	1		2
%	6.3	6.3	0.0	4.2
Magazine/Books/Textbooks		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
Magazine/Textbooks/reference book	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
Books/Textbooks/Reference			1	1
%	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.1
Newspaper /Magazine/Books/textbook	6	4	4	14
%	37.5	25.0	25.0	29.2
Magazine/Books/Textbooks/reference books		3		3
%	0.0	18.8	0.0	6.3
All types	7	4	8	19
%	43.8	25.0	50.0	39.6
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Subscribing for magazines does not seem to be common amongst teachers except in Akola district which is very small (6.3 per cent). It is, however, possible that many others may be borrowing from school or other sources for reading. A sizeable proportion of teachers possess general reading books at home and also books related to their teaching work at school.

g) Place of residence and mode of travel to school

Another aspect examined of the personal background of teachers is the distance between workplace and residence, and how they reach the school everyday. This aspect has much significance in rural areas, for, whether the teacher lives near the school, within the village or not can be very important in influencing the school-attending behaviour of the children as well as in mobilizing community support for school activities. In Akola district, 7 teachers reported that they at a distance of more than 5Kms. away from the village in which they work while 9 teachers reported they live in the village where they work. In Beed district, 1 teacher lives at a distance of 1km. from the village, 3 at a distance of 3 to 5kms., 7 live more than 5kms. away while only 5 reside in the village. In Bhandara district, 3 teachers reside 1 km away, 2 reside at a distance of 3 to 5kms., 1 lives more than 5kms. away while a substantial number of 10 reside in the same village where they work.

Table – 40

Distance of school

Distance	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
2 km		1	3	4
%	0.0	6.3	18.8	8.3
3 to 5 km		3	2	5
%	0.0	18.8	12.5	10.4
Above 5km	7	7	1	15
%	43.8	43.8	6.3	31.3
In village	9	5	10	24
%	56.3	31.3	62.5	50.0
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

As regards commuting to the school, Table – 41 gives the details

Table – 41

How do you commute to school

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Auto	2	1		3
%	12.5	6.3	0.0	6.3
Bus	2	7	1	10
%	12.5	43.8	6.3	20.8
Cycle	1	3	3	7
%	6.3	18.8	18.8	14.6

Motor	1	2	3	6
%	6.3	12.5	18.8	12.5
Scooter	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
Walk	9	3	9	21
%	56.3	18.8	56.3	43.8
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

It can be seen that in Akola district, as most teachers reside in the village they walk to the school (56.3 per cent) and the same in the case in Bhandara district too (56.3 per cent) and the same in the case in Bhandara district too (56.3 per cent). 12.5 per cent in Akola district travel by Auto rickshaw. In Beed district, most of the teachers commute by bus (43.8 per cent) as they live more than 5kms. away while 18.8 per cent go to their workplace by bicycle and 6.3 per cent use the Auto rickshaw everyday.

6.2 Professional background of the teachers

As per the present requirement prescribed by the Government of Maharashtra, to become a primary school teacher, one has to complete Higher Secondary Certificate involving 12 years of school education followed by two years of professional training.

With respect to the highest educational qualification obtained by the teachers, we find that the situation is fairly satisfactory in all the selected areas where a sizeable number of them have completed higher secondary level involving twelve years of schooling.

As far as professional training in teaching is concerned (Table – 42) we find all 16 sample teachers in selected Akola district are D.Eds while 15 each in Beed district and Bhandara district have completed D.Ed. Only 1 teacher in Bhandara district is a B.Ed. with D.Ed.

Table – 42

Distribution of teachers by professional qualifications

Qualification	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
B.Ed, D.Ed			1	1
%	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.1
D.Ed	16	15	15	46
%	100.0	93.8	93.8	95.8
NR		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

Whether the teachers have undergone any in-service training was the next question explored. It was found that 75.0 per cent teachers in Akola district, 87.5 per cent teaches in Beed district, and 62.5 per cent teachers in Bhandara district have undergone in service training (Table – 43).

Table – 43

Do you get service training

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Yes	12	14	10	36
%	75.0	87.5	62.5	75.0
No	4	1	6	11
%	25.0	6.3	37.5	22.9
NR		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

Further exploration on the nature of the courses undergone revealed that invariably in Akola and Beed districts the reference is to the orientation given on the National Policy on Education – 1986 under the Mass Orientation of School Teachers i.e. The SMART-PT training. In Bhandara district most teaches have undergone the training of 23 days (Table – 44).

Table – 44

Which type of training

Training	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total	%
NR	5	1	6	12	25.0
Science and Maths	1		1	2	4.2
Smart P.T	6	8		14	29.2
Training of 23 days		2	7	9	18.8
DIET			1	1	2.1
Training of 28 days	3			3	6.3
Evaluation/ Psychology	1			1	2.1
Competency based curriculum		4		4	8.3
Training program		2		2	4.2
History and geography		1		1	2.1
Educational aids creation, skills development		1		1	2.1
Training of headmaster		1		1	2.1
Training for 3rd ,4th std		1		1	2.1
Maths/Science/Smart PT			1	1	2.1
Total	16	16	16	48	100.0

Apart from this, a small number of teachers (3) in Akola district have undergone the training of 28 days while 4 teachers in Beed district have undergone training on competency based curriculum. In Beed district, small number of teachers have undergone subject specific training. What is needed is a systematic programme of in-service training which can be carried out by small extension service units attached to the primary teacher- training institutes. It is important to reach out to the teaching community for in-service education. Secondly, appropriate resources must be allocated for in-service education which is too meagre as of now to make a meaningful arrangement. It is hoped that the District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) can help overcome this problem.

Distribution of teachers according to the number of years of teaching experience (Table – 45) is quite striking in terms of its similarity in the three districts. Most teachers have mean teaching experience of 5-10 years with only a small number at below 5 years.

Table – 45

Distribution of teachers by Service period

Service	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
5 years	4	3	1	8
%	25.0	18.8	6.3	16.7
6 to 10 Yrs.	5	4	4	13
%	31.3	25.0	25.0	27.1
Above 10 yrs	4	6	11	21
%	25.0	37.5	68.8	43.8
Less 5 yrs	3	3		6
%	18.8	18.8	0.0	12.5
Grand Total	**16**	**16**	**16**	**48**

a) Income levels and sources of income

In the final analysis, the relative comfort in which the teachers live, the social status they enjoy in the society or the attraction the job holds for the teacher depends on what they earn through the profession. What is the average monthly salary of the teachers included in the sample? Do teachers have any additional sources of income?

Certain interesting facts emerge from the data presented in Tables 46 and 47 regarding the monthly salary of teachers. As seen in Table-46, in Akola district 68.8 per cent teachers receive monthly salaries ranging from Rs. 5001 to Rs. 10,001 and that for Beed and Bhandara districts is 75.0 per cent and 93.8 per cent respectively. 25 per cent each in Akola and Beed districts receive monthly salary of Rs. 3000 and only 6.3 per cent each in Akola and Bhandara districts receive monthly salary of Rs.10,001 to Rs. 12,500. This seems to be quite in line with the existing Government norms. The scale of pay may vary depending on whether the teacher has completed professional training or not. Also some teachers working in larger

schools may be placed on higher scales of pay depending on the number of years of service they have completed.

Table – 46

Salary per month

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Rs. 3000	4	4		8
%	25.0	25.0	0.0	16.7
Rs. 5001-10001	11	12	15	38
%	68.8	75.0	93.8	79.2
Rs. 10001-12500	1		1	2
%	6.3	0.0	6.3	4.2
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table – 47 gives data on whether teachers try to supplement their income though other subsidiary activities. As can be seen from the table most teachers reported no additional sources of income. While 6.3 per cent to 18.8 per cent stated they had additional income of family members. 12.5 per cent (Bhandara district) and 25.0 per cent

Table – 47

Other sources of income

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Agriculture		4	2	6
%	0.0	25.0	12.5	12.5
Family members	3	1	1	5
%	18.8	6.3	6.3	10.4
Farm	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
None	12	11	13	36
%	75.0	68.8	81.3	75.0
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

(Beed district) reported supplementary income from agricultural activities though they cannot devote much time to it.

b) Job satisfaction

The teachers in the sample of 48 teachers all come from rural backgrounds and the educational as well as occupational backgrounds of their families are varied. The infrastructure of the schools they work in also differs from village to village in all the three districts. Some schools are well equipped while others are not. How do all these teachers perceive the job the are doing? Are they satisfied with the job? Are

they satisfied with the working conditions provided for them? How do they perceive their status in the society as teachers? While these are questions of personal choice of individual teachers depending on the specific circumstances in which they are placed, they significantly determine the morale of the teachers and their commitment to the work they have to do as teachers.

Table – 48

Why you selected teachers job

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Like to teach	13	13	15	41
%	81.3	81.3	93.8	85.4
Got this job only	1	1	1	3
%	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.3
Traditional job	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
Traditional job	1	1		2
%	6.3	6.3	0.0	4.2
NR		1		1
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

On average, 85.4 per cent consider that they have taken up teaching as a career as they like to teach. Some (6.3 per cent) gave the reason that they were able to only get this job. 4.2 per cent stated they look up to teaching as it is a traditional job.

Whatever the reasons for joining the teaching profession might be, teachers gave reasons for not being satisfied with the job which were varied as can be seen from Table –49.

Table – 49

Opinion of teachers regarding not satisfaction in this job

Opinions	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total	%
Less salary	3	2		5	10.4
No social prestige		1		1	2.1
No use of capacity/skills	1			1	2.1
Other Work not related to teaching	3	1	5	9	18.8
No independence		1		1	2.1
Less salary/Extra work	1			1	2.1
Less salary/Other work	1	1		2	4.2
No social prestige/Extra work	1			1	2.1
No social prestige/other work	1	1		2	4.2
No use of capacity/skills/other work		1		1	2.1
Bad conditions/Extra work			1	1	2.1

Extra work		3	2	5	10.4
Independence			2	2	4.2
No prestige/More work other than teaching/no independence			2	2	4.2
No use of capacity/skills/quality of school/other work	1			1	2.1
Bad conditions/Extra work/Other work			1	1	2.1
Extra work/other than teaching /no independence			1	1	2.1
No prestige/No skills/ condition/More work other than teaching/no independence			2	1	2.1
NR	4	5		9	18.8
Grand Total	16	16	16	48	100.0

About 18.8 per cent mentioned they were not satisfied as they are often given other work not related to teaching. Some teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the salary they drew (10.4 per cent). Another 10.4 per cent reported dissatisfaction due to other extra work. Small percentage of teachers were dissatisfied as they reported they had no prestige as teachers, no independence, they could not make use of their capacity and skills in day-to-day teaching and some reported bad teaching conditions.

Is this dissatisfaction related to the amount of salary they receive? Table- 50 gives the opinion of the teachers regarding the salary they receive.

Table – 50

Opinion about salary

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Sufficient	7	11	12	30
%	43.8	68.8	75.0	62.5
Partly sufficient	8	1	4	13
%	50.0	6.3	25.0	27.1
Less	1	4		5
%	6.3	25.0	0.0	10.4
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

Of the 48 teachers, nearly 62.5 per cent stated that the salary they received was sufficient, 27.1 per cent stated it was partly sufficient while 10.4 per cent felt it was not sufficient. While this was the overall response there were slight variations district-wise which can be seen in the Table-50. Most of the teachers who consider their incomes adequate are those receiving relatively higher salaries.

Dissatisfaction among the teachers with their job are quite personalized even though they have some relationship with the empirical aspects characterizing the conditions in which they are working. Perhaps, a reasonably good test of how many

teachers are really not satisfied with their job is, whether given a chance, they are willing to give up the teaching profession and take up a new job. Table – 51 gives details of this aspect.

Table – 51

Do you want change your job

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
No	15	15	16	46
%	93.8	93.8	100.0	95.8
Yes	1	1		2
%	6.3	6.3	0.0	4.2
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

On the whole, 95.8 per cent teachers expressed non willingness to leave the teaching profession and take up a new job and this trend was nearly the same in all the three districts. Only 4.2 per cent (6.3 per cent each in Akola and Beed districts) expressed their choice to take up a new job. This shows their relative satisfaction with teaching.

6.3 The teaching – learning process

The teaching-learning process in all primary schools transact the same set of curricular inputs. Students learning is also influenced, perhaps more significantly, by the way in which the curricular inputs are actually transacted and the conditions in which curriculum transaction takes place. The organization of classroom teaching depends on the ways in which teaching-learning activities are visualized and organized by the teachers and this reflects on the holding power of the schools. An attempt is made here to study variations in the teaching – learning process adopted by teachers across the schools in the selected districts. It is also interesting to discuss inter-relationships of teachers with classroom behaviour as well as student – learning which affects retention of students.

a) Grades and subjects taught

The first implication of the varying sizes of the school and the number of teachers is related to the grades that a teacher has to teach. Obviously, some teachers have to teach all the grades and all the subjects whereas some others would be required to teach only one or two specified grades. Needless to emphasize that this variation in the context of teaching significantly influences the

nature of the teaching – learning process demanding a high level of innovativeness and adaptability by the teachers (See Table – 52).

Table – 52

Taught for which standard

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
All standards	2	2	10	14
%	12.5	12.5	62.5	29.2
Below 4th std	4	3	3	10
%	25.0	18.8	18.8	20.8
Only 4th std	1	1		2
%	6.3	6.3	0.0	4.2
5th and 6h std	4	1		5
%	25.0	6.3	0.0	10.4
Only 7th std	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
Upto 4th std		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
Below 5th std		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
5th to 7th std	4	2	3	9
%	25.0	12.5	18.8	18.8
4th to 7th std		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
4th to 6th		3		3
%	0.0	18.8	0.0	6.3
NR		1		1
	16	16	16	48

It is clear from data given that teaching in all grades is prevalent to large extent in Bhandara district (62.5 per cent) while only 12.5 per cent teachers in both Akola and Beed districts reported the same. The number of teachers in the school is an important factor in deciding whether a teacher can teach in only one specific grade or not. Teaching in more than one grade (standards) has two implications : one, it demands greater time from the teacher in preparing for teaching and second, it requires optimizing the teacher / pupil interaction among students of different grades for which the teacher has to be more innovative. These factors do not seem to be effectively taken care of in preparing the teachers and recruiting them to work in such schools where more than one grade is taught with the students of different grades sitting together is the normal phenomenon.

The question of teaching more than one grade takes a new dimension where specialist teachers are employed who have to teach only one subject, say Marathi or Mathematics. Obviously, this is possible only if the school has more than five teachers. Data collected in this regard reveal that specialized teaching of this kind is not common and is found only in urban schools (Table – 53). Overall, in all three districts, 72.9 per cent teachers (68.8 per cent in Akola district, 50.0 per cent in Beed

district and 100.0 per cent in Bhandara district) teach all subjects. Small percentages in Akola and Beed districts teach single subjects like only Marathi, Mathematics, English or Hindi as can be seen from Table – 53.

Table – 53

Teaching Subjects

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Only Marathi	1	4		5
%	6.3	25.0	0.0	10.4
Only Maths	3	1		4
%	18.8	6.3	0.0	8.3
Only English	1	1		2
%	6.3	6.3	0.0	4.2
All subjects	11	8	16	35
%	68.8	50.0	100.0	72.9
Marathi/Maths/English		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
HINDI	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
Total	16	16	16	48

Although headmasters and teachers indicated almost unanimously that there should be specialization of teachers in work allocation, this does not appear to be in line with the existing policy of teacher allocation as well as teacher preparation. As per the existing practice, teachers are trained to teach all subjects since at the basic education stage, contents of different subjects are interrelated and being very elementary in nature they do not require specialization.

b) Class size

Total enrolment as well as number of teachers in the schools in the selected districts vary considerably. The actual size of the class also varies and is not quite uniform. Table-54 gives the distribution according to class size.

