

**INTERPLAY OF GOVERNMENT AND NON-
GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS: A
CASE STUDY OF SARVA SHIKSHA
ABHIYAN IN HARYANA**

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MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

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*Dedicated to the innocence of all those children
who are yet to discover the magic of words.*

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To my Guru and my God . . . and their various manifestations.

My Guru, Prof. Sudha Pai, apart from her valuable guidance gave me what I needed the most - two magical words which never failed to lift my spirits - "Don't worry." My each step towards this goal is indebted to her words of assurance and her confidence in me.

My family for 'just being there' and my friends for 'showing me my true self'.

The omissions and commissions are all mine.

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CERTIFICATE

It is certified that the dissertation entitled “**Interplay of Government and Non Governmental Organisations: A Case Study of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in Haryana**” submitted by **Kiran Yadav** is in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy of this University.

This dissertation has not been submitted for the award of any other degree in this University or any other University and is her own work.

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

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AGS	Adi Gram Samiti
AIE	Alternative and Innovative Education
BRC	Block Resource Centre
CABE	Central Advisory Board of Education
CRC	Community Resource Centre
EFA	Education For All
EGS	Education Guarantee Scheme
SSA	Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan
GNP	Gross National Product
GER	Gross Enrollment Ratio
NER	Net Enrollment Ratio
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
DPEP	District Primary Education Programme
NGOs	Non Governmental Organisations
NAR	Net Attendance Ratio
NFE	Non Formal Education
NPE	National Policy for Education
NPEGEL	National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary Level
NPO	Non Profit Organisation
NLM	National Literacy Mission
PTR	Pupil Teacher Ratio
SHG	Self Help Group
UEE	Universal Elementary Education
UPE	Upper Primary Education
VEC	Village Education Committee
VOs	Voluntary Organisations

INTRODUCTION

Amartya Sen and Jean Dreze have defined education as having both an *intrinsic* value i.e. good in itself for self improvement, as well as an *instrumental* value i.e. for gaining a livelihood, economic development or enabling public discussion of social needs and making collective demands upon the government. They contend that not only the *outcome* of education programmes, but also the *process* of improving educational levels has a distinctly empowering and distributive effect upon disadvantaged sections and women.¹

The importance of elementary education for a developing country like India can in no way be undermined. This reflects from the vision of the founders of our nation who incorporated Article 45 in the Directive Principles of State Policy of the newly adopted Constitution of India. It provided that “*The State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years.*”

However, decades of efforts have not been able to translate the noble vision into reality. It is the gross failure of the state that intrigued this research scholar to enquire why we could not meet the goal. And what are the strategies that are now being adopted which gives us the confidence of achieving universal elementary education by 2010 as envisaged by the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan? Is it decentralization? Is it the participatory model of growth and community involvement? Will the NGOs finally emerge to be instrumental in achieving the goal? Several questions flooded the mind for answers at once. Only a review of literature helped in narrowing down the **focus of research** – Had the state failed in achieving universal elementary education?; If yes, then why and to what extent?; Will Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan with its particular reliance on Non Governmental Organisations achieve the goal?

Review of Literature: Interestingly, attempts to make the right to free and compulsory education available to the Indian child began a little more than a century ago. First major stride came when the government passed a resolution in 1913 for the widest possible extension of primary education on a voluntary basis. The progress however, continued to be slow. After independence the state did little beyond making the suggested ‘endeavour’

¹ Amratya Sen and Jean Dreze, *India: Economic Development and Social Opportunity*, Oxford University Press (1995): 13-16.

for providing free and compulsory education to all children. During the period 1960-65, no official pronouncements were made regarding universal elementary education (UEE) for the children in the age group 6-14 years. In 1965-66 the target date was revised to 1975-76. The Working Group set up by the Planning Commission then revised the target to achieve UEE by the end of the Sixth Plan. The Kothari Commission (1966) had suggested that it be achieved latest by 1986. The National Policy on Education 1986 envisaged that all children who would attain the age of about 11 years by 1990 would have had five years of schooling or its equivalent through the non-formal stream and by 1995 all children will be provided free and compulsory education up to fourteen years of age. The World Conference on Education held at Jomtien, Thailand in 1990 finally called upon all the countries and agencies of the world to take effective steps for achieving 'Education For All' by the turn of the present century.²

The Supreme Court in *Unni Krishnan J.P Vs. the State of Andhra Pradesh*, 1993 recognised the education of children in the 6 to 14 years age group as a Fundamental Right that cannot wait.³ The judgment of the Supreme Court assumes utmost significance since Article 45 of the Constitution of India and other provisions in the Constitution could not compel the government to provide for UEE even after 50 years of independence.⁴

Data clearly reflects our status in terms of literacy. The 2001 Census of India report presents a positive picture. The total literacy rate which was only 16.67 per cent in 1951 rose to 65.37 per cent in 2001. All states have, without exception, registered an increase in literacy rates of both males and females during the last decade. For the first time, the number of illiterates in absolute terms decreased by 31.9 million. The number of literates, on the other hand increased by 203.6 million between 1991-2001. During the period the female literacy rate increased by 14.87 per cent as against 11.72 per cent in the case of

² Arun C Mehta, *Education for All in India: Myth and Reality*, New Delhi: Kanishka Publishers (1995): 112-113.

³ *Ms Mohini Jain Vs State of Karnataka & Others* AIR 1992. SC, 1858 and *Unnikrishnan J P & Others Vs State of AP and Others*, AIR 1993 SC 2178.

⁴ Jandhyala B.G. Tilak, "A Fundamental Right", *Seminar* 464 (April 1998): 37.

males, thus reducing the male-female literacy gap to 21.7 per cent from 24.84 per cent in 1991. Population growth rate has slowed down to an annual average of 1.95 per cent.⁵

But have we yet arrived? Rather, are we about to reach the goal post?

According to the 2005 Global Education Monitoring report, which incorporates the 2001 census data, India's ranks 106 out of the 127 countries surveyed. India is home to one in every three illiterate persons in the world. With 34 per cent of the illiterate population in the world, India has the largest number of illiterates by far.⁶ According to the Census of India 2001, there are 1.25 crore working children in the age group of 5-14.⁷

The Gross Enrollment Ratio in the elementary stage (I-VIII) may have increased from 32.1 per cent in 1950-51 to 81.6 percent in 2000-01. But has it done away with the gender disparity in the field of education? The corresponding increase in percentage for boys was from 46.4 per cent to 90.3 percent and for girls from 17.7 per cent to only 72.4 per cent.⁸ The drop-out rate has continued to remain very high. While the drop out rate at the primary level was 39 per cent, at the upper primary level it was a staggering 54.6 per cent. As many as 53 per cent boys and 56 per cent girls drop out at the upper primary stage for a variety of reasons.

The number of those who never enrolled remained high as well. About 12 million children, aged 6-11, are out of school. 89 per cent of the same are girls. The corresponding figure for the upper primary level was 28 million, including 58 per cent girls. In 2000-01, only 4.2 per cent of the gross national product was spent on education. Though it is a significant improvement over the 1.2 per cent share of 1950-51, it is far less than what is required to achieve the target. Financial allocation for elementary education saw an all time low of 32 per cent during the Sixth Plan period.

