

***A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF NON-FORMAL
EDUCATION FOR GIRLS IN ANDHRA PRADESH.***

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MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

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1992**

TO
MY PARENTS
AND
BABJI UNCLE AND LAKSHMI AUNT.



ZAKIR HUSAIN CENTRE FOR EDUCATIONAL STUDIES
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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled
" A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION FOR GIRLS IN
ANDHRA PRADESH", submitted by Srungarapu Srinivasa Rao, in
partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of the
degree of MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY of this university, has not
been previously submitted for any other degree of this or any
other university and is his own work.

We recommend that this dissertation may be placed
before the examiners for evaluation.

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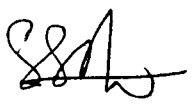
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CHAPTER - I
INTRODUCTION

This chapter is divided into five sections. Section I discusses the concept of non-formal education and its characteristics. It briefly outlines the differences between formal and non-formal education systems. Section II surveys the literature in order to trace the genesis of non-formal education. Section III examines the role of non-formal education in the developmental process. It also presents the existing perceptions on the concept of development. Section IV of the chapter reviews the available literature on non-formal education. It provides a rationale for the present study. The final section discusses the objectives, the sample, methodology, statistical tools and the terms used.

SECTION I

While there has been a lot of debate on non-formal education since 1960s, the clarity in the concept is still missing. Most often, the terms non-formal education and out-of-school education are used synonymously with some overlapping in usage.

Initial efforts to define non-formal education stressed the need to differentiate between the activities of school and out-of-school education. A brief resume of all definitions could well bring out the implications of non-formal education as an important component in the developmental process.

Rolland Paulston (1972) defines non-formal education as

a structured, systematic non-school educational training activity of a relatively short duration in which the sponsoring agencies seek concrete behavioral changes in fairly selected populations. Kleis, Long, Mietus and Tiapula (1973) characterise non-formal education in terms of the decentralisation and persistent subordination of the form to the formal schooling rather than its negation. They define non-formal education as follows.

'Non-formal education is any intentional and systematic educational enterprise (usually outside the traditional schooling) in which content, media, time units, admission criteria, staff, facilities and other system components are selected and adopted for particular students or situations in order to maximise attainment of the learning mission and minimise maintenance constraints of the system' (Kleis, Mietus, Long and Tiapula; 1973 : 8).

Philip Coombs in his book 'New Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youth (1973)' defines non-formal education as 'any organised, systematic educational activity, carried outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adults as well as children' (Coombs : 1973 :12) . This definition retains the aspects of non-school presumably meaning an activity different from classroom instruction and also the normal range of school activities.

The first attempt to put the concept of non-formal education in its operational perspective was made by Ward and Dettoni (1973). They laid emphasis on the functional and practical value in terms of utility of learning. For them, the non-formal education usually indicates education that is non-school but not without a form and such an education focuses on the improvement of social and vocational competency (Ward and Dettoni :1973 : 10) . In this sense the concept of non-formal education may be understood as a means to a goal rather than as a goal.

Another operational approach to the definition of non-formal education was presented in an Interim Report of the Michigan State University Programme of Studies in Non-formal Education in 1973. It says that the non-formal education is a general concept and could be explained in the context of changing developmental strategy and goals and the context of limited resources during early seventies. The Report defines non-formal education in terms of four components as follows (1973 : 43).

- . Although they may be linked to formal schools in several ways, such as sponsorship and shared facilities, non-formal efforts are outside the formalised, hierarchical structure of graded school system.
- . Non-formal education is a deliberately planned educational effort, having identifiable sponsorship, goals and programmes. It is not incidental or informal.
- . The non-formality of an educational effort is taken to reside in its location, sponsorship and administration, but not in either its purpose or its pedagogical

character or its credentialling status.

The explanation offered by the report for the purpose, pedagogy and credentialling, as may be used, substitutes for general education and specific education (purpose); highly structured and minimally structured (pedagogy) and primary motivation and secondary motivation for need based and credentialling programmes.

4. Given the definitional constraints, the particular interest lies in a subset of effort that satisfy the above criteria. Those educational efforts that have identifiable developmental purpose related to the contextualising of a setting in which they take place can be defined as the referent of the concept of non-formal education for development.

Marvin Grandstaff (1974) argues that at the initial stage, the non-formal education was formulated as a very broad and loosely defined concept. He explains the concept of non-formal education in terms of its functions, the selection of clientele, rewards system and the definitional mode must be made on the basis of function and the major imperative is for the clarity of stipulation in definition and not in the adoption of any single definition (1974 :90).

Benjamin Alvarex (1975), while discussing the conceptual problem of non-formal education, stresses the plurality of learning contexts and the social component of learning context. For him, some learning takes place in the community wherein the group of learning companions form an integral part of the same context (Alvarex :1975 : 6). He proposes a multi-dimensional approach to the learning context. Under this scheme, stimulation forms the specific

physical environment. Time and sequence and movements and processes form other elements of the scheme.

Le Bella (1975) defines non-formal education as 'organised out-of-school educational programme designed to provide specific learning experiences for specific target population'. Harry Case and and Richard Niehoff (1977) of the Michigan State University give a wider definition of non-formal education by keeping in view all the above definitions. They include various dimensions of the programme. According to them, 'non-formal education is any deliberately organised educational activity outside of established framework of the school particularly for out-of-school youth, for the purpose of communicating ideas, development of skills, changing attitudes or modifying behaviour related to the realisation of the developmental goals and achievement of higher standards of living and welfare of the people'.

While defining the concept of non-formal education, Naik (1977) adopts the definition of Coombs with slight modification. Naik adds the dimension of oral communication process to the definition of Coombs. He defines non-formal education as 'any organised educational activity for out-of-school youth to acquire skills through oral communication process (Naik ;1977 : 17). Malcolm Adisheshaiah (1979) gives three constituents of non-formal education. They are non-

formal education as a wide ranging, complex and powerful concept. Non-formal education is wide ranging since it comprehends all learning outside the formal system and has no parameters of time and space. It is a complex concept in the sense that its learning content has to be improvised for each group of clients and finally non-formal education is a powerful concept since it has the power to change the society and make it move towards justice.

David Evans (1981) defines non-formal education as those activities organised outside of the formal system, but form part of a whole integrated concept of educational system of a society (Evans : 1981 : 7). He puts emphasis on decentralisation, participatory type of learning process involving the community organisations and private voluntary associations, giving importance to the activities at the local level. According to Josef Muller (1984), the non-formal education programmes are aimed at satisfying the basic educational needs of a particular target group. Such non-formal educational programmes may serve either a compensatory purpose of acting as a substitute for missed educational development to and continuation of school education through the provision of pre-vocational training. Non-formal education thus as defined by Muller comprises all organised approaches to education, outside the formal education system, which are directed to both young people and children (Muller ;1984 :38).

It could be understood from the definitions discussed so far that non-formal education is a less structured educational activity outside the formal system, but with a lot of flexibility in terms of teacher, content and method of instruction. Non-formal education is different from formal education in terms of structure, content, timing, functions, methods, controls, etc.

Formal education is well organised and structured. At times it may even make education stereotyped with strict connotations regarding the qualifications of teachers, eligibility requirements of learners, content and method of instruction, etc. The major points of difference between non-formal and formal educational streams could be shown schematically as follows.

TABLE 1.1
DISTINCTION BETWEEN NON-FORMAL AND FORMAL EDUCATION

Variable	Non-Formal Education	Formal Education
Structure	High to low degree of structure but little interrelatedness of components.	Highly structured and functionally interrelated and existence of hierarchical arrangement.
Content	Task or skill centred; dictated by functional needs of the participants.	Generally academic, abstract.
Time	Short-term; present orientation; often part time study; flexible timing of activities, time and gain are related.	Future oriented; full-time attendance stressed; inflexible sequence of activities; time and gain are not related.
Controls	Uncoordinated; fragmented; diffuse; decisions made at the programme level.	Coordinated control; bureaucratic structures; centralised decision making.
Locales	Low visibility; may be on job at home; participants bear fairly low costs; High efficiency of locale utilisation; i.e. functions related to learning.	Highly visible; expensive; fixed in place; often state supported; low efficiency of plant utilisation; learning isolated from application.
Functions	Great variation; but stress on resocialisation; acculturation and learning of practical skills; knowledge to be used in work or community situations; seeks to complement or supplement formal schooling.	Stress on socialisation; enculturation and perpetuation of educational experiences.
Rewards	Immediate or short term gains related to daily life or work.	Long term gains in Socio-cultural and economic status.
Methods	Content centred; relatively flexible and related to application.	Class room teaching; teacher centred methods dictated by policy; non-innovative and inflexible.
Participants	Learners from all age groups i.e. age and place are not defined; variety of teacher qualifications and motivations.	Students' age defined; teacher formally certified.

SECTION II

The movement for non-formal education started around early 1960s in two different kinds of societies, namely, the developed and highly industrialised societies, on the one hand and in the developing and third world societies, on the other. The industrialised countries have come to recognise the need for non-formal education to strengthen their adult and continuing education. Life-long continuing education was felt to be essential in these rapidly progressing and changing societies primarily because of three reasons (Coombs : 1968:139). Firstly, to ensure the employment mobility of individuals, and to make unemployable drop-outs of the past employable; Secondly, to keep already well-trained people abreast of new knowledge and technologies essential for their continued high productivity in the respective fields. Thirdly, the need for non-formal education was felt to improve the quality and satisfaction of individual lives through culturally enriching their expanding leisure time.

It is in response to the above requirements that countries of Europe, North America and Socialist Countries like USSR Committed themselves to the part time non-formal educational programme. To be very particular, the need for non-formal education was realised first by Scandinavian countries. France has also given increased attention to special training and retraining non-formal educational

programmes for adults. USSR and Other Socialist Countries of Europe have all along attached high importance to continuing education. The Socialist Countries went on to the extent of breaking artificial barriers that separate formal and non-formal education streams with the Underlying promise that work and study must go together. Thus a strong need was felt by the developed industrialised nations to compensate the deficiencies of the formal education which stemmed from its failure to adopt sufficiently rapidly to changing needs (Coombs: 1968 : 141).

The case of developing countries is different from that of developed countries. The Under-developed third world countries with their narrower bases of economy and popular education during sixties faced with a priority task of educating vast numbers of farmers, workers, small entrepreneurs and others who have never seen what is there inside a classroom (Coombs;1968 : 142). Apart from this, another priority task for developing countries has been to upgrade the competence of partially qualified people in order to enhance the productivity. Combining these two tasks, the crucial problem of population increase, scarcity of resources and shortage of food were on the rise during the sixties. It is in this background that many countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America took up the path of developed countries in adopting the work-oriented non-formal education.

Several international agencies like The World Bank, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Association of Commonwealth Nations, Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO), International Labour Organisation (ILO), etc. provided tremendous support to these programmes of literacy in the developing countries. Philip H. Coombs in his book The World Educational Crisis in 1968 points out that education, as it was carried out in the past in the developing countries, is no longer possible in future and thus the search for new techniques in education is called for.

The debate that followed the genesis of non-formal education in the third world countries could be traced back to three roots. These emerged mostly out of the needs of the newly established states to provide education for all sections of their population. The first group of intellectuals who brought out the necessity for an alternative or supplementary method of instruction consisted of a large body of practitioners who have for decades been working towards this end. Their initial motivation was also carried away by the necessity of providing and improving the living standards namely health, economic livelihood and education of the impoverished people of the world.

The second set of people who were concerned much with

the non-formal education consisted of a relatively small but influential persons associated with the apex bodies of policy making. These people were engaged in creating effective alternatives to the existing formal educational system. These alternative education systems were expected to promote the developmental process and also to uplift the rural poor in particular (Coombs and Ahmed : 1975 : XXVIII). In New Paths to Learning, International Council of Educational Development (ICED) adopted a broader and more functional view that equated basic education for rural children and youth with minimum essential learning needs. This realisation on the part of policy planners led them to incorporate the educative influences of society and economy into a programme of education (Niehoff; 1977).

The third factor that contributed to the emergence of non-formal education has been the criticism that formal education is serving only the privileged sections of society leaving aside the masses i.e. the weaker sections. This was enriched by the movements like deschooling. The then ongoing debate on the works of Ivan Illich, Paulo Freire and Everett Reimer to deschool the society ignited the flare for new vistas in education. These educational thinkers proposed a solid ideological perspective on social justice and the dubious role of schooling in the developmental process.

Ivan Illich in his book Deschooling Society starts with

his views on why we must disestablish the school. According to him, in the contemporary society, not only the education is schooled, but the social reality itself has become schooled. Illich calls this inability as 'modern poverty' which combines the lack of power over circumstances with a loss of personal potency. For him, equal educational opportunity is both desirable and feasible goal, but to equate it with obligatory schooling is to confuse salvation with the Church.

Illich's main attack is on the failure of schools to match the educational ideals. He regards schools as repressive institutions which indoctrinate pupils, smother creativity and imagination, induce conformity and stupefy students into accepting interests of the powerful (Illich ; 1971 : 12). Illich calls this as 'hidden curriculum' which operates through the assignment of roles and certification by the schooling. The pupil has little or no control over what he learns or how he learns it. The pupil, according to Illich, is simply instructed by an authoritarian teacher and to be successful, must conform to its roles (1975:13). For him 'real learning is not the result of instruction, but of direct and free involvement by the individual in every part of the learning process.' In short, most learning requires no teaching.

According to Illich, schools are less efficient in the

arrangement of the circumstances which encourage the open ended, exploratory use of acquired skills. For him , a deschooled society implies a new approach to incidental or informal education. In Illich's words,

" The power of school thus to divide social reality has no boundaries ; education becomes unworldly and the world becomes non-educational (1971:13)."

Ivan Illich proposes what he calls a simple and yet a radical alternative to such a dehumanising schooling system. He prefers the abolition of present system of formal education and in its place offers two alternatives. Firstly, the system of skill exchanges in which instructors teach the skills they use in daily life involving systematic information. Secondly, Illich proposes to construct learning webs. The learning webs consist of individuals with similar interests who meet around a problem chosen and which proceed on a basis of creative and exploratory learning.

Paulo Freire viewed education as an essential input for social transformation. In his two scholarly works 'Pedagogy of the Oppressed' and 'Cultural Action for Freedom', Freire showed how education acts as a critical input bringing about the desired change in people. He considered it essential for initiating the process of change. Freire calls for a revolution in the process of learning and suggests that the one way method of teaching must be given up in favour of dialogue oriented education. Characterising the misery of

millions of people as 'Culture of silence', he called for conscientization¹ of people to make them aware of realities surrounding them and fight against exploitation.

Education in this connection, Freire writes, alone would liberate the poor from exploitation. Richard Shaull in his foreword to the book 'Pedagogy of the Oppressed', is right when he wrote that Freire's work represents a new unity of theory and praxis (Freire : 1972 : 9). Everett Reimer in his book 'School is Dead' argues that the schools for most people, are what he calls, 'institutional props for privilege'. For him, the costs of schooling in third world countries are rising faster than school enrolments and national incomes. According to Reimer, the most urgent priority before every third world country is to generate alternatives in education - alternative content, organisation and finance.

As a result of all the above efforts at various levels, the non-formal education became, by the seventies, a familiar concept particularly in developing countries. The initial response to non-formal education in these countries was perceived

1. According to Freire, 'Conscientization' is the process by which learners mean not as recipients, but as knowing subjects, who enter into a dialogue to achieve deepening awareness both of the socio-cultural reality which shapes their lives as well as the capacity to transform that society.

in three ways—complementary, supplementary and replacement mechanisms.

(a) NFE as a Complementary Method :- This view holds that non-formal education complements the education offered by the formal education system. The learners of this system are the ones who have their names enrolled in school. These activities are supposed to provide the non-class component of formal education (Evans : 1988 : 19).

(b) NFE as a Supplementary Method :- According to Ahmed, Niehoff and Adiseshaiah, non-formal education as a supplementary method normally comes after whatever amount of formal education a person has completed and serves to add on to the learning produced in school settings. These activities, in most cases, take the form of training primary school learners.

(c) NFE as a Replacement Mechanism :- This includes those educational activities which replace or substitute formal education. According to this view, non-formal educational programmes should serve both children and adults who for whatever reasons do not have the access to formal education. In some cases, these educational programmes may provide a stepping stone for people moving into the formal system.

If we were to view non-formal education as complementing or supplementing or replacing formal education, then it is possible to argue that non-formal education forms

basis of the proposals to carry education beyond the school walls.

SECTION III

This section examines the existing perceptions about the concept of development which ultimately spells out the need for a concrete non-formal education programme.

The problem of defining 'development' still exists despite various attempts by economists, sociologists and other policy planners across the world. This is because of what Gerry Rose calls the 'Concept-Indicator' link. According to Rose, it is necessary to be careful about moving from the level of abstract ideas, words which do not always have clearly defined meanings like 'development' to the level of measurement (1984 : 305).

A review of literature on the concept of development reveals that there could be three models of defining the concept. One model views development as discarding tradition, another model views development as emerging from the third world and still another view describes the concept in terms of the developed societies.

(a) Development as Discarding Tradition :- According to this view, development involves a transition to modern forms of socio-economic organizational thought. Such a transition is considered necessary because traditional societies are limited in their imaginativeness and openness to change.

According to Eisenstadt (1973), such a transition is necessary because traditional societies are dominated by narrow ideas which constrain all forms of creativity. In a way, this view believes that the change must come from outside.

(b) Development as a Struggle out of the Status being Third World:-

This view recognises that the problems of development do not arise exclusively from internal constraints within a society. They have much to do with a society's position within the world capitalist system. This view of development identifies the position of third world societies in the world system as being part of their problems.