Table – 54

Strength of class

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
21 TO 30		3	2	5
%	0.0	18.8	12.5	10.4
31 TO 40	7	7	7	21
%	43.8	43.8	43.8	43.8
41 to 50	8	1	4	13
%	50.0	6.3	25.0	27.1
Above 50	1	5	3	9
%	6.3	31.3	18.8	18.8
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

In Akola district, the average class size is 41 to 50 students (50.0 per cent response) while 43.8 per cent in each district stated the average class size is 31 to 40 students. In Bhandara district, 25.0 per cent responded that the average class size was also 41 to 50 students.

Where the children were more than 31, the teachers considered that the size of their classes is too large for effective teaching – learning to take place. This restricts the teachers from giving individual attention or greater attention to the relatively slow learners which results in non-attendance leading to absenteeism and later dropping out. In many cases, although children do drop out, they are kept on the attendance roll on request by parents who do not want to lose out on the distribution of rice to children in the schools under the Mid-day Meal Scheme. Hence, it is difficult to assess actual dropout children in the village schools.

c) Workload

How many hours per day does a primary school teacher teach in the classroom? This is an important indicator of the average workload of the teacher and also of, in an indirect way, the length of the instructional hours in the school. Tables 55 and 56 give some interesting information on this dimension. About 93.8 per cent teachers (93.8 per cent in Akola district, 100.0 per cent in Beed district and 87.5 per cent in Bhandara district) have mentioned that they spend more than 6 hours a day in classroom teaching. This seems to be in accordance with the norms prescribed by the government. Only 6.3 per cent in Akola district spend 4 hours in teaching and 12.5 per cent in Bhandara district teach for only 3 hours. About 80 per cent of the teachers consider their workload is quite appropriate. Teachers who consider that they are overburdened with classroom teaching (20 per cent) are spread all over the three districts and no specific trend can be observed.

Table – 55

Daily Hrs of Teaching

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
3 Hours			2	2
%	0.0	0.0	12.5	4.2
4 Hours	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
Above 6 Hours	15	16	14	45
%	93.8	100.0	87.5	93.8
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

An interigueing question is that how can such wide variations exist in the hours of classroom work a teacher has to do in different schools and districts. One may possibly expect that in multi-grade schools in some of the rural areas, organization of teaching work cannot be so rigidly done and therefore some variations are likely to exist. A closer scrutiny of the data on various dimensions reveals an interesting feature regarding the relationship between hours of daily teaching work and the number of shifts the schools work.

Table – 56

Timings of school

Responses	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
One shift	15	10	15	40
%	93.8	62.5	93.8	83.3
Two shift	1	6	1	8
%	6.3	37.5	6.3	16.7
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

From the data given in Table–56 it appears that teachers in double-shift schools are required to work for much shorter periods every day as compared to their counter-parts in single-shift schools. Does this imply that the average number of instructional hours in double-shift schools is also lower? While this can be a matter of serious concern, it needs further evidence to make any conclusive remark on this issue. Another aspect to this is that, it is generally seen in the rural areas, where teachers do not reside in the village but commute to and fro from neighbouring villages, they often arrive late and leave early too. This could affect their teaching hours.

d) Classroom conditions

We have earlier described the general status of the schools with respect to physical and academic infrastructure available. Since the schools vary in terms of number of teachers and availability of separate classrooms, more specific information has been collected regarding the availability of physical and academic infrastructure facilities in the classes. The information collected on this aspect has been classes with respect to three different dimensions, namely, facilities available to the teacher for organizing the classroom teaching effectively, facilities available to the students in the classroom and general academic inputs available such as teaching aids and textbooks.

Certain minimum facilities are essential in the classroom for the teacher to effectively carry out instructional activities. Table – 57 gives the distribution of facilities available in the schools for teachers.

Table – 57

Facilities available at school (for teacher)

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Blackboard,Duster,chalk	1			1
%	6.3	0.0	0.0	2.1
Blackboard,table,Chair,Maps,charts,duster,chalk		2	1	3
%	0.0	12.5	6.3	6.3
Blackboard,Table,Chair,charts,duster,chalk			1	1
%	0.0	0.0	6.3	2.1

Blackboard,Chair,charts,duster,chalk		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
Blackboard,Table,Chair,charts,duster,chalk		2	8	10
%	0.0	12.5	50.0	20.8
ALL	15	11	6	32
%	93.8	68.8	37.5	66.7
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

We find that while 93.8 per cent in Akola district found all required items available for them in schools, the response was only 37.5 per cent in Bhandara district with Beed district at 68.8 per cent. Visits to the rural schools classrooms revealed that in some classrooms, the backboards being used by the teachers are broken and hardly usable; or some of them are in such a state of disrepair that what is written on them is barely readable even to adults; the table or chair meant for the teacher is used as the support for keeping the backboard up; some waste cloth mobilized by the teacher or one of the students is used as the cluster; some teachers even mentioned that they have to spend on purchase of chalk and other stationery items necessary for the school.

Efforts were made under 'Operation Blackboard' launched as a follow-up of the National Policy on Education, 1986. But the coverage under the programme is yet small in comparison to the magnitude of the problem. Inadequate facilities affect the quality of the teaching-learning process.

What is the status of other infrastructure facilities in the classrooms which are necessary for the students to sit and learn comfortably. Table-58 gives details of this aspect.

Table – 58

Facilities available at school (for student)

	Akola	**Beed**	**Bhandara**	**Total**	**%**
Light	1	1		2	4.17
Pattya, light		1		1	2.08
Pattya, sufficient place		1		1	2.08
Electricity, fan			1	1	2.08
Pattya, Electricity, light		1	1	2	4.17
Pattya, ventilation, light		3		3	6.25
Pattya, light, Sufficient place	1	2	2	5	10.42
Ventilation, light, Sufficient place		1		1	2.08
Benches, Pattya, light, Sufficient place			2	2	4.17
Pattya, Electricity, Fan, light	2	1		3	6.25
Pattya, Electricity, light, sufficient place	3	2	1	6	12.50
Pattya, ventilation, light, sufficient place		2	3	5	10.42
Chair, Pattya,ventilation,light,sufficient place	1			1	2.08
Pattya, Electricity, Fan, light, sufficient place	3			3	6.25

Pattya, Electricity, Ventilation, light, sufficient place			2	2	4.17
Benches, Chair, Pattya, ventilation, light, sufficient place		1		1	2.08
Benches, Pattya, Electricity, Fan, Ventilation, light			1	1	2.08
Benches, Pattya, Electricity, Fan, light, place			1	1	2.08
Chair, Pattya, Electricity, light, sufficient place			1	1	2.08
Pattya, Electricity, light, sufficient place	4			4	8.33
ALL	1		1	2	4.17
Grand Total	16	16	16	48	100.00

Table–58 shows responses on this aspect is varied. Observations show that a large proportion of the classes in rural areas are conducted in rooms without proper ventilation and adequate lighting and space for all the children to sit. Classes having multigrade teaching add to the complexity of the setting. Even where the school has a building the number of classrooms are inadequate, they are invariably small without any furniture and constructed with little imagination to provide for the comfort of the children who have to sit and study in them. It is very common to come across in rural schools children squatting on the floor while learning. Very few of the classrooms even have mats to sit on. Even where mats or benches are available, the number may not be adequate for all the children. It is common to find classrooms where some older children are sitting on one or two benches in the back rows with others squatting on the base floor. Only 6.25 schools reported having fan with other facilities and these schools were from Akola district.

e) Academic resources

Apart form the data presented above, information has been collected from the teachers on the availability of two basic academic inputs, namely, teaching aids and equipment for the teacher and textbooks for all children. Table–59 gives details regarding teaching aids.

Table – 59

Availability of teaching aids

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Well equipped	6	5	4	15
%	37.5	31.3	25.0	31.3
Partially	10	9	12	31
%	62.5	56.3	75.0	64.6
Barely equipped		2		2
%	0.0	12.5	0.0	4.2
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

It can be seen that on average, 64.6 per cent schools of the three districts are partially equipped with teaching aids and 31.3 per cent schools are well-equipped. Personal observations by the researcher on the status of the use of existing teaching aids and equipment have been quite revealing. It is found that in the rural schools where standard kits have been supplied for teaching science and mathematics teachers do not use them at all. Teachers generally give three arguments for the non- use of these materials. *First* and perhaps the main reason given is that they have *received no training in the use* of the content of the kits. The *second* reason is that they are afraid that they would *have problem replacing the items such as test tubes* in the event of their breaking while in use. *Thirdly,* they feel that it does not help much as there is *no arrangement for replacing the consumables such as dry cells and chemicals*. Also, one finds that the classrooms are hardly suited to store and utilize the aids and equipment supplied through these kits. One should remember that most of the teachers themselves are *not likely* to have used any learning aids or equipment in their school learning or during their professional training. Perhaps, the whole approach of providing such kits to rural schools without accompanying training and facilities for storing and using them in the classroom needs to be reconsidered.

Table – 60

Availability of textbooks with students

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
All students	11	13	10	34
%	68.8	81.3	62.5	70.8
Most students	5	2	6	13
%	31.3	12.5	37.5	27.1
Some of them		1		1
%	0.0	6.3	0.0	2.1
Grand Total	16	16	16	48

From the data given in Table–60 one finds that 70.8 per cent students have textbooks with them.

f) Preparation for teaching

We discussed earlier the workload of teachers in terms of actual hours of classroom teaching they are required to do. But, a teacher's job does not begin only on entering the classroom. A teacher is also required to plan the teaching learning activities in advance and prepare himself / herself for executing them effectively according to plan. This has in impact on classroom activity and the teaching – learning process in turn results in arousal of interest of the children in the learning process.

It is generally expected that every teacher prepares a monthly plan in a specially supplied book indicating the lessons to be taught, concepts to be covered, methods to be adopted and so on. Such monthly plans prepared by the teacher are submitted to the headmaster for scrutiny. Does this really take place? According to

the teachers responses all prepare monthly and daily plan for teaching and classroom teaching. 85.4 per cent teachers reported they prepare the plans regularly.

Table – 61 (a)

Preparation and monthly plan for teaching

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total	%
Yes	16	16	16	48	100
Grand Total	16	16	16	48	100

Table – 61 (b)

Preparation for daily classroom teaching

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total	%
Yes	16	16	16	48	100
Grand Total	16	16	16	48	100

Table – 61 (c)

How

	Akola	Beed	Bhandara	Total
Regularly	15	14	12	41
%	93.8	87.5	75.0	85.4
Sometimes		2		2
%	0.0	12.5	0.0	4.2
NR	1		4	5
%	6.3	0.0	25.0	10.4
Grand Total	16	16	16	48
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

g) Absenteeism of boys and girls

Absenteeism in a well-known problem which has a disastrous consequence for continuation, repetition and dropout. An attempt was made to understand the factors that result in absenteeism from the teachers. Details are given in Table – 62.

Table – 62

Reasons of Absenteeism

Reasons	Boys	%	Girls	%
Illness	22	45.8	20	41.7
No family support	19	39.6	25	52.1
Parents negligence	27	56.3	29	60.4
Housework / other work	0	0.0	30	62.5
Irregular / no discipline	9	18.8	3	6.3
No awareness	12	25.0	11	22.9

Parents behaviour – not responsible	25	52.1	26	54.2
Health problems	12	25.0	16	33.3
Long distance	1	2.1	3	6.3
No interest	5	10.4	3	6.3
Casteism	0	0.0	1	2.1
Boys / girls quarrels	0	0.0	2	4.2
Failure	4	8.3	4	8.3
Early marriages	0	0.0	8	16.7
Repeat classes	4	8.3		0.0

One notes that the reasons are varied for both boys and girls. For the sub-set of boys, the main reason given in all the districts was parents' negligence (56.3 per cent) and irresponsibility (52.1 per cent), illness (45.8 per cent), no family support (39.6 per cent) and lack of awareness (25.0 per cent). Failure (8 per cent) and repetition of classes (8.3 per cent) were also reasons given. 10.4 per cent teachers reported lack of interest as a cause for absenteeism.

For the subset of girls, helping parents is more frequently invoked (62.5 per cent) which is absent for boys. 60.4 per cent reported parental negligence and irresponsibility (54.2 per cent), 52.1 per cent lack of parental support, 41.7 per cent reported illness, 33.3 per cent health problems, and 22.9 per cent lack of awareness. 16.7 per cent teachers reported early marriages among girls.

Regular absenteeism leads to repetition which plays an important role in the decision to drop out and this is particularly the phenomenon in the case of girls.

Further inquest shows that absenteeism amongst girls is slightly higher but not so high as to lose out on the benefits of the government as to lose out on the benefits of the government schemes. Dropping out from school begins after standard IV. In the case of the poor in rural areas, their children enter the school at an early age of six or seven (when they are more of a nuisance than a help at home) and leave school as soon as they are grown up, say of nine years of more (to begin work in or outside the family). The girl child starts helping in the household work and taking care of the siblings, grazing cattle outside in the fields, etc. Also, the central scheme of rice distribution is only up to the V standard. Similarly, the attendance allowance for the girls child is only up to the IV standard so the need to supplement the household income contributes to the dropout rate form standard IV. This is also the age of puberty for the girls which compels their parents to arrange marriage of the child. Teachers responded that about 48 per cent of the girls drop out of school from the V standard onwards. Upto the primary stage, the dropout problem is not significant in the selected village schools. (A major infrastructural reason for absenteeism of girls and lady teachers is lack of proper drinking water and toilet facilities in the school).

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◈ **CHAPTER – 7**

The Parents and Drop Out Children

A) The parents profile of parents give us an idea about the living conditions and home situation in which the child is placed.

1) Sex

For the study 11.0 per cent of the parents are female while 89.0 per cent are male (Table 63).

Table – 63

Sex-wise distribution of Parents

	DISTRICT			
Sex	**Akola**	**Beed**	**Bhandara**	**Total**
Female	6	6	13	25
%	8.3	7.8	16.7	11.0
Male	66	71	65	202
%	91.7	92.2	83.3	89.0
Grand Total	72	77	78	227

Although socialization and decisions regarding children, especially girls' education is the responsibility of the mother, in the patriarchal, male-dominated society of the districts the fathers have the main say regarding sending children to school even the girls.

2) Religion

Table-64 gives religion-wise distribution of the family. We find the sample is predominantly Hindu (89.0 per cent) with 5.3 per cent Muslim and 5.7 per cent Navabaudha families.

Table – 64

Religion-wise distribution

	Akola	**%**	**Beed**	**%**	**Bhandara**	**%**	**Total**	**%**
Hindu	58	80.6	66	85.7	78	100	202	89
Muslim	2	2.8	10	13		0	12	5.3
Navbaudha	12	16.7	1	1.3		0	13	5.7
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

3) Caste-wise distribution

Table-65 gives caste-wise distribution. It is found that a majority belong to OBC (37.4 per cent), 24.2 per cent are ST, 11.9 per cent each are general and SC, 5.3 per cent are Muslim with 9.3 per cent no response.