By 2007, 18 million children would complete eight years of school education and in 2010, more than 23 million children would seek admission in class VIII. The evident inadequacy of the existing infrastructure is a harsh reality. Private funding stood at 50 per

⁵ Vimala Ramachandran, "Backward and Forward Linkages that Strengthen Primary Education", *Economic and Political Weekly* (March 8, 2003):959-968.

⁶ "India has a Third of World's Illiterates", *The Times of India*:01.

⁷ *Economic Survey 2003-04*, Ministry of Finance and Economic Division, Government of India: 212.

⁸ *Selected Educational Statistics 2001-02*, Planning, Monitoring & Statistics Division, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India:70.

cent at the time of independence. At present no estimate puts it beyond 20 per cent.⁹ Clearly, having made efforts for universalisation of elementary education, the government totally forgot to make arrangements at the upper levels. According to another estimate by 2010-11, there will be more than three crore children ready to join class IX. Of these, 2.3 crore will be from government schools.¹⁰ Where would they be accommodated?

At all-India level only 35 per cent of the total teacher requirement has been met.¹¹ Almost 66 per cent of the additional posts for primary teachers sanctioned under Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) lay vacant throughout the country.¹²

While the inadequacy of funds is continually highlighted as a problem area, it is as true that in the past decade, most states have consistently spent much less than what was allocated to them by the Centre under programmes like the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP), and SSA. In 2003-04, the total expenditure for SSA by all the states was about Rs.3,600 crore against the planned expenditure of Rs.8,300 crore. In the past two years the funds released by the Centre to the ten educationally backward states have been only about 30 per cent of the total SSA allocations earmarked for them.¹³ In the wake of this fact, it comes as little surprise that the Supreme Court directed all states and Union Territories to fully utilize the state and central funds under the Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS) for providing mid-day meal to school children.¹⁴

According to a NIEPA study on the state of elementary education in the country for 2003-04, hordes of students pass out every year from government-run schools in metros. But only 30-35 per cent manage to score 60 per cent and above marks. Most teachers, even those teaching at the higher secondary level, possess just secondary school degrees. Interestingly, even government schools in metros lack basic facilities like drinking water, separate toilets for girls, blackboards etcetera.¹⁵

⁹ J.S. Rajput, "Be Accountable to Education", *The Asian Age*, (04.03.04):16.

¹⁰ Shivani Singh, "80 Lakh Children, Where Do They Go for +2", *The Times of India* (19.02.05): 11.

¹¹ Urmi A Goswami, "Education-for-all a Dream as States Fail to Hire Teachers", *The Economic Times* (23.06.04):10.

¹² Shivani Singh, "Sarva Shiksha Remains a Failed Abhiyan", *The Times of India* (14.08.04):10.

¹³ Dhir Jhingran, "Cess Appeal: Go Beyond It", *The Indian Express* (12.07.04):08.

¹⁴ "Use Funds Fully for Mid-day Meals, Court Tells States", *The Hindu* (14.10.04):13.

¹⁵ Shivani Singh, "Even Govt. Schools in Metros Lack Basic Facilities", *The Times of India*.

India has a high student-teacher ratio of 40:1 at the primary level against the developing country average of 28:1.¹⁶

As if this was less than sufficient – political disputes over the issue of education continue. The Communist Party of India (M) continually charged the Bharatiya Janata party-led National Democratic Alliance Government with “commercialising and communalizing education,” while disputing claims that three-crore out-of-school children were brought back to school.¹⁷ Miraculously, with the ‘India Shining’ campaign gaining momentum the government claimed that only 81 lakh children were out of school, down from 2.38 crore in a year’s time¹⁸!

All children who enroll do not complete even five years; a significant proportion goes through schooling and learns very little. It is not uncommon to come across children who have been to school but remain functionally illiterate. Motivation and capabilities of teachers remain problem areas. And above all there are still a very large number of poor children – especially girls – living in urban and rural areas who do not have access to quality education. And the children who do get the opportunity to attend school drop out for one reason or the other. A National Family Health Survey reveals that 26 per cent of the students are not interested in studies; and the main reason for 16.7 per cent students not attending school is that they are required for household work.

Clearly, among the Fundamental Rights that citizens enjoy under the Constitution, the right to free and compulsory school education is perhaps the most difficult to assert.

It may be noted that before 1976 education in India was the exclusive responsibility of the states. The constitutional amendment of 1976, which included education in the concurrent list, was a far-reaching step. There has been no dearth of legislations to make education free and compulsory over the years but the fact remains that they do not by themselves, make education compulsory’, and only enable the local authorities to choose to do so. The present Compulsory Acts are therefore, mere ‘enabling legislations’.

The **state accepted its failure and tried to redefine its methodology** for realizing the developmental goals. The paradigm of development, projected as a self-fulfilling prophecy had failed to produce the desired results. Much of the efforts of development

¹⁶ “Female Teachers Get a Raw Deal in India: Report”, *The Times of India* (09.11.04):11.

¹⁷ “CPI(M) Criticises Government’s Education Policy”, *The Hindu* (21.03.04):10.

¹⁸ “States Rub Shine on Abhiyan Cover”, *The Indian Express*, (28.01.04):04.

were mismatched and their benefits highly skewed. Development theory had come under sustained attacks and interrogation from many quarters. One important criticism of development stemmed from the fact that it had failed in its mission of accomplishing equity, equality and progress. **Non Governmental Organisations** (NGOs) came to be treated as promoters of alternative development strategies – with a focus on people’s participation. The earlier approach to development precisely lacked this, i.e. the need to translate the logic and language of development to the people for whom it is intended.¹⁹

The dismal performance led to the National Policy on Education of 1986 which tried to articulate the need for an alternative to centralised bureaucracy in school education and stressed on the need for decentralisation. It introduced major changes: a considerable increase in resources allocated for primary education; many innovative programmes, which were implemented by the state governments through partnership with NGOs; and an increased inflow of foreign assistance into primary education. The Centre provided the funds while the state governments identified NGOs to provide education. Some of the innovative programmes which were implemented through NGOs included the Andhra Pradesh Primary Education project (early 1980s); Mahila Samakhya – Education for Women’s Empowerment (1986); the Total Literacy Campaign (1988); the Shiksha Karmi project of the Government of Rajasthan (1987); Bihar Education Project (1991); UP Basic Education Project (1992) and an innovative programme in environmental education (1986).

Following the adoption of human development perspective in the 1990s an increasing sense of urgency for change in policy and action in the 1990s emerged. The Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE) recommended, following the passage of the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendment, a number of decentralised programmes involving a strong component of joint partnerships between local government bodies and the private sector based on foreign funding. These were the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP), the People’s Development Planning (PDP) in Kerala, the Employment Guarantee Scheme of Madhya Pradesh (EGS) and the joint UN-Government of India Education Programme (UN-GOI). In the early 1990s a number of movements were initiated by the

¹⁹ Tapan R Mohanty, “Partners in Development: A Reflection on the Role of NGOs”, *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, vol. L, no. 4 (October-December 2004):1123-1128.

government to promote universal literacy beginning with the Kerala Sahitya Parishad (KSSP) in 1989, National Literacy Mission (NLM), Bharat Gyan Vigyan Samiti (BGVS) etc. Their aim was not providing elementary education but to make the entire population of a district literate.