(c) Development and Developed Societies :- The sociology of development does not only ask questions about the third world. It also poses many questions about societies from the first world (the capitalist countries) and the second world (once centrally planned countries of Eastern Europe and USSR). Within these industrialised societies, the spiritual and moral crises resulting in the growth of Contra-Culture questions the purpose of development based on the cash nexus (Robin Cohen : 1982 : 53).

Theoreticians of development are of the view that growth in terms of GNP does not automatically lead to the betterment of the quality of life of the people. This is

because the concept of development in terms of growth rate places too much emphasis on the development of capital, industrialisation, food production, employment and other benefits to the total population (Case and Niehoff; 1977 : 23). It hardly puts emphasis on the life chances and betterment of living conditions of the vast number of weaker sections of the society particularly, women and children. Inequality in access to education, health and other essential services for these weaker sections leaves one to question whether the strategy of development based on growth would deliver projected goals for the welfare of a country.

Uthant (1962) and Brandt (1981) understood development as growth plus change in social, economic and cultural dimensions consisting of quantitative as well as qualitative aspects. For Schumacher, 'development is not just growth, but growth centered around man, for him to live in harmony with his environment with a sense of values of human dignity, self reliance and self-confidence'.

Morris (1979) attempts to develop an index of the Physical Quality of Life (PQLI). For him, construction of such an index is difficult because it involves comparison with very different societies and it should measure the results (for example, how many people can read and write) rather than inputs (how much has been spent on education). The index is supposed to reflect the distribution of social

benefits. According to Morris, the mean averages like GNP will disguise serious maldistribution of benefits. He constructs the index with three indicators - life expectancy, infant mortality at age one and adult literacy. According to this model, Guinea Bissau has least PQLI of 12 suggesting that the quality of life of people of that country is very poor. In contrast, Sweden has the highest PQLI of 97. India has PQLI of 43.

The model of development by Morris is not free from criticism. Streeten and Hicks (1981) have summed up some of the problems of PQLI model of development. According to them, PQLI used three simple indicators with equal weights to attempt to measure the fulfilment of minimum human needs. For them, life expectancy is a measure of quantity, but not the quality of life. Thus, the term quality of life could be understood in much more broader way. Todaro (1981) argues that economics needs to be viewed in the much broader perspective of overall social system of a country which includes values, beliefs, attitudes towards making effort and risk taking, religion and class system. According to Todaro, the mistakes in understanding development stem from implementing policies based on economic theory.

John Toye (1987) says that it is important not to confuse economic growth, the expansion of goods and services, with development. For Thirlwaal (1989), the concept of

development is required for developing societies which can embrace the major economic and social objectives and values that societies strive for.

A very clear and alternative way of defining the concept of development comes from Amartya Sen (1984). Sen equates the concept of development with the concept of well-being. For him, the dominant approaches to the idea of well-being - the utility approach and opulence approach - are both fundamentally deficient. Sen offers an alternative 'capability approach' to well-being. It involves the rejection of both utility based welfare economics and commodity based growth concept of development. Sen focuses on capabilities in analysing well-being, equality, living standard and positive freedom. For instance, Sen explains that the capability to be well nourished depends not merely on food intake, but also on such factors as (a) age and sex, (b) if a woman, whether pregnant or lactating, (c) metabolic rates, (d) body size, (e) activity levels, (f) medical conditions, (g) climatic-conditions, (h) social needs of environmental and communal relations, (i) education, health and related matters. Thus, Amartya Sen defines the concept of development as follows :

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"Development is not a matter of expanding supplies of commodities as such, but of enhancing the capabilities of the people. The former has importance only in an instrumental and a strongly contingent way traceable ultimately to the value of Indian opulence is not

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unimportant for well-being, but well-being is not the same as opulence (1985 : 14)".

Partha N. Mukherjee (1989) also points out that the concept of development is an improvement in the overall standard of living of the most needy sections of society which is an amalgam of social, economic and cultural resurgence in society.

The World Bank Report (1991) on world development argues that any notion of economic growth must look beyond growth in per capita incomes to the reduction of poverty and gender equality, to progress in education, health and nutrition and also to the protection of the environment. It observes that the challenge of development, in the broadest sense, is to improve the quality of life especially in the world's poor countries (World Development Report; 1991 : 4). The Human Development Report (1991) brought out by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) establishes that the basic objective of human development is to enlarge the range of people's choices to make development more democratic and participatory. These choices include access to income and employment opportunity, education and health, and a clean and safe physical environment. Further,

Human development requires economic growth - for without it no sustained improvement in human well-being is possible. But while growth is necessary for human development, it is not enough. High growth rates do not automatically translate into higher levels of human development. Just as economic growth is necessary for human development, human development is critical to economic growth (Human

Development Report; 1991 : 1).

It could now be understood from the survey of existing perceptions on development that social development is the overall progress of society which may include modifications in the existing living standards namely literacy, health, nutritional level, etc. To achieve this, the minimum needs of the people, especially of weaker sections, are to be met. Literacy is an important element in this context.

Despite the growth and expansion of education in most of the developing countries, the content and delivery of formal education could not effectively reach out to the vast numbers of illiterate masses. Formal education with its highly formalised and institutionalised structures does not have flexibility and requires full time classroom attendance which may not be suitable to the rural masses. The centralised selection of teachers in formal education who are not acquainted with the culture and needs of the students is referred to as another lacuna (Naik, Chitra; 1985 : 158). The non-formal education tries to fill in these gaps in formal education and establish a correlation between working, living and learning. Philip Coombs outlines the role of non-formal education in the developmental process as follows:

"The non-formal education touches the lives of many people and well aimed, have a high potential for contributing quickly and substantially to individual and national development. They can also contribute much to the cultural enrichment and individual self-realisation (1969 : 138)".

Another aspect which needs to be emphasised is the role of women in the developmental process and the needs and responses of women to the programmes of non-formal education. This aspect has been undervalued, poorly developed and constrained by a variety of social, cultural and economic factors. The part played by women in production and distribution is often ignored particularly in rural areas. Thus, literacy and numeracy is necessary for women in order to realize their individual and collective potential which may enhance the developmental process. The non-formal educational programmes are expected to achieve this objective.

SECTION IV

There are a few studies conducted on the non-formal education so far. Koshy conducted a study on 'Integrated Non-Formal Education Programme for Mothers' in 1973, popularly known as 'Mahboobnagar Experiment'. The main objective of this project was to evolve a comprehensive programme through experimentation which would help to decrease infant mortality rate, improve physical health and nutritional status of the young children. The economic factors and the educational development were found to be directly linked to each other.

The Department of Non-Formal Education, NCERT, New Delhi conducted a survey of 228 centers in nine educationally

backward states of Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Orissa, Jammu & Kashmir, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh and Assam in 1982. The main objective of the study was to narrate the experience of NCERT in the initial years of implementation of non-formal education programme. It was reported by this team of researchers that (i) there is still some vagueness about the concept of non-formal education and what it is expected to achieve. (ii) people wanted to join non-formal education with a view to obtain certificates. (iii) the parents wanted their children to develop minimum competencies required for life.

The study conducted by Chitra Naik (1982) is very important in the field of non-formal education. This study has demolished a number of myths about the demand for primary education in India. The study area was Pune in Maharashtra. Seventy percent of the project's 1,300 students were girls. Many of them were first daughters where younger children of the home are already in the school. The project adopted a number of strategies to build community development. It appointed local people as project assistants to involve the villagers and make them concerned about the state of schooling available to them. The reasons given by the girls for attending non-formal education centre were to gain skills for adult life, to keep accounts, write letters, read documents and manage daily transactions. The project also

found it easier to train high school drop-outs as teachers than to retrain teachers with B.Ed degrees for their new curriculum.

Grewal, Gupta and Bhargava (1984) undertook a project 'Tools and Techniques to Assess the Performance of Children in Non-Formal Education'. The main objective of the project was to prepare tools. In this study, it was found that sex, age and social class seemed to affect the performance of the children. Sharma and Singh (1984) identified various approaches and practices of non-formal education in voluntary organisations in U.P and Rajasthan. Venkataiah (1985) conducted a study relating to the effectiveness of non-formal education programme in Chittore district of Andhra Pradesh. He concentrated mainly on obtaining data on the proportion of drop-outs, time utilisation, coverage of non-formal education centres, etc. He found that the drop-out rate among girls was higher than that of the boys. Jaya Chandrama Naidu (1986) conducted a comparative study of academic achievement of the students of non-formal and formal education streams. The findings of the study showed that there existed a significant difference in the academic achievement between the students of formal and non-formal education. The students of formal education are found to be performing better than those of the non-formal education centre.

Srivatsava and Gupta (1986) conducted a study of

methods, processes and practices of non-formal education programme for tribal students. Their focus has been on how far the methods, processes and practices employed by non-formal education centres were able to fulfill the educational and vocational needs of their clients. Five states were selected for the study. They represented not only five geographical zones of the country but also the different cultural areas of the tribals. The states are Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and West Bengal. It is found in the study that the enrolment of girls is half the number of boys (67.6 percent of boys and 32.4 percent of girls). It was also found that the cooperation of the Community has neither been provided in the scheme on non-formal education in the sample states nor have the teacher ever attempted to seek any kind of cooperation from the community for the effective functioning of non-formal education centres.

National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) conducted an evaluative study of non-formal education in 1987 to examine the locational pattern, enrolment pattern, management of resources, administrative aspects and academic support and innovations. Some of its findings include the influence of socio-economic and educational background of the family on the education of the

children, engagement of children in petty vocational jobs, etc. Most of the learners were found to be from agricultural labour and farming families. It was also found that the drop-out rates are higher where both the parents are illiterate and where there is at least one illiterate among the parents. NIEPA Report observes that the drop-out rates are more where the annual family income ranged from Rs. 2,400 to Rs. 4,800. The reasons for drop-out, as the report states, are household and domestic activities.

The review of literature on non-formal education shows that the studies conducted so far have not focussed on the socio-economic background of the learners, in general and girls, in particular. Moreover, the explanation of the interplay of various components of socio-economic background did not find place in these studies. Further, several studies have revealed that the formal education for girls is influenced by their socio-economic background.

Again, for women, in most of the third world countries, equality in education is still far from complete. Despite various legislations, discriminatory attitudes towards women continue. The disadvantages of girls in school education have been analysed sociologically by Deble (1980). According to her study, eventhough enrolment ratios for girls are increasing, they are much lesser when compared to the boys. She argues that the task of a sociologist is to clarify the

links between the school as an institution, on the one hand and society, on the other. Some of the sociological reasons that may limit girls' access to both formal and non-formal education systems and their drop-out from these systems are discussed below :

Firstly, there are still many areas in the developing countries where the provision for education does not exist. For instance the Fifth All India Educational Survey (1986) by NCERT reports that only 51.36 percent of the rural habitations had the schooling facilities and of these 76.98 percent had the facility for primary stage schooling within the habitations of residence.

Secondly, parents may be reluctant to send their daughters to school. If their sons remain unemployed after completing formal education, the problem is much more severe. In addition, if boys are going to school, the girls are stopped from taking up education in order to provide sibling care and domestic help (Ahmad : 1990; Karlekar : 1986).

Thirdly, the attitudes and social responses to girls' education may be such that their education is obstructed at every level thereby discouraging them from continuing their education. These attitudes are held to be relating girls only to home making, child rearing and certain low skilled and less productive occupations (Sadasivan : 1980; Arvinda : 1987; Shah : 1984).

Fourthly, marriage at an early age in some places also affects girls' continuance in education (Rajyalakshmi : 1989; Swaminathan : 1982; Singh : 1980).

Finally, it is interesting to note that the girls in developing countries are neither economically active nor attending school. The 'Report on Child Labour in India' released by Ministry of Welfare (1985) brings out this fact.

To sum up, the studies mentioned have shown that the formal education is far reaching for vast numbers of girls in India. The programmes of non-formal education are intended specially to literate the underprivileged social groups such as girls. The survey of literature also brings out the absence of analysing the non-formal education for girls in the context of their socio-economic background. In this study, it is attempted to focus on this aspect whose objectives are discussed in Section five.

SECTION V

OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The study was undertaken with the following objectives.

1. Who goes to non-formal education centre ? - in terms of age, sex, caste/tribe, socio-economic background, etc. Are there more girls ? Is there any difference in the social background of girls and boys ? What is the family income ?

2. Why do they come to NFE centre ? Is there any difference in the expectations by sex, tribe and SES.
3. How regular are they in attendance ? If not, what are the reasons for not attending non-formal education centre regularly.
4. What are the activities of the learner during the day and evening times ?

SAMPLE :

For achieving the objectives narrated above, we have selected the state of Andhra Pradesh because this is one of those states where some disturbing trends in enrolment and literacy rate have come to notice. The literacy rate of Andhra Pradesh, according to 1991 census, is 45.11 percent which is lower than the national average of 52.11 percent. Similarly, the male-female literacy rate differential is 22.53 percent while the national average is 20.06 percent.

The district selected for the study is Nellore. According to 1981 census, the literacy rate of Nellore district was 32.6 percent which was slightly higher than the state average (36.27 percent). Nellore district has a total of 11 non-formal education projects with 1100 centres of which 289 are exclusively for girls. Nellore has a project exclusively for Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe population. Among the nine coastal districts of Andhra

Pradesh, Nellore and Srikakulam districts with the highest Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe populations have non-formal education projects exclusively for these categories. Nellore has 48 centres exclusively for Scheduled Caste habitations and 21 for Scheduled Tribe habitations. The enrolment as on March 1990 in Nellore district was 24,150 of which 12,174 are girls. The number of enrolled SC children in 7,993 and ST children is 2,953. Kavali project in Nellore district is selected for the study.¹

Since the present study is a comparative one, co-educational centres were selected, but under a single supervisor who has 12 non-formal education centres as the area of operation. Eight non-formal education centres were selected for the present study of which two are exclusively for Scheduled Caste habitations and another two are for Scheduled Tribe habitations. Effort was also made to select 50 percent each of both boys and girls in the sample.

METHODOLOGY

Interview schedules were used for the learners, instructors, supervisors and officials at the district and state level Departments of Non-Formal Education (See Appendix 1,2,3).

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1. The researcher was informed by the district officials that the non-formal education programme in Kavali Project is actively pursuing the cause of educating children of the age group 9-14 years under a committed project officer.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

The interviews were held at the non-formal education centres in the evenings from 6.30 P.M. to 9 P.M., almost everyday from 15/09/91 to 10/10/91. Before taking interviews of the learners, the researcher spent at least one day in each centre to acquaint himself with the learners and the instructor.

Data Collected from the centres is analysed for percentage of responses in each category and comparison is made between boys and girls. Correlational analysis is also undertaken to understand the implications of the data collected and the relationships among various components of socio-economic background.

CHAPTERISATION

Chapter I deals with conceptual orientations and it tries to trace the genesis of non-formal education. This chapter also outlines various approaches to the concept of development and derives the need for non-formal education to achieve the goals of development. Review of literature on girls' education and non-formal education is also undertaken in the first chapter. This chapter also presents the objectives, the sample, the methodology, data collection and analysis of the study.

Chapter II deals with the genesis and growth of non-

formal education both in India and Andhra Pradesh. It gives the present status of non-formal education both in India and Andhra Pradesh. This chapter includes the description of the sample centres for the present study.

Chapter III presents the database of the socio-economic background of the learners.

Chapter IV describes the activities and education of the learners. It also describes the learners' reasons for attending non-formal education regularly or not regularly.

Chapter V presents a summary of the findings and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER - II
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION
IN
INDIA AND ANDHRA PRADESH

Article 45 of the Constitution ensures that the state shall endeavour to provide within ten years of the commencement of the Constitution free and compulsory elementary education for all. Subsequently, this aim was included in the Five Year Plans, Minimum Needs Programmes as well as the Twenty Point Programme of the Government. The 'National Policy on Education 1986' also stresses the importance of universalisation of elementary education. It resolves to ensure for all children, who attain the age of about 11 years by 1990, five years of schooling or its equivalent non-formal education. By 1995, it was expected to provide free and compulsory education for children upto the age of 14 years.

Despite all these policy pronouncements of the Government, the universalisation of elementary education has been a distant goal for India. The literacy rate, according to the provisional results of 1991 census, recorded to be 52.11 percent of which 63.86 percent is for males and 39.42 percent for females. The corresponding literacy rates for 1971 and 1981 being 34.45 percent and 43.56 percent respectively. The literacy rates for 1981 were computed for the people above the age of six years. Though there is an increase in the literacy rates, one could see the male-female literacy rate differential is almost the same for 1981 and 1991. In 1981, the differential was 22.07 percent while in

1991 it is 20.16 percent.

If we observe the female literacy rates for different states, we find the results of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh are discouraging. The female literacy rates of these states, according to 1991 Census, are 23.10 percent, 28.39 percent, 20.84 percent, 26.62 percent and 33.71 percent respectively which are below the national average of 39.42 percent. The rural-urban literacy rate differentials and Scheduled and Non-Scheduled Caste literacy rate differentials may further substantiate the view that the formal education alone cannot bring about the universalisation of elementary education in India. Schematically, it could be shown as follows.

Rural female (ST)	- 6.81
Rural female (SC)	- 8.44
Rural female (NSC)	- 21.68
Rural male (ST)	- 22.94
Urban female (SC)	- 24.34
Urban female (ST)	- 27.32
Rural male (SC)	- 27.91
Rural male (NSC)	- 46.14
Urban male (SC)	- 47.52
Urban male (ST)	- 47.60
Urban female (NSC)	- 51.19
Urban male (NSC)	- 68.46

Note : SC - Scheduled Caste

ST - Scheduled Tribe

NSC - Non-Scheduled Category

Source : Education for all - A Graphic Representation, NIEPA, 1990

It is seen from the above diagram that specifically, there are disparities between males and females, rural and urban and Secheduled and Non-Scheduled groups. It is also clear that females as a category are deprived in comparison to males. Among the males, rural males are more deprived than urban males. Similary, rural females are more deprived than urban females. It is quite interesting to observe that females belonging to Non-Scheduled groups are better than rural males of all Categories - SC, ST, and Non-Scheduled category. Thus, literacy being dismal and the coverage of the educational system being worse, the non-formal education is visualised as a supplement to the formal education system in India. Further examination of the details of the enrolment pattern, school attendance and drop-out rates at the primary level may substantiate the felt need for non-formal education in India.