Table – 65

Caste-wise Distribution

	DISTRICT			
Caste	**Akola**	**Beed**	**Bhandara**	**Total**
General	7	20		27
%	9.7	26.0	0.0	11.9
Muslim	2	10		12
%	2.8	13.0	0.0	5.3
Other Backward	15	19	51	85
%	20.8	24.7	65.4	37.4
SC	16	3	8	27
%	22.2	3.9	10.3	11.9
ST	25	25	5	25
%	34.7	32.5	6.4	24.2
NR	7		14	21
%	9.7	0.0	17.9	9.3
Grand Total	72	77	78	227
%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The parents stated that caste had no role to play in the drop out of children in primary school.

4) Educational Status

Tables 66 and 67 below give the educational background of the father and mother respectively.

Table – 66

Educational Background of Father

	Akola	**%**	**Beed**	**%**	**Bhandara**	**%**	**Total**	**%**
Illiterate	31	43.1	39	50.6	40	51.3	110	48.5
Literate	11	15.3	11	14.3	10	12.8	32	14.1
4^{th}	21	29.2	8	10.4	8	10.3	37	16.3
7^{th}	4	5.6	9	11.7	10	12.8	23	10.1
S.S.C	4	5.6	5	6.5	2	2.6	11	4.8
College		0		0	1	1.3	1	0.4
Dead	1	1.4	3	3.9	5	6.4	9	4
NR		0	2	0.26	2	2.6	4	1.8
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

Table – 67

Educational Background of Mother

	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
Illiterate	50	69.4	69	89.6	66	84.6	185	81.5
Literate	6	8.3	4	5.2	2	2.6	12	5.3
4^{th}	7	9.7	2	2.6	5	6.4	14	6.2
7^{th}	5	6.9	1	1.3		0	6	2.6
S.S.C	2	2.8	1	1.3	1	1.3	4	1.8
Dead		0		0	3	3.8	3	1.3
NR	2	2.8		0	1	1.3	3	1.3
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

It is revealed that while 48.5 per cent fathers were illiterate, 81.5 per cent mothers were illiterate. Of the remaining 14.1 per cent are literate, 16.3 per cent are educated upto class IV, 10.1 per cent are educated upto class VII, with only 4.8 per cent having passed SSC of the remaining, only 5.3 per cent mothers are literate, 6.2 per cent educated upto class IV, 2.6 per cent educated upto class VII, 1.8 per cent having passed SSC. Consequently, the children are either not encouraged to take education seriously or unfavourable family conditions result in disturbances in the children's education or poor performance on the part of the children who after dropping out of the V standard lapse into illiteracy.

5) Occupation

Tables 68 and 69 give details of the occupation of the parents.

Table – 68

Occupation of Father

Occupation	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
Labour	43	59.7	42	54.5	34	43.6	119	52.4
Farmer	19	26.4	24	31.2	20	25.6	63	27.8
Worker		0	1	1.3	9	11.5	10	4.4
Fishing		0		0	7	9	7	3.1
Dead	1	1.4	3	3.9	2	2.6	6	2.6
Skill worker	4	5.6		0		0	4	1.8
Driver		0	3	3.9		0	3	1.3
Service	2	2.8	1	1.3		0	3	1.3
Business		0		0	1	1.3	1	0.4
Goat rearing		0		0	1	1.3	1	0.4
Other	1	1.4	3	3.9	4	5.1	9	4
Not response	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

Table – 69

Occupation Mother

Occupation	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
Business		0		0	1	1.3	1	0.4
Dead	1	1.4		0	2	2.6	3	1.3
Farmer	18	25	10	13	18	23.1	46	20.3
Fishing		0		0	1	1.3	1	0.4
Household	5	6.9	6	7.8	3	3.8	14	6.2
Labour	44	61.1	58	75.3	47	60.3	149	65.6
Skill worker	3	4.2		0		0	3	1.3
Worker		0		0	4	5.1	4	1.8
Not responded	1	1.4	3	3.9	2	2.6	6	2.6
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

Table-68 reveals that 52.4 per cent fathers are agricultural labourers with only 27.8 per cent as farmers, 4.4 per cent workers, 3.1 per cent engaged in fishing (mainly in Bhandara district), 1.3 per cent in service.

As regards the mothers, again 65.6 per cent are engaged as agricultural labourers, with 20.3 per cent doing farming, 6.2 per cent working as hose maids, 1.8 per cent as workers these rural areas are still under the influence of traditional customs and norms. Economic poverty is the bottom-line of absenteeism of girls later resulting in dropping out of school after IV standard and lapsing permanently into illiteracy, bringing to naught the investments made in formal education for the girls.

6) Land ownership

Table-70 (a) gives the distribution by land ownership.

Table – 70 (a)

Land Ownership

	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
NR	4	5.6	2	2.6		0	6	2.6
Open space	49	68.1	53	68.8	74	94.9	176	77.5
Temporary	19	26.4	22	28.6	4	5.1	45	19.8
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

Only 42.7 per cent responded that they own land. Of those who own land must have 1 to 2 acres of land (11.5 per cent) and 10.1 per cent have more than 4 acres of land. (Table 70-b).

Table – 70 (b)

Area of own land

	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
<1 acre	2	2.8	6	7.8	15	19.2	23	10.1
1 to 2 acres	5	6.9	14	18.2	7	9	26	11.5
2 to 3 acres	2	2.8	11	14.3	3	3.8	16	7
3 to 4 acres	1	1.4	4	5.2	4	5.1	9	4
> 4 acres	9	12.5	13	16.9	1	1.3	23	10.1
NO	52	72.2	29	37.7	48	61.5	129	56.8
NR	1	1.4		0		0	1	0.4
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

Of the land owned 55.7 per cent stated the land was under cultivation (Table-70 (c)).

Table – 70 (c)

Whether land is under cultivation

	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
NO	2	10	37	78.7	1	3.3	40	41.2
NR	1	5	2	4.3	0	0	3	3.1
YES	17	85	8	17	29	96.7	54	55.7
Grand Total	20	100	47	100	30	100	97	100

7) Income

It is seen from Table – 71 (a) that 35.2 per cent of the parents have an annual income between Rs. 4001-8000, 26.4 per cent are in the income group less than Rs. 4000, 19.4 per cent have an income from Rs. 6001-13,000, 13.7 per cent have an income group above Rs. 20,000.

Table – 71 (a)

Income of Family

Income	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
Less than 4000	5	6.9	24	31.2	31	39.7	60	26.4
4001-6000	9	12.58	25	32.5	46	59	80	35.2
6001-13000	23	31.9	20	26	1	1.3	44	19.4
13001-19000	24	33.3	7	9.1		0	31	13.7
>20000	11	15.3	1	1.3		0	12	5.3
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

Table – 71 (b) reveals that 37.9 per cent have income form other sources and 49.3 per cent did not respond.

Table – 71(b)

Do you have any other income

	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
NR	51	70.8	29	37.7	32	41.0	112	49.3
NO	7	9.7	12	15.6	10	12.8	29	12.8
YES	14	19.4	36	46.8	36	46.2	86	37.9
Grand Total	72	100.0	77	100.0	78	100	227	100.0

Income from agriculture as seen in Table-71 (c) is varied with 39.2 per cent getting more than Rs. 5000, 22.7 per cent have an income Rs. 1000-2000, 16.5 per cent get between Rs. 4001-5000, 8.2 per cent Rs. 2001-3000 and 3.1 per cent Rs. 3001-4000.

Table – 71 (c)

Income from Agriculture

Income	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
<1000		0		0	5	16.7	5	5.2
1000-2000		0	8	17	14	46.7	22	22.7
2001-3000		0	5	10.6	3	10	8	8.2
3001-4000		0	2	4.3	1	3.3	3	1.1
4001-5000	2	10	11	23.4	3	10	16	16.5
>5000	17	85	21	44.7		0	38	39.2
NR	1	5	0	0	4	13.3	5	5.2
Grand Total	20	100	47	100	30	100	97	100

Majority of the parents as seen from the earlier Tables are working as agricultural labourers and consider their income as marginal. The economic conditions of the parents would be the most significant factor in girls pursuing education or dropping out of the school. The monetary benefit derived from the government schemes is the most important factor for girls, especially of the tribal community to attend schools upto IV or V standard. Once the benefits cease after these standards, the girls are grown-up for outside employment in the fields as agricultural labourers, for livestock grazing and rearing, etc.

8) Family Size

The analysis of the size of the family reveals that 44 per cent have upto four children, 45 per cent of the parents have children between 5 and 7, and 11 per cent have eight and above children. The economy of the rural areas being agricultural, more number of hands are necessary for the cultivation of lands and assistance and hence the large number of children. The level of malnutrition in the rural areas, and more so, in the tribal tracts is so low that the children suffer from ill-health. This

increases the infant mortality rate and child death rate, thus contributing to a high birth rate. An average rural family also prefers son s for support in their old age which also contributes to a bigger family size.

9) Education of Children

Data in Table-72 (a) describes the distribution of the girl child.

Table – 72 (a)

Details of Girls Child going to School

Female child in age-group 6-14	Number of girls	Percentage
One female child in school	64	28.4
Two female children in school	32	14.2
Three female children	9	4.0
Four female children	2	0.9
Not going to school	118	52.4

It is clear from the data presented regarding the female children that not all the girls in the age-group 6-14 are not going to school. In the case of the one female child in the school-going age-group 6-14, 64 girls or 28.4 per cent are going to school. In case of two girls child, 32 girls or 14.2 per cent are going to school. In case of the three girls children 9 or 4.0 per cent are school going age girls. In case of the four girl children only 2 girls or 0.9 per cent are going to school. One explanation for the discrepancy in the school-going age girls could be that the girls have dropped out after the IV or V standard after having attained puberty.

Table – 72 (b)

Number of School-going Boys (of 6 to 14 years)

Number of school going boys	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Families without school going boys	108	47.58
Families with one school going boy	81	35.68
Families with two school going boys	33	14.54
Families with three school going boys	4	1.76
Families with four school going boys	1	0.44

It is seen from the data presented in Table – 72 (b) that there is no discrepancy between the number of boys in the school-going age-group (6-14) and those in this age-group actually going to school.

10) Environment for Studies at home

It was further explored whether the parents are providing the necessary environment to their children for studies at home or not. Firstly, the type of house and number of rooms in the household reveals (Tables – 73 (a) to 73 (e)) that 56.8 per cent parents live in mud houses with 42.7 per cent having only single room

space and 38.3 per cent having two-room space. Only 14.5 per cent have three-room space but the rooms are often used for storing and living purposes.

Table – 73 (a)

Type of House

House	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
Mud	35	48.6	24	31.2	70	89.7	129	56.8
Patra	3	4.2	43	55.8		0	46	20.3
Zopdi	28	38.9	5	6.5	5	6.4	38	16.7
Cement	4	5.6	5	6.5	3	3.8	12	5.3
No house	1	1.4		0		0	1	0.4
NR	1	1.4		0		0	1	0.4
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

Table – 73 (b)

Number of Rooms in HH

Rooms	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
1	46	63.9	41	53.2	10	12.8	97	42.7
2	17	23.6	31	40.3	39	50	87	38.3
3	3	4.2	4	5.2	26	33.3	33	14.5
4	1	1.4		0	3	3.8	4	1.8
NR	5	6.9	1	1.3		0	8	3.5
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

Table – 73 (c)

Toilet-facility-Yes/No

	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
NO	70	97.2	77	100.0	77	98.7	223	98.2
NR	1	1.4		0.0	1	1.3	2	0.9
YES	1	1.4		0.0		0.0	1	0.4
Grand Total	72	100.0	77	100.0	78	100.0	227	100.0

Table – 73 (d)

Bathroom-facility-Yes / No

	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
NO	68	94.4	75	97.4	78	100.0	221	97.4
YES	4	5.6	2	2.6		0.0	6	2.6
Grand Total	72	100	77	100.0	78	100.0	227	100.0

Table – 73 (e)

If bathroom facility not available

	Akola	%	Beed	%	Bhandara	%	Total	%
NR	4	5.6	2	2.6		0	6	2.6
Open space	49	68.1	53	68.8	74	94.9	176	77.5
Temporary	19	26.4	22	28.6	4	5.1	45	19.8
Grand Total	72	100	77	100	78	100	227	100

98.2 per cent parents reported having no toilet facility and 97.4 per cent reported having no bathroom facility. Of these parents, 77.5 per cent stated they use open space for defaecation and 19.8 per cent made temporary arrangement for bathing purpose.

As regards facilities at home for children 76.7 per cent parents responded that they did not have basic necessities for children like furniture, radio or T.V. Only 12.3 per cent stated they had *'Satranji'* (light carpets) in their homes.

The survey reveals that 77 per cent of the parents are providing the necessary environment for the study of their children. Among these, 42 per cent make their children sit for studies, 32 per cent arrange for out-of-school help in their studies and 6 per cent of the parents stated they create a proper atmosphere for studies and positive attitude towards education at home. However, 20 per cent of the parents have expressed their inability to provide the necessary environment due to various reasons.

Of these, 16 per cent of the parents said it is because they have to send their children to work in the fields because of their economic condition; 12 per cent of the parents pointed out that they could not supervise their children's studies for lack of time and there was no space to sit down for studies undisturbed or even electricity to study after sunset. 5 per cent of the parents pointed out that they were not aware of the government facilities.

11) School Attendance and Drop out

The survey sought to find the reasons for children of school-going age not going to school.

A majority (75 per cent) of the parents did not respond to this question. Not wanting to respond to the question relating to the absenteeism of their children could also be due to the anxiety of not wanting to loose out on the benefits of government schemes which have the conditionality of attendance attached to them. The reasons given for the children not going to school related to underage (13 per cent), economic conditions (8 per cent), caring for siblings, household work, outside work and health problems (4 per cent).

Further, when the reasons for not sending their daughters to school were asked form the parents, as many as 49 per cent gave no response. Of the remaining, 18 per cent gave their economic condition as the reason for not sending their daughters to school (mostly upper primary school, because there is no problem in sending the girls to standards I – IV). A total of 84 per cent of the parents have an annual income upto Rs. 11,000. Since there are no government schemes involving monetary benefit or food distribution after standard V and the girls are of an age when they can work outside in the fields, etc., they are not sent to school. Similarly, 15 per cent of the parents gave the reason of dowry and marriage or failure in the class as a reason for to sending their daughter to the school. Mostly, girls join the school late, at the age of seven and above, and if they attain puberty during primary schooling due to loss of years through failure in any standard, they are withdrawn from school and married off. About 18 per cent of the parents do not send their girls to school because they are not aware of the importance of education for there

daughter and feel that since she would anyway be doing housework all her life she should do it now itself rather than going to school.

Regarding enrolment of all children in primary school, it was found that 92 per cent of the parents get their children educated at least upto the primary schooling level. A minority of 8 per cent has problems in doing so, which most of the times is because of their poverty.

As regards not enrolling or educating all children in primary school, it is seen from the data that 89 per cent of the parents did not respond since there is hundred per cent enrolment of their children in the school. Five per cent of the parents did not enroll their children because they were under-age. The perception of underage varies in the rural areas. Officially, the age for enrolment may be six but if the child is weak and sickly, which is quite a few times the case, parents give reasons of underage. Four per cent of the parents cited the reason of economic condition which is valid for beyond the IV Standard when the child will be employable. A meagre 2 per cent did give the reason of agricultural work for not completing of primary schooling by their child.