Due to rising awareness there was increasing pressure on the central government to spend more on universalisation of elementary education in the 1990s but due to the adoption of a Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) both the central and state governments had to cope with growing budgetary imbalances and the need for fiscal discipline. The ratio of public expenditure to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) actually *declined* in the 1990s under successive governments, from a peak of 4.4 in 1989 to about 3.6 per cent by the end of the decade. This factor further encouraged private initiatives in partnership with the government to enter into the education field.

States attempted to shift the burden of financing and delivering educational services increasingly on parents, families, communities, NGOs and the private sector who were called upon to share in providing educational services, such as paying for books, uniforms and materials, which imposed a harsh burden upon the poorer sections.²⁰

The Tenth Plan clearly suggests that given market liberalism and globalization, the state should yield to the market and civil society in many areas where it, so far, “had direct but distortionary and inefficient presence... many developmental functions as well as function that provide stability to the social order have to be progressively performed by the market and civil society organizations. It means extension of the market and civil society domain at the expense of the state in some areas.”

The Plan recommends that the role of voluntary organizations, non-profit making companies, corporate bodies, cooperatives and trusts be strengthened in social and economic development. The plan in effect deepens the thrust that had originally been initiated by the Seventh Five-Year Plan towards reliance on the voluntary sector as an agent of social development. The ministries that subsequently came to rely heavily on NGOs are those of rural development, health and family welfare, social justice and empowerment, human resource development, and of environment and forests.

²⁰ Sudha Pai, *Universal Elementary Education in India: An Exploratory Study of Movements in Civil Society*. UNRISD project (2004).

The ‘**off-loading**’ of **welfare services**, which were for long seen as the responsibility of the democratic state, is part of governance. The practice of governance promise an exit from centrally controlled bureaucratic, hierarchical, and over-loaded structures of decision-making, which are judged inept simply because they are unable to act either quickly or efficiently. On the other hand NGOs are seen to possess certain virtues: they are relatively unburdened with large bureaucracies, they are more flexible and more receptive to innovation than government officials are, and they are able to identify and respond to the needs of the grassroots because they are in close touch with their constituencies.²¹

T K Oommen offers a different perspective: citizen’s lack of ability to resist the hegemonic power play of the state paves the way for other conscience-keeping agents to combat the state monopoly. This is known as the secondary power that falls within the ambit of civil society. And voluntary association can be seen as the manifestation of this secondary power.²²

Nirja Gopal Jayal agrees that the NGOs are the most important institutional innovation of the twentieth century but opines that when the state transfers the implementation of development programs from its own departments to NGOs, it does not necessarily imply a rolling back of the state. Rather, the state draws upon the skills offered by NGOs as public service contractors.²³

The state was seen as consisting of entrenched interests and styles of functioning, NGOs have emerged to perform a bridging function, taking on functions that the state is unsuited for, and or performing them with lower overheads, greater efficiency and motivation. BV Baviskar recognises that development requires not only the ‘hardware’ of investment in physical infrastructure, but also the software of developing human capabilities. Without capacity building for managing institutions, learning legal rational

²¹ Neera Chandhoke, “The State in Popular Imagination”, *The Hindu*.

²² T.K. Oommen, “The Theory of Voluntary Associations in a Cross Cultural Perspective”, *Sociological Bulletin*, vol. 24, no. 2 (September 1975): 163.

²³ Nirja Gopal Jayal, Reinventing the State: The Emergence of Alternative Models of Governance in India in the 1990s In *Democratic Governance in India: Challenges of Poverty, Development and Identity* edited by Nirja Gopal Jayal and Sudha Pai, New Delhi: Sage (2001): 144-146.

procedures for decision making and accounting, raising questions and suggesting alternatives, development will not be socially sustainable.²⁴

Retreat of the state manifests itself in the form of the SSA scheme. It evolved from the recommendations of the State Education Minister's conference held in October 1998 to pursue universal elementary education in a mission mode. The scheme provides for a wide convergent framework for implementation of elementary education schemes such as Operation Blackboard, Teacher Education, Non Formal Education, Mahila Samakhya, National Programme for Nutritional Support for Primary Education, State Specific Education Projects in Bihar, Rajasthan, UP and Andhra Pradesh and DPEP in 248 districts of 18 States.

The government programmes have been increasingly redesigned in order to make the process more participatory. More scope for collective action has been created. The theme of public-private partnership comes across strongly in them.

SSA aims at getting all children in school/Education Guarantee Centre/Alternate school/'Back to School' camp by 2003. Five years of primary schooling by 2007 and eight years of elementary schooling by 2010 are amongst the other objectives. It also seeks to bridge all gender and social category gaps at primary and elementary level in the same time frame.

The government has **decentralized** its functioning to a large extent – Parent-teacher associations, village education committees, mother-teacher associations, panchayats etc. play a vital role in the implementation of the programme. For instance, the Ministry of Human Resource development introduced the scheme to give honorarium to any *Gaon Sabha* that brought a child who had passed one year beyond the enrollment age to the notice of school authorities.²⁵ The government has also successfully worked in close collaboration with NGOs - Pratham, MV Foundation and Baljyothi are just a few examples. Though limited in coverage, NGOs could produce significant demonstration effects, influence public actions and policies of the government and also of other NGOs. National Alliance for Fundamental Right to Education, a network of NGOs, played instrumental role in the passage of 93rd constitutional bill.

²⁴ B.V Baviskar, "NGOs and Civil Society in India", *Sociological Bulletin*, vol. 50, no. 1 (March 2001): 07-10.

²⁵ Barkha Goel, "HRD Ministry Bid to Boost Elementary Schooling", *The Pioneer* (21.01.04): 05.

The particular interest of this research scholar to examine the relationship between the government and the NGOs therefore found firm grounds in the recently launched SSA. It not only serves as an umbrella scheme for almost all the earlier schemes in the arena of education but also categorically makes space for the intervention by NGOs.

Haryana was chosen in particular because of two reasons: One, it being the home town of this research scholar made data collection from district and NGO office relatively easy. Two, the proposition of taking up a specific state promised a micro understanding of the relationship between the government and NGOs. Therefore, within Haryana itself, Gurgaon district was specifically looked at. A larger case study would not have been too feasible at this stage due to constraints of time and other resources.

Haryana with 1,891,599 urban illiterates and 6,966,354 rural illiterates presents an interesting case. The total sex ratio of rural literates is 572 per thousand males. The child sex ratio of the state at 820 is the second lowest in the country. The population of Haryana has doubled in the last 28 years.²⁶

The social development and the economic development of the state lie on extremes. Haryana's per capita income in the year 2001-2002 was Rs. 14,331 (at constant prices 1993-94 base year) and Rs. 23,742 (at current prices). The net state domestic product for the year 2001-2002 was Rs. 28,655 crore (at constant prices 1993-94 base year) and Rs. 47,474 crore (at current prices). With 1.4 per cent of the total area and less than 2 per cent of the country's population, Haryana is one of the leading states in terms of per capita income. It has more than 1,100 big and medium industrial units with foreign technical/financial collaborations.²⁷

Preliminary studies revealed that **Gurgaon**, satellite of India's capital, is regarded as one of the most backward states by the Government of Haryana. In Gurgaon tahsil the rural sex ratio has declined from 852 to 830 in 1991-2001. Interestingly, though the strength of population in the 0-6 age group has increased to 3,29,827 in 2001 from 2,52,878 in 1991, yet the proportion of the population in the same age group has declined from 22.06 per

²⁶ Sunil Gulati, *Census of India 2001, Haryana Provisional Population Totals*, Series 07, Paper 2 of 2001: vii-x.