According to the Report of the Working Groups on Early Childhood Education and Elementary Education (1989) which were setup to formulate proposals for Eighth Five Year Plan by the Ministry of HRD, the enrolment has increased from 52.8 percent in 1956 to 93.6 percent in 1986 at the primary level (classes I-V) and from 16.5 percent in 1956 to 48.5 percent in 1986 at the upper primary level (classes VI-VIII).

TABLE 2.1
ENROLMENT AT PRIMARY LEVEL: 1956-86 (In percentage)

Year	Primary Level (Classes I-V)	Upper Primary level (Classes VI-VIII)
1956	52.8	16.5
1966	76.7	30.9
1976	79.3	35.6
1986	93.6	48.5

Source : Report of Working Groups on Early Childhood Education and Elementary Education, Ministry of HRD, Govt. of India, 1989.

The Fifth All India Educational Survey (1986) by NCERT gives the percentages of girls enrolled in the formal education system as 41.16 percent at the primary level and 35.4 percent at the upper primary level. The figures for rural areas being 39.89 percent at the primary level and 32.05 percent at the upper primary level.

Another indicator of the failure of the formal education system lies in the proportion of attendance of the children at the school in 1981. It was computed by Aggarwala (1988). It shows that only 48.22 percent of children in the age group 6-14 attend the school. The attendance of the rural children is only 42.69 percent while for urban children it is 70.26 percent. The rural females has the lowest attendance at school with 30.93 percent.

A third indicator of the magnitude and intensity of the problems of the formal education is the drop-out problem.

According to the Annual Report of the Ministry of HRD (1990-91), the percentage of drop-outs between classes I and V and classes VI and VIII is given as follows.

TABLE 2.2
DROP-OUT PERCENTAGES - (1986-87)

Level of education	Total	Scheduled Caste	Scheduled Tribe
classes I-V	48.60	50.79	66.12
classes VI-VIII	64.90	69.15	80.19

Source : Annual Report of the Ministry of HRD, (1990-91).

The female drop-out rate was recorded as 51.17 percent at the primary (classes I-V) level and 70.16 percent between the classes I-VIII during 1986-87. The drop-out rate in general is a serious problem in India and particularly the drop-out rate for females is much more severe. The chief reason for this drop-out is observed to be the participation of children in work either outside the household or within the household. According to a computation by Aggarwala, it was found that about 66 percent of the rural male children of age 14 years participate in work and only 10.49 percent of the rural female children of the same age group attend work outside the household. Thus, it is evident from the enrolment pattern, attendance at the school, drop-out rates and the participation of children in work that a large majority of female children of age group 6-14 years are neither attending school nor participating in work outside the

household.

Thus, in order to supplement these deficiencies in the primary education scenario, the Government of India took up the programme of non-formal education for the out-of-school children of the age group 9-14 years. Though initially the programme included adult education and distance education, it is now intended to include only education for the out-of-school youth between 9 and 14 years and those who could not enter the primary school or adult education centre.

THE GENESIS OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN INDIA

Non-formal education in India was first mentioned by the Education Commission (1964-66) under Dr D.S. Kothari in a bid to find solutions to the problems of universalisation of elementary education in India. The Education Commission (1964-66) suggested the following measures to achieve the set goal (1966 : paras 7.28 to 7.32)

- (a) The expansion of universal schooling of five years duration to the age group 6-11 years.
- (b) Provision of part-time education to those children of 11-14 years who either miss schooling or drop-out of school prematurely.

The Education Commission (1964-66) introduces the concept of 'multiple entry' and part-time education to make elementary education universal. The education of the girls was also stressed by the Commission. It notes that the equal partnership between both the sexes will have to continue to

fight against hunger, poverty, ignorance and ill-health. The subsequent resolution of National Policy on Education in 1968 supports the view held by Kothari Commission and accords the out-of-school part-time education and education of girls an important role in social transformation. The 1968 policy on education states, 'the education of girls must receive emphasis not only on the grounds of social justice, but also because it accelerates social transformation' (Education Commission 1964-66 Report :XIII : 1971).

These developments in the sixties indicate that there has been a desire to go away from formal education and to search for an alternative method of education which can meet the goal of universal literacy. In India, the Social Work and Research Centre (SWRC) in Rajasthan started a non-formal education programme in 1975. SWRC is a Voluntary organisation created by young urban university graduates who encouraged and practiced education on the matters of community self-help, farming and irrigation, health and nutrition, family planning and small scale industries involving both men and women.

In the mid seventies, India's Ministry of Education and Culture transformed its relatively weak Department of Adult Education into a strong Department of Non-Formal Education and made efforts to mobilise and provide material and professional aids to voluntary organisations operating at the

local level.

It was around the same time, there was a general agreement on non-formal education as a means of achieving universalisation of elementary education among the policy planners, educationists and leaders of the country. Formal education was seen to be a failure to achieve literacy in a short period of time. In the words of J.P. Naik (1977),

"Formal education offers no help or a second chance to those unfortunate children who miss its narrow doors of admission or who are compelled to step-off it for social and economic reasons. It has also a tendency to become a vested interest which helps to perpetuate privilege or to encourage conformity rather than to promote equality or healthy dissent (1977 :10)"

GROWTH OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN INDIA

In a nation-wide drive to expand non-formal education in 1978, the Ministry of Education started the experimental scheme of non-formal education in nine educationally backward states, namely AndhraPradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal, the sub-group which was appointed to formulate the policy had identified three groups of clientele for such a non-formal education programme. The clientele groups are as follows.

- (a) Children of weaker sections like SC, ST, those in the hilly areas, those in the slums and other economically backward in the age group 6-14 years who have never entered the school or have dropped out.
- (b) Girls of the age group 6-14 years who are attracted by the existing formal education system.

(c) Boys and girls in the age groups 6-14 years who are employed in professions like carpentry, pottery, etc. These children need apply only a part time programme of education focussed around literacy, numeracy and citizenship training.

The Commonwealth Conference on Non-Formal Education For Development in New Delhi held from 22 Jan to 2 Feb, 1979 recommended that non-formal education should be seen as complementary to formal education in each country's development. The Conference also recommended that every child, irrespective of sex, caste or any other factor, shall continue to learn in the age group 6-14 years on a full-time basis, if possible and on a part-time basis, if necessary.

The recommendations of the above mentioned conference found place in the 'Draft National Policy on Education' in 1979 under Janata Government. This document deviates from the common usage of the non-formal education for school drop-outs and tries to include the traditional and cultural elements of the community by preparing the curriculum on those lines. The Draft National Policy on Education-1979 attempts to link both school and community and envisages that the school should function as a focal point for the development of neighbourhood.

All these growing concerns over non-formal education among the policy planners and educationists led to an emphasis on non-formal education during the Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85). It was expected to cover about 80 lakh

children under the programme of non-formal education. It was extended to almost all the states, thus making the removal of illiteracy a national objective. A special non-formal education programme for girls was operated in nine educationally backward states. These states were assisted on sharing basis of 50 percent by Central Government and 50 percent by the respective State Governments.

The provision of non-formal part-time educational centres exclusively for girls, staffed by women teachers, was initiated by the government from 1980. This scheme was revised in 1982-83. A new programme was prepared on a liberalised basis. It was proposed that 90 percent of the assistance will be given by the Centre and 10 percent by the State Governments. In 1982-83, there were 68,000 non-formal education centres and the enrolment was 14.7 lakhs. This shot upto 1,25,670 centres and 36 lakhs 72 thousands of children by 1986. Among them, 16 lakh 77 thousands are girls and 20 lakh 93 thousands are boys.

The policy perspective 'Challenge of Education' attributed a major role to non-formal education in universalisation by 1990. Out of total 64 million illiterate children, nearly 39 millions were expected to be covered through this system. The subsequent National Policy on Education (1986) and the Programme of Action which followed it proposed to launch a widespread and systematic programme

of non-formal education for school drop-outs, working children and girls who could not attend whole day schooling. The NPE-86 also provides the entry of students, who complete phase-I, into the formal system and it was ensured that the quality of non-formal education would be comparable with formal education. The non-formal education programme tries to promote the participatory learning environment and the curriculum was to be based on the needs of the participants and their local environment. It ensures that all children who attain the age of 11 years by 1990 will have had five years of schooling or its equivalent through non-formal education. As regards the education of girls, non-formal education is visualised as a key agent of change in the status of women in India. It is with this view the non-formal education for girls was stressed in the policy directive.

The POA spelt out the essential characteristics of non-formal education as organisational flexibility, relevance of curriculum, diversity in learning activities to relate them to the learner's needs and decentralisation of management. According to POA, the special features of non-formal education in India are as follows. .ls1

- (a) A learner centered approach with the instructor as a facilitator.
- (b) Emphasis on learning rather than teaching, and for this purpose the capability of the children to learn from each other needs to be highlighted.
- (c) Organisation of activities so as to enable learners to progress at their own pace, but using efficient techniques to ensure fast pace of learning.

- (d) Stress on continuous learner evaluation and certification of learners.
- (e) Provision of proper lighting arrangements at the non-formal education centres and necessary equipment.
- (f) In terms of scholastic achievement (particularly language and maths) following the norms set in the formal system, both because of its desirability per se and because it is essential for entry into the formal structures.
- (g) Creation of participatory learning environment and treating the children with the regard they deserve as persons engaged in productive activities.
- (h) Organisation of joyful extra-curricular activities including singing and dancing, plays and skits, games and sports, excursions, etc.
- (i) Ensuring that all facilities and incentives given to girls, children of SC/ST and others in the formal system, are made available in the non-formal system as well in addition to the provision of free text books and stationary to all pupils.

The Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) also stressed the need for non-formal education as an important programme for the achievement of universalisation of elementary education. During this Plan period, it was looked at as a gift for those who are not able or willing to attend full-time schools. Enrolment of girls has been a special attention in the Seventh Plan. This Plan reiterates the need for women teachers, attachment of the pre-school children and provision of free uniforms and other incentives in order to attract the girls towards non-formal education programmes.

PRESENT STATUS OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN INDIA

A unique feature of all the policies of non-formal education in India is that they are specifically developed to meet the educational needs of the children of age group 7-14

years. At present, non-formal education programmes in India are being operated through 2.57 lakh government run centres including 77, 832 centres exclusively for girls. In addition to the government run centres, more than 25,602 centres are run by voluntary organisations. However, these constitute only 10 percent of the total number of centres under the programme. The enrolment in these centres was 64 lakhs in 1989-90. A brief summary statement of the present status of non-formal education is shown as follows. .pa

TABLE 2.3
NFE IN INDIA (1987-88 TO 1990-91)

SNO		1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91
1	Amount spent (in crores)	38.41	36.91	32.95	46.95
2	Total number of centres(inlakhs)	1.93	2.41	2.57	2.70
3	Total number of centres exclusiv- ely for girls	-	64,792	77,832	81,282
4	Number of centres under voluntary organisations.	8,747	20,957	25,602	27,087
5	Enrolment* (in lakhs)	-	60	64	67.5
6	Number of states UTs covered	15	16	17	18

*Sex-wise break up was not available

Sources:-1 Annual Report (1989-90), Part-I, Department of Education., Ministry of HRD.
2 Annual Report (1990-91), Part-I, Department of Education, Ministry of HRD.

The central feature of the implementation strategy has been area specific and population specific planning. About 75

percent of the out-of-school children are recorded to be in the nine educationally backward states namely Andhra Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Jammu and Kashmir, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal. Disparities existed in other sates as well. Out of a total of 217.80 lakhs out-of-school children in the educationally backward states, about 93.82 lakhs were expected to be covered under the non-formal education during 1978-88. .PA

TABLE 2.4
EXPECTED COVERAGE OF NFE DURING 1978-88

SNO	STATE	ADDITIONAL ENROLMENT TO BE DONE IN LAKHS	EXPECTED NFE COVERAGE IN LAKHS
1	ANDHRA PRADESH	26.11	11.66
2	ASSAM	14.23	5.37
3	BIHAR	27.79	7.15
4	J & K	4.16	0.51
5	MADHYA PRADESH	33.48	12.56
6	ORISSA	14.78	5.76
7	RAJASTAN	28.30	14.15
8	UTTAR PRADESH	41.80	27.70
9	WEST BENGAL	27.19	8.96
	TOTAL	217.80	93.82

SOURCE : Cited in R.P Singh - NFE - Alternative Approach, Sterling Publichers., 1988.

Despite these expectations while launching the programme of non-formal education during 1978-79, the enrolment stood at 60 lakhs only. This is despite the fact that the non-formal education programmes have been reorganised on the principles of area specific approach

treating the block as a unit, micro-planning, improvised training for the instructors, supervisors and project officers. NIEPA has brought out an evaluation report in 1987 on the government sponsored programmes of non-formal education. The deficiencies observed sofar in the implementation of non-formal education are as follows. (NIEPA Evaluation Report on NFE; 1987)

1. There is generally a lack of conviction on the part of the state governments. The administrative system gives a step motherly treatment and there is a lack of faith among the functionaries and the families of the children who are supposed to benefit from it.
2. Although there is scope for adjusting the syllabus to the special needs of the learners, infact hardly any attempt has been made in this direction.
3. The quality of instructors and their training leave much to be desired. Training of instructors is inadequate.
4. The financial management system is totally deficient and inadequate. Delays in remittance of funds and shortage of funds are common features of financial management system of non-formal education programme.
5. The official Staff provided at the district and block level is inadequate.
6. Community participation is practically absent and efforts in this direction are also inadequate. There are no advisory committees with representation from the community.

NON FORMAL EDUCATION IN ANDHRA PRADESH

Andhra Pradesh is one of the nine educationally backward states in the country. Since its reorganisation in 1956, the State has been trying hard to universalise elementary education. Despite these attempts the growth of literacy rate has been marginal. The literacy rate increased from 24.57 percent in 1971 to 35.66 percent in 1981 to 45.11

in 1991. The literacy rates of both Andhra Pradesh and India are shown in table 2.5

TABLE 2.5:
LITERACY RATES OF A.P

Year	ANDHRA PRADESH			INDIA		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1971	33.18	15.75	24.57	45.95	21.97	34.45
1981	46.83	24.16	35.66	56.37	29.75	43.56
1991	56.24	33.71	45.11	63.86	39.42	52.11

*The literacy rate is calculated for the population aged above 6 years.

Source: Census of India, 1981 and 1991.

Though the literacy rates has increased, the increase is not satisfactory. The male-female literacy rate differential has been almost the same althrough, for instance, male-female literacy rate differential of Andhra Pradesh in 1971 was 17.43 percent, 22.67 percent in 1981 and 22.53 percent in 1991. This is higher than the national average of 20.06 percent in 1991 and 22.07 in 1981. Out of the total 23 districts in Andhra Pradesh, about 15 districts have a lower literacy rate than the state average and about 19 districts lower than the national average.

An analysis of the enrolment of children in elementary education would help us understand the necessity for non-formal education programmes in Andhra Pradesh. The enrolment in class I during 1978-79 was around 32.8 percent of the

total enrolled and for 1988-89, it was 25.76 percent of the total enrolled. Similarly, the enrolment in class VII was 6.78 percent and 8.14 percent respectively for 1978-79 and 1988-89. It could be observed from table 2.6 the steep fall in the percentage as the class increases at the elementary stage.

**TABLE 2.6:
ENROLMENT OF CHILDREN IN ELEMENTARY STAGE
CLASS WISE (IN THOUSANDS)**

Class	1978-79	1988-89
Class I	1874 (32.81)	2252 (25.76)
Class II	1068 (18.70)	1678 (19.19)
Class III	823 (14.41)	1291 (14.77)
Class IV	641 (11.22)	1057 (12.09)
Class V	531 (9.29)	962 (11.00)
Class VI	388 (6.79)	791 (9.03)
Class VII	387 (6.78)	711 (8.14)
Total	5712	8742

Note :() indicates the percentage

Source :- Note on Demand XVIII : Education :
Department of Education, Government of
Andhra Pradesh, 1990-91.

The enrolment of scheduled castes was 15,213 and 2548 per one lakh population at the primary and upper primary stages of elementary education respectively. Similarly, the enrolment of scheduled tribes was 12,866 and 1630 per one lakh population at the primary and upper primary stages of

elementary education during 1989-90.

Moreover, the drop out rates of Andhra Pradesh are higher than the national averages. In addition, the drop out rates for girls is much higher than the corresponding national averages and drop-out rates for boys. Table 2.7 shows the drop-out rates at the elementary stage of education in Andhra Pradesh.

TABLE 2.7
DROP-OUT RATES AT ELEMENTARY STAGE IN A.P.

	Classes (I-V)			Classes (I-VIII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Andhra Pradesh	57.70	62.17	59.60	78.03	85.14	81.08
India	46.86	51.17	48.60	61.44	70.16	64.90

Source :- Annual Report (Part I); Ministry of Human Resource Development; 1990-91.

It could also be noted that Andhra Pradesh has the lowest retention ratio in the country. For boys, the retention ratio is 25 percent as against all India figure of 34.80 percent. For girls, it is 19.57 percent while the corresponding national average is 25.58 percent, there are reports of non-participation as well as withdrawals from schools in the age group 9-14 years. Thus, Andhra Pradesh is educationally backward state because it has high percentage of non-enrolled children of the age group 6-14 years,

ingeneral and girls of the same age group, in particular.