Further, the parents were asked whether their children had dropped out of primary school. Of these, 85 per cent of the parents have pointed out that their children have not dropped out of primary school and only 13 per cent have agreed to their children having dropped out of the school. However, this process of dropping out begins after the IV or V Standard.

When the reasons for the dropping out of the children from primary school were asked, 56.17 per cent parents did not respond. The major reasons as regards drop out of girls, 32 per cent stated that there was no encouragement given at school, insufficient educational / teaching aids and helplessness of the girls in pursuing their studies. Of the remaining, 2.79 per cent stated compulsion of school uniforms made it difficult to send the girls to school, 2.20 per cent gave the reason of migration, 3.08 per cent stated long distance of the school, 1.12 per cent stated bad health, 2.64 per cent stated early marriage.

As regards drop out boys, 61.23 per cent parents did not respond. Of the remaining, 24.57 per cent stated there was no encouragement from the school and children felt helpless at studies, 12.20 per cent stated they could not afford school expenses and 2.00 per cent gave the reason of migration.

As regards attending parent – teacher meetings, only 27.31 per cent parents attend the PTA meetings whereas 72.69 per cent do not attend the PTAs.

58.7 per cent parents stated teachers complain about the non-attendance, incomplete homework / not doing homework and lack of attention in the classroom during school hours whereas 47.3 per cent state teachers do not complain about their children. 93.83 per cent parents felt the need for educating their children, both boys and to a certain extent girls so that they can continue studying after primary school while 6.17 per cent felt negatively.

The investigations in this chapter are based on the realization that, to enrol children in school, it is no longer sufficient to just provide the necessary, that is to say, to construct schools and employ teachers. Many parents do not send or do not

keep their children in school, even when the school is on their door-step. Parents' willingness and ability to school their sons and, especially, their daughters cannot be taken for granted.

B) Drop out children

The study also included interaction with a sample of 240 drop out children in the three districts selected for the study.

1) Age and Sex distribution

Table – 74 gives details of the age and sex distribution of the sample drop out.

Table – 74

Age and Sex distribution of sample drop out

	Sex		
Age	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Grand Total**
6	1	1	2
%	0.6	1.7	0.8
7	3		3
%	1.9	0.0	1.3
8	2		2
%	1.3	0.0	0.8
9		1	1
%	0.0	1.7	0.4
10	4	3	7
%	2.5	5.2	2.9
11	2	2	4
%	1.3	3.4	1.7
12	14	8	22
%	8.9	13.8	9.2
13	14	9	23
%	8.9	15.5	9.6
14	26	14	40
%	16.5	24.1	16.7
15	29	17	46
%	18.4	29.3	19.2
16	19	11	30
%	12.0	19.0	12.5
17	16	9	25
%	10.1	15.5	10.4
18	12	2	14
%	7.6	3.4	5.8
19	8	2	10
%	5.1	3.4	4.2
20	2	1	3
%	1.3	1.7	1.3
21	2		2
%	1.3	0.0	0.8
23	1		1
NR	3	2	5
Grand Total	158	82	240

The ages of the drop outs ranged form 6 to 23 years of which 158 were female and 82 were male. The older age-group drop outs were considered for the study to understand why they left school after primary level of schooling.

2) Reasons for not going to school

Table – 75

Distribution of reasons for not going to school

Reasons	FEMALE	MALE	AKOLA	FEMALE	MALE	BEED	FEMALE	MALE	BHANDARA	Total	categories	%
Progress -not good	1	1	2	3	0	3	3	1	4	9	Academic	**3.8**
Cannot read (no progress)	1	1	2	2	0	2	7	8	15	19	Academic	**7.9**
Failed	3	2	5	0	1	1	1	0	1	7	Academic	**2.9**
Academic	**5**	**4**	**9**	**5**	**1**	**6**	**11**	**9**	**20**	**35**	**Academic**	**14.6**
No interest in studies	**2**	**3**	**5**	**6**	**5**	**11**	**14**	**23**	**37**	**53**	**Disinterest**	**22.1**
Economical condition –poor	35	15	50	32	15	45	19	9	28	125	Economical	**52.1**
Working/Earning money	9	4	13	31	10	41	4	11	15	70	Economical	**29.2**
No educational aids	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	2	4	Economical	**1.7**
Economical	**45**	**19**	**64**	**64**	**25**	**87**	**24**	**21**	**45**	**199**	**Economical**	**82.9**
Long Distance	9	0	9	0	0	0	1	0	1	10	Facility	**4.2**
Far away	2		2							2	Facility	**0.8**
School -primary (further education not available)				1		1				1	Facility	**0.4**
Facility	**11**	**0**	**11**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**13**	**Facility**	**5.4**
Migration of parents	**2**	**0**	**2**	**6**	**2**	**8**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**11**	**Migration**	**4.6**
Parents ignorance/ no interest	**0**	**0**	**0**	**3**	**1**	**4**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**4**	**Negligence**	**1.7**
Illness/Sickness –mostly	6	3	9	3	1	4	7	0	7	20	Physical	**8.3**
Mentally weak	1	1	2	2	1	3	0	1	1	6	Physical	**2.5**
Deaf/Dumb				3		3	1	1	2	5	Physical	**2.1**
Blind		1	1	1		1				2	Physical	**0.8**
Physical	**7**	**5**	**12**	**9**	**2**	**11**	**8**	**2**	**10**	**33**	**Physical**	**13.8**
For household chores	5	1	6	18	6	24	23	4	27	57	Responsibilities	**23.8**
To look after younger once	6	1	7	6	1	7	5	1	6	20	Responsibilities	**8.3**
Father expired	0	1	1	2	2	4	1	1	2	7	Responsibilities	**2.9**
Father ill	0	2	2	3	0	3	0	1	1	6	Responsibilities	**2.5**
Mother ill	1	1	2	3	0	3	3	0	3	8	Responsibilities	**3.3**
Mother expired	1	1	2	2	0	2	2	0	2	6	Responsibilities	**2.5**
Education of other sisters	1		1				1		1	2	Responsibilities	**0.8**
Father and mother expired/ orphan	1		1							1	Responsibilities	**0.4**
Mother father handicapped	2	1	3	1	0	1	0	0	0	4	Responsibilities	**1.7**
Mentally disabled –mother	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	2	Responsibilities	**0.8**
Responsibilities	**17**	**8**	**25**	**36**	**10**	**46**	**35**	**7**	**42**	**113**	**Responsibilities**	**47.1**
Quarrels with other children	1	0	1	1	2	3	0	0	0	4	School atmosphere	**1.7**
Teachers beat	1	0	1	4	5	9	0	0	0	10	School atmosphere	**4.2**
fear of other children	1		1							1	School atmosphere	**0.4**
Fear of school				1		1				1	School atmosphere	**0.4**
School atmosphere	**3**	**0**	**3**	**6**	**7**	**13**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**16**	**School atmosphere**	**6.7**
Looks elder/ Physique - tall,fat	**2**	**0**	**2**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**8**	**1**	**7**	**11**	Social reasons	**4.6**
Older/ age is more	1	3	4	1	0	1	1	0	1	6	Social reasons	**2.5**
Quarrels of father/mother		2	2							2	Social reasons	**0.8**
Marriage	0	0	0	14	0	14	0	0	0	14	Social reasons	**5.8**
Social reasons	**3**	**5**	**8**	**15**	**0**	**15**	**9**	**1**	**8**	**33**	**Social reasons**	**13.8**

***** Totals do not match to 100.00 per cent as there were multiple reasons quoted.***

The above table describes reasons for children not attending school we find that on average in the three districts, 14.6 per cent gave academic reasons, 22.1 per cent were disinterest, 82.9 per cent were economical reasons, 4.6 per cent migration, 1.7 per cent was negligence, 13.8 per cent physical / health reasons, 47.1 per cent were family responsibilities, 6.7 per cent was the school atmosphere and 13.8 per cent quoted social reasons.

Table-76 gives responses to whether they liked going to school.

Table – 76

Do you like to go to school

	AKOLA			BEED			BHANDARA			Total		
Response	**Girls**	**Boys**	**Total**	**Girls**	**Boys**	**Total**	**Girls**	**Boys**	**Total**	**Girls**	**Boys**	**Grand Total**
NO	9	8	17	21	11	32	16	26	42	46	45	91
%	15.8	33.3		37.5	45.8		35.6	76.5		29.1	54.9	37.9
YES	48	16	64	35	13	48	29	8	37	112	37	149
%	84.2	66.7		62.5	54.2		64.4	23.5		70.9	45.1	62.1
Grand Total	57	24	81	56	24	80	45	34	79	158	82	240

We find 37.9 per cent did not like going to school which resulted in their drop out while 62.1 per cent liked going to school.

Regarding why they liked school, Table – 77 gives details.

Table – 77

If Yes reason why like school

	District												
YES	**AKOLA**			**BEED**			**BHANDARA**			**Grand Total**			
Q9	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Total**	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Total**	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Total**	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Grand Total**	**%**
Like to learn	5	6	11	8	8	16	13	4	17	26	18	44	25.9
%	8.8	35.3	15.1	19.5	44.4	27.1	44.8	50	45.9	20.5	41.9	25.9	
Good school	17	6	23	6	1	7				23	7	30	17.6
%	29.8	35.3	31.5	14.6	5.6	11.9	0	0	0	18.1	16.3	17.6	
Good teachers	21	3	23	1		1				22	3	25	14.7
%	36.8	17.6	31.5	2.4	0	1.7	0	0	0	17.3	7	14.7	
Give information and tell stories	2		2	7	2	9	8	3	11	17	5	22	12.9
%	3.5	0	2.7	17.1	11.1	15.3	27.6	37.5	29.7	13.4	11.6	12.9	
Like learn with friends	2		2	8	3	11	3		3	13	3	16	9.4
%	3.5	0	2.7	19.5	16.7	18.6	10.3	0	8.1	10.2	7	9.4	
Others go to school	9	2	11				4		4	13	2	15	8.8
%	15.8	11.8	15.1	0	0	0	13.8	0	10.8	10.2	4.7	8.8	
Discipline and become more smart				5	4	9				5	4	9	5.3
%	0	0	0	12.2	22.2	15.3	0	0	0	3.9	9.3	5.3	
Not replied	1		1	5		5	1		1	7	0	7	4.1
%	1.8	0	1.4	12.2	0	8.5	3.4	0	2.7	5.5	0	4.1	
Can teach others				1		1		1	1	1	1	2	1.2
%	0	0	0	2.4	0	1.7	0	12.5	2.7	0.8	2.3	1.2	
YES Total	57	17	73	41	18	59	29	8	37	127	43	170	100
%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	58.8

The major response for liking school was that they liked to learn (25.9 per cent), 17.6 per cent liked the school, 14.7 per cent stated the teachers were good, 12.9 per cent stated they got information, 9.4 per cent liked learning with friends, 8.8 per cent liked school as others also went to school, 5.3 per cent felt it helped them become smart, 1.2 per cent felt they could then teach others.

Table – 78 gives the reasons for children not liking going to school.

Table – 78

If No reasons – why you do not like school

	AKOLA			BEED			BHANDARA			Grand Total			
Reasons	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Total**	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Total**	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Total**	**FEMALE**	**MALE**	**Grand Total**	**%**
No interest in studies	3	3	6	2		2	10	20	30	15	23	38	40.0
Can't understand	3	1	4				4	1	5	7	2	9	9.5
Physical inabilities(deaf/mental)	0	0	0	4	0	4	2	1	3	6	1	7	7.4
Because of poverty	2	1	3	2	1	3	0	1	1	4	3	7	7.4
Go to earn				3	3	6	0	1	1	3	4	7	7.4
Due to household chores	1		1	3	1	4	0	0	0	4	1	5	5.3
Health problems/illness				1		1	2	1	3	3	1	4	4.2
Teachers beat		1	1	1		1	0	1	1	1	2	3	3.2
Feel shy-look older	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	2	2.1
Failed		0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	1	2	2.1
Disinterested in school/education		0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	1	2	2.1
No use of school education					1	1		0	0	0	1	1	1.1
Not replied	1	1	2	4	2	6	0	0	0	5	3	8	8.4
NO Total	10	6	16	18	8	26	19	26	45	47	40	87	91.6

As seen from the above Table – 78, the main reason for not liking to go to school is no interest in studies (40.0 per cent) which is particularly so as the teaching – learning process fails to arouse the interest and curiosity of the children. Another significant response (9.5 per cent) is that children cannot understand what is being taught in the classroom which again is a part of the teaching – learning process. Physical inabilities, poverty, and working to earn account for 7.4 per cent each response. Health problems accounted for 4.2 per cent response. Some drop outs stated they did not like school because of teachers beating (3.2 per cent) which must be taken care of.

As regards fear of teachers, 90 per cent state they were not afraid of their teachers while 10.0 per cent stated in the affirmative. The drop outs were afraid of teachers because they beat in the classroom. This was the response of 75 per cent of the 24 drop outs who stated they were afraid of teachers. 8.3 per cent of this group stated they were afraid because of absenteeism.

Table-79 gives distribution of the drop outs according to the type of work they were required to do.

Table – 79

Type of work

(Multiple answers – base exceeds)

	AKOLA			BEED			BHANDARA			Total			
Type	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL	%
Household work	35	3	38	22	3	25	26	6	32	83	12	95	33.2
Fetching water	16	6	22	12	3	15	24	5	29	52	14	66	23.1
Cooking	11	0	11	17	0	17	25	0	25	53	0	53	18.5
Collection of wood	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	2	8	6	2	8	2.8
Washing clothes	7	1	8	0	0	0	5	1	6	12	2	14	4.9
for goat rearing	2	4	6	2	3	5	1	4	5	5	11	16	5.6
Farm work	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	4	1.4
Farm labour	3	4	7	8	2	10	1	0	1	12	6	18	6.3
Rikshaw					1	1				0	1	1	0.3
To look after parents				1		1				1	0	1	0.3
To look after children				7		7				7	0	7	2.4
NONE								3	3	0	3	3	1.0
Total	74	19	93	69	13	82	89	22	111	232	54	286	
%	79.6	20.4		84.1	15.9		80.2	19.8		81.1	18.9	100	

The major type of work they were involved in was household work particularly in case of girls (38.1 per cent), fetching water (again girls, 23.1 per cent), cooking (girls, 18.5 per cent) collection of wood (2.8 per cent), goat rearing (5.6 per cent), farm labour (6.3 per cent) and looking after siblings (2.4 per cent) among others. 81.6 per cent of the drop out children in the survey stated they were working before dropping out from school.

The reason given earlier not liking school is basically because there was not one to help them in studies (83.8 per cent) and only 16.3 per cent stated they were assisted in their homework and school work. Generally, it is the elder brother / sister (45.7 per cent) or father (40.0 per cent) who helped children in their studies. Another aspect probed into was why did nobody help in their studies. Of 201 children who said they received no assistance, 186 gave reasons for this lack of assistance. Majority (67.2 per cent) stated it was due to having illiterate parents, while 16.9 per cent stated their parents or elders had no time for them. Although parents insisted that their children should not drop out , the latter did not like going back to school primarily because they wee disinterested and did not like school (38.7 per cent). Of the remaining, 11.8 per cent did not rejoin school due to economical problems, 8.4 per cent because other children teased them or because of an older age, 5.9 per cent due to household work among other reasons. In some cases the parents did not insist that their children return to school (28.3 per cent) mainly as they required them, especially the girls to help out in household and farm work (18.6 per cent) and 8.8 per cent were just not interested.