²⁷ <http://www.haryana-online.com/business.htm>

cent to 19.90 per cent.²⁸ Widespread income disparities prevail in this second largest district of the state. According to the 2001 census, Gurgaon tahsil leads in Haryana out of 67 tahsils in the state in terms of literacy. Ironically, the tahsil not only records a literacy rate of 81.62 per cent, it also comprises of Punhana, Firozpur Jhirka and Nuh tahsils - all lying at the bottom end with a literacy rate of 37.58 per cent, 40.61 per cent and 45.23 per cent respectively. Such a contrasting picture provided further incentive for taking it up as the case study.

The dissertation **titled** '*Interplay of Government and NGOs – A Case Study of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in Haryana*' proceeds on the **hypothesis** that the state has failed to fulfill its promise of free and compulsory education for all children up to fourteen years. The goal remains the same but the goal post has been constantly moved ahead over the years. The state is now retreating and making way for other actors for achieving the development goals. NGOs have emerged to be walking hand in hand with the government to realize the goal of universal elementary education as envisaged by the SSA. Three dimensions of enquiry thus emerge – Government, NGOs and elementary education.

The **objective** of the study therefore is to examine the relationship between the government and the NGOs in the domain of universal elementary education and ascertain the determining factors and processes of their collaboration. Also, to understand the challenges involved in making the universalisation of elementary education a reality and look at the current policy and programme frameworks.

In analyzing the government's programme the investigation included the study of the policy process. It is essentially descriptive and explanatory rather than prescriptive. The study goes backwards to create the events and analyse the reasons for the present status of elementary education in India.

The **methodology** adopted was to look at government documents and reports to find out the status of elementary education in India and to study the different policies. The focus is on the use of quantitative information to present the larger picture. Since SSA was

²⁸ Sunil Gulati, *Census of India 2001, Haryana Provisional Population Totals, Series 07, Paper 2 of 2001*: 157.

implemented in Haryana only in 2002, the latest data of the state and district were collected from the District Education Officer, Gurgaon. A visit to the Adi Gram Samiti office provided the necessary inputs of an NGO working in the district. NIEPA's state and district report cards on 'Elementary Education in India' were also made use of besides articles from journals and news papers.

The **chapterisation** followed in the dissertation is as follows:

Chapter I, 'Universal Elementary Education', looks at the historical evolution of free and compulsory education in India and the present status of the same. It is a factual as well as an analytical exercise. Analyses of various educational indicators form a part of this chapter. It traces the shift in the emphasis from universal primary education to universal elementary education.

Chapter II, 'State-NGO Partnership: Policy & Practice', examines the relationship between the government and the NGOs theoretically and then proceeds to focus on select educational policies whereby the government seeks the help of NGOs in their implementation. Besides centrally-sponsored schemes, case studies of Baljyothi, Pratham and M V Foundation have also been done because they reflect successful partnership with the government in the arena of elementary education. An effort has also been made to find out the structure of these collaborations because it is essentially this that makes them successful.

Chapter III, 'Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan', traces the technical details of the policy from the 93rd constitutional amendment bill.

Chapter IV, 'Elementary Education in Haryana', examines the status of elementary education in Haryana and in particular the Gurgaon district. It then proceeds to study Adi Gram Samiti, a NGO sponsored by the state to implement SSA in Gurgaon district to find out how well does decentralization materialise at the grassroot level.

A commitment to education depends directly on the aspirations for children and perceived relevance or value of education vis-à-vis parental aspirations. However, parental aspirations, and the perceived benefits and the relevance of education are not independent of external factors and processes, and, in fact, depend a great deal on the three dimensions: the socio economic context, the household situation, or characteristics and the school availability and functioning. These three dimensions are themselves

interconnected but they also act independently and in either case have a strong influence on the commitment to education. The commitment to education is not a static phenomenon and changes with a change in the perceived relevance or benefits.²⁹

²⁹ Jyotsna Jha and Dhir Jhingran, *Elementary Education for the Poorest and Other Deprived Groups - The Real Challenge for Universalisation*. New Delhi: Centre for Policy Research (2002): 230.

CHAPTER I
UNIVERSAL ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION

At the stroke of independence, India inherited a system of education that was small in magnitude and was characterized by large intra-regional and inter-regional structural imbalances. Education being closely linked with the development process has been a vital arena for state intervention. Education, especially elementary education, has come to occupy a central place in the role model of development. Many countries have made school education compulsory - a part and parcel of the civilized world. In as many as 161 out of 193 countries on which information is available (Table 01), there is some degree of compulsion in school education.¹ Only 23 countries have no legislation that makes education compulsory, among which nine are in Africa² and nine in Asia³.

DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Even before the British took the initiative, there was a substantially well-developed network of indigenous schools, which was the mainstay for the spread of mass education. These schools were totally informal in nature. They had no buildings and were held sometimes in the home of the teacher or the patron of the school, often in a local temple and many a time under a tree in the center of the village. The hours of instruction and the days of meeting were adjusted to local requirements. The curriculum was narrow and depended on the teacher's ability and knowledge. These schools were significant in their adaptability to their local environment because of their organic nature, which blended well with the society. Its main defect was that the system excluded girls, the scheduled castes and the tribal, who lived in the forests, from its coverage. The large rural community, which depended upon agriculture and allied occupations for livelihood, was also in general kept outside its fold.⁴

Attempts to make the right to free and compulsory education available to the Indian child began a little more than a century ago. Many changes that had taken place in the 18th century Europe had their impact on Indian contemporary life and perceptions. This was

¹ Jandhyala B G Tilak, "A Fundamental Right," *Seminar* 464 (April 1998): 37.

² Botswana, Gambia, Kenya, Mauritania, Mauritius, Sierra Leone, Sudan, Suaziland and Uganda.

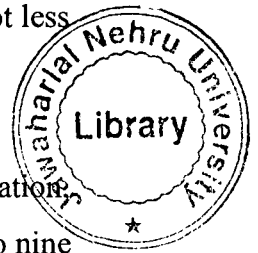
³ Bahrain, Bhutan, Lebanon, Maldives, Oman, Pakistan, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Singapore.

⁴ *A Status and Evaluation Study of the Upper Primary Section of the Elementary Education System*. Study sponsored by Planning Commission, Government of India, Conducted by Indian Institute of Education, Pune (October 2002): 11-12.

the period of emergence of the middle class, of the rationalistic and individualistic philosophies and of the 'nation state'. With these new ideas emerged new concepts regarding education as a right of all the citizens and as a duty of the state. In the latter half of the 19th century, the educated Indians in their travel abroad, noticed these changes on the continent as well as in Great Britain. They noticed, in particular, the difference in the entitlement of citizens in England and in British India. When in 1870, England passed legislation to make education free and compulsory, a demand was raised in India, to provide similar facilities in its colonies.