The Indian Adult Education Association in its 29th All India Adult Education Conference held in Mysore during 15-18 October, 1976 has appointed a subcommittee to prepare curriculum and course content for non-formal education of the age group 6-14 years. The State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT), AP has developed this for the state of Andhra Pradesh. Area surveys were conducted to select the places where there is an immediate necessity for non-formal education.

The scheme of non-formal education in Andhra Pradesh was implemented initially during 1975-76 in the districts of Krishna and Khammam. Later, it was extended to other districts of the state at the rate of two per year. The districts that followed Krishna and Khammam are Cuddapah and Adilabad in 1976-77, Srikakulam and Mahabubnagar in 1977-78, etc. However, non-formal education as a centrally sponsored scheme for the children of age group 9-11 years was introduced in the state during 1979 (Department of Education GOMs no.1042; 1979).

Since 1979, the Government of Andhra Pradesh started taking a number of measures to identify and locate the necessity of non-formal education in the state. Some of the measures are as follows (Government of A.P. Bulletin on NFE; 1979-80) :

- (a) Identification of areas and the clientele and their essential educational requirements through a survey.
- (b) Proof of educational centres.
- (c) Conditions favourable for study.
- (d) Employing local people as instructors.
- (e) Appointing supervisors and officers at various levels.
- (f) Preparation of curriculum.
- (g) Training of instructors.
- (h) Propagating the importance of education through village level bodies.

ORGANISATION OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN ANDHRA PRADESH

Since 1976, a special officer has been looking after non-formal education and functional literacy programmes in the state. In 1979 the NFE cell was created in SCERT. This cell is expected to assist the Joint Director of non-formal education at the Directorate of School Education in academic matters. It is also expected to assist the Department of School Education at the state level. The district educational officer is entrusted with the official responsibility of administering at the district level. The district educational officer is expected to inspect the centres at regular periods and arrange for the training of supervisors and instructors by working in close contact with SCERT.

The non-formal education envisaged to impart education to the children of the age group 9-14 years, who are school drop-outs or had never been to school. The Government of Andhra Pradesh in its policy directive treats non-formal education as one more attempt at universalisation of

elementary education. The objectives of the programme are as follows (Govt. of A.P, R.C no. 697/88-288; 1988) :

- (a) To make primary education available to such children of the age group 9-14 as do not go to school.
- (b) To enable children of 9-14 age group who drop out before reaching class V to complete their primary education.
- (c) To make it possible for the drop-outs to cover the five year primary school syllabus in just two years.
- (d) To arrange the time table in such a way that the time of instruction does not become an obstacle in the way of earning their livelihood or their everyday domestic activities. Total number of hours of instruction per day are two hours fifteen minutes. It should work for a minimum of 275 days in a calendar year.
- (e) To enable these students to get into the mainstream of education, if they so desire.

According to the policy directive of the Government of Andhra Pradesh (1988), the time and content of non-formal education should be flexible. The timing of non-formal education centre coincide with learners' leisure time whether it be morning or evening. Generally in Andhra Pradesh, the NFE centres run late in the evening. The place of the centre may be a community hall or panchayati office or house of the instructor or a primary school of the locality. Each centre is expected to have a minimum of 25 students. The learners covered by NFE belong to weaker sections of society who cannot afford to spare their children for a full day school since the learner is an earning member of the family.

The instructor is the linchpin of the whole non-formal education programme. He is a friend and guide of the learner. Persuasion with love and affection is expected to

be his invincible weapon to win over learners. A local person with pleasing manners and popular with the community is supposed to be appointed as instructor. Minimum educational qualifications for the instructor is S.S.C.

STAGES IN NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

The non-formal education in Andhra Pradesh consists of two phases. The first phase of NFE comprises of two years with four stages (stages I,II,III and IV). Each stage is expected to be covered in a period of six months. Knowledge and competencies which would normally be expressed in classes I-V of the formal system are included in the syllabus for phase I. It is expected that a short-bridge course will fill whatever little gaps might be there. Children who has completed the phase I of non-formal education would be able to take entrance test for class VI and seek admission in formal system.

Phase II of non-formal education consists of one year course in two stages. Each stage runs through six months duration. This phase is expected to supplement the educational prospects of the dropouts after V and before VII standard of formal system.

PRESENT STATUS OF NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN ANDHRA PRADESH

The non-formal education in Andhra Pradesh which was started in 1979-80 has expanded enormously within ten years.

A major development in 1988-89 in implementing non-formal education in Andhra Pradesh is projectisation¹ which is expected to improve the supervision of the programme. All the non-formal education centres in the state were consolidated into 244 compact projects to make the supervision effective, meaningful and effective.

The status position of non-formal education prior to projectisation in Andhra Pradesh is shown in the table 2.8. Total number of centres increased from 2,640 in 1979-80 to 24,572 by 1987-88. The enrolment increased from 66,880 in 1979-80 to 6,14,300 in 1987-88.

TABLE 2.8
STATUS POSITION OF NFE PRIOR TO PROJECTISATION IN
ANDHRA PRADESH

S No.	Year	No. of blocks covered	No. of NFE centres opened	Enrolment
1	1979-80	44	2,640	66,800
2	1980-81	23	1,300	34,500
3	1981-82	-	-	-
4	1982-83	46	2,760	60,000
5	1983-84	-	-	-
6	1984-85	161	10,672	2,66,800
7	1986-87	72	4,320	1,03,000
8	1987-88	70	2,800	70,000
	Total	416	24,572	6,14,300

Source : Performance Budget : Department of Education;
Govt. of A.P. 1990-91.

Projectisation: The Government of Andhra Pradesh has consolidated all the non-formal education centres into projects to improve the supervision and administration of non-formal education programme in 1988-89

The non-formal education in Andhra Pradesh was reorganised, as mentioned earlier, into projects bringing hundred non-formal education centres into one project headed by a project officer. This project approach helped to bring scattered non-formal education centres in a wide geographical area into a compact and continuous area facilitating better supervision and sound management (Performance Budget Paper; Department of Education; Govt. of Andhra Pradesh; 16 : 1990-91).

The administrative structure is reconstituted to suit each project. The project officer is assisted by one senior assistant, one junior assistant and one attender in his office and by 10-12 supervisors having jurisdiction over 8-12 non-formal education centres in the project.

STATUS POSITION AFTER PROJECTISATION - 1990-91

1.	No. of projects	-	244
2.	No. of primary level centres	-	15,398
3.	No. of girls centres	-	6,202
4.	Middle level centres	-	2,800
5.	Total no. of centres	-	24,400
6.	Total children covered	-	6.8 lakhs.

The Government of Andhra Pradesh realised the need for establishing non-formal education centres exclusively for girls since 1984-85. There were only 1012 centres exclusively for girls in 1985. After projectisation some more centres were established or existed centres were converted into centres meant exclusively for girls. In 1990-91, the total number of centres exclusively for girls

increased to 6,202. The enrolment of girls in non-formal education centres is shown in the table 2.9

TABLE 2.9
ENROLMENT OF GIRLS IN NFE CENTRES

SNo.	Year	Total enrolment	Total no. of girls
1	1985-86	5,32,499	2,14,894
2	1990-91	6,81,098	3,09,618

Sources : 1. Fifth All India Educational Survey; NCERT; 1986
2. Report of APDSE on NFE : 1990-91.

The enrolment of girls is 50 percent of the total enrolment in all the years. This is so despite several crash programmes undertaken by the Government of Andhra Pradesh exclusively for the non-formal education of girls.

Another important aspect is the enrolment of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe children in the non-formal education. At present, there are 534 centres for Scheduled Castes and 466 centres for Scheduled Tribes in operation in the state. Out of the total enrolment of 6 lakh 81 thousands, about 1 lakh 45 thousands are from Scheduled Castes while 61,185 children are from Scheduled Tribes.

District wise distribution of enrolment of children is shown in the table 2.10.

TABLE 2.10
DISTRICT WISE DISTRIBUTION OF ENROLMENT
OF CHILDREN IN NFE IN A.P.

SNo.	Name of the District	1984-85		1990-91	
		Total	Girls	Total	Girls
1	Srikakulam	20,273	6,962	25,036	10,991
2	Vizianagaram	19,414	6,564	26,151	16,600
3	Visakhapatnam	20,279	6,405	37,655	34,630
4	East Godavari	19,014	6,718	29,504	13,632
5	West Godavari	20,549	7,978	29,866	15,868
6	Krishna	10,103	5,973	29,108	15,739
7	Guntur	17,649	9,150	30,432	14,968
8	Praksham	17,284	8,753	23,538	14,617
9	Nellore	22,008	9,584	24,150	12,174
10	Cuddapah	22,568	9,742	34,476	22,920
11	Anantpur	16,289	7,790	29,963	14,564
12	Chittore	24,950	13,439	30,150	15,312
13	Kurnool	19,321	6,452	23,229	9,466
14	Mahaboobnagar	17,934	1,960	28,280	9,428
15	Hyderabad	18,760	9,789	18,961	10,434
16	Warangal	19,667	5,542	24,254	9,299
17	Khammam	18,760	7,302	20,998	6,673
18	Nalganda	21,707	9,534	27,489	1,115
19	Karimnagar	21,264	6,698	27,514	9,765
20	Madak	18,558	3,084	18,949	6,278
21	Nizamabad	19,667	5,542	20,146	5,794
22	Rangareddy	23,342	8,336	20,045	6,972
23	Adilabad	15,755	2,857	16,644	6,972
Total		4,45,115	1,66,154	6,18,548	2,85,891

Sources: 1. Statement of APDSE on NFE in A.P.-1984-85
2. Statement of APDSE on NFE in A.P.-1990-91.

Eventhough non-formal education scheme was in operation for more than a decade in Andhra Pradesh. It is quite distressing to note that the number of learners who had successfully completed the phase-I of non-formal education

has been only 44 in 1990-91. The total number of learners who had successfully completed phase I was nil until 1984-85.

A 'Note on Demand XVIII on Education 1990-91' released by the Department of Education in A.P. observes that the main problem of non-formal education programme is one of attracting and retaining the children in the NFE centres. Therefore, it could now be said that the non-formal education in Andhra Pradesh is growing at a very slow pace and it has not reached upto the expectation of the policy to literate the children between the ages 9-14.

DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLE CENTRES

According to 1991 census results, Jaladanki has a population of 33,531 of which 13,908 are males and 19,683 are females. The main occupations of the people in this area are agriculture and agricultural labour. It was reported by the revenue officials that 70 percent of the land is wet and 20 percent is dry while 10 percent of land is barren. Paddy is the main agricultural crop in the area. Apart from paddy, redgrams, chillies, tobacco, cotton, jowar and ragi are also under cultivation. Kavali canal is the major source for irrigation and well cultivation is also practised.

Jaladanki supervisory area has two primary health centres - one each in Jaladanki (main) and Kothapalli villages. The doctor attends thrice a week - Tuesday,

Wednesday and Thursday. Besides, the primary health centre, Jaladanki (main) has a private nursing home run by Reserve Medical Practitioner (RMP). There are traditional 'dais' (village nurses) in every village of the supervisory area. There is one agricultural extension office and one veterinary hospital in Jaladanki (main). State Bank of India has its extension branch in the village. There is one dairy booth run by A.P. Dairy Development Corporation in all the villages. The nearest town is Kavali which is 15 km from Jaladanki. Jaladanki is connected to the town by State Road Transport Corporation buses for every two hours. The last bus to the town is at 9.30 P.M. and from the town is 10.15 P.M.

The total number of literates are 13,415 of which 8,716 are males and 4,699 are females. Thus, the literacy rate of females is far less than males. Jaladanki has two primary schools while the villages Annavaram, Kothuru and Kothapalli has one each. Kothapalli and Jaladanki have a high school each. There is no Junior College in the supervisory area. Caste wise, Reddys are numerically dominated among the forward castes while Baliya and Kamma Castes are less in numbers. Next to Reddys, the major caste group is Scheduled Castes (Mala and Madiga). Scheduled Tribes (Yanadi and Yerukula) are also good in number in Jaladanki supervisory area.

In Jaladanki supervisory area, there are twelve non-formal education centres of which three are exclusively for girls. These twelve centres are spread over Jaladanki, Annavaram, Kothuru and Kothapalli villages. Eight NFE centres were selected in Jaladanki supervisory area of Kavali Project. The description of the sample centres is given in the table 2.11

TABLE 2.11
SAMPLE CENTRES

SNo.	Centre	Habitation (Village or Hamlet)	Type	Status	Management
1	Kothapalli (Harijan wada)	Hamlet of Kothapalli	Co-education	Exclusively for SCs	Govt. of A.P
2	Annavaram	Village	Co-education	Exclusively for STs	Govt. of A.P
3	Daruvukatta	Hamlet of Jaladanki	Co-education	Exclusively for SCs	Govt. of A.P
4	Vaddepalem	Hamlet of Jaladanki	Co-education	Exclusively for STs	Govt. of A.P
5	Jaladanki(Main)	Village	Co-education	General	Govt. of A.P
6	Jaladanki(East)	Hamlet of Jaladanki	Co-education	General	Govt. of A.P
7	Kothapalli	Village	Co-education	General	Govt. of A.P
8	Kothuru	Village	Co-education	General	Govt. of A.P

The actual enrolment of the children in the sample centres is shown in the table 2.12. Four of the centres have the required enrolment of 25 children as per the policy of the government. Table 2.12 also gives the distribution of learners interviewed for this study.

TABLE 2.12
DISTRIBUTION OF ENROLMENT OF CHILDREN IN THE
SAMPLE CENTRES AND TOTAL INTERVIEWS OBTAINED.

SNo.	Centre	Total Enrolment			Total interviewed		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Kothapalli (H.W.)	12	8	20	4	5	9
2	Annaram	12	10	22	7	6	13
3	Darurukatta	13	12	25	7	8	15
4	Vaddepalem	15	10	25	10	8	18
5	Jaladanki(Main)	10	15	25	8	14	22
6	Jaladanki(East)	8	12	20	7	10	17
7	Kothapalli	13	12	25	7	4	11
8	Kothuru	9	13	22	5	8	13
Total		92	92	184	55	63	118

Table 2.13 shows the distribution of learners by caste in all the sample centres.

TABLE 2.13
DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS BY CASTE

SNo.	Centre	SC		ST		OBC		Forward caste		Total
		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
1	Kothapalli (H.W.)	2	4	2	1	-	-	-	-	9
2	Annaram	1	1	6	5	-	-	-	-	13
3	Darurukatta	7	6	-	2	-	-	-	-	15
4	Vaddepalem	-	-	10	8	-	-	-	-	18
5	Jaladanki(Main)	-	-	-	-	3	6	5	8	22
6	Jaladanki(East)	-	-	-	-	3	3	4	7	17
7	Kothapalli	-	-	-	-	2	1	5	3	11
8	Kothuru	-	-	-	-	2	3	3	5	13
Total		10	11	18	16	10	13	17	23	118

The hamlets, where the non-formal education centres for SCs and STs are present, are far away from the main village.

whereas the hamlets of the general centres are almost attached to the village. It may be due to the segregation between various castes based on the purity and pollution principle. It was observed that the centres exclusively for SCs/STs are not electrified while the general centres were electrified. Almost all the centres are run in the houses of instructors.

As already mentioned, the phase-I of non-formal education programme comprises of four stages. The distribution of the learners by stage is given below :

TABLE 2.14
STAGE WISE DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS

Stage of NFE	Boys	Girls	Total
Stage I	30	34	64
Stage II	16	16	32
Stage III	7	9	16
Stage IV	2	4	6
Total	55	63	118

It could be observed from the table 2.14 that most of the learners are in stage I of non-formal education. There are very few learners in the stage IV.

So far, in this chapter we have discussed the genesis, growth, and present status of non-formal education programme in India and Andhra Pradesh. This chapter also described the sample centres undertaken for the study. Chapter III will be focussing on the socio-economic background of the learners. Correlation between various components of socio-economic background is also attempted in Chapter III.

CHAPTER - III
SOCIO - ECONOMIC PROFILE
OF
THE LEARNERS

This chapter focuses on the socio-economic background of the learners. Socio-economic background is a broad term which includes those factors which are external to the educational system, but influence the educational prospects of the learners. For instance, the learner, apart from being a learner, in any educational stream is a member of a family, caste, social class and region.

The socio-economic background is known in various ways, as for instance, 'social class', 'family background', 'home environment', etc. According to Floud and Halsey (1958), 'educability is an aspect of the quality of life of the populations which is conditioned by the interplay of different aspects of the social structure. For Douglas (1967), the term social class is comprehensive in the sense that it includes various aspects of the home environment and society.

In India, the need for a comprehensive analysis of socio-economic background to arrive at an understanding of the attitudinal and behavioural patterns of children in schools was first brought out in the papers on 'Sociology of Education in India' by Gore, Desai and Suma Chitnis. Sharma and Sapra (1966) studied socio-economic factors influencing primary school enrolment. It was concluded by the authors that, in village situations, neither higher occupational status nor educational status of the parents and guardians

seems to influence the school enrolment of children. According to Ahmad (1974), the difference in the school backgrounds of the students is closely intertwined with their social backgrounds or with the educational, occupational and income levels of their families.

For Seetharamu and Ushadevi (1985), the socio-economic background of the students is important because the personality of the student develops in such a background. An Evaluation Report of NIEPA on Non-Formal Education notes that the socio-economic and educational background of the parents of the enrolled children has profound influence on their educational behavioural development either in formal or non-formal education (1987:46).

Apart from these studies, there are several social scientists who emphasised the need for an analysis of socio-economic background of the learners. Some of them are Desai (1953), Kamat and Deshmukh (1963), Naik (1965), Ruhela (1969), Chitnis (1973), De souza (1974), Shah and Thaker (1974), Lakshmanan (1974), Seetharamu (1985), etc.. Thus, the socio-economic background of the learners influences their willingness or unwillingness to stay back in the educational system, be it formal or non-formal system, till the completion of the course.