Table–80 and graph below shows reasons for drop out of these children.

Table – 80

Reasons for drop out of children not in school

Reasons	Female	Male	Rand Total	%
Parents ignorance / no interest	3	1	4	1.7
Migration of parents	9	2	11	4.6
Facility	13	0	13	5.4
School atmosphere	9	7	16	6.7
Physical	24	9	33	13.8
Social reasons	27	6	33	13.8
Academic	21	14	35	14.6
No interest in studies	22	31	53	22.1
Responsibilities	88	25	113	47.1
Economical	133	65	199	82.9

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◈ CHAPTER – 8

Testing of the Hypothesis

The study proposed to test the laid down hypotheses leading to drop out, analysis of which is given in this chapter.

Hypothesis – 1

Correlation between the female literacy level of village and drop out rate of girls students.

Village	Taluka	District	% Female Literacy	% Drop out Girls
Satephal	Ambejogai	Beed	42.15	5.7
Talegaon (Ghat)	Ambejogai	Beed	43.00	10.1
Wadi Adampur	Telhera	Akola	45.00	3.7
Kekat Pangri	Gevrai	Beed	47.33	11.33
Varun	Akote	Akola	50.00	0.0
Takhar Aadgaon	Gevrai	Beed	50.01	23.4
Rohital	Gevrai	Beed	54.43	0.0
Bagheda	Tumsar	Bhandara	56.03	2.3
Madeghat	Lakhandur	Bhandara	58.85	2.0
Khandala	Telhara	Akola	60.00	1.6
Chicholi	Lakhandur	Bhandara	60.89	3.6
Palsod	Akote	Akola	61.00	0.0
Manabda	Telhera	Akola	70.15	0.0
Dongarla	Tumsar	Bhandara	72.26	0.0
Ruikhed	Akote	Akola	73.03	0.0
Madgi	Tumsar	Bhandara	77.68	1.9
Limbgaon	Ambejogai	Beed	80.00	4.7
Karla Bk.	Telhera	Akola	80.00	0.0
Wadali Deshmukh	Akote	Akola	86.08	1.7
Chicholi	Tumsar	Bhandara	86.32	0.0
Mandhal	Lakhandur	Bhandara	92.07	2.0

Statistical method of 'Pearson's correlation coefficient is used to get degree of correlation and direction of correlation between female literacy in village and drop out percentage of girls.

$$r = \frac{\text{cov}(x,y)}{\text{s.d}(x)\ \text{s.d}(y)}$$

Correlation coefficient between % of female literacy in village and % of drop out girls is 0.45.

$r = -0.45$

It is negative and moderate correlation between the village female literacy and drop out rate among girls it means as literacy rate increases drop out rate decreases. From the above Table it can be observed that some villages where female literacy is low here it is 40 to 50% then drop out rate is higher it is 10-20%.

It is also true for male drop out rate. For low female literacy rate drop out among males is high.

$r = -0.41$

This correlation is slightly less than correlation coefficient between female and girls drop out. Female literacy is correlated with drop out of girls as well as drop out of boys.

Hypothesis – 2

Whether there is a significant difference in the village / school characteristics between high and low drop out regions?

Some characteristics of high drop out villages are stated below:

Village	Taluka	District	Draught	Road to Village	Village Transport	ST	School 1st to 7th
Satephal	Ambejogai	Beed	Yes	Pucca	No	No	ZP
Talegaon (Ghat)	Ambejogai	Beed	No (Med)	Kaccha			ZP
Kekat Pangri	Gevrai	Beed	Yes	Kaccha	No		ZP
Thakar Aadgaon	Gevrai	Beed	Yes	Kaccha			ZP
Madeghat	Lakhandur	Bhandara	No (Med)	Pucca	No	No	ZP
Limbgaon	Ambejogai	Beed	No (Med)	Kaccha & Pucca			ZP

Satephal, Kekat Pangri, Thakar Aadgaon are draught prone villages. In Kekat Pangri most of families migrate due to work, hence drop out is high at cultivation period. For sugar-cane cutting, migration takes place. Access to villages Kekat Pangri, Thakar Aadgaon is by Kaccha roads. In Satephal, Kekat Pangri, Madeghat no village transport facilities. In Satephal village Muslim families are more.

Following Table shows Distribution of families by castes.

Village	Taluka	District	SC	ST	OBC	NT	Other BC	Baudh	Muslim	Total
Satephal	Ambejogai	Beed	30	4	4	0	33	0	156	227
		%	13.22	1.76	1.76	0	14.54	0	68.72	100
Talegaon (Ghat)	Ambejogai	Beed	77	0	10	48	365	0	7	517
		%	14.89	0	1.93	9.28	70.6	0	1.35	100
Kekat Pangri	Gevrai	Beed	65	0	75	55	55	0	0	250
		%	26	0	30	22	22	0	0	100
Thakar Aadgaon	Gevrai	Beed	67	2	17	48	98	0	7	239
		%	28.03	0.84	7.11	20.08	41	0	2.93	100
Madeghat	Lakhandur	Bhandara	172	61	264	87	15	0	0	589
		%	29.2	10.36	44.82	14.77	2.55	0	0	100
Limbgaon	Ambejogai	Beed	35	6	17	45	200	0	70	373
Total		%	9.38	1.61	4.56	12.06	53.62	0	18.77	100

The above Table shows the dominance of backward castes, Muslims in these villages. Majority families engaged in farm labour (main occupation). The villages which are draught prone, labourer's and their families are migrating. Thus because of economic reasons many children drop out for work, money.

Educational Facilities in the Village

Taluka	Village	Balwadi	Aannganwadi	Primary	Secondary		if no, place	Distance in Km
			Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Place-Sec.Sch.	
Ambejogai	Limbgaon	1	1	1	1		Bardhapur	6
	Satephal	1	1	1	1		Waghala Factory	3
Gevrai	Bagpimpal Gaon	1	1	1	1		Jayakwadi	
	Kekat Pangri	1	1	1	1		Gevrai	
	Rohital	1	1	1	1		Jategaon	6
	Takhar Aadgaon	1	1	1	1			
Lakhandur	Chaprad	1	1	1	1		Lakhandur	7
	Chicholi	1	1	1	1		Lakhandur	4
	Madeghat	1	1	1	1		Lakhandur	5
	Mandhal	1	1	1	1			

Hypothesis – 3

Null hypothesis – There is no relation between parent's education and drop out children. H3 – There is relation between parent's educational level, socio-economic status in causing drop outs.

Distribution of drop out boys and parents education

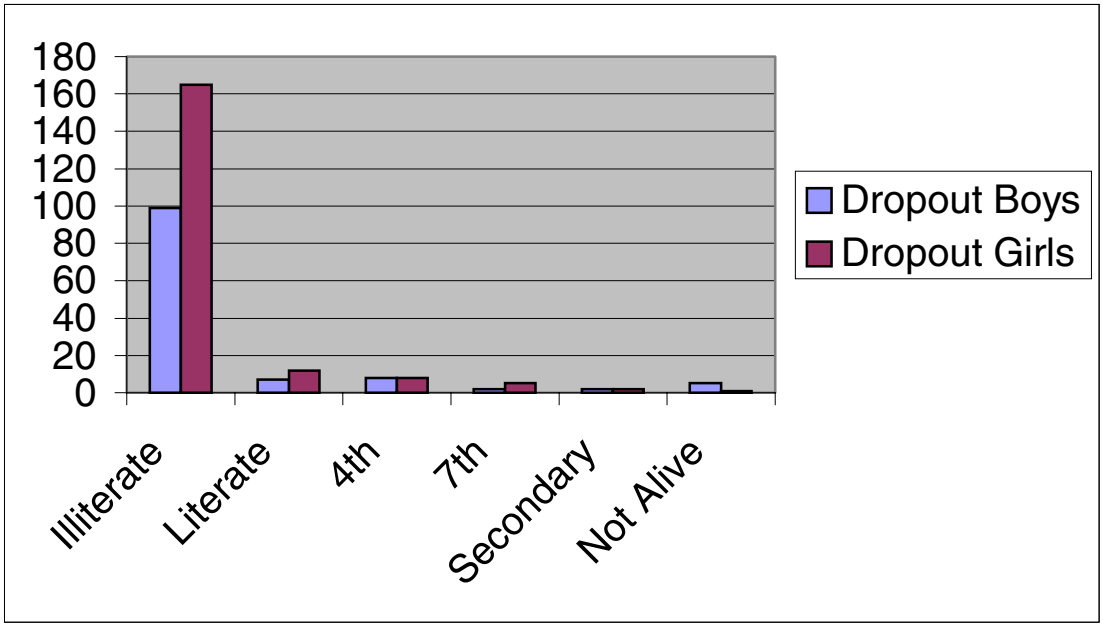
	Mother's Education							
Fathers Education	**Illiterate**	**Literate**	**4th**	**7th**	**Secondary**	**Dead**	**NR**	**Grant Total**
Illiterate	52	0		1	1	4		58
Literate	13	3	2					18
4^{th}	15	2	3	1		1	0	22
7^{th}	9	0	3	0	0			12
Secondary	2	1			1			4
College	0							0
Dead	7	1					0	8
Don't know	1						0	1
Grand Total	**99**	**7**	**8**	**2**	**2**	**5**	**0**	**123**

Distribution of drop out girls by parents education

Fathers Education	Illiterate	Literate	4th	7th	Secondary	Dead	NR	Grant Total
Illiterate	101	1		2	0	1		105
Literate	20	6	2					28
4th	19	2	5	2		0	1	29
7th	10	2	1	1	1			15
Secondary	9	0			1			10
College	1							1
Dead	3	1					2	6
Don't know	2						1	3
Grand Total	**165**	**12**	**8**	**5**	**2**	**1**	**4**	**197**

Rank correlation = 1

Education of mother and drop out children



Mothers Education	Drop out Boys	Drop out Girls
Illiterate	99	165
Literate	7	12
4th	8	8
7th	2	5
Secondary	2	2
Not Alive	5	1
Total	**123**	**197**

Fathers Education	Drop out Boys	Drop out Girls
Illiterate	52	101
Literate	13	20
4th	15	19
7th	9	10
Secondary	2	9
College	0	1
Dead	7	3
Don't Know	1	2
Grand Total	99	165

For attribute like parents education can be ranked as low-1 means illiterate, Rank 2- literate, Rank 3 is up to 4th standard. To find association between parents education and number of drop outs Spearman's rank correlation method was used.

Rank correlation between drop out girls and mothers education is – 1.

ρ (rho) = – 1

Thus it is perfect strong negative correlation between mother's education and drop out girls and boys.

Rank correlation is – 1 for fathers education and drop out rate of boys and girls.

Thus both parents educational background affect drop out rate. But it can be observed that number of drop outs among girls and boys is high when mothers are illiterate.

From the graph and Table it can be seen that 90% girls drop out from household where mothers are illiterate (165 girls were drop out from 197 HH where mothers are illiterate).

In 80% drop out case of boys (99 of 123) from households with illiterate mothers.

Also maximum girls are drop out from households where both parents are illiterate (50% drop out). Boys dropped out are 42% where both parents are illiterate.

To get economic background following indicators are used.

Distribution of occupation by father and mother

	Father		Mother	
Occupation	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**
Labour	119	52.4	149	65.6
Farmer	63	27.8	46	20.3
Worker	10	4.4	4	1.8
Fishing	7	3.1	1	0.4
Housework	0	1.0	14	6.2
Skill Worker	7	3.1	3	1.3
Service	3	1.3	0	0
Business	1	0.4	1	0.4
Goat Rearing	1	0.4	0	0
Other	1	0.4	0	0
Not response	9	4.0	6	2.6
Dead	6	2.6	3	1.3
Grand Total	27	100.0	227	100

Parents of drop out children are mostly from labourer, farmer families. 70% parents stay in Kachcha houses, out of these 20% live in huts. Almost 76% families with no facilities. 65% do not own land. On an average 2.5 acres of land is owned but only 20% of them with cultivable land. Socio-economic background is very poor no basic facilities toilet, bathroom etc.

Hypothesis – 4

Null hypothesis – Drop out rate do not increases in higher standards. Alternative hypothesis – Drop out rate increases at higher standards. Chi-square test is used to see association between attributes sex and drop out rate in standards.

	Boys		Girls		Total	
Droupout at which standard	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
One child - before 4th	34	42	40	25.2	74	30.8
Two or more - before 4th	4	4.9	7	4.4	11	4.6
One child - before 7th	36	44.4	107	67.3	143	59.6
Two or more - before 7th	7	8.6	5	3.1	12	5
Total	81	100	159	100	240	100

Drop out	Boys	Girls	Total
Before 4^{th} std	42	54	96
Before 7^{th} std	50	117	167
Total	92	171	263

Chi square (cal) = 5.11
Chi square (d.f=1) = 3.94
Chi square (table) < Chi square (calculated)
Chi square test shows relation between two attributes and shows that number of drop out increases in higher standards.
For higher standards drop out rate is more.

Hypothesis – 5

Null hypothesis – Proportion of drop out girls and boys drop outs is equal. Alternative hypothesis – Proportion of drop out girls is more than proportion drop out of boys.

The total sample of drop out children is 240 from 227 households.

Number of boys	Number of girls	Total
82	158	240
34%	66%	100

H0 : Proportion drop out girls and boys is equal (P1 = P2 = P= 0.5)

H1 : Proportion of drop out girls is more than proportion of boys

Using Z-test

$$Z\ (cal) = \frac{P - p}{\sqrt{PQ/n}}$$

Sample proportion = p = proportion of drop out girls = 0.66

Hypothetical population proportion P = 0.5 = Q

P = 0.5 (assumed / hypothetical)

N = 240 (sample size) z(cal) = 4.95

Z table = 1.64

Z cal > Z table

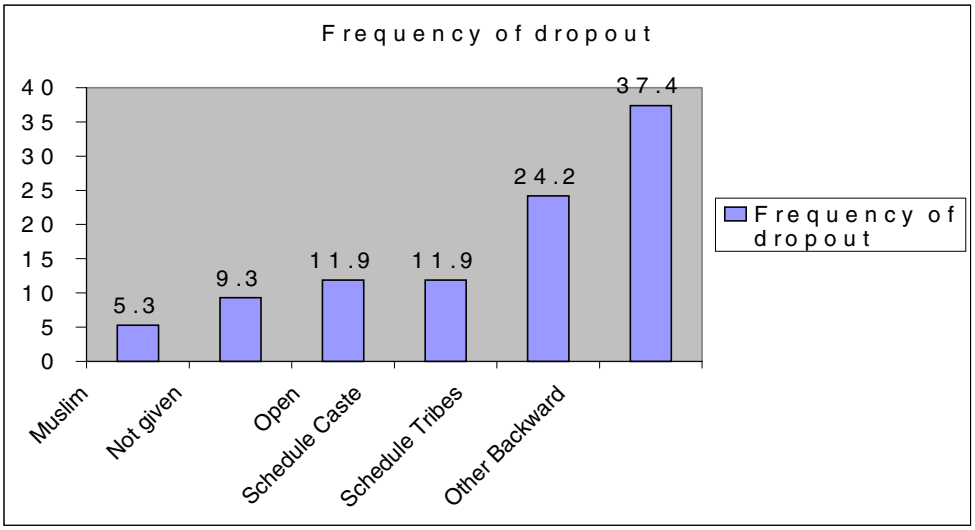
We reject null hypothesis and we may conclude that girls drop out proportion is higher than boys proportion.