Some academics also trace the development of the modern system of education to the **Charter Act of 1813** under which the British Parliament directed the East India Co. to accept responsibility for the education of the Indian people and to spend a sum of not less than a lakh Rupees a year for this purpose.

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However, it was only **1824** onwards that small sums were annually spent on education, too little to meet the needs of millions of people. In **1831** financial help was given to nine vernacular schools in the rural areas of Saugar and 70 primary schools were opened in Madras through the efforts of Thomas Munro. In 1830, the Directors of East India Company directed the Government of Madras to divert its attention to the spread of English education, rather than concentrating on the education of the masses. Resultantly the cause of primary education in Madras received a setback. **Macaulay's Minute of 1835** gave a deathblow to indigenous (oriental) system of education in the country. English was adopted as a medium of instruction because of which vernacular schools suffered. In 1844, a few vernacular schools were established in Bengal province, but by 1852 only 30 such schools survived.

The **Bombay Native Education Society** did commendable work in the promotion of primary education. The Society opened 15 primary schools aiming at imparting 'western knowledge' through the medium of mother tongue. In 1840, the Bombay Native Education Society was replaced by the Bombay Board of Education, which functioned up to 1855. **Wood's Despatch 1854** also emphasised the importance of primary education. It recommended the adoption of grant-in-aid system to spread elementary education.

Stanley's Despatch of 1859 admitted that it was apparently impossible to provide funds for a system of direct instruction and that it was necessary to levy a compulsory local rate for defraying the cost of primary education. Resultantly, 1864 onwards **Local Cess Acts** were passed by different provinces and primary education made great strides forward during the eleven years from 1870-71 to 1881-82.

From 1854-1882 primary education did progress but it was slow because the government paid very little attention to it, funds were inadequate and the money raised through Cess Acts was diverted into different channels.⁵

A number of educated Indians deposed before the **Education Commission in 1882** and asked for laws to be made to make education compulsory and to wean children away from labour in factories and other kinds of unsuitable work. **Dadabhai Naoroji** demanded before the Commission that primary education should be made free and compulsory in India as soon as possible. Though his demand was unheeded, yet it overtly expressed that Indians were awakening towards the need and importance of free and compulsory education. The Commission made important recommendations on government policy towards primary education, administration, curriculum, finance and training of primary teachers etcetera. The recommendations were adhered to and as a result progress was made.

The Commission suggested that:

- Primary education should be entrusted to the newly created Municipal & District Boards.
- Local bodies should set definite fund for primary education aside.
- Government should help the local bodies financially to the extent of one-half or at least one-third of their total expenditure on primary education.
- The possibility of private enterprise in the field of primary education cannot be precluded, though the entire responsibility should be mainly of the state or the local bodies.
- Primary education should be given through vernaculars.⁶

⁵ Dr. Kuldip Kaur, *Education in India (1781-1985): Policies, Planning and Implementation* Chandigarh: Centre for Research in Rural and Industrial Development (1985)

The struggle to make the right to education available to every child in India continued. To show to the British that such ideas were not too 'utopian' in the Indian context, a number of princely states such as Baroda, Travancore, Manipur etc. introduced legislation in their states to make education compulsory. His Highness, the Maharaja of Baroda achieved what the British Government could not - compulsory education for boys in Amreli Taluk and in 1906 he extended compulsory education to rest of the state.

The Mysore Legislative Council passed the **Mysore Elementary Education Regulation (MEER)** in 1913 after a careful study of Baroda model. It received assent of the Maharaja of Mysore and became a law in 1913-1914. This Regulation prohibited employment of children in the age of 7-11 years. A special officer for compulsory primary education was appointed in 1917.⁷ In the space of the last century, a number of Acts have been passed in India to enable education to be made free and compulsory. (Table 2)

Around the same time, **Government of India's Resolution of 1904** incorporated Lord Curzon's liberal ideas about primary education. Curzon not only adopted the new system of grant-in-aid, reforms in curriculum, training of primary teachers etc. but also allocated Rs. 35 lakhs for the quantitative and qualitative improvement of primary education. But the progress in the field of primary education continued to be limited.⁸

In Bombay, **Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola** and **Sir Chiman Lal Setalwad** attempted to introduce compulsory education. As a consequence thereto, the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee, in 1906, to examine the possibility of introducing compulsory education in the city of Bombay. However, unfortunately the Committee came to the conclusion that '*the time was not ripe for compulsory education*'.

ROLE OF NATIONALISTS

To **Gopal Krishna Gokhale** goes the honour of raising the issue of universal elementary education on the highest national forum, the central legislature, in 1910-12 when he

⁶ Shripad S Bolashetty and Girija, L.L, "Fundamental Human Right to Free and Compulsory Education", *Journal of Educational Planning & Administration*, vol. XVIII, no. 1 (January 2004): 58-59.

⁷ *Ibid*

⁸ Dr. Kuldip Kaur, *Education in India (1781-1985): Policies, Planning and Implementation* Chandigarh: Centre for Research in Rural and Industrial Development (1985).

brought forward a bill to provide for a four year period of compulsory education for all children. He knew that he had to fight two main arguments: (1) Is it necessary at all to go beyond the downward filtration theory of class education and propose a program of direct education of the masses? and (2) Will it be possible for government to foot the cost of a program of compulsory education? He had to concentrate most of his attention on the first because that was the citadel of orthodoxy he had to fight against and demolish before any other meaningful steps could be taken. The model for the elementary education system proposed by Gokhale had one interesting feature, viz., the simplicity of its objective (i.e. universal literacy). This was a very significant and deliberate decision of Gokhale on financial grounds. He knew that if the objectives of elementary education were pitched higher, its duration would have to be longer and the cost per pupil per year would also tend to go up. He, therefore, kept his sights deliberately low: the attainment of literacy in a course of four years (he talked of compulsion in the age group of 6-10 wherein the curriculum would be simplified and largely limited to the acquisition of the three R's⁹).

Gokhale advanced three main arguments in favour of this view.

- (1) His first argument was that as a national objective, even the liquidation of the illiteracy of our masses would be a substantial achievement. *“Even if the advantages of an elementary education be put no higher than a capacity to read and write”,* he said, *“its universal diffusion is a matter of prime importance, for literacy is better than illiteracy any day, and the banishment of a whole people's literacy is no mean achievement.”*
- (2) To those who emphasised quality and tended to convert ‘better’ into an enemy of ‘good’, his reply was equally emphatic. *“The primary purpose of mass education”,* he argued, *is to banish illiteracy from the land. The quality of education is a matter of importance that comes only after illiteracy has been banished.”*
- (3) He conceded the point that the liquidation of mass illiteracy could not, by itself, achieve much. But he argued that, without it, no plans of national development were ever likely to succeed.¹⁰

⁹ Reading, Writing and Arithmetic.

¹⁰ J.P Naik, *Elementary Education in India: A Promise to Keep* (New Delhi: Allied Publishers Pvt. Ltd., 1975): 14–16.