In this chapter, socio-economic background of the learners is presented. The indicators that have been analysed

are sex, age, caste/tribe, size of the family, order of birth of the learner, occupations of father and mother, income of parents, usage of type of fuel in the household and educational levels of father and mother. A new summated variable called 'Socio-Economic Status' is generated and the data has been presented in terms of this variable also. It is attempted to understand the correlations among various indicators of socio-economic status of the learner. There are 46.6 percent (55) of boys and 53.4 percent (63) of girls out of 118 respondents in our study.

AGE:

Non-formal education in India, as noted earlier in chapter two, is age specific and is expected to be imparted to the children within the age group 9-14 years. Age may be treated as an important factor for parents to send their children in general and daughters in particular to non-formal education centre which is generally run during late evenings.

TABLE 3.1
ACTUAL AGE OF THE LEARNERS

Age	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
6	1	1.8			1	0.8
7	7	12.7	11	17.5	18	15.3
8	16	29.1	16	25.4	32	27.1
9	15	27.3	21	33.3	36	30.5
10	9	16.4	14	22.2	23	19.5
11	6	10.9	1	1.6	7	5.9
12	1	1.8			1	0.8
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Table 3.1 shows the distribution of the learners by their actual age. It may be noted that most of the learners are between 7-10 years old. Quite a large number of learners are below nine years of age i.e, the officially permissible age for non-formal education. Again, very few (6.7 percent) are above ten years of age. It is also to be observed that maximum percentage of boys (56.4) and girls (58.7) are between the ages of 8 to 9 years. Further, the distribution of girls, compared to that of the boys, is more evenly spread between the ages of 7-10 years.

CASTE/TRIBE:

Caste and tribe are major structural features of Indian society. The Constitution of India specifies the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes while only a passing reference is made on Other Socially and Educationally Backward Classes. In this study, the Scheduled Caste children belong to Mala and Madiga castes which are in sizeable numbers in Nellore district. The Scheduled tribe children belong to Yerukula and Yanadi tribes, while the Other Backward Classes children belong to Yadava (sheep herder), Mangali (barber), Chakali (washerman) castes. Forward Caste children belong to Reddy, Kamma and Baliya castes.

Several studies have shown that caste/tribe has a definite bearing on the educational prospects of the children. The children belonging to Forward Caste are

expected to have better chances of being educated than the children from Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes. Forward Caste parents, though economically weak, are sending their children to schools while Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe and Other Backward Classes' parents, though better off, are not sending their children to schools (Ramabrahman : 1988).

TABLE 3.2
DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS BY CASTE/TRIBE.

Caste/Tribe	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Scheduled Caste	10	18.2	11	17.5	21	17.5
Scheduled Tribe	18	32.7	16	25.4	34	28.8
Other Backward Classes	10	18.2	13	20.6	23	19.5
Forward Castes	17	30.9	23	36.5	40	33.9
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Table 3.2 gives the distribution of learners by their caste/tribe. It may be seen from the table that 17.5 percent of the learners are from Scheduled Castes, 28.8 percent are from Scheduled Tribes, 19.5 percent are from Other Backward Classes and 33.9 percent are from Forward Castes. Again, 17.5 percent of girls as against 18.2 percent of boys are from Scheduled Castes, 25.4 percent of girls and 32.7 percent of

boys are from Scheduled Tribes, 20.6 percent of girls and 18.2 percent of boys are from Other Backward Classes and 36.5 percent of girls and 30.9 percent of boys belong to Forward Castes.

SIZE OF THE FAMILY :

Studies on drop-out and wastage revealed that the size of the family is an important determinant in the educability of the children. (Naik, Seetharamu and Ushadevi). The size of the family may force the learner to participate in the economic activity. If it is a girl child, she may be expected to look after the siblings and domestic work. Thus, we were interested in knowing the size of the family of the learner in non-formal education.

TABLE 3.3
SIZE OF THE FAMILY

Size of the family	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
3-4	17	30.9	18	28.6	35	29.6
5-6	35	63.7	41	65.1	76	64.4
7-8	3	5.4	4	6.4	7	5.9
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Table 3.3 gives the distribution of learners by the size of the family. Seventy six (64.4 percent) of the learners are from families with 5-6 members. Those from small families (3-4 members) are much less. There is no change in the distribution of families by size even when we look at the data for boys and girls

separately. In other words, most of the boys (63.7 percent) and girls (65.1 percent) come from fairly large families. Those who belong to small families (3-4 members) are 28.6 percent (18) of girls and 30.9 percent (17) of boys.

ORDER OF BIRTH OF THE LEARNER:

Apart from the size of the family, the order of birth of the learner influences his/her educability. This is particularly true in the case of girls. The first born girls are more likely to be engaged in domestic work than younger girl children (Chitra Naik :1980 ;Ahmad :1990).

The learners in this study are grouped into four categories based on the order of birth. Table 3.4 presents the distribution of learners on the basis of their order of birth.

TABLE 3.4
ORDER OF BIRTH OF THE LEARNERS

Order of birth	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
First born	17	30.9	24	38.1	41	34.7
Second born	27	49.1	25	39.7	52	44.1
Third born	10	18.2	13	20.6	23	19.5
Fourth born and above	1	1.8	1	1.6	2	1.7
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

It is seen that 34.7 percent (41) of the children are first born, 44.1 percent (52) are second born while 19.5 percent (23) are third in order of birth. The highest proportion of girls (39.7 percent) as well as boys (49.1 percent) are second born. Similarly, 38.1 percent (24) of girls and 30.9 percent (17) of boys are first born. Again, the percentage of first born girls is higher than the percentage of first born boys. Further, the percentages of first and second born girls are almost similar.

OCCUPATION OF FATHER :

Occupational background of father is an important determinant of the socio-economic status of the learner. Several studies (NIEPA ; Ruhela; Suma Chitnis) revealed that there is a very close correlation between father's educational level and occupational background. In a way, it could be said that father's occupation is contingent upon his educational level. This variable is also expected to influence the educability of the learner. It influences particularly the enrolment and continuance of the learner in the educational system-be it formal or non-formal. It was observed in the NIEPA Evaluation Report that the drop-out rates are more where the occupation of the parents is cultivation and agricultural labour (NIEPA : 1987).

In this study, the occupations of fathers' are grouped into nine categories. The categories are as follows.

(a) Agricultural labour (b) Construction labour (c) Sheep and cow herding (d) Government employee (e) Village artisan (Dhobi,

Barber, Lohars, etc). (f) Share cropping (Tenants of small land holdings) (g) Farming (h) Business and money lending (General stores) (i) Land lord. (Above 15 acres of land).

**TABLE 3.5
OCCUPATION OF FATHERS.**

Occupation	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Agricultural Labour	24	43.6	20	31.7	44	37.3
Construction Labour	2	3.6	3	4.8	5	4.2
Sheep and cow herding	3	5.5	1	1.6	4	3.4
Government employee	1	1.8			1	0.8
Village artisan	6	10.9	11	17.5	17	14.4
Sharecropping	2	3.6	1	1.6	3	2.5
Farming	14	25.5	18	28.6	32	27.1
Business/money lending	2	3.6	6	9.5	8	6.8
Landlord	1	1.8	3	4	4	3.4
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

The distribution of learners by the occupation of their fathers is shown in table 3.5. The learners, by and large, are from families where fathers are agricultural labourers and farmers. For example, 37.3 percent (44) and 27.1 percent (32) of the fathers of the learners are agricultural

labourers and farmers respectively. The other occupational categories with a reasonably sizeable proportion are those of village artisan (14.4 percent) and business (6.8 percent). Only one father is a government employee. He is a peon in the Mandal Revenue Office at Jaladanki and is a Scheduled Caste. Presumably, he got this due to reservation policy.

Again, fathers of more boys and girls are either agricultural labourers or farmers. For example, fathers of 31.7 percent (20) of girls and 43.6 percent (24) of boys are agricultural labourers. Another 28.6 percent (18) of girls and 25.5 percent (14) of boys are from families where fathers are agricultural labourers. It may also be observed that few fathers of girls (17.5 percent) and boys (10.9 percent) are village artisans.

Cross tabulation of data on father's occupation in terms of caste/tribe is presented in the table 3.6.

TABLE 3.6
CASTE/TRIBE AND OCCUPATION OF FATHERS.

Occupation	SC		ST		OBC		FORWARD CASTE		TOTAL
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Agricultural Labour	7 (70)	7 (63.6)	14 (77.8)	10 (62.5)	3 (30)	3 (23.1)	—	—	44 (37.3)
Construction Labour	—	2 (18.2)	2 (11.1)	1 (6.3)	—	—	—	—	5 (4.2)
Sheep and cow herding	2 (20)	—	—	1 (6.3)	—	—	1 (5.9)	—	4 (3.4)
Government employee	1 (10)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 (10)
Village artisan	—	2 (18.0)	2 (11.1)	4 (25)	2 (20)	5 (38.5)	2 (11.8)	—	17 (14.4)
Sharecropping	—	—	—	—	2 (20)	1 (7.7)	—	—	3 (2.5)
Farming	—	—	—	—	3 (30)	2 (15.4)	11 (64.7)	16 (69.6)	32 (27.1)
Business men & money lender	—	—	—	—	—	2 (15.4)	2 (11.8)	4 (17.4)	8 (6.8)
Landlord	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 (5.9)	3 (13)	4 (3.4)
Total	10 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	17 (100.0)	23 (100.0)	118 (100.0)

It may be observed from the table that most of the learners belonging to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other backward classes are agricultural labourers, construction labourers and artisans, while most of the

fathers of learners from Forward Castes are farmers, businessmen or landlords.

OCCUPATION OF THE MOTHER :

Occupation of mother is another aspect of socio-economic background. It is expected that working mothers will be influencing the educability of girls in particular. If mother is working outside the household, the girl child is restricted limited to home to look after the siblings, wash clothes and utencils and sweep the floor, etc. In most cases, it is expected that mothers of learners belonging to Forward Caste are confined to domestic work only, while those from Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe and Other Backward Classes are working for wages. Thus, there is a slight variation in the categorisation of the occupations of father and mother. It is also observed that most of the mothers are assisting the male members of the household in various activities, such as farming, business, artisanship, etc. The categories of occupation of mothers of learners are as follows.

(a) Agricultural labour (b) Construction labour (c) Service in other households (d) Artisans (e) Share Cropping (f) Farming (g) Business and money lending (h) House Wife/one's own domestic work.

TABLE 3.7
MOTHER'S OCCUPATION

Occupation	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Agricultural Labour	24	43.6	26	41.3	50	42.4
Construction Labour	2	3.6	3	4.8	5	4.2
Service in other households	2	3.6			2	1.7
Artisan	6	10.9	7	11.1	13	11.0
Sharecropping	2	3.6		-	2	1.7
Farming	10	18.2	13	20.6	23	19.5
Business and money lending	2	3.6	2	3.2	4	3.4
House wives/one's own domestic work	7	12.7	12	19	19	16.1
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Table 3.7 shows the distribution of the occupation of mothers. About 42.4 percent (50) of the mothers of learners are agricultural labourers, 19.5 percent (23) are engaged in farming and 16.1 percent (19) are engaged in one's own domestic work or are housewives. Another 11 percent (13) of the mothers are engaged in village artisan work.

Again, a large number of mothers of boys (43.6 percent) and girls (41.3 percent) are agricultural labourers. A

considerable percentage of mothers of boys (18.2 percent) and girls (20.6 percent) are engaged in assisting the male members in farming. As a matter of fact, there is not much difference in the occupation of mothers of boys and girls, except that more mothers of girls than boys are housewives. For instance, mothers of 19 percent of girls as against 12.7 percent of boys are confined to their domestic work.

TABLE 3.8
MOTHER'S OCCUPATION AND CASTE/TRIBE

Occupation	SC		ST		OBC		FORWARD CASTE		TOTAL
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Agricultural Labour	8 (80)	9 (81.8)	13 (72.2)	13 (81.3)	3 (30)	4 (30.8)	--	--	40 (42.4)
Construction Labour	--	2 (18.2)	2 (11.1)	1 (6.3)	--	--	--	--	5 (4.2)
Service in ot- her households	1 (10)	--	1 (5.6)	--	--	--	--	--	2 (1.7)
Artisan	--	--	2 (11.1)	2 (12.5)	2 (20)	5 (38.5)	2 (11.8)	--	13 (11)
Sharecropping	--	--	--	--	2 (20)	--	--	--	2 (1.7)
Farming	--	--	--	--	3 (30)	2 (15.4)	7 (41.2)	11 (47.8)	23 (19.5)
Business and money lending	--	--	--	--	--	1 (7.7)	2 (11.8)	1 (4.3)	4 (3.4)
Housewives/ One's own domestic work	1 (10)	--	--	--	--	1 (7.7)	6 (35.3)	11 (47.8)	19 (16.1)
Total	10 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	17 (100.0)	23 (100.0)	118 (100.0)

A large number of mothers of learners belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are agricultural labourers. On the other hand, a majority of the mothers of forward castes are either full time housewives or are assisting male members in farming. Only one of the mother belonging to Scheduled Caste is a housewife. She is the wife of the government employee. Mothers who are engaged in business are assisting the male members in running the general stores.

It may be observed that not many mothers are full time housewives because the respondents are poor and their mothers are engaged in one kind of economic activity or the other. It may also be understood from the data on the occupations of father and mother that the mothers of the learners from forward castes are housewives.

INCOME OF PARENTS :

The income of parents is a very important indicator of the socio-economic status of the learner. It is revealed by several studies that parental income is correlated with their educational level and occupational background. NIEPA Evaluation Report on non-formal education reveals that the dropout rate is more where the family income is ranged from Rs. 2,400 to Rs. 4,800 for annum. Further, the enrolled children from these families are often engaged in petty vocations in order to supplement their family income or in domestic work in order to assist mothers (NIEPA; 1987). The

income of the parents was recorded from the ration cards issued by the revenue department.

The annual income of parents is grouped into three categories. The categories are (a) below Rs.4,000, (b) Rs. 4001-Rs. 8,000 (c) Rs. 8,001 and above. Table 3.9 sets out the distribution of learners by their parental income.

A majority of learners (62.7 percent) belong to families which have an annual income of less than Rs. 4000. Another 22.8 percent of the families have an annual income between Rs. 4,001 and 8,000. While, 14.2 percent have an income of exceeding Rs. 8,000. The maximum income level is Rs. 12,000.

TABLE 3.9
ANNUAL PARENTAL INCOME

Income of parents	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
4000 & above	38	69.1	36	56.6	74	62.7
4001 - 8000	10	18.1	17	26.9	27	22.8
8001 - 12000	7	12.9	10	15.9	17	14.2
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Most of the parents of boys (69.1 percent) and girls (56.6 percent) have an income below Rs. 4,000. It is due to the fact that most of the parents are either agricultural labourers or Construction workers or are cow and sheep

herders. What is interesting is that the proportion of girls from families with higher income is more than those of boys especially if we were to divide the parental income into two categories, namely, those with an income of less than 4000 and those with more than 4000 per year. The percentage of girls in the higher category is 42.8 while that of boys is 31.0.

TABLE 3.10
INCOME OF PARENTS AND CASTE/TRIBE

Income of Parents	SC		ST		OBC		FORWARD CASTE		TOTAL
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Below Rs.4000	8 (80)	11 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	7 (70)	7 (67.7)	5 (29.4)	2 (8.6)	74 (62.7)
4001-8000	1 (10)	—	—	—	3 (30)	5 (38.5)	6 (34.5)	12 (51.9)	27 (22.8)
8001 and above her households	1 (10)	—	—	—	—	1 (7.7)	6 (34.5)	9 (39.2)	17 (14.2)
Total	10 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	17 (100.0)	23 (100.0)	118 (100.0)

The income of parents of the learners by caste and tribe is shown in the table 3.10. Almost all the parents belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes have an income of less than Rs. 4000 except one Scheduled Caste whose parental income is more than Rs. 8001. He, as mentioned earlier, is the son of a government employee. Most of the learners from forward caste are from the families which have an annual income of either Rs. 4001 - 8000 or Rs. 8001 - 12,000. It could be understood that these parents are either farmers or businessmen or landlords.

FUEL :

The usage of fuel for cooking in the households of learners could be treated as another important indicator of socio-economic status. It is expected that the fuel usage is dependent on the income of parents. In addition, the usage of fuel may influence the educability of the learner in the non-formal education. The children may be sent to collect firewood by the parents whose income level is low. Thus, the activity of collecting firewood is expected to influence the attendance of the learner at the non-formal education centre as well as reflect on their economic status.

The distribution of learners according as the usage of fuel in their households is set out in Table 3.11

**TABLE 3.11
USAGE OF FUEL**

Fuel	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Firewood	40	72.7	41	65.1	81	68.6
Firewood & Kerosene	9	16.4	11	17.5	20	16.9
Kerosene	1	1.8	2	3.2	3	2.5
Kerosene & Gas	4	7.3	7	11.1	11	9.3
Gas	1	1.8	2	3.2	3	2.5
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

The distribution of learners in terms of the usage of fuel shows that firewood is used in most of the households (68.6 percent). About 16.9 percent (20) of the households use a combination of kerosene and firewood. Thus, a total of 85.5 percent households depend on firewood. Only 2.5 percent (3) households each are using either kerosene or gas for cooking purposes while 9.3 percent use a combination of kerosene and gas.

While majority of girls (65.1 percent) and boys (75.7 percent) are from households where the fuel used is firewood, there is a slight difference in the distribution. In other words, slightly more girls come from households which use different combinations such as kerosene, gas and firewood. This implies that more girls than the boys tend to belong to somewhat better off households. It may be understood that those using firewood only are from lower income group.