Gender wise differences are significant. Emphasis is given for education of Boys than girls.

Hypothesis – 5 b Drop out by caste

Drop out rate is higher in backward castes.

Caste	Frequency of drop out
Muslim	5.3
Not given	9.3
Open	11.9
Schedule Caste	11.9
Schedule Tribes	24.2
Other Backward	37.4



Hypothesis – 6

Whether relationship between problem and availability of physical access (including transport) to school.

The reason long distance / school is far away is stated by 13 children out of 240 it is 5.4 %. Of these 12 are girls. From village Ruikhed (Akola district) 5 girls are dropped out from school because of long distance. From this is valid point that, in some villages no village transport facilities or if facilities are available but may not be affordable (cost and time). But all these villages have ZP schools up to 7th standard.

Hypothesis - 7

Children mentioned various reasons for not going to school which are categorized as academic, economic, social and very few are related to school atmosphere.

The school atmosphere related reasons are 14 out of 240 which is 5.8%. The following table depicts reasons related to school

Reasons	AKOLA Total	BEED Total	BHANDARA Total	Grand Total
Teachers beat	1	9	0	10
Fear of other children	1	1	0	2
Fear of school	1	1	0	2

This percentage is negligible and parents , school management and teachers did not support this data hence it can not be validated.

Hypothesis - 8

Whether the opportunity costs of sending children to school, especially girls are prohibitive.

Headmasters response is given below whether school working days has effect on attendance and drop out.

Headmasters Response

Table A - Does the prescribed school working days have an effect on Attendance

			Attendance			Dropout		
Sr.No.	**Village**	**District**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Impact on attendance**	**Boys**	**Girls**	**Impact on dropout**
2	Baghede	Bhandara	Yes	Yes	0	No	No	0
3	Dongarla	Bhandara	No	No	0	No	No	0
7	Mandhal	Bhandara	No	No	0	0	0	0
12	Limbgaon	Beed	No	No	0	No	No	0
13	Takhar aadgaon	Beed	No	No	0	No	No	0
14	Kekat pangri	Beed	No	No	0	Yes	Yes	Factory work
19	Chicholi	Bhandara	Yes	Yes	0	No	No	Less presenty
10	Ruikhed	Akola	No	No	0	No	No	0
11	Satephal	Beed	No	No	0	No	No	0
24	Bagpimpalgaon	Beed	No	No	0	No	No	
1	Madgi	Bhandara	Yes	Yes	Increases presenty	No	No	0
18	Rohital	Beed	Yes	Yes	Increases presenty	0	Yes	For house work girls do not come to School
21	Palsod	Akola	Yes	0	No planning of work	Yes	Yes	Migration
23	Wadali deshmukh	Akola	No	No	No planning of work	No	No	
5	Madeghat	Bhandara	Yes	Yes	Can not concentrate - full time	No	No	0
6	Chicholi	Bhandara	Yes	Yes	Cultivation period	No	No	0
9	Karla bk.	Akola	Yes	Yes	Cultivation period	No	No	0
16	Varun	Akola	Yes	Yes	Cultivation period	Yes		Girls not interested
17	Kumbephal	Beed	Yes	Yes	Cultivation period	No	Yes	For house work- girls do not come to school
20	Wadi adampur	Akola	Yes	Yes	Cultivation period	Yes	Yes	Less presenty
8	Manabda	Akola	Yes	Yes	Festival programme	No	No	0
22	Khandala	Akola	0	Yes	Girls presenty is very less	No	No	
4	Chaprad	Bhandara	Yes	Yes	Lectures not regular	No	No	0
15	Talegaon	Beed	No	No		No	Yes	Economical condition

Out of 24, 10 headmasters mentioned attendance of boys and girls gets affected in the cultivation period , and some go for factory work. Only two headmasters mentioned that girls do not come and dropped out due to work (household and other).

Table-B The teachers response about absenteeism

Reasons	Girls absenteeism	% of teachers mentioned	Boys absenteeism	% of teachers mentioned
Illness	20	41.67	22	45.83
No family support	25	52.08	19	39.58
Parents negligence	29	60.42	27	56.25
Housework/other work	30	62.50	0	0.00
Irregular/no discipline	3	6.25	9	18.75
No awareness	11	22.92	12	25.00
Parents behaviour-not responsible	26	54.17	25	52.08

Out of 48 teachers 30 teachers mentioned the girls do not come to school for housework and other work.

Children told various reasons for dropout , major resaons given in following table

Table-C Reasons of dropout mentioned by children

Reasons	Female	%	Male	%	Grand Total	%
Economical	133	84.2	65	100	199	82.9
Responsibilities	88	55.7	25	43.1	113	47.1

From the data given by all respondents shows children have to work, economical reasons compel them, and can not attend the school. Head masters response shows students attendance is affected in cultivation period (42%) and 62% teachers told girls remain absent due to housework/other work. . Opportunity costs lost by parents if their children go to school is such that the parents prefer their children remaining absent from school.

Hypothesis-9

There are attitudinal social and socio-economic causes for dropout among girls

Reasons of dropouts (mentioned by parents)

	Girls		Boys	
Reasons	**Frequency**	**%**	**Frequency**	**%**
Parents helpless	101	44.49	52	22.91
No educational aids	93	40.97	37	16.30
Fees	61	26.87	19	8.37
Uniform	17	7.49	5	2.20

The major reason told by parents is economical.

Reasons mentioned by Children

Reasons	Female	%	Male	%	Grand Total	%
Economical	133	84.2	65	100	199	82.9
Responsibilities	88	55.7	25	43.1	113	47.1
No interest in studies	22	13.9	31	53.4	53	22.1
Academic	21	13.3	14	24.1	35	14.6
Physical	24	15.2	9	15.5	33	13.8
Social reasons	27	17.1	6	10.3	33	13.8
School atmosphere	9	5.7	7	12.1	16	6.7
Facility	13	8.2	0	0.0	13	5.4
Migration of parents	9	5.7	2	3.4	11	4.6
Parents ignorance/ no interest	3	1.9	1	1.7	4	1.7

Also children told due to economical reasons they do not attend school .

Refer table A -Headmasters response -which mentions in cultivation period students do not attend school (42% Head masters) . Thus it may be concluded due to economical reasons children do not go to school.

Hypothesis – 10

Students absenteeism is substantial problem in schools

Teachers response (base=48)

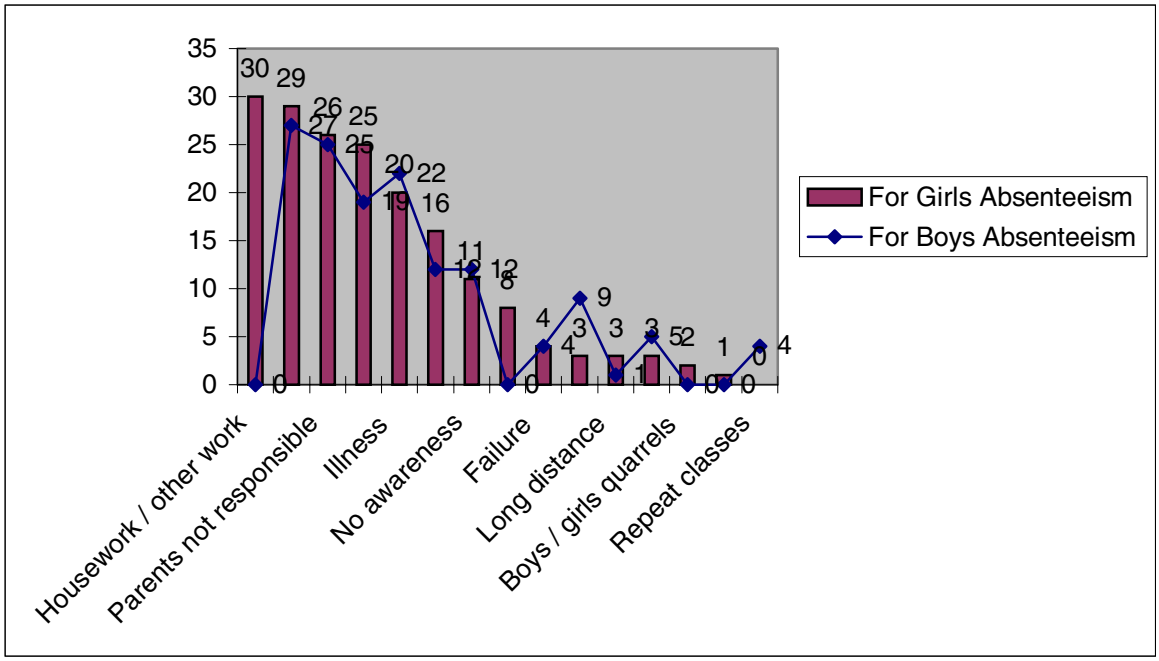
Teacher stated reasons	For Girls Absenteeism	% of Teachers	For Boys Absenteeism	% of Teachers
Housework / other work	30	62.5	0	0.0
Parents negligence	29	60.4	27	56.3
Parents not responsible	26	54.2	25	52.1
No family support	25	52.1	19	39.6
Illness	20	41.7	22	45.8
Health problems	16	33.3	12	25.0
No awareness	11	22.9	12	25.0
Early marriages	8	16.7	0	0.0
Failure	4	8.3	4	8.3
Irregular / no discipline	3	6.3	9	18.8
Long distance	3	6.3	1	2.1
No interest	3	6.3	5	10.4
Boys / girls quarrels	2	4.2	0	0.0
Casteism	1	2.1	0	0.0
Repeat classes	0	0	4	8.3

62% teachers stated that girls absenteeism due to household work and second major reason parents negligence.

Absenteeism due to following reasons in working period
(Head Masters response)

Reasons	Frequency
Students can not concentrate full time	1
Cultivation period	5
Festival seasons	1
Girls present is less	1
No effect	2
Lectures can not be taken regularly	1
No planning	2
Due to migration, factory work students of 5^{th} to 10^{th} std do not come to school	1
Economical condition	1
Girls not interested	1
Due to housework girls do not come	2
Migration of parents	1

GRAPH



Types of complaints made by teachers (base =117)

Reasons	Frequency	Percent
About attendance / presentee	99	83.8
Do not complete homework	5	4.3
Makes noise	1	0.9
Cannot read or write	2	1.7
NR	11	9.4
Total	117	100.0

Out of 227 parents 97 told teachers make complain about absenteeism of their children. Thus from above tables it can be seen that teachers, headmasters and parents agree that children remain absent and parents neglect though teacher make complaints. Prevents who did not give importance to teachers complaint, told following reasons.

Reasons for not tried to solve complaints (base = 123 saying no)

Reasons	Frequency	Percent
Do not get time because of work	18	14.6
Because of poverty	13	10.6
Father died hence mother neglected	1	0.8
No need	20	16.3

Thus students absenteeism is problem for schools told by teachers and parents. Parents neglect complaints since do not have time, economical problems.

Hypothesis – 11

Whether Teachers absenteeism is substantial problem ?

Out of 227, 67 parents told teachers irregularity affects children's study. Then parents were not able to tell in what way it affects the students study, only 29 parents told effect of teachers absenteeism on children(out of 227) .

Table - Whether teachers irregularity affects your child's study

Response	Frequency	Percent
NO	132	58.1
YES	67	29.5
Not responded	28	12.3
Total	227	100.0

If yes whether it affects, in what way ?

Effects	Frequency
Child comes home/ run from school	14
Can not read	3
Go to watch TV	1
no effect	1
Children do not learn	4
Do not study/fail in exams	2
Make noise/ quarrels	3
Children do not attend school regularly	1
Total	29

This hypothesis can not be validated since in this study only parents have given this reason. School management data and headmasters data do not support the above statement.

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◈ **CHAPTER – 9**

Conclusions

The Maharashtra state government, right from its formation on 1st May, 1960, committed itself to planned development of primary education. The planning process in the country started in the year 1951 with the first Five Year Plan. Maharashtra joined this process of socio-economic development through planning from the Third Five-Year-Plan onwards.

The programme of educational development was envisaged under the Second Plan. The Third Five-Year-Plan provided for the essential needs of free, universal and compulsory education in primary stage of standard I to IV.

The Fourth plan provided not only for a quantitative expansion of primary education but also aimed at qualitative improvement in the system, methods and facilities of education.

For the first time in the country, Maharashtra state published a Policy Statement of Educational Reconstruction in February, 1970. The statement announced a programme of long-term perspective planning for educational reconstruction linked with social and national goals. It suggested the transformation of the educational system so as to make it relevant to the needs and aspirations of the people through appropriate development of all stages of education, equality of educational opportunity, qualitative development of education co-ordination of educational planning with the planning of other sectors of development, and through the reorganization of teacher education, educational administration and the passage of suitable legislation.

Since the constitutional directive to universalize elementary education could not become a reality by 1960, the Fifth Plan envisaged facilities of education to 100 per cent children in the age-group of 6-11, and 60 per cent children in the age-group of 11-14. During the period of the Fifth Plan, a sub-plan for the educational development of the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes was prepared, as 12 per cent of the population in the state belongs to the SCs and STs.

The Sixth Five-Year Plan, pointed out the critical role of education in the process of economic development and how it was the principal means for creating human capital of trained, competent manpower for implementing the process of development. Its approach was to ensure essential minimum education to all children upto the age of 14 years within the next ten years, particularly giving attention to school drop outs and to those groups which were in danger of being left behind because of their special circumstances. During the Sixth Plan period, a primary school was opened in every village in the State having a population of about 200 and above.

The Seventh Plan's objective was to universalize primary education in the 14 year age-group children, to reduce drop out rate, especially amongst girls. The objective of opening a new primary school within a radius of 1.5 km. in every area with a population of 200 within, was achieved during the Seventh Plan.

The new policy of universalisation of primary education was given priority in the Eighth Plan and a sum of Rs. 404.48 crore was spent on primary education. The enrolment of children belonging to 6-14 age-group was 84 per cent by the end of the Plan.

In Mahrarshtra, primary education in the rural areas is entirely the responsibility of the zilla parishads. Based on the recommendations of the Naik Committee, Maharashtra adopted the panchayati raj pattern which deviated form the model laid down by the Balwant Rai Mehta study team, by making the district body, the zilla parishad, a strong executive body at the district level rather than the block level body.

At the village level, Village Education Committees have been established as bridges between the schools and the society. The objective of establishing these committees was to get the cooperation of influential and educated villagers in the implementation of the various government schemes of primary education, to raise resources for maintaining schools, to participate in the socico-cultural activities of the school, to supervise the attendance of the students and teachers, to make available educational material and help the sale of crafts prepared by students, to maintain the school property through repairs, and to help the students gain from their knowledge and experience.

Schemes and Programmes

1. Primary Education Schemes, 2. Non-Formal Education, 3. Construction of School Buildings, 4. Schemes for Students Belonging to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Nomadic Tribes and Vimukta Jatis, 5. Book Bank, 6. Attendance Allowance for the Girl students, 7. Shaleya Poshan Aahar Yojana (National Programme of Nutritional Support), and 8. Scholarships.

The Government of Maharashtra decided (in 1987) that free education to girls be given from standard I to XII throughout the state in approved, aided and un-aided schools.