Gokhale moved the resolution in Imperial Legislature, seeking '*better provision for the extension of elementary education*'. While moving the bill he said that the whole thing hinges on generous financial assistance from the country's government.¹¹ Also, he suggested in the Bill that compulsion should be introduced in those areas where a certain percentage of boys and girls of school age were receiving instruction and that it should be left to the discretion of the local bodies whether to apply the Act to certain areas under their jurisdiction or not. Secondly, a required percentage of attendance should be fixed. In spite of the support of eminent persons like Madan Mohan Malviya and Mohammad Ali Jinnah, the Bill was defeated by 38 votes to 13. Again Gokhale took the proposal vide a Bill in 1912 which also did not achieve its objective.

In 1913, resolution was passed by the government for the widest possible extension of primary education on a voluntary basis. Provincial governments were given the authority to make primary education free for the backward and the poor. By **1917**, almost all of primary education in Bombay, the Punjab, the United Provinces, the Central Province, North-West Frontier Province, and Assam was monopolised by board schools.

In 1918 Bombay government passed the Bombay Primary Education Act, passed by **Vithal Bhai Patel**. By 1919 the governments of Punjab, UP, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa brought into force the Primary Education Acts. In 1921, the control of elementary education was transferred to Indian ministers and the goal of elementary education was accepted.

It is mention worthy at this point that after the publication of the Montague-Chelmsford Report in 1918, the **Indian National Congress (INC)** demanded that the new Government of India Act should include a 'Declaration of Rights of People of India', which would include, among other things, equality before law, protection in respect of liberty, life and property, freedom of speech etc. There was also a demand by eminent persons that education should also be included as a Fundamental Right of Indians. The list of the Fundamental Rights in the Constitution of the Irish free state in 1921 also influenced the demand of Fundamental Right of Indians. The Commonwealth of India

¹¹ Dr. Kuldip Kaur, *Education in India (1781-1985): Policies, Planning and Implementation* Chandigarh: Centre for Research in Rural and Industrial Development (1985).

Bill, finalized by the National Convention in 1925, emphasised the following declaration of Rights, which were almost identical to those enshrined in the Irish Constitution, viz., free elementary education. The All-Party conference of 1928 also adopted the provision of free elementary education to all citizens as one of the fundamental rights. The Congress session held in Karachi, in March 1931, adopted the Resolution on Fundamental Rights and Economic Programme as well as stressed that this would have a vital bearing in shaping independent India's Constitution. It also enlisted various fundamental rights and duties. On education, the Karachi Resolution explicitly stated: *“the state shall provide for free and compulsory education.”*

Mahatma Gandhi's contribution for the cause of compulsory primary education has been seminal. Decrying the existence of expensive school patterned after the European model, he stated:

“I defy anybody to fulfill a programme of compulsory primary education of these masses inside of a country. This very poor country of mine is ill able to sustain such an expensive model of education. Our state would revive the old village school and dot every village with a school both for boys and girls.”

In 1937, Mahatma Gandhi moved the resolution on basic education at Wardha, constituting the National Policy of Free and Compulsory Primary Education for all in the age group of 6-14. In the same year provincial autonomy was granted to six provinces and basic education was given a fair trial in these provinces.

In the same year Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) submitted a 'Postwar Plan of Educational Development in India', known as the '**Sargent Plan**'. It recommended universal, free and compulsory education for all boys and girls between six to fourteen years of age on basic education lines over a period of 40 years (1944 to 1984). The nationalist opinion did not accept this long period. The **Linlithgow Commission** also disapproved the compulsion for primary education after review of Sargent report.

The Report of the **Hartog Committee** (1929) found cause to lament the sheer waste and ineffectiveness throughout the whole educational system. *“In the primary system, which from our point of view should be designed to produce literacy and a capacity to exercise an intelligent vote, the waste is appalling, for only a small proportion of those who are at the primary stage reach class IV.”* Sir Philip Hartog warned against immediate

compulsion in the following words: *“Whatever laws may be passed, there must be educational mass conversion before mass compulsion can become effective.”*

B G Kher Committee in 1944 proposed that the Education for All (EFA) goal could and should be achieved in a period of 16 years (1944 to 1960). It was this recommendation that was eventually incorporated in the Constitution of India as a Directive Principle of State Policy (Article 45). When Sargent Plan was still under consideration, came the 'partition of India' and Indian Independence Act of 1947.

An advisory committee was set up in January 1947 to finalise Fundamental Rights so that they could be placed for the consideration of the Constituent Assembly. This advisory committee set up a 'sub committee,' before which K.M. Munshi submitted note and draft articles on 17 March 1947. Among the draft articles, K.M. Munshi submitted, the following Article VIII is on right to education:

“Every citizen is entitled to have free primary education and it shall be legally incumbent upon every unit of the Union to introduce free and compulsory primary education up to age 14 and in case of adults up to the standard of literacy. The duration, limits, and method of primary education shall be fixed by law.”

The majority opinion was that it should be included among justiciable rights with the understanding that the state shall provide free education to all children within a period of ten years. Ultimately, on 16th April 1947, the sub-committee on Fundamental Rights submitted its final report wherein the Right to Education given in Clause 23 stated:

“Every citizen is entitled as of Right to Free Primary Education and it shall be the duty of the state to provide within a period of ten years from the commencement of this constitution for free and compulsory primary education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years.”

It is important to note here that K T Shah, member of the Constituent Assembly, had in 1947, added a note of dissent to the division of the rights of the people into two categories – justiciable and non-justiciable rights. In his view non-justiciable rights had no meaning.

Dreze and Sen find it striking that the failures of government policy over an extended period provoked so little political challenge. They said, *“Had the government shown similar apathy and inconsistency in dealing with, say, the demands of the urban*

population for basic amenities, or of farmers' organizations for adequately high crop price, or of the military establishment for modern hardware, or of the World Bank for structural adjustment measures, it is safe to predict that a major political battle would have followed. The fact that the government was able to get away with so much neglect in the field of primary education relates to the lack of political clout of the illiterate masses. It also reflects the fact that the social value of basic education has been neglected not only by government authorities but also in social and political movements."¹²

Our Constitution is a product of rigorous thought and reflection by some of the finest minds of the time, which laid down the basic philosophical and legal principles, governing the public life of independent India. Philosophico-legal foundations for free and compulsory primary education can be found in the **constituent assembly debates**.

Debates on Article 45 of the Constitution of India reveal that it was originally conceived as a Directive Principle combined with a Fundamental Right. On the other hand the debates on Article 40¹³ were related to the implementation aspect of Directive Principle of State Policy by the 'state', even though no court of laws can enforce these ideals.¹⁴

As a result of the Constituent Assembly debates the first line of the clause (now Article 36) was removed i.e. *"Every citizen is entitled as of right to free primary education and it shall be the duty of the state to ..."* and replaced it with *"The state shall endeavour to..."* and Dr. B.R. Ambedkar, clarified that the objective of Article 36 is not restricted to free primary education... *"A provision is made in Article 18 to forbid any child being employed below the age of fourteen. Obviously, if the child is not to be employed below the age of fourteen, the child must be kept occupied in some educational institution. That is the object of Article 36 and that is why I say the word "primary" is quite inappropriate."*

Finally, Article 45 of the Directive Principles of State Policy of the newly adopted Constitution of India provided that: *"The State shall endeavour to provide, within a*

¹² Nalini Juneja, *Constitutional Amendment to Make Education a Fundamental Right – Issues for a Follow-up Legislation* (NIEPA, March 2003): 27-28.