TABLE 3.12
FUEL USAGE AND CASTE/TRIBE

FUEL	SC		ST		OBC		FORWARD		TOTAL
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Firewood	9 (90)	10 (90.9)	17 (94.9)	15 (93.8)	9 (90)	11 (84.6)	6 (29.4)	5 (21.7)	81 (68.6)
Firewood & Kerosene	1 (10)	--	1 (5.6)	1 (6.3)	1 (10)	2 (15.4)	6 (35.3)	8 (34.8)	20 (16.9)
Kerosene	--	1 (9.1)	--	--	--	--	1 (5.9)	1 (4.3)	3 (2.5)
Kerosene & Gas	--	--	--	--	--	--	4 (23.5)	7 (30.5)	11 (9.3)
Gas	--	--	--	--	--	--	1 (5.9)	2 (8.7)	3 (2.5)
Total	10 (100.0)	11 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	16 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	13 (100.0)	17 (100.0)	23 (100.0)	118 (100.0)

Most of the learners from Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes are using firewood in their households, whereas most of the learners from Forward Castes are using the combination of either firewood and kerosene or kerosene and gas. Very few households belonging to forward castes use firewood alone as fuel for cooking. This confirms the findings presented earlier, namely, that there is link between occupation, income, caste/tribe and the kind of fuel used.

FATHER'S EDUCATIONAL LEVEL :

Studies have shown that the education of the parents is expected to influence the educability of the children i.e.,

if the father is educated it is expected that he will send his children to an educational institution. Similarly, if father is not educated, it is expected that he will not insist on his child's education. The NIEPA evaluation study on non-formal education reports that the drop-out rates are higher where both the parents are illiterate and where there is at least one illiterate among the parents.

In our study, father's educational level is treated as an important constituent of learner's socio-economic status. The educational level of the learner has been classified into five categories. The first category includes illiterates i.e. those who had never been to school or had never acquired literacy skills and those who attend school but forgot whatever they learnt at school. The other categories are those who studied from standard-I to standard-V i.e., primary level, middle classes (VI-VII) level, high school (VIII-X) level and intermediate (years I and II) level of education.

The distribution of learners by their father's educational level is presented in the table 3.13

TABLE 3.13
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE FATHER

Educational level of father	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Illiterate	40	72.7	39	61.9	79	67.0
Primary level	5	9.1	10	15.9	15	12.7
Middle level	5	9.1	8	12.7	13	11.0
High school	5	9.1	3	4.8	8	6.8
Intermediate	5	9.1	3	4.8	3	2.5
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Data on the educational level of the fathers shows that the proportion of illiterates is very high (67 percent). On the other hand, very few (3) have higher education- all are fathers of girls. Again, if we were to divide those who have some education and those who have none, the fathers of more girls (38.0 percent) than those of boys (28 percent) have some exposure to education. This is true even when the data is presented level wise i.e. in each category, indicating acquisition of formal education. There are more fathers of girls than of boys in this category. It could also be noted from the table 3.11 that a large percentage of girls (61.9) and boys (72.7) are first generation learners i.e., exposed to the school and thus literacy.

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF MOTHER :

Mother's educational level is expected to have a direct bearing on the education of girls. It is also expected that lesser the education of mother, lesser will be the prospects of girls at the non-formal education centre (Srivatsava, 1985).

Mother's educational level is also grouped into various categories similar to those of father's educational level expecting that there are no mothers with middle and intermediate levels of education.

The distribution of learners by the educational level of mothers is shown in the table 3.14

TABLE 3.14
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE MOTHER

Educational level of mother	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Illiterate	53	92.7	56	88.9	109	92.4
Primary level	2	3.6	6	9.5	8	6.8
High school	--	---	1	1.6	1	0.8
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

It could be noted from the above table that most of the mothers (92.4 percent) are illiterate. Only 6.8 percent (8) and 0.8 percent (1) of the mothers of learners are educated upto primary and high school level. Thus, it could be reiterated that most of the learners are first generation learners.

A large percentage of boys (92.7) and girls (88.9) are from families where mothers are illiterate. Very few mothers are educated upto primary (classes I-V) level (9.5 percent girls and 3.6 percent boys), while there is only one girl whose mother is educated upto high school level. It may be noted that most of the girls are first generation of women to acquire literacy.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE LEARNER

Socio-economic status is a summated index generated by father's educational level, mother's educational level, father's occupational background, mother's occupational background, income of parents and use of a particular type of fuel. The summated scale varied from 6 to 18. The scale was divided into three broad categories - low, medium and high. The low, medium and high categories have their ranges as 6-8, 9-14 and above 14 respectively. The items that constitute the low, medium and high SES are as follows.

TABLE 3.15
SES OF THE LEARNER AND ITS CONSTITUENTS

Low SES	Medium SES	High SES
(a) <u>Father's occupational background</u>		
1. Agricultural labour	1. Villageartisan	1. Govt. employee
2. Construction labour	2. Sharecropping	2. Business and money lending
3. Sheep and cow herding	3. Farming	3. Landlord
(b) <u>Mother's occupational background</u>		
1. Agricultural labour	1. Village artisan	1. Bussiness and money lending
2. Construction labour	2. Sharecropping	2. Housewifery/ one's own domestic work
3. Sheep and cow herding	3. Farming	
(c) <u>Educational level of the father</u>		
1. Illiterate	1. Primary (class I-V)level	1. High school (class VIII-X) level
	2. Middle (class VI-VIII) level	2. Intermediate (year I and II)
(d) <u>Educational level of the mother</u>		
1. Illiterate	1. Primary level	1. High school level
	2. Middle level	2. Intermediate level
(e) <u>Income of the parents (Annual)</u>		
1. Below Rs. 4,000	2. Rs. 4001-8000	3. Above Rs. 80001
(f) <u>Fuel usage in the households of the learners</u>		
1. Firewood	1. Firewood & Kerosene	1. Gas & Kerosene
	2. Kerosene	2. Gas.

The distribution of learners by this newly generated 'Socio-Economic Status (SES)' is shown in the table 3.16

**TABLE 3.16
DISTRIBUTION OF LEARNERS BY SES**

SES	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Low	35	63.6	35	55.6	70	59.3
Medium	15	27.3	18	28.6	33	28.0
High	5	9.1	10	15.9	15	12.7
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Most of the learners (59.3 percent) are from lower socio-economic status. About 28 percent (33) of the learners are from medium socio-economic status. Very few learners (15) are from high SES.

A majority of girls (55.6 percent) and boys (63.6 percent) are from the low SES, while 28.6 percent girls and 27.3 percent boys are from the medium SES. Very few girls (15 percent) and boys (9.1 percent) are from high SES. Thus, it could be observed that there is not much difference in the distribution of girls and boys in terms of SES.

Sofar we have described various indicators of socio-economic status of the learners. These individual indicators may not explain the complexity of the problem of education of children, in general and girls, in particular, in a rural set

up. Education in rural areas involves an interplay of more than one indicator. Thus, in order to get an overall view of the influence of various indicators on the education of learners in the non-formal education system, the correlational analysis is undertaken. The general correlation matrix of the learners' socio-economic background is shown in the table 3.17

TABLE 3.17
GENERAL CORRELATION MATRIX

	FO	FEL	MO	MEL	Caste	Sex	SES
FO	1.0000						
FEL	0.7158**	1.0000					
MO	0.8648*	0.6933**	1.0000				
MEL	0.2229*	0.3681**	0.3889**	1.0000			
Caste	0.6696**	0.5120**	0.7641**	0.2976	1.0000		
Sex	0.7620	0.0816	0.0694	0.1470	0.0642	1.0000	
SES	0.7771**	0.824**	0.8698**	0.4532**	0.6660	0.1045	1.0000

Note : * - Significant at 0.01 level
 ** - Significant at 0.001 level
 FO - Father's occupation FEL - Father's educational level
 MO - Mother's occupation MEL - Mother's educational level
 SES - Socio-economic status.

The above correlation matrix reveals that all the indicators are positively correlated. It is observed that father's occupation is significantly correlated with his educational level, mother's occupation and her educational level, caste and socio-economic status but not the sex of the learner. The significance level for the correlations of father's occupation with father's educational level, mother's

occupation, caste and SES is 0.001. It means that the correlations between these indicators are valid for 999 cases out of 1000 cases and could be generalised for wider population. Similarly, father's occupation is correlated significantly at 0.01 level with mother's educational level, i.e., the given correlation is valid for 99 cases out of 100 cases and could not be generalised. An interesting observation is that the sex of the learner is not significantly correlated with their indicators shown in the table 3.17.

Sex wise correlational matrices are shown in the tables 3.18 and 3.19.

TABLE 3.18
CORRELATION MATRIX FOR BOYS

	FO	FEL	MO	MEL	Caste	SES
FO	1.0000					
FEL	0.6354**	1.0000				
MO	0.8715*	0.6807**	1.0000			
MEL	-0.041*	0.3434**	0.2208	1.0000		
Caste	0.6424**	0.5035**	0.7252**	0.2432	1.0000	
SES	0.8154**	0.7823**	0.8561**	0.3058	0.7559	0.1045

Note : * - Significant at 0.01 level
** - Significant at 0.001 level

TABLE 3.19
CORRELATIONAL MATRIX FOR GIRLS

	FO	FEL	MO	MEL	Caste	SES
FO	1.0000					
FEL	0.7753**	1.0000				
MO	0.8630*	0.7001**	1.0000			
MEL	0.3016*	0.3923**	0.4731**	1.0000		
Caste	0.6914**	0.5146**	0.7939**	0.3333*	1.0000	
SES	0.8612**	0.7200**	0.8700**	0.4358**	0.7905*	0.1045

Note : * - Significant at 0.01 level
 ** - Significant at 0.001 level

Table 3.18 shows that occupational background of boys' fathers is positively correlated with all indicators of socio-economic background of the learner except mother's educational level. It is significantly correlated with father's educational level, mother's occupation, caste and overall SES of boys and vice-versa. The significance level for these correlations is 0.001 and could be generalised. It means that as one indicator is higher the hierarchy the other one also would be higher in the hierarchy of items. Similarly, father's occupation is inversely correlated with mother's educational level for boys. The caste of the boys is positively and significantly correlated with father's occupation, father's educational level and mother's occupations. Further, mother's educational level, caste and SES are not significantly correlated for boys.

Table 3.19 shows that all the indicators of socio-economic background of girls are positively and significantly correlated. The correlation of father's occupation with mother's educational level is significant at 0.01 level and could not be generalised, while mother's educational level is significant at 0.001 for caste and SES of the girls. This is not true for boys.

The correlation matrices of various indicators of socio-economic background in terms of low, medium and high SES is shown below :

TABLE 3.20
FOR LOW SES LEARNERS

	FO	FEL	MO	MEL	Caste	Sex
FO	1.0000					
FEL	0.3597*	1.0000				
MO	0.8117**	-0.1011	1.0000			
MEL	--	--	--	1.0000		
Caste	0.5351**	-0.0141	0.6525	--	1.0000	
Sex	-0.0362	0.2116	-0.0367	--	-0.0493	1.0000

Note : * - Significant at 0.01 level
** - Significant at 0.001 level

TABLE 3.21
FOR MEDIUM SES LEARNERS

	FO	FEL	MO	MEL	Caste	Sex
FO	1.0000					
FEL	0.1592	1.0000				
MO	0.4490*	-0.0443	1.0000			
MEL	0.3614	0.1982	0.0671	1.0000		
Caste	-0.2419	0.2199	0.1630	0.0476	1.0000	
Sex	0.3485	-0.1144	-0.0516	0.6770	-0.0366	1.0000

Note : * - Significant at 0.01 level

**TABLE 3.22
FOR HIGH SES LEARNERS**

	FO	FEL	MO	MEL	Caste	Sex
FO	1.0000					
FEL	0.3162	1.0000				
MO	--	--	1.0000			
MEL	0.6631*	-0.3812	--	1.0000		
Caste	-0.1494	-0.1896	--	0.2017	1.0000	
Sex	0.0791	-0.2000	--	0.3050	0.3750	1.0000

Note : * - Significant at 0.01 level

Table 3.20 gives the correlations of various indicators for learners with low SES. Father's occupation, his educational level, mother's occupation and caste of the learners are positively correlated, while father's occupation is negatively correlated with sex of the learner. It means that higher the position in the occupational hierarchy of the father, higher will be the mother's occupational background and upper the caste hierarchy. For instance, if the occupation of the father is landlord, mother's occupation would be housewifery. Similarly, lower the position of the caste hierarchy, lower will be the occupation of father and mother. Mother's educational level is not correlated with other indicators indicating that women's educational level is not affected by any of the indicators of socio-economic status. An interesting observation that father's occupation and mother's occupation are inversely correlated with sex of the learner with low SES. Table 3.21 sets out that

father's occupation and educational level, mother's occupation and educational level and sex are positively correlated, while father's occupation is inversely correlated with the caste of the learner. It means that higher the caste the lower will be the position in the occupational hierarchy. For example, landlord, businessman, farmer, etc. Another point is that sex is negatively correlated with the educational level of the father and mother and with caste.

Table 3.22 shows that father's occupation and educational level are positively correlated to each other, whereas father's occupation is negatively correlated with mother's educational level and caste. This suggests that mother's educational level has a negative relation with caste and father's occupation.

SUMMARY

From the analysis of the data in this chapter, it is seen that most of the learners are under the officially permissible age for non-formal education i.e., below 9 years. Similarly, there are no learners beyond the age of 12 years. Again, a majority of the learners are from the Forward Castes, while considerable number of learners are from Scheduled Tribes. More girls than the boys from Forward Castes are attending the non-formal education. A majority of learners are from families which have 5-6 members, while very

few are coming from the families which have 7-8 members. Moreover, a large number of learners are either first born or second born, more girls than boys are first born, whereas more boys than girls are second born.

A majority of the fathers of the learners are either agricultural labourers or farmers. While most of the fathers from Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes are engaged in agricultural labour, most of the fathers from Forward Castes are engaged in farming. Fathers of more boys and girls are agricultural labourers. On the other hand, fathers of more girls than boys are either village artisans or farmers or businessmen and moneylenders. Since most of the respondents are poor, their mothers are engaged in one economic activity or the other such as agricultural labour, construction labour, farming, etc. Very few mothers are full time housewives. More mothers of girls than boys are artisans and help male members of farming. Again, while most of the mothers belonging to Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe and Other Backward Classes are engaged in either direct or indirect economic activity, a majority of mothers belonging to Forward Castes are engaged in housewifery or their own domestic work.

It is also revealed from our study that a large number of learners are from families which have an annual income below Rs.4000. Most of these are from Scheduled Castes,

Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes. Similarly, a majority of learners are from households where firewood is used as fuel for cooking purposes. Very few use kerosene and gas.

It is also noted that a large number of learners are first generation learners and about two out of every three learners are from families where fathers are illiterate. Very few fathers had some kind of education. Similarly, mothers of almost all the learners are illiterate.

According to the newly generated variable 'SES', a majority of learners have lower socio-economic status and considerable number have medium socio-economic status, while very few have high socio-economic status.

The correlational analysis revealed that almost all the indicators of socio-economic status are positively and significantly correlated, except for the sex of the learner which is correlated positively but not significantly with all other indicators. It means that the former correlations are valid for wider populations at various significant levels, while the latter are not valid for wider populations. It is interesting to note that mother's educational level is negatively correlated with father's occupation for boys, while it is positively correlated with father's occupation for girls. It means that lower the educational level of mother, higher will be the father's occupation and vice-versa

for boys and lower the occupation of the father, lower will be educational level of the mother for girls.

To sum up, most of the learners enrolled in the non-formal education centre are from the lower socio-economic status. It is also understood that various indicators of socio-economic status are correlated either positively or negatively both for boys and girls.

The fourth chapter attempts to describe the activities and education of the learners, their reasons for attending non-formal education centre and for not attending them regularly.

CHAPTER - IV
EDUCATION AND ACTIVITIES
OF
THE LEARNER

Among the poor, work and learning are expected to go hand in hand. Therefore, the activities of the learner during the day and evening time are expected to affect the regular attendance at the non-formal education centre. Since a child is more productive on the farm than at the school and the need for the children to provide economic support to the family may substantiate the view that the education of children is affected by their activities during the day and evening. In other words, the 'production' function of poor children is important for the survival of the family while literacy or learning receives secondary importance.

This chapter outlines the education and activities of the learners in the non-formal education centres. It presents the data on educational level of the learner prior to joining non-formal education centre, the reasons for not attending the centre regularly and the activities of the learner during the day and evening.

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF THE LEARNER PRIOR TO JOINING NFE CENTRE

The information on whether the learner is a school drop-out or is on the rolls of the primary school or had never been to school was collected.

The distribution of learners in terms of their educational background prior to joining non-formal education centre is given in table 4.1. Most of the learners (49.1

percent) are school drop-outs. About 38.1 percent (45) of the learners had never been to school and another 12.7 percent (15) of the learners are on the rolls of both the primary school in the village and the non-formal education centre.

TABLE 4.1
EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF THE LEARNERS PRIOR TO
JOINING NFE CENTRE

Educational Background	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Had never been to school	23	41.8	22	34.9	45	38.1
School drop out	24	43.6	34	54.0	58	49.1
On the rolls of the primary school	8	14.5	7	11.1	15	12.7
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Majority of girls (54 percent) and boys (43.6 percent) are school drop-outs. About 34.9 percent of girls and 41.8 percent of boys had never been to school. Further, 11.1 percent (7) of girls and 14.5 percent (8) of boys are on the rolls of both primary school and non-formal education centre. These children are coming to NFE centre to supplement their learning at the school. The instructors accepted these children since they had to meet the maximum number of children per centre i.e., twenty five. What is noteworthy is that the percentage of drop-out is higher among girls. This implies that the girls tend to leave school more often than boys do.