The study was conducted in three district of Maharashtra, viz. Akola, Beed and Bhandara, selected on varying agro-climatic conditions. From each district, two blocks were selected and further four villages from each block. Thus the sample comprised

- Three Districts (two from Vidarbha and one from Marathwada)
- Six Blocks
- 24 Villages
- 240 Households

Data was collected with respect to three domains :

- Village – Socio-economic characteristics, occupation, caste structure, infrastructure, civic amenities.
- School – infrastructure facilities, teachers, school management, teaching – learning process, attendance and drop out.
- Household – socio-economic status of family, drop out reasons, drop out childrens' views and perceptions.

The methodology was common to all the districts. The survey instruments included :

- A questionnaire for the *headmaster* of each school to collect data on availability and condition of school facilities, services available in the school, characteristics of the teaching staff and information on the role and responsibilities of the head teacher.
- A questionnaire about the personal characteristics of *pupils,* from *parents* their family environment, the relative comfort of their home, access to reading material, assistance in homework.
- A guidance for interviewing *teachers* about their individual characteristics, level of education and pedagogical training, their teaching style.
- A guide for interviewing pupils' *parents* about their main activities, their living conditions, the schooling of their children, relations with teachers, attitudes to the school.
- A guide for interviewing *drop outs* about their views and perceptions of school and causes for dropping out.

The main conclusions of the analysis in the three districts in relation to the factors causing drop out are presented.

1) The material conditions of education

Rural schools are generally at a disadvantage. This is true for school infrastructure in the first instance. Because of budgetary constraints, there is a growing tendency to mobilize local resources for building schools. This had led to a dual system : the public authorities keep the responsibility for school construction in the urban areas and local communities are given the same responsibility in rural areas. The result is a clear urban – rural split. In rural areas, the situation of improper building conditions is aggravated by the lack of sufficient funds for maintenance. In certain areas, therefore, school facilities are not only poor, but are simply dangerous for the users.

Schools in the rural areas clearly do not have the minimum equipment required for an effective teaching / learning process actually to take place. Ensuring at least minimum material resources for all these schools is therefore an absolute priority for the educational policies of these districts. Improving quality of education

is essential and would help curb dropping out of children from school but would not be possible if this condition is not fulfilled.

First of all, the major problem is access to the schools through difficult terrain and lack of proper link roads. This specifically creates difficulties for the children during the rainy season.

A typical school does not exist. Material shortcomings are further reinforced by differences in human resources, both in terms of competence, motivation and stability of the teachers and in terms of school management through the presence or absence of a head teacher with no teaching duties. Improving education quality is a must when we want to reduce and ultimately prevent drop out. This is true for both boys and girls.

2) Availability and quality of teaching staff

First of all, serious imbalances were noticed in the distribution of female teachers. It should be borne in mind that the absence of women teachers in rural schools may be a serious obstacle to improving girls' participation rates. It is difficult to get women teachers in the rural areas especially due to the low literacy and education of girl and women. This problem may be solved by identifying local women and training them as teachers though they may be less qualified and have a localized recruitment policy at the Block level.

The lack of stability of teachers in rural schools is particularly worrying. Young qualified teachers who are posted to a remote area tend to try to move out as soon as possible. Consequently, they do not develop a sense of belonging nor do they build up a real commitment to the community they are supposed to serve. As has been seen, this lack of involvement is aggravated by the fact that in the same remote rural areas teachers prefer not to live in the community where they teach, but whenever there is a choice, to stay in a nearby center where they can find necessary services for themselves and for their families. This has a negative impact on the teachers' punctuality and regularly. In addition, this physical distance problem can only reinforce the cultural gap which often separates teachers form local communities. This results in lack of communication between teachers and parents regarding the performance and absenteeism of the pupils.

Yet another factor found to seriously limit the ability of teachers to devote themselves fully to their teaching job and to invest time in improving school functioning is the involvement of teachers in other official and other income generating activities.

As far as the reasons for dissatisfaction are concerned, it is interesting to note that deterioration of social status or declining respect from the community are hardly mentioned. The main reasons given for low job satisfaction by the respondents are salary and more generally speaking, the mediocre living conditions. Teachers are also preoccupied with the lack of equipment and the shortage of teaching materials in other classes. A third problem which they often mention is that they are not properly supported by parents of the pupils.

Two main conclusions can be drawn from these research findings. First, there is manifestly a certain number of objective constraints in the working and living conditions of teachers which are gradually eroding their availability and their commitment to their teaching job. Unfortunately, these constraints are not always given the necessary attention when quality improvement proposals are being worked out. Such proposals too often assume a level of involvement and dedication which is unrealistic unless complementary measures to alleviate the above mentioned constraints are taken. The second conclusion, which is more positive, is that the margin of manoeuvre for stimulating teachers' motivation is not limited to salary increases. Professional incentives, which are more affordable and which aim directly at the improvement of the working conditions in the classrooms, could have a powerful effect. These improvements would in turn help curb drop out.

3) Parents' perceptions

The fact that parents have stated lack of encouragement from the school, particularly in the case of girls relates to the *lack of faith in school as an instrument of social promotion*. Yet, parents continue to have a faith in the power of education related to parents' expectations of schooling and to their hopes for their childrens' future. In the rural areas, primary school is not perceived as an end in itself but the parents' occupational aspirations for their children are not unexpectedly, as ambitions.

The poor quality of schools is regularly quoted as another factor which negatively affects the demand for education. And this poor quality of schools indirectly influences school drop outs because it leads to the discouragement and demotivation of pupils (no encouragement reason). Despite this parents also contradictly state they are satisfied with the school. What can explain this contradiction between poor school quality and parents' satisfaction? Three factors can intervene. First, for many parents the village school is one of the few they know and as such they cannot compare it to a model school. Second, parents take the view that the quality of a school is determined mainly by the teachers. A third factor, which partly explains the second is that contacts between the parents and teachers are rather tenuous. A non-negligible proportion of them especially in the tribal area have never even met their child's teachers. The positive opinions of parents about the school quality are therefore no surprise.

Pupils' home environment certainly plays a role in school failure and dropping out of children. As seen earlier, many pupils in the rural areas live in houses without electricity and more often than not running water. Many children, especially girls are made to fetch firewood and potable water. Children have little contact with the written word outside of school due to paucity of reading materials and to the low level of education of parents. This last element is fundamental. Parents with little formal education on average are poorer, offer their children less opportunity to study are less able to assist the in school and need them more to help out at home or in the field. Moreover, such parents have generally a more limited knowledge of the language used in the school which is often different from the one spoken at home.

Two specific factors are further highlighted by the data on pupils' living conditions that make school attendance irregular leading to drop out : The fact, mentioned above, that children have to help with work inside and away from the house; and health problems. Although response on childrens' health is low, it is one of the main reasons invoked for absenteeism.

Bad teaching and other school-related factors are rarely mentioned as such by parents or teachers in the rural areas, but there is little doubt that they play an important role in demotivating students. Two aspects are disquieting here. Firstly, as they function at present, many schools are not capable of stimulating and sustaining the motivation of a considerable proportion of their pupils. Drop out is caused, at least in part, by factors inherent to school. A second cause for concern is that teachers in all three districts seem hardly aware of the school's responsibility for pupil failure and drop out. They have a natural tendency to blame the pupils and their family environment and they do not believe very much in the school's ability to change things. This conviction is unfortunately strongest in rural areas, which is where repetitions and drop outs are most numerous.

These research results raise several education policy questions. The fact that parents in the rural areas keep faith in the value of schooling and that they are on the whole rather positive about the quality of schools, does not imply that education decisions-makers can simply shrug their shoulders, hiding behind the claim that school failure and drop out are social more than educational problems. There are limits to what schools on their own can achieve but this research also points at the responsibility of the school and at the need to adapt its functioning in order to achieve better results. At least four questions could be raised in this respect.

The first is to determine to what extent and how the school could adapt to family living conditions which vary widely from one rural setting to another. Some of the hypotheses that underpin traditional school organization, namely : children are available to attend school regularly, they are in good health, their parents can help them, etc. While it is clear that these hypotheses apply in privileged urban areas this is not the case in the rural areas. Therefore, adapting school practices to the specific living conditions of pupils (for example, adjustments in school hours and calendars, constructing crèches close to schools, opening reading centers at school, etc) seems indispensable to making schools more effective, which implies, putting into question the uniform organizational model that currently prevails.

The second question is even more complex. It is a matter of determining to what extent the school can go beyond mere adaptation and actively influence certain factors in its environment such as the level of education of parents (for instance through literacy and post-literacy programmes), or the state of health of children (for instance through proper school meals and illness-screening programmes). This question is far from new, but it remains relevant. Creation of student newspapers would give both pupils and parents better opportunity to read, which is of benefit in particular to the otherwise disadvantaged rural families.

Third, parental expectations of their children's educational and occupational career have to be taken into consideration when it comes to determining basic

education policies. Most parents in the rural areas express the desire for their children to continue schooling and continue studying after they finish primary education and most hope for their son or daughter to find a middle level professional post which would take them out of the village. Voluntarist policies that fly in the face of parental demand and aspirations generally yield little fruit. But this does not mean that policy should simply reflect the demand and be prisoner to parents' expectations, at times unrealistic. If policies and planning have any meaning, it is precisely in the setting of goals and the formulation of collective projects. The key is to know who defines these projects and how. The urban elite for the rural masses? This is what often happens, without consideration for the needs and aspirations of local communities. Basic educational planners would gain much by listening to communities before acting.

Finally, the need for communication between policy makers and communities is reflected by a similar need for more communication between schools and teachers and their 'client': parents and students. Analysis of school withdrawals shows that teachers consider lack of parental support to be the main reason for failure at school resulting in drop out. These problems cannot be solved if contacts between parents and schools is almost non-existent. Such contacts need to be promoted also in order to break the vicious circle whereby defeatism of certain teachers echoes and sustains the discouragement of some pupils and parents.

4) Consequences for the agenda of planners and managers

The importance has been stressed in basic education planning of paying greater attention to the diversity of local situation. Therefore, the intention is not to offer receipes for the best strategy or strategies to develop this type of education, but simply to point out a number of themes that should be at the heart of planners' concerns.

a) Being more attentive to the demand side

The planning of education has not paid enough attention of demand issues. Most of the time it has assumed that demand is guaranteed, and that it is enough to make the school accessible for making children go. Similarly, the issue of whether the content of education is relevant and suited to community needs is debated at length among specialists, but rarely discussed with parents. The main reaction to parents who might not want to send their children to school has been to decree school attendance compulsory.

But compulsory education has little impact on poor parents who are not in a position to send their children to school regularly, because they need their help at home or in the fields, nor on children suffering from malnutrition or debilitating illnesses, or who have quit simply been discouraged by a negative experience at school. These problems of the interaction between supply and demand, deserve more attention than they generally receive. The study suggests that when decision makers want to introduce changes , they should realize that dialogue with the users of educational services is indispensable as is adoption of the changes to local realities.

The first challenge for the planner is to adapt the school to the real living condition of families, in order to make it culturally and economically more accessible and more attractive. To meet this challenge, he/she can learn from his/her colleagues in the non-formal education sector, who have always manifested great flexibility in the way they organize their programmes. For example, while recognizing that logistics may be more complicated than in the case of formal education, standardized school calendars and timetables could be adjusted, for they are often poorly suited to local conditions in certain zones, Similarly, one could relax rigid criteria of promotion and repetition that prevent normal progress of disadvantaged children.

Attempts to go beyond the simple adaptation of the supply is by exercising a direct impact on the demand factor that hinder regular school attendance. Among such measures one can randomly mention the following : literacy courses for parents and/or programmes to inform them or make them aware of the role they can play in making the schooling of their children more successful, organization of school meals, use of the school as a center of medical screening and health care for their children etc. These types of measures have often been successfully applied to projects on a limited scale, but they have rarely been generalized. Part of the reason, of course, is again lack of resources, But this sort of initiative also requires a considerable amount of time and commitment from local officials, including teachers; while there is in many cases a manifest lack of motivation and organization, often accompanied by indifference to the problems of families. These realities must be kept in mind when one asks the school to go beyond its traditional role and to exercise a direct influence on demand. What can be obtained from a particularly dynamic staff in a certain school is not necessarily transferable elsewhere. In fact, the success if this type of initiative is dependent first and foremost on the reinforcement of local management capacities, and on the ability to generate and maintain sufficient involvement by the teaching staff.

As a further point, the decision-maker should also be aware of the importance of parents' opinion and of what they expect from school for their children. In all cases, the school is seen primarily as an instrument of social promotion, and as a means for children to escape the harsh conditions of rural life. As a result, parents have a traditional and academic perception of education. For them, primary school serves essentially to teach their children to read and write and to prepare them for secondary school. Thus, it is not surprising that they are often suspicious of reforms that move school away from their traditional function.

Of course, there can be no development without proposals for change. Some tension between the objectives of education policy and the expectations of parents is quite normal, provided it does not simply amount to contradiction. When they want to introduce changes, decision-makers should realize that dialogue with the users of educational services is indispensable, as is adaptation of these changes to local realities.

It is likely that the above described measures to bring the school and pupils' parents closer together could also have an encouraging effect on these parents. But the two problems are not necessarily the same. There area host of reasons for parents not to want to continue to send their children to school because the cost

(including the opportunity cost) is too high, or because they do not perceive schooling as being useful, or because they reject school for socio-cultural reasons. The first case is relatively easy to resolve, because it is solely a supply problem, but the other are more complex.

b) Investing more in the human factor

Officials responsible for education projects often give the impression that they put more faith in things than in people to improve the quality of education. Massive investments are made in school buildings, in the production of textbooks, or in the distribution of teaching materials, without these investments being accompanied by appropriate teacher-training programmes. For example, the famous 'Operation Blackboard' consisted in supplying each primary school with the equipment necessary to teach properly. Unfortunately, the impact on the teaching process was limited, precisely because the necessary complementary measures of training and pedagogical support for teachers were not taken into consideration.

Decision-makers should take the teacher more seriously, as the crucial factor in the quality improvement process. At the macro-level this means paying more attention to the imbalanced distribution of teachers by areas. The study revealed considerable disparities in terms of the proportions of men and women, of professional qualification, of experience and of stability of the teaching staff. Although there are exceptions, the general rule is systematic degradation of these parameters as one moves from privileged urban zones to the rural zones. Moreover, these handicaps in terms of human resources only serve to accentuate those already mentioned in the area of material resources. Under these conditions, how could one expect school in basically rural areas obtain results comparable to those of school in privileged zones?

At the micro-level, the study shows that at least three serious problems arise. Often teachers are simply not available to do their work properly. Many of them are forced to have a second occupation to survive. In addition, teachers in the rural areas tend more and more to live in local centers that are far from their school, but that offer them a minimal level of material comfort and services. Commuting time is then added to the time spent on a second occupation, to the further detriment of time available for teaching. Then there is a manifest deterioration in the commitment of teacher which is directly connected with difficult living and working conditions and with declining salaries. Moreover, teachers in rural areas have a deep sense of being isolated or even abandoned, for two kinds of reasons. They feel that they are not supported by the central administration, and at the same time they are cut off from the communities where they work. Finally, one observes a lack of competence and often of confidence in being able to work better, partly because of insufficient initial and in-service training, but also because of a lack of adequate support in the form of various teaching guides and materials.