¹³ Prof. K T Shah and Prof. S. L. Saksena debated that *"many things look impracticable until they are tried, and become practicable if they are tried. Nothing in practice is practicable until it is tried."*

¹⁴ Shripad S Bolashetty and Girija, L.L, "Fundamental Human Right to Free and Compulsory Education", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, vol. XVIII, no. 1 (January 2004):60-67.

period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years.”

Apart from Article 45, **Articles 15, 16, 17 25, 29, 46** also deal with education and other related issues. Parliament, implementing various education provisions entrusted by the Constitution, plays its due role through policy formulation. Education functions and responsibilities of the Parliament are classified into two: (a) Exclusive functions - entry 13, 63 to Union List and Article 239 (b) Concurrent functions - Articles 351, 29(1), 350 (A), 15 (4), 45 and 46, 25, 45, 49, 337 and entry 20 of the Concurrent List.¹⁵

Education was recognized as one of the principal functions of the state. This is clearly reflected through **various provisions of the Constitution** that have a direct or indirect effect on education. Division of responsibilities is made between the centre and the states. Entries 13, 63, 64, 65, and 66, 67 of List I belong to central list. State list (List II) contains 66 items but only two pertain to education - entries 11, 12. The concurrent list has 47 items but entries that are directly or indirectly related to education i.e. entries No. 20, 25, 26, 27, 39, 40.

Before 1976, education was the exclusive responsibility of the states. The **Constitutional Amendment of 1976**, which included education in the Concurrent List was a far-reaching step. The substantive, financial, and administrative implication required a new sharing of responsibility between union government and the states. While the role and responsibility of the states in regard to education remain unchanged, the Union government accepts a larger responsibility to reinforce the national and integrative character of education to maintain quality and standards including those of the teaching profession at all levels, to study and monitor the educational requirements of the country. There has been no dearth of legislations to make education free and compulsory over the years. Records and data available right until 1971-72 report that coercive measures were taken for enforcement of compulsion. (Table 03 and 04) Although many of the states have passed legislation “to provide for free and compulsory primary education”, popularly referred to as ‘Compulsory Education Acts’, the fact remains that they do not by themselves, make education compulsory’, but only enable the local authorities to

¹⁵ M V Rama Rao and G Sudarshanam, “Welfare State and Education in India”, *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, vol. V, no. 1 (January 1991): 20-21.

choose to do so. The present Compulsory Acts are therefore, mere 'enabling legislations'. For the reason that these acts can apply only to a 'local area', for which a scheme must be prepared and passed, these acts cannot cover the whole State.

To enable education to be made compulsory, under these acts, a number of further actions are involved such as: (i) Preparation of a scheme, by the specified authority to make education compulsory in an area; (ii) Obtaining government approval for the scheme; and (iii) Notification of a scheme of compulsion within the specified area. Once a scheme is passed, officers would further: (i) Prepare lists of children who should be going to school and send notices to their parents; and (ii) Ascertain attendance status of each child, and, if necessary, use coercive measures to bring non-attending children to school.

The big question that might worry many people is whether parents will go to jail if education is made compulsory? The answer is simply 'No'. None of the present 'Compulsory Education Acts' have any provision for sending parents to jail for failing to send their children to school.

OVERVIEW OF PLANS

The **First Five-Year Plan** 1951-56 contained recommendations for improving the existing system of primary education expanding basic education. Resultantly, there was a 35.6 per cent increase in the pupil strength during the First Five Year plan period.(Table 05)

On February 25, 1956 President Radhakrishnan said:

"We have adopted universal adult suffrage. This demands universal education. Only then will the voters be able to comprehend national purpose and duty and use their votes not for selfish ends but for public welfare."

The **Second Five Year Plan** (1956-1961) allocated 5.83 per cent of the total plan outlay for education. The enrollment of pupil in age group 6-14 expanded by 416.9 lakh i.e. 48.5 per cent. The literacy increased from 18.33 per cent in First Five Year Plan to 28.31 per cent at the end of Second Five Year Plan.

The **Third Five Year Plan** postulated an increase in the number of children in the age group of 6-14 years, about equal to that achieved during the Second Plan period. Rupees

209 crores were spent on primary education. 60,000 primary schools were converted into basic schools and housing facilities and other allowances were provided to the lady teachers especially in the rural areas.

The **Indian Education Commission** 1964-66, popularly known as the **Kothari Commission**, in its report made important recommendations especially in view of structure of education. It noted that there had been a different structure of elementary education in different states and therefore proposed a revised uniform nomenclature for various stages of education – from class I to V lower primary classes and from VI to VIII higher (upper) primary classes.

After two decades of the Kothari Commission, a **National Policy of Education (NPE)** was framed in **1986**. The NPE 1986 aimed at ensuring a national system of education which implied that up to a given level, all students irrespective of caste, creed, location, or sex have access to education of a comparable quality. The break up of the first ten years will be five years of primary education, three years upper primary education and two years of high school. The NPE, 1986 also recommended “Minimum levels of learning to be drawn for each stage of education”. In order to increase enrollments at the upper primary stage, it was planned that the infrastructure at this stage will be expanded. The existing norm of providing an upper primary school within three km. of walking distance is generally inconvenient for girls. This norm will be relaxed and the new ratio between primary and upper primary schools will be 2:1. Action was to be taken in the next five years to upgrade every second primary school to the upper primary level. It will primarily be the responsibility of the state governments to observe this norm for school.

Several innovative schemes in the sector of elementary education following the NPE in 1986 such as Operation Blackboard¹⁶, Teacher Education, Non Formal Education, Mahila Samakhya¹⁷, National Program for Nutritional Support for Primary Education¹⁸, state

¹⁶ Launched in 1987-88 with the aim of improving human and physical resources available in primary schools of the country.

¹⁷ Education for Women's Equality is being implemented, in more than 9000 villages in 56 districts of 10 states. The objectives of the scheme are to enhance the self image and self confidence of women.

¹⁸ Launched in August 1995, it is commonly known as Mid Day meal scheme. The Central Support to the scheme are (a) 100 gms of food grain per child per school day where there's a meal program, alternatively 3 kgs per child per month for 10 months, and (b) admissible transportation charges. Food grain are supplied through FCI.

specific educational projects in Bihar, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and DPEP¹⁹ in 248 districts of 18 states. These have been integrated in the field of SSA.²⁰

The policy recognised that the school could not reach all children and a large and systematic program of Non Formal Education (NFE) would be required for school dropouts, for children from habitations without schools, working children and girls who could not attend whole day schools. Thus, NFE became an important overall strategy for achievement of UEE. The NFE scheme was revised in 1987-88. While the focus continued to be on 10 educationally backward states, it also included urban slums, hilly, tribal and desert areas and projects for working children in other states and union territories as well.²¹

Some more committees were formed like **Acharya Ramamurti Committee** (1990) and **Janardan Reddy Committee** (1991). In view of the emerging issues and priorities, the NPE 1986 was modified in its various provisions.²²

When the **Fourth Five Year Plan** (1969-1974) was initiated it was evident that there had been very significant increase during the last 15 years of planned development in the number of children going to school. However, the proportion of households sending children to school was low among the poorer sections of rural society. The increase in enrollment had also not been uniform in all the states.