**LITERACY LEVEL OF THE LEARNERS PRIOR TO
JOINING NFE CENTRE**

In our study, the learners were asked about their literacy level prior to joining non-formal education centre. The learners are grouped into four categories on the basis of their answers. The categories are as follows :

- a) Illiterate.
- b) Knew some alphabets and numerals upto 20.
- c) Knew lessons of primary school and numerals upto 100.
- d) Read and write Telugu with understanding.

The distribution of learners in terms of their literacy level prior to joining non-formal education centre is given in the table 4.2.

**TABLE 4.2
LITERACY LEVEL OF THE LEARNERS PRIOR TO JOINING NFE CENTRE**

Literacy Level	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Illiterate	25	49.1	31	49.2	58	49.2
Knew some alphabets and numerals upto 20	23	41.8	22	34.9	45	38.1
Knew some lessons and numerals upto 100	4	7.3	10	15.9	14	11.9
Read and write Telugu with understanding	1	1.8	--	--	1	0.8
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

It shows that a majority of the learners (49.2 percent) were illiterate prior to joining non-formal education centre.

About 38.1 percent (45) of the learners knew some alphabets, while 11.9 percent (14) knew some lessons of the primary (classes I-V) level.

Sex wise distribution of the data shows that most of the girls (49.2 percent) and boys (49.1) percent are illiterate. Another 34.9 percent (22) of girls and 41.8 percent (23) of boys knew some alphabets and numerals. This shows some difference in literacy level between boys and girls. Very few girls (15.9 percent) and boys (7.3 percent) knew some lessons of primary (classes I-V) level. Only one boy could read and write Telugu with understanding prior to joining the NFE centre.

The educational background of the learner prior to joining the non-formal education centre is expected to be correlated with various indicators of socio-economic background of the learner. The correlation table 4.3 shows the correlations of learners' educational background with some indicators of socio-economic status such as caste, occupations of father and mother, educational levels of father and mother, type of fuel used in their households, order of birth and size of the family of the learner.

TABLE 4.3
CORRELATION TABLE

Indicators	Previous educational background	
	Boys	Girls
Caste	0.3833*	0.1653
F.O.	0.4634**	0.3081*
M.O.	0.3780*	0.3294*
FEL	0.5036**	0.3067*
MEL	0.2146	0.2583
Fuel	0.5036**	0.4227**
OBL	0.0920	0.0899
SOF	0.1267	0.0795
SES	0.5115*	0.3302*

Note : For abbreviations see Chapter III

* Significant at 0.01 level

** Significant at 0.001 level

The earlier educational level of the learners is correlated positively with their caste, occupations of father and mother, educational levels of father and mother, usage of type of fuel, order of birth, size of the family and overall socio-economic status. For boys, the educational background is positively and significantly correlated with caste, occupations of father and mother, educational level of father and usage of type of fuel in the household. It does not, however, show significant correlation with the educational level of the mother, order of birth and size of the family.

The significant level for the correlation with father's occupation and educational level is at 0.001 level. This means that higher the occupation and educational level of the father, higher will be the position of the learner in the order of educational background given in table 4.1. This correlation is generalizable for wider populations.

On the other hand, the correlation table reveals that the educational background of girls is significantly correlated with the occupation of father and mother, father's educational level, fuel usage and SES, while it is not significantly related to their caste, educational level of mother, order of birth and size of the family. The significance level for correlation between the educational background and fuel usage in the households of girls is 0.001, whereas for other significant correlations it is 0.01.

A comparison of the correlations of educational background of both boys and girls shows that caste is not correlated significantly for girls, where as it is significant at 0.01 level for the boys. This means that the girl's education level is unaffected whichever caste they belong to. In case of boys, it may mean that higher the caste, higher will be the chances of getting educated and vice-versa. One could also understand that the girl's educational experience is same in all the castes, where as for boys it differs from caste to caste.

ACTIVITIES OF THE LEARNER

The attendance of the learner at the non-formal education centre regularly or not regularly is dependent, to a great extent, on the activities of the learner both during evening and day. It is expected that the learning in non-formal education centre should not strain the children as they will be engaged in varied activities during day and evening. The activities of the learner during day are expected to have an indirect bearing on learner's reasons for not attending regularly, while those during evening are expected to have a direct influence.

The activities of the learner were recorded and are grouped into five categories. These are :

- a) Playing with friends,
- b) Working for wages - in the farm, collecting firewood fodder, cattle feeding, etc,
- c) Working in one's own household activity - such as helping in the farms, collecting firewood and fodder, feeding cattle, etc,
- d) Domestic assistance to mother or sister - Taking care of the siblings, washing clothes, utensils, helping mother in cooking, etc,
- e) Attend primary school of the village.

Table 4.4 presents the data on the activities of the learners during the day time.

TABLE 4.4
ACTIVITIES OF THE LEARNERS DURING THE DAY

Activities	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Work for wages	15	27.7	7	11.1	22	18.6
One's own household work	16	29.1	7	11.1	23	19.5
Domestic assistance	2	3.6	38	60.3	40	33.9
Attend primary school	8	14.5	5	7.9	13	11.0
Play with friends	14	25.5	6	9.5	20	16.9
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Majority of learners (33.9 percent) are engaged in domestic assistance during day while considerable percentage of learners are working for wages (18.6 percent) or are engaged in household activity (19.5 percent). Further, 16.9 percent learners play with friends and very few (11 percent) attend the primary school.

More boys than girls are engaged in economic activities i.e. the first two categories. For instance, most of the boys are engaged either in work for wages to support the family economically or in one's own household work such as

taking the cattle for cleaning and feeding, in the farms, collecting fuel and fodder for household, etc. On the other hand, girls are engaged in domestic assistance. They assist either their mothers or sisters in activities such as cooking, cleaning utensils, washing clothes, sweeping the floor, looking after the siblings at home, etc. Another interesting observation is that more boys (25.5 percent) play than girls (9.5 percent) during the day.

Analysis of data on the activities of the learner in terms of their SES is given in table 4.5.

TABLE 4.5
ACTIVITIES DURING THE DAY AND SES OF THE LEARNER

Activities	Low		Medium		High		Total
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Work for wages	15 (42.9)	7 (20)					22 (18.6)
One's own household work	6 (17.1)	4 (11.4)	8 (53.3)	3 (16.7)	2 (40)		23 (19.5)
Domestic assistance	2 (5.7)	18 (51.4)		13 (72.7)		7 (70)	40 (33.9)
Attend primary school	2 (5.7)	2 (5.7)	4 (26.7)	1 (5.6)	2 (40)	2 (20)	13 (11.0)
Playing with friends	10 (28.6)	4 (11.4)	3 (20)	1 (5.6)	1 (20)	1 (10)	20 (16.9)
Total	35 (100.0)	35 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	118 (100.0)

It may be noticed that all the learners who are working for wages have low SES, whereas those who are working or

providing economic assistance in household activity are spread across all the strata, though the majority have medium SES. Similarly, those who are on the rolls of the primary school belong to all SES categories, while majority of those who play with friends have low SES. So far as playing with friends or having leisure is concerned, more boys with low SES than those with other categories of SES are engaged in these activities. Domestic assistance is a gender based activity because girls from all SES are doing this. Only two boys are providing domestic assistance. Thus, gender, regardless of class in this context, seems to determine the activities of the girls.

The activities of the learners during the evening are similar to those during the day with slight variation. For instance, not a single learner is working for wages or attending the primary school. The distribution of the learners in terms of their activities in the evening are shown in table 4.6.

TABLE 4.6
ACTIVITIES OF THE LEARNER DURING THE EVENING

Activities	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
One's own household work	24	43.6	17	27.0	41	34.7
Domestic assistance	6	10.9	34	54.0	40	33.9
Play with friends	23	41.8	10	15.9	33	28.0
No response	2	3.6	2	3.2	4	3.4
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

Most of the learners are engaged either in one's own household work (34.7 percent) or in domestic assistance (33.9 percent) in the evening. A good proportion of learners (28.0 percent) play with friends. Except those engaged in domestic assistance, others are distributed unlike their activities during the day. For example, the learners engaged in household activity in the evening (34.7 percent) are more than those engaged in the same activity during the day (19.5 percent). Similarly, more children play with friends in the evening (28.0 percent) than in the day (16.9 percent). (See tables 4.4 and 4.6).

Association of girls with gender based activity i.e. domestic assistance remains even in the evening. Many girls (54.0 percent) than boys (10.9 percent) are engaged in the domestic assistance. Further, more boys (43.6 percent) than girls (27 percent) are engaged in household activities. Furthermore, more boys (41.8 percent) than girls (15.9 percent) are engaged in playing with friends. Thus, girls are not given leisure to paly in the evening. The cross-tabulation of learners by their activities in the evening and SES is shown in table 4.7.

TABLE 4.7
ACTIVITIES IN THE EVENING AND SES

Activities	Low		Medium		High		Total
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
One's own household work	20 (57.1)	12 (34.3)	3 (20)	4 (22.2)	1 (20)	1 (10)	41 (34.7)
Domestic assistance	5 (14.3)	17 (48.6)	1 (6.7)	13 (72.2)		4 (40)	40 (33.9)
Playing with friends	10 (28.6)	6 (17.1)	10 (66.7)	1 (5.6)	3 (60)	3 (30)	33 (28.0)
No response			1 (6.7)		1 (20)	2 (20)	4 (3.4)
Total	35 (100.0)	35 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	118 (100.0)

A majority of the learners engaged in household work have low SES. Similarly, those engaged in domestic assistance have low as well as medium SES. An interesting observation is that most of those who have domestic responsibilities are girls and are spread across all strata of SES. Further, those learners who have leisure to play with friends have low and medium SES.

Table 4.8 shows the correlations of the activities of the learners during day and evening with various indicators of socio-economic status.

TABLE 4.8
CORRELATION TABLE

Indicators	Activities during Day		Activities during Evening	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Caste	0.2073	-0.1041	-0.2437	0.0840
F.O.	0.0935	-0.1928	-0.2419	0.1627
M.O.	0.0061	-0.1101	-0.0183	0.1406
AFI	0.0849	-0.0720	-0.0634	0.1626
OBL	0.0139	0.0316	-0.0222	0.0877
SOF	-0.0139	-0.1258	-0.0579	0.1096
Fuel	0.2382	-0.0155*	-0.0541	0.1530
SES	0.1548	-0.1877	0.3330	0.2014

* Significant at 0.01 level

Comparison of correlations of the activities of girls and the boys during the day shows that the activities of girls are inversely correlated with caste, occupations of father and mother, family income, size of the family and usage of type of fuel, whereas those for boys are correlated positively.

Fuel usage is negatively and significantly correlated with the activities of girls during the day, whereas it is positive but not significant for boys. This means that girls do not collect fuel during the day. It may also be noted that caste, occupation of father and mother, income of

parents and fuel usage are negatively correlated with the activities of the boys during evening, where they are positively correlated for girls. This may be due to the fact that more number of boys are engaged in playing with friends and other leisure activities while girls have the domestic responsibilities even in the evening.

REASONS FOR JOINING NFE CENTRE:

The reasons given by learners are grouped into seven categories. These are :

- a) To learn reading and writing,
- b) Insistence of parents/instructor/any elder in the locality,
- c) To gain employment,
- d) To get a certificate,
- e) For better maintenance of the household,
- f) It works as a tuition,
- g) To read story books and cine magazines.

The distribution of learners by their reasons for coming to non-formal education centre is described in the table 4.9

TABLE 4.9
REASONS FOR JOINING NFE CENTRE

Reasons	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
To learn reading and writing	22	40	25	39.7	47	39.5
Insistence of parents/instructor/any other elderly person	15	27.3	16	25.4	31	26.3
To gain employment	6	10.9	8	12.7	14	11.9
To get a certificate	5	9.1	4	6.3	9	7.6
It works as tuition	6	10.9	4	6.3	10	8.5
For the better maintenance of household			3	4.8	3	2.5
To read story books and cine magazines			2	3.2	2	1.7
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

It may be seen that most of the learners (39.5 percent) join the NFE centre to learn reading and writing. Similarly, 26.3 percent (31) learners are coming to the centre upon insistence by parents or instructor or any other elder in the locality, while 11.9 percent (14) of the learners are coming to gain employment after the completion of the course.

Again, a substantial percentage of boys and girls join either to learn reading and writing or upon the insistence by

the parents or instructor or any other elder in the locality. Further, more girls (12.7 percent) than boys (10.9 percent) join to gain employment after the completion of the course. It is quite interesting to observe that the instruction at non-formal education centre is also viewed by some respondents as supplementary to what they learn at the primary school. For example, 6.3 percent of girls and 10.9 percent of boys are attending NFE centre because it works as a tuition. It may be noted that only girls have responded that they are attending the centre to maintain the household better and to read story books in leisure timings.

REASONS FOR NOT ATTENDING NFE CENTRE REGULARLY

The learners were also asked whether they are attending regularly or not. If they are not regular, the reasons for not being regular was sought. The responses of the learners are grouped into five categories. These are :

1. Playing with friends,
2. Occupied in household activity,
3. Working for wages,
4. Engaged in domestic chores,
5. Lack of interest in NFE.

The distribution of the learners in terms of their reasons for not attending non-formal education centre regularly are shown in table 4.10.

TABLE 4.10
REASONS FOR NOT ATTENDING NFE CENTRE REGULARLY

Reasons	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Attending regularly	30	54.5	34	54	64	54.2
Working for wages	5	9.1			5	4.2
Occupied in one's own household work	7	12.7	4	6.3	11	9.3
Engaged in domestic chores	3	5.5	10	15.9	13	11.0
Lack of interest	2	3.6	4	6.3	6	5.1
Playing with friends	8	14.5	8	12.7	16	13.5
No response			3	4.8	3	2.5
Total	55	100.0	63	100.0	118	100.0

A majority of the learners (54.2 percent) responded that they are attending NFE centre regularly. But, this may not be true. The instructor and the researcher's own observation differs sharply with that of the learners. It is observed that those who attend one day may not be attending the next day. Attendance of the learners, on the days of visit to the NFE centres by the researcher, varied from 4 to 8. Thus, the response of the learners may be an exaggeration with regard to their regular attendance at the NFE centre.

Of the remaining, some learners do not attend because they prefer to play with friends (13.5 percent) and engaged

in domestic chores (11 percent). Some other learners cannot attend because of their participation in direct economic activities such as working for wages (4.2 percent) and household activities (9.3 percent). Again, only boys stated that since they had to work for wages, they were unable to attend regularly. More girls (15.9 percent) than boys (5.5 percent), on the other hand, gave their engagement in domestic chores to be the reason. If we were to distinguish between economic and non-economic activities such as working for wages and household, on the one hand, and domestic chores, on the other, more boys are kept away from NFE centre for economic reasons while more girls stay away due to domestic responsibilities.

TABLE 4.11
SES AND REASONS FOR NOT ATTENDING NFE CENTRE REGULARLY

Reasons	Low		Medium		High		Total
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Attending regularly	16 (45.7)	17 (48.6)	12 (80)	9 (50)	2 (40)	8 (80)	64 (54.2)
Working for wages	5 (14.3)						5 (4.2)
Occupied in one's own household activities	4 (11.4)	3 (8.6)	3 (20)	1 (5.6)			11 (9.3)
Engaged in domestic chores	3 (8.6)	6 (17.1)		4 (22.2)			13 (11.0)
Disinterested in NFE	1 (2.9)	3 (8.6)		1 (5.6)	1 (20)		6 (5.1)
Playing with friends	6 (17.1)	5 (14.3)		1 (5.6)	2 (40)	2 (20)	16 (13.5)
No response		1 (2.9)		2 (11.1)			3 (2.5)
Total	35 (100.0)	35 (100.0)	15 (100.0)	18 (100.0)	5 (100.0)	10 (100.0)	118 (100.0)

The reasons for not attending NFE centre regularly have been shown in terms of SES in table 4.11. The learners who responded that they attend regularly belong to all the strata of socio-economic status. All the learners who work for wages, on the other hand, have low SES along with a majority of those who are occupied in household work. Of the 33 learners with medium SES, 66.6 percent (21) attend regularly,

while out of the 70 learners with low SES, 49 percent (33) attend regularly. Out of 15 learners with high SES, 66.6 percent (10) attend regularly, four play with friends and one is disinterested. Thus, economic reasons do not prevent them from NFE.

It was expected that the learners' reasons for irregular attendance will be correlated with indicators like caste, order of birth, size of the family, usage of type of fuel, activities of the learner during the day and evening and overall socio-economic status. Table 4.12 shows the correlation coefficients of reasons for irregular attendance with the above mentioned indicators of learner's socio-economic background.

TABLE 4.12: CORRELATION TABLE

Indicators	Reasons for not attending regularly	
	Boys	Girls
Caste	-0.1545	-0.1019 **
OBL	0.0106	0.3958
SOF	-0.1580	-0.0864
Fuel	0.0184	-0.1036 **
ALDT	-0.2148	-0.3811
ALET	0.0261	-0.0430
SES	-0.0208	-0.0021

Note : ** Significant at 0.001 level
 OBL - Order of birth of learner
 SOF - Size of the family
 ALDT - Activities of learner during day
 ALET - Activities of learner during evening.

A comparison of the correlations for boys and girls in terms of their reasons for irregular attendance shows that order of birth is related positively and significantly for girls whereas it is not significant for boys. The correlation is significant at 0.001 level and thus could be understood that the relationship is valid for further generalisations. It means that the higher the order of birth of girls, the more will be the reasons for not attending NFE centre regularly. Further, size of the family of girls is positively correlated, while it is inversely correlated for boys. This is not a significant correlation. Another interesting correlation is that the activities of girls during day time are inversely and significantly affect the girl's attendance at NFE centre. It means that greater the activities of girls during the day, lesser are the chances of her attendance at the NFE centre, while it is not significant for boys.