Of course, there are no miraculous solutions to these problems, and one should not expect, for example, to be able to increase teachers' salaries overnight. But there is always some margin of manoeuvre which varies which should be utilized

fully. Low salaries are a real problem with a direct effect on teacher performance. Even though as has been seen, this problem is not the only concern of teacher and opportunities for improving their effectiveness by non-financial incentives are considerable, one should immediately improve at least the management of salary payment, so as to reduce administrative bottlenecks and to guarantee that payment are made regularly. More innovative and further-reaching measures could also be envisaged, in particular the revision of salary structures and of rules governing promotions and transfers.

More specifically, it really is necessary to come back to the issue of incentives that might encourage women and teacher with good qualifications and experience to work in schools in rural areas. Similarly, one should examine the relative advantages and disadvantages of recruiting local teachers who may be less qualified but more deeply rooted in the community more highly motivated.

In terms of improving the effectiveness of the teaching-learning process in the classroom, the planner can intervene in different ways. The first priority is to offer teachers decent working conditions. The influence that material teaching conditions have on the moral of teachers has been seen. It is difficult to ask them to be regular and assiduous if the minimal resources requited to teach properly are not provided. This will vary from area to area but the role of planning is to identify disparities in teaching conditions and to provide compensatory resources to reduce these disparities and to ensure that the minimum is guaranteed everywhere.

The second priority is to pay greater attention to the quality of initial and in-service training. Investment in in-service training is generally at too low a level to have a real effect on the quality of the pedagogical process. Moreover, the substance of such training is often academic and too far removed from the everyday problems that teachers confront in the classrooms. The absence of adequate example of the weakness of present training systems.

Last, but not least, one should design the different support mechanisms for teachers as a coherent whole, explicitly directed at improving pedagogical practice in the classroom. Too often there is little or no connection between initial training, in-service training, supervision and pedagogical guides. This lack of coherence is confusing for teachers.

The study suggests first priority to offer teachers decent working conditions. The second priority should be to pay greater attention to the quality of initial and in-service training. One should design the different support mechanisms for teachers as a co-herent whole, explicitly directed at improving pedagogical activities in the classroom.

c) Bringing the school closer to the community

Just as the administrative hierarchy tends to blame the teachers for their lack of commitment, so the teachers themselves are blaming parents for the lack of interest, absenteeism and the high drop out rate of their children. At the same time, they make little effort to meet parents, whether by organizing meetings or by asking

them to come to the school individually. This reflects weak teacher motivation, but also their conviction that parents do not have much to contribute to the school.

As for parents in rural areas, they have little contact with teachers, partly because they are hardly invited to do so, partly because the school is an alien world for them if they have not been to school themselves, and partly because they themselves do not really see what useful purpose such contact could serve. Their attitude is one of the passive but benevolent ignorance. They generally have a good opinion of the school and find that teachers do a good job. They entrust their children to teachers without really expecting much accountability.

As a result, there is an abyss between the school and the parents, and the synergy that could be generated by good interaction between these two parties is not present at all. On the contrary, there is very much a vicious circle. Teachers do not solicit the co-operation of parents. Consequently, the latter feel less and less concerned by what happens at school, their own motivation and that of their children is weakened and this leads to failure and dropping out. The teachers, in turn, are convinced that they are not supported by families.

For the school to yield better results, it is necessary to break out of this vicious circle whereby parental discouragement is met with teacher defeatism. The question is how? Obviously, to solve the problem it is not enough to create a parents' association or a school development committee. Such organizations usually exist on paper but function poorly or not at all. In and of themselves, they do not guarantee a more positive attitude of teachers to parents, nor a sense of ownership on the part of parents vis-a-vis the school. As several studies have shown, the attitude of the staff, and especially the teaching staff, is of capital importance when one wants to achieve more open and more participatory functioning of schools. In fact, it is often more difficult to convince teachers to take this road than it is to convince parents.

Moreover, it must be accepted that it takes time to change habits and traditions, and consequently one must reason in terms of stages. In the immediate term, the most urgent task is probably simply to make the school more welcoming for its users. To achieve this, teacher should be made aware that they need families to do a good job, that they have to invite parents to become familiar with the school's life, in order to stimulate their interest and to obtain their support for the schooling of their children. The study points out that it is not enough to create a parents' association or a school development committee. Teachers should be made aware that they need families to do a good job, that they have to invite parents to become familiar with the school life in order to stimulate their interest and to obtain their support for the schooling of their children. Once the cultural gap separating parents and teachers has been bridged, more elaborate forms of participation become possible, and in particular more active involvement of parents in the school's management and control.

5) Recommendations

From the foregoing results and conclusions of the study the following recommendations emerge.

a) For enhancing accessibility to the school, the content of education must be relevant and suited to community needs.

b) Dialogue with the users of educational services is indispensable to the adoption of changes to local realities.

c) Decision-makers should be aware of the importance of parents' opinion and what they expect from school for their children.

d) Health services like regular health checks, for distribution of medicines, counselling, referral services should be provided.

e) Local teachers should be made available for teaching in schools so as to reduce the problem of teacher absenteeism and improve punctuality.

f) Incentives be provided to encourage women and teachers with good qualifications and experience and train them to work in schools in rural areas. This will reduce migration to urban schools.

g) Design different support mechanisms for teachers as a coherent whole, explicitly directed at improving pedagogical practice in the classroom.

h) Provide regular in-service training to teachers.

i) Bridge the cultural gap between parents and teachers through more elaborate forms of participation in the school's management and control.

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◈ ANNEXURE

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is a historic stride towards achieving the long cherished goal of Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE) through a time-bound integrated approach *in partnership with States.* SSA, which promises to change the face of the elementary education sector of the country, aims to provide useful and quality elementary education to all children in the 6-14 age group by 2010.

The SSA is an effort to recognize the need for improving the performance of the school system and to provide community owned quality elementary education in the mission mode. It also envisages bridging of gender and social gaps.

Objectives of Sarva Shiksha Aabhiyan

- All children in school, Education Guarantee Centre, Alternate School, 'Back to School' camp by 2003;
- All children complete five years of primary schooling by 2007;
- All children complete eight years of schooling by 2010;
- Focus on elementary education of satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life;
- Bridge all gender and social category gaps at primary stage by 2007 and at elementary education level by 2010; and
- Universal retention by 2010.

Structure for Implementation

The Central and State governments will together implement the SA in partnership with the local governments and the community. To signify the national priority for elementary education, a National Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Mission is being established with the Prime Minister as the Chairperson and the Union Minister of Human Resource Development as the Vice-Chairperson. States have been requested to establish State Level and Implementation Society for UEE under the Chairmanship of Chief Minister Education Minister. This has already been done in many States.

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan will not disturb existing structures in States and districts but would only try to bring convergence in all these efforts. Efforts will be made to ensure that there is functional decentralization down to the school level in order to improve community participation. Besides recognizing PRIs/Tribal Councils in Scheduled Areas, including the Gram Sabha, the States would be encouraged to enlarge the accountability framework by involving NGOs, teachers, activists, women's organizations, etc

Coverage and Period

The SSA will cover the entire expanse of the country before March 2002 and the duration of the programme in every district will depend upon the District Elementary Education Plan (DEEP) prepared by it as per its specific needs. However, the upper limit for the programme period has been fixed as ten years, i.e., upto 2010.

Strategies Central to SSA Programme

- **Institutional Reforms -** As part of the SSA, institutional reforms in the States will be carried out. The states will have to make an objective assessment of their prevalent education system including educational administration, achievement levels in schools, financial issues, decentralisation and community ownership, review of State Education Act, rationalization of teacher deployment and recruitment of teachers, monitoring and evaluation, education of girls, SC/ST and disadvantaged groups, policy regarding private schools and ECCE. Many States have already effected institutional reforms to improve the delivery system for elementary education.
- **Sustainable Financing -** The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is based on the premise that financing of elementary education interventions has to be sustainable. This calls for a long-term perspective on financial partnership between the Central and the State governments.
- **Community Ownership -** The programme calls for community ownership of school-based interventions through effective decentralisation. This will be augmented by involvement of women's groups, VEC members and members of Panchayati Raj institutions.
- **Institutional Capacity Building -** The SSA conceives a major capacity building role for national and state level institutions like NIEPA/NCERT/NCTE/SCERT/SIEMAT. Improvement in quality requires a sustainable support system of resource persons.
- **Improving mainstream educational administration -** It calls for improvement of mainstream educational administration by institutional

development, infusion of new approaches and by adoption of cost effective and efficient methods.

- **Community-based monitoring full with full transparency** - The Programme will have a community-based monitoring system. The Educational Management Information System (EMIS) will correlate school level data with community-based information from micro-planning and surveys. Besides this, every school will have a notice board showing all the grants received by the school and other details.
- **Habitation as a unit of planning** - The SSA works on a community-based approach to planning with habitation as a unit of planning. Habitation plans will be the basis for formulating district plans.
- **Accountability to Community** - SSA envisages cooperation between teachers, parents and PRIs as well as accountability and transparency.
- **Education of girls** - Education of girls, especially those belonging to the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, will be one of the principal concerns in Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan.
- **Focus on special groups** - There will be a focus on the educational participation of children from SC/ST, religious and linguistic minorities, disadvantaged groups and the disabled children.
- **Pre-Project Phase** - SSA will commence throughout the country with a well planned per project phase that provides for a large number of interventions for capacity development to improve the delivery and monitoring system.
- **Thrust on quality** - SSA lays a special thrust on making education at elementary level useful and relevant for children by improving the curriculum, child control activities and effective teaching methods.
- **Role of teachers** - SSA recognizes the critical role of teachers and advocates a focus on their development needs. Setting up of BRC/CRC, recruitment of qualified teachers, opportunities for teacher development through participation in curriculum-related material development, focus on classroom process and exposure visits for teachers are all designed to develop the human resource among teachers.
- **District Elementary Education Plans** - As per the SSA framework, each district will prepare a District Elementary Education Plan reflecting all the investments being made in the elementary sector, with a holistic and convergent approach.

Requirement of Financial Resources for uee

According to broad assessments made by the Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, nearly Rs. 60,000 crores additional resources are required from the budget of the Central and the State level Departments over the next ten years. Since SSA is a programme for universalisation of elementary education, the actual requirement of funds can only be worked out after the District Elementary Education Plans are finalised.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) has two aspects - (I) It provides a wide convergent framework for implementation of Elementary Education Scheme; (ii) It is also a programme with budget provision for strengthening vital areas to achieve universalisation of elementary education. While all investments in the elementary education sector from the State and the Central Plans will reflect as part of the SSA framework, they will all merge into the SSA programme within the next few years. As a programme, it reflects the additional resource provision for UEE.

Financial Norms

- The assistance under the programme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan could be on a 85:15 sharing arrangement during the IXTH Plan, 75:25 sharing arrangement during the Xth Plan, and 50:50 thereafter between the Central government and State governments. Commitments regarding sharing of costs would be taken from State governments in writing.
- States will be required to maintain their level of allocation for elementary education in real terms on the base year 1999-2000. The share of states under SSA programme will be over and above the base year allocation.
- The Government of India would release funds to the State Governments/Union Territories only and instalments (except first) would only be released after the previous instalments of Central government and State share has been transferred to the State Implementation Society.
- The support for teacher salary appointed under the SSA programme could be shared between the Central government and the State government in a ratio of 85:15 during the IXth Plan, 75:25 during the Xth Plan and 50:50 thereafter.
- All legal agreements regarding externally assisted projects will continue to apply unless specific modifications have been agreed to, in consultation with foreign funding agencies.
- Existing schemes of elementary education of the Department (except National Bal Bhawan and NCTE) will converge after the IXth Plan. The National Programme for Nutritional Support to Primary Education (Mid-Day Meal, would remain a district intervention with food grains and specified

transportation costs being met by the Centre and the cost of cooked meals being met by the State government.

- District Education Plans would inter-alia, clearly show the funds/resource available for various components under schemes like JRY, PMRY, Sunishchit Rozgar Yojana, Area fund of MPs/MLAs, State Plan, foreign funding and resources generated in the NGO sector.
- All funds to be used for upgradation, maintenance, repair of schools and Teaching-Learning Equipment and local management to be transferred to VECs/School Management Committees.
- Other inventive schemes like distribution of scholarships and uniforms will continue to be funded under the State Plan. They will not be funded under the SSA programme.

Norms

Intervention	Norm
Teacher	• One teacher for every 40 children in Primary and upper primary schools. • At least two teachers in a Primary school.
School/Alternative schooling facility	• Within one kilometre of every habitation.
Upper Primary Schools/Sector	• As per requirement based on the number of children completing primary education, up to a ceiling of one upper primary school/section for every two primary schools.
Class Rooms	• A room for every teacher in Primary and upper Primary. • A room for Head Master in upper Primary school/sector.
Free textbooks	• To all girls/SC/ST children at primary and upper primary level within an upper ceiling or Rs. 150 per child.
Civil works	• Ceiling of 33% of SSA programme funds. • For improvement of school facilities, BRC/CRC construction. • No expenditure to be incurred on construction of office buildings.

Maintenance and repair of school buildings	• Only through school management committees. • Upto Rs. 5000 per year as per a specific proposal by the school committee. • Must involve elements of community contribution.
Upgradation of EGS to regular school	• Provision for TLE @ Rs. 10,000 per school • Provision for teacher and classrooms.
TLE for upper primary Schools grant	• @Rs. 50,000 per school for uncovered schools. • Rs. 2000 per year per primary/upper primary school for replacement of school equipments.
Teacher grant	• Rs. 500 per teacher per year in primary and upper primary.
Teacher training	• Provision of 20 days in service for all teachers, 60 days refresher courses for untrained teachers and 30 day orientation for freshly trained recruits @ Rs. 70 per day.
State Institute of Educational Management Administration and Training (SIEMAT)	• One time assistance up to Rs. 3 crore.
Training of community leaders	• For a maximum of 8 persons in a village for 2 days. • @ Rs. 30 per day.
Provision for disabled children	• Upto Rs. 1200 per child for integration of disabled children, as per specific proposal.
Research, Evaluation, supervision and monitoring	• Upto Rs. 1500 per school per year. • By creating pool of resource persons, providing travel grant and honorarium for monitoring, generation of community-based data, research studies, cost of assessment and appraisal terms and their field activities.
Management Cost	• Not to exceed 6% of the budget of a district plan.

Innovative activity for girls' education, early childhood care and education, interventions for children belonging to SC/ST community, computer education specially for upper primary level	• Upto to Rs. 15 lakhs for each innovative project and Rs. 50 lakhs for a district will apply for SSA.
Block Resource Centres/Cluster Resource Centres	• Rs. 6 lakh ceiling for BRC construction wherever required.
	• Rs. 2 lakh for CRC construction wherever required. • Deployment of up to 20 teachers in a block with more than 100 schools. • Provision of furniture etc. @ Rs. 1 lakh for a BRC and Rs. 10,000 for a CRC. • Contingency grant of Rs. 12,500 for a BRC and Rs. 2500 per CRC, per year.
Interventions for out of school children	• As per norms already approved under Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education, providing for the following kind of interventions. • Setting up Education Guarantee Centres in unserved habitations. • Setting other alternative schooling models. • Bridge Courses, remedial course, back to school camps with a focus on mainstreaming out of school children into regular schools.
Preparatory activities for microplanning household surveys, studies, community mobilization, school-based activities, office equipment, etc.	• As per specific proposal.

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