SUMMARY :

This chapter highlighted the educational background and literacy level of the learner prior to joining non-formal education centre. It described the activities of learners during day and evening, the learner's reasons for attending and not attending regularly.

A majority of the learners have been school drop-outs and considerable number of learners had never been to school.

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More girls than boys are school drop-outs and more boys than girls had never been to school. Very few boys and girls are on the rolls of both primary school and non-formal education centre. As regards the literacy level of the learners prior to joining NFE centre, a large number of learners are illiterate. Among the remaining, majority knew some alphabets, while few knew some lessons of the classes I-V. There is not much difference between boys and girls. Caste is not significantly correlated with earlier educational background for girls, but is significant at 0.01 level for boys. It implies that girl's chances of entering school may be same in all castes, whereas it is not the same for boys.

While most of the boys are engaged in direct economic activities such as working for wages and household work, girls are engaged in indirect economic activity of domestic assistance during the day. More boys than girls are engaged in non-economic activities such as attending primary school and playing with friends. Almost all those engaged in economic activities are either from low or medium SES. But, girls in all categories of SES are engaged in indirect and invisible economic activity of domestic assistance. Thus, it could be understood that the learner's activities are gender based. So is the case with the learners' activities in the evening.

It is found that the activities of girls are inversely correlated with caste, occupations of father and mother, income of parents, size of the family and usage of type of fuel, whereas those for boys are correlated positively. This substantiates the view that girl's activity vary in terms of gender and class, while those of boys are class based.

It was also intended to know why the learners joined NFE centre. Is there any difference between the views of boys and girls in terms of their reasons for attending non-formal education centre ?. A majority of the learners are coming to NFE centre to learn reading and writing and upon the insistence of parents or instructors or any other elders in the locality. There is not much difference between boys and girls. Only few girls responded that they are attending NFE centre to acquire minimum knowledge for the better maintenance of the household and to read story books and cine magazines during their leisure times.

About half of the learners attend NFE centre regularly. Out of those who are not regular, more boys than girls responded that their engagement in economic activities was the reason. On the other hand, more girls than boys could not attend regularly since they provide domestic assistance. There is not much difference between boys and girls in terms of non-economic reasons for not attending regularly.

It may now be argued that the education and activities

of the learners are judged on the basis of gender than socio-economic status or social class in a rural area. While child labour is more prevalent, boys are more visible in labour force and the girls tend to stay at home with more invisible domestic and home maintenance activities. Thus, it is understood that boys assist in jobs outside the home, while cooking, child care and assistance in domestic activities tend to be the responsibility of girls only.

CHAPTER - V
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The present study on non-formal education for girls in rural Andhra Pradesh focuses on eight non-formal education Centres in Nellore district. Although the focus is on girls, it also attempts a comparison between boys and girls. It was expected that the success of non-formal education could well be understood within a social context. Thus, the present work attempted to know the social background of both boys and girls in the non-formal education centres. The socio-economic status was defined broadly to include parents' occupation, income and education, size of the family, order of birth of the learner and the type of fuel used for cooking purposes. An attempt was made to locate the difference in socio-economic background of boys and girls, The perceptions of learners about their reasons for joining the centre and if they are not regular, the reasons for not attending regularly are presented in this study. An account of activities of the learners during the day and evening is also presented.

There are 63 girls and 55 boys in the sample. Besides sex, age is an important variable in non-formal education programmes. Most of the learners are between 7-10 years old. Quite a large number of learners are below nine years of age i.e, the officially permissible age for non-formal education. Again, very few (6.7 percent) are above ten years of age. The distribution of girls, compared to that of the boys, is

more evenly spread between the ages of 7-10 years.

Caste wise distribution revealed that 40(33.9 percent) learners are from forward castes, 34(28.8 percent) are Scheduled Tribe children, 21 (17.5 percent) are Scheduled Caste children and another 23 (19.5 percent) are from Other Backward Classes. Again, more girls than boys belong to Forward Castes while there is not much difference in other categories. A majority of the learners are from families with 5-6 members. Those from small families (3-4 members) are much less. There is no change in the distribution of families by size even when we look at the data for boys and girls separately. The highest proportion of girls (39.7 percent) as well as boys (49.1 percent) are second born. Similarly, a considerable proportion of girls (38.1 percent) and boys (30.9 percent) are first born. Thus, the percentages of first and second born girls are almost the same, while that of first born boys is higher than the first born girls.

Again, the learners, by and large, are from families where fathers are agricultural labourers and farmers. The other occupational categories with a reasonably sizeable proportion are those of village artisans, businessmen and moneylenders. Further, fathers of more boys and girls are either agricultural labourers or farmers. Most of the fathers belonging to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and

Other Backward Classes are agricultural labourers, construction labourers and artisans, whereas those from Forward Castes are farmers and businessmen. The data on occupation of mothers shows that a large number of mothers of boys (43.6 percent) and girls (41.3percent) are agricultural labourers and a significant percentage are engaged in assisting the male members in farming. As a matter of fact, there is not much difference in the occupation of mothers of boys and girls, except that more mothers of girls than boys are housewives because the respondents are poor and their mothers engage in one kind of economic activity or the other.

The income of majority of parents is less than Rs 4000. For example, most of the parents of boys (69.1 percent) and girls (56.6 percent) have an income below Rs 4000. It is due to the fact that majority of the parents are either agricultural labourers or construction workers or sheep and cow herders. What is interesting is that the proportion of girls from families with higher income is more than those of boys, especially if we were to divide the parental income into two categories, viz., those with an income of less than Rs 4000 and those with, more than Rs 4000 per annum. The percentage of girls in the higher category is 42.8 percent while that of boys is 31 percent. Again, almost all the parents belonging to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes have an income of less than Rs 4000. On the otherhand, most

of the learners from Forward Castes are from families which have an income of either Rs. 4001-8000 or Rs. 8000-12000 per year.

An attempt was made to collect information on the type of fuel used in their households. Firewood is used in a majority of the households. However, significant percentage (16.9 percent) use a combination of kerosene and firewood. Again, slightly more girls than boys come from households which use different combinations of kerosene, gas and firewood. This implies that more girls than boys tend to belong to somewhat betteroff households. It may also be noted that those using only firewood are from lower income groups.

It is found in our study that a majority of the fathers of both boys and girls are illiterate. Only few fathers are educated beyond primary level. Meanwhile, few of the fathers of girls are educated beyond high school stage. Again, fathers of more girls than boys have some exposure to education. The distribution of learners in terms of the educational level of mothers reveals that most of the mothers are illiterate. For instance, mothers of 92.7 percent of boys and 88.9 percent of girls are illiterate. In the case of girls, it may be noted that most of the girls are first generation of women to acquire literacy and numeracy.

An index called 'Socio-Economic Status' was generated with occupations of father and mother, educational levels of

father and mother, parental income and the type of fuel used. The index was classified into low, medium and high on the basis of the summation of the variables mentioned. It is seen that a majority of boys (63.6 percent) and girls (55.6 percent) are from the low SES, while good number of girls and boys are from medium SES. Very few are from high SES. In fact, there is not much difference in the distribution of boys and girls in terms of their socio-economic status.

What is interesting is that the occupation of fathers of boys is inversely correlated with the educational level of the mothers while for girls it is positively correlated. But, this inverse correlation is not significant and cannot be generalised. It is also found that mothers' educational level, though positively correlated, is not significant with the caste of the boys while it is significant at 0.001 level for girls. In other words, the higher the caste of the girls, higher is the educational level of mothers of girls. This could be generalised since the significant level is 0.001. Further, mother's educational level is not correlated with occupation of father and caste of the learners belonging to low SES and high SES. It may be due to the fact that mothers of learners with low and high SES are wage earners and are housewives respectively. Thus, the education is not seen as essential for those engaged in their wage earning or those who are only housewives. This implies that the education of

girls is not treated as an important input into their future roles as housewives and wage earners among the high and low SES categories. This may substantiate the argument that girls are socialised in particular roles which keep them away from the school or non-formal education centre.

Our findings on the educational background of the learners reveal that a majority of girls (54 percent) and boys (43.6 percent) are school drop-outs. Another 34.9 percent of girls and 41.8 percent of boys had never been to school. What is noteworthy is that the percentage of drop-outs is higher among girls. This implies that girls tend to leave school more often than boys do. Again, a majority of girls and boys are illiterate prior to joining non-formal education centre.

The findings on the activities of learners reveal that more boys than girls are engaged in direct or indirect economic activities during the day. Direct economic activities include work for wages while indirect economic activities include one's own household work such as taking cattle for cleaning and feeding, in the farms, collecting fuel and fodder, etc. On the other hand, girls are engaged in non-economic and domestic responsibility such as cooking, cleaning utensils, washing clothes, sweeping the floor, looking after the siblings at home in the absence of mother, etc. Sofar as playing with friends or having leisure is

concerned, more boys with low SES than those with other categories of SES are engaged in these activities. Domestic assistance is a gender based activity because girls from all strata of SES are doing this. Thus, gender, regardless of class in this context, seems to determine the activities of girls during the day. The activities of the learners during the evening are similar to those during the day, except that no learner is working for wages in the evening. Again, gender based domestic assistance is revealed to be the responsibility of the girls only.

Our findings about the learners' reasons for attending non-formal education centre revealed that most of the boys and girls join either to learn reading and writing or due to persuasion from the parents or instructor or any other elder in the locality. Slightly more girls than boys join to gain employment after the completion of a course. It is interesting to note that the instruction at non-formal education centre is viewed as supplementary to what the learners learn at the primary school. For instance, 6.3 percent of girls and 10.9 percent of boys are attending NFE centre because it works as tuition. Only girls are attending the centre to maintain household better and to read story books during leisure time.

Finally, a majority of the learners respond that they are attending NFE centre regularly. This may not be true in

its practicality. The field work undertaken for the present study indicates that the responses of the learners may be in contradiction to the actual attendance at the centre every day. This was checked up with the instructor as well. Of the remaining, some learners do not attend because they prefer to play with friends and are engaged in the domestic chores. More girls than boys have the domestic responsibilities because of which they cannot attend regularly. Further, more boys are kept away from the NFE centre for economic reasons such as working for wages and for household work.

CONCLUSION

To explore the possible links between non-formal education, gender and sociology, we will examine some of the approaches towards the education of women in the society. This section identifies some of the problems and possibilities raised by an attempt to take gender seriously within the programmes of non-formal education.

According to functionalists, societies must organise to ensure that resources are produced and distributed and that populations reproduce themselves biologically. According to the functionalist approach to education, schooling is believed to be an important means by which basic allegiances to society are inculcated. Education may be seen to contribute to a division of labour between males and females

through curriculum specialisation by sex. Thus, the enrolment and regular attendance of girls in non-formal education centres may be explained within the framework of functionalism in terms of the role socialisation. The functionalist perspective also explains the reasons for irregular attendance of the learners in non-formal education centre which, subsequently, may keep them away from non-formal educational process before completing the course. However, the very basis of functionalist approach that the achievement is because of individual difference in intelligence is open to question.

Like the functionalists, Marxist theoreticians also treat the family as a unit and link it with labour market which emphasises the husband's relationship to the production process. Some of these theorists have tried to trace the origins of female subordination in the development of the system of private property, wherein it was essential for men to be certain that inheritors of their wealth were their own offspring. Feminists have charged even the marxists of treating women as 'invisible women' because they are engaged in more invisible and non-economic tasks and are not recognised by the society.

Among the poor, work and learning go together and a child is treated more as a productive asset on the farm than at the NFE centre. Thus, the productive function of boys and

girls and the need for them to support the family substantiates the view that the education of children in a rural area in general, and girls in particular is affected by the kind of activities they take up during the day and evening. Further, this model may explain why girls are engaged in non-economic domestic activities during the day and evening, because the reproductive function, i.e., child-bearing and rearing, of girls determines their response to non-formal education. The domestic responsibilities that keep them away from NFE centres of the activities they engage in, demonstrate that gender, irrespective of class, affects girls.

Furthermore, age is an important consideration. For instance, boys above ten years assist in economic activities and are directly related to production, while non-economic activities such as cooking, child care, etc. being the responsibility of girls only. This perspective may also explain the absence of more boys and girls above the age of ten years in the non-formal education centre. Thus, this perspective explains the ways in which women's subordinate position in general and their domestic role in particular which benefit capitalism.

Neo-Marxist sociologists of education have paid considerable attention to the role of schooling in the reproduction of class relations. The feminists have tried to

extend this approach to illuminate the role of the school in the production of gender relations. Though we can say whether non-formal education centres operate to reinforce and perpetuate the gender relations, it may also be possible to observe from the expectations and consequent socialisation of girls that their roles have conditioned them to better management of home with a view to prepare them for their future roles as housewives and wage earners. One could also observe the sexual division of labour between the boys and girls across different strata of social class as a reinforcing mechanism of their future roles.

The liberal perspective argues that women are prevented from full realisation of their talents by intended or unintended consequences of social conventions and practices. For these theorists, the career success eludes them because typical socialisation results in attributes unsuitable or inappropriate for it, while family role responsibilities or labour market operations and organised policies which intentionally or otherwise discriminate against women prevent it. This perspective assumes that parents and schools socialise girls towards traditionally feminine personality characteristics. Thus, the attachment of girls to domestic roles and their exposure to the restricted choices of home management and leisure time activities could be explained through this perspective.

Radical feminists used patriarchy to describe a system whereby men are dominant and females are subordinate. In the radical feminist approach, patriarchy takes the role capitalism takes for the marxist feminists. But, according to the radical feminist view, patriarchy cannot be explained by the demands of capitalism or any other economic system. For them, patriarchy is a form of oppression.

Radical feminists stress the importance of women's personal experience through consciousness raising in order to arrive at a clear understanding of why and how women are oppressed. They write about the experiences unique to women such as womenhood. Thus, according to radical feminists, women share certain sorts of oppression simply because they are women. They also believe that women of all social classes share this experience.

Using these frameworks, we may conclude that so far as poor girls in rural areas are concerned, class as well as gender limits the access to non-formal education and prevents them from achieving equality of educational opportunity. Class is important in so far as sheer poverty and lack of economic resources (including foregone earnings and the need to support mothers in their employment through child care and household activities) prevents poor girls from entering the non-formal education centres to acquire the minimum levels of literacy and numeracy. Further, the perceptions of parents

about their social role as being confined to home and child care and also the fact that they are going to become the members of another household after marriage act as an additional constraint to educational opportunity.

The present study explores some of the crucial issues that influence the learners in non-formal education system. It attempts to identify the expectations of the learners in terms of their enrolment and the reasons for not attending regularly at the non-formal education centre. These are crucial to the better implementation of the programme of non-formal education which is intended to achieve universalisation of elementary education. It takes into consideration the socio-economic profile of the learners, thereby attempting to understand how far the programme of non-formal education is successful in reaching out to the out-of-school children especially girls of the ages 9-14 who belong to weaker sections such as Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes.

However, the researcher is also conscious of the weaknesses of the present study. Though the study attempts to explore the equality of opportunity, it takes into account the aspect of equal access only, leaving aside the aspects of equal treatment and the equal results or outputs. Another limitation of the present study is the problem of generalisability. Being a micro-level empirical study, it

may not be possible to interpret the findings for wider populations throughout the country.

In the light of the above discussions, it may thus be pointed out that being fully aware of the limitations of micro-empirical study of this type, it is necessary to revalidate the findings of this study by a series of similar studies which enable us to attempt some macro level generalisations at a later stage. However, this study points out trends and provides insights for undertaking a larger study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE : FOR LEARNERS

(A) GENERAL INFORMATION :

1. Name of the learner :
2. Sex :
3. Age :
4. Marital Status :
5. Caste/Tribe : SC/ST/OBC/Forward Caste
6. Religion :

(B) SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

7. Father's occupation :
8. Father's educational level :
9. Mother's occupation :
10. Mother's educational level :
11. Parental Income (Annual) :
12. Type of fuel used for cooking purpose :
13. Total number of members in the family :
14. Order of birth :
15. Besides parents, who else are working outside the household ?
16. What is the income of the those working members of the household ?

(C) EDUCATION OF THE LEARNER :

17. Do you have a school in your village ?(Yes/No)
18. If yes, did you attend it ?(Yes/No)
19. If yes, upto what class you studied in that school.
20. Did you know reading and writing prior to joining NFE Centre?
21. If not, what is your exact literacy level.

22. Reasons for attending NFE Centre.
23. Are you attending regularly ? (Yes/No)
24. If not, what are the reasons for not attending regularly?
25. If you do not attend the Centre regularly, do you get punishment or blame from parents (Yes/No).

(D) ACTIVITIES OF THE LEARNER:

26. Describe your activities: a) During day
b) During evening
27. Any time left for your study ?(Yes/No)
28. For how long you study every day ?
29. Do you think that the present NFE timings are not convenient for you ?(Yes/No)

APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE : FOR PARENTS/GUARDIANS

1. What is your expectation of NFE for your children ?
2. Did your child learn anything at NFE Centre ?
3. Is your child attending NFE Centre regularly ?(Yes/No)
4. If not, what are the reasons for not attending regularly ?
5. Does the instructor hold the NFE Centre regularly?
6. Are you satisfied with the instructor and non-formal education ?

APPENDIX III

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE : FOR INSTRUCTORS/SUPERVISOR /PROJECT OFFICER

1. How do you perceive the enrolment of children in NFE Centre ?
2. How do you mobilise children for the NFE Centre ?
3. Especially girls :
4. What are the problems in mobilising them ?
5. What methods have you adopted to identify the learners?
6. What is the perception of learners for joining NFE Centre ?
7. Are they regular ?(Yes/No)
8. If not, what are the reasons for not attending regularly ?
9. What steps do you take to motivate the children to attend NFE Centre ?