Elementary education was, therefore, given a very high priority in the **Fifth Plan** period (1974-79) and the outlays for it were stepped from Rs. 239 crores in the Fourth Five Year Plan to Rs. 743 crore in the Fifth Five Year Plan. Mention worthy in the same breath is Rs. 112 crore provided for school feeding program under the nutrition scheme. The total outlay for elementary education, constituted 47 per cent of the total outlays on education in the Fifth Plan as against 30 per cent in the Fourth Plan. Provisions were made in the

¹⁹ Launched in 1994, it is based on the principle of 'additionality' and is structured to fill in the existing gaps by providing inputs over and above the provision made under Central and State sector schemes of primary education.

²⁰ *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan – A program for Universal Elementary Education: A framework for Implementation.* Chapter III, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Government of India: 34.

²¹ *Handbook for Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education.* Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Elementary Education and Literacy (2001): 01.

²² *A Status and Evaluation Study of the Upper Primary Section of the Elementary Education System.* Study sponsored by Planning Commission, Government of India, Conducted by Indian Institute of Education, Pune (October 2002): 13-14.

Plan for free distribution of textbooks and stationary, mid day meals and, for girls, uniforms and attendance scholarships. Also, much greater emphasis was laid on improving the quality of instruction, particularly with a view to enhancing the efficiency and productivity of the schools. To follow this policy almost all the states started free education for the children of the age group of 6 –11 years. In 1974-79, the enrollment was of the level of 120 lakh in classes I to V and 105 lakh in classes VI to VIII and 45 lakh in part time classes.

The **Committee appointed by Jaya Prakash Narain**, under the auspices of Citizens for Democracy in May 1978, headed by J P Naik, suggested that elementary education should be made universal and an intensive and sustained program adopted, spread over 5 to 10 years. Special attention should be given to the enrollment of girls and children from the poor sections. Multiple entry scheme should be adopted and part-time education provided to all children who could not attend on a full time basis.

The **Sixth Five Year Plan (1980-85)** assigned the highest priority to this program (Universalisation of Elementary Education). The objective was to attain universalisation up to the age of 14 in two distinct phases over a ten-year period. The approach therefore was to reach universalisation of primary education – classes I to V, up to the age of 6 – 11 years and to achieve a substantial increase in the enrollment at the middle stage – classes VI to VIII of children up to 14 years.²³

Seventh Five Year Plan assigned human resource development a major role in the development strategy. It suggested a new design of education, which is flexible, varying, relevant and linked to widely diverse local culture and social environments. The major program in the Seventh Plan were:

- Universal elementary education by 1990.
- Eradication of illiteracy in age group 15-35.
- Qualitative improvements and reorientation of education at all stages, with special emphasis on vocationalisation of higher education, improvement in science and technology at secondary stage, improvements in standards of education,

²³ Dr. Kuldip Kaur, *Education in India (1781-1985): Policies, Planning and Implementation* (Chandigarh: Centre for Research in Rural and Industrial Development, 1985).

restructuring courses in higher education, and extension of applied research facilities at university stage.

- Modernisation of technical education.²⁴

The **National Policy on Education** as revised in **1992** emphasised the need for a substantial improvement in quality of education to achieve essential levels of learning. The Program of Action, 1992 stressed the need to lay down Minimum Levels of Learning at the primary and upper primary stage – an attempt to combine quality with equity. Also, the setting up of Non Formal Education (NFE) centres based on a micro planning exercise carried out for universal elementary education.²⁵

The NFE scheme is presently being implemented in 25 states/UTs by the state governments and by 812 voluntary agencies. 2.38 lakh primary and 6800 upper primary centres are presently sanctioned in the state sector. 58,000 primary and upper primary centres are run by voluntary agencies. 41 experimental and innovative education projects are being implemented by voluntary agencies. The total coverage of children under NFE scheme is about 64 lakhs. However, shortcomings too exist in the scheme in terms of very low investment, poor community involvement, problems in release of funds, several quality issues including the training of instructors, number of hours of teaching per day etc. that need to be addressed. Also, the objectives and measures identified in the NFE (especially the POA 1992) for strengthening the program needed to be incorporated in the new scheme.

The **Ninth Plan** regarded education as the most crucial investment in human development. The Prime Minister's Special Action Plan gave emphasis to the total eradication of illiteracy, equal access to and opportunity of education up to the school leaving stage, improvement in the quality of education at all levels, and the need for expansion and improvement of infrastructural facilities. The thrust areas in the Ninth plan included universal elementary education, full adult literacy, raising the quality of education at all levels and improving learning achievement. Elementary education was

²⁴ M V Rama Rao and G Sudarshanam, "Welfare State and Education in India", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, vol. V, no. 1 (January 1991): 24.

²⁵ *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan – A Program for Universal Elementary Education: A Framework for Implementation*. Chapter VI, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Elementary Education and Literacy: 52.

given the highest priority in sub-sectoral allocations within the education sector, indicating a strong reiteration of the country's resolve to achieve goal of Education for All during the plan period. The goal was sought to be achieved through various measures, which included:

- Amendment of the Constitution to make elementary education a fundamental right.
- Decentralisation of planning, supervision and management of education through local bodies at the district, block, and village levels.
- Social mobilisation of local communities for adult literacy through campaigns and for promotion of primary education.
- Convergence of different schemes for universal elementary education.
- Stronger partnerships with NGOs and voluntary organisations.
- Advocacy and media campaign for UEE.
- Provision of opportunities for non-formal and alternative education for out-of-school children in the most backward areas and for unreached segments of the population in response to local needs and demands, and
- Universal participation and retention rather than universal enrollment. The goal of UEE was enlarged to include provision of education of a satisfactory quality to all children.

As a result of the various intervention strategies, the progress in terms of access was impressive. According to the Sixth All India Education Survey (1993), 94 per cent of the rural population living in 8.84 lakh habitations now has a school within a walking distance of one km and 85 per cent have an upper primary school within a walking distance of three km. The situation has improved thereafter. During the first three years of the Ninth Plan (1997-2000), over 43,000 new schools were opened and 1,30,000 new teachers recruited at the primary level, while more than 21,000 new schools and 1,02,000 teachers added in the upper primary schools. The Gross Enrollment Ratio at the primary levels increased from 90.6 per cent in 1996-97 to 94.9 per cent in 1999-2000, while it declined from 62.4 per cent to 58.8 per cent at the upper primary level during the same period. The drop-out rate at the primary level declined from 42.4 per cent in 1998-99 to 40.3 per cent in 1999-2000 while in the upper primary stage it fell from 56.8 per cent to 54.5 per cent.

Despite the significant improvement in access to elementary education in the Ninth Plan, the achievement is short of target as the plan had envisaged an additional enrollment of 25 million children in the primary stage and 16 million in the upper primary stage. It had also targeted the construction of 75,000 school buildings/additional classrooms at the elementary stage and the appointment of 2,36,000 teachers at the primary level and 1,75,000 teachers at the upper primary level.²⁶

Interestingly, neither the 1986 Policy on Education nor its Program of Action had mentioned making education compulsory. It is believed that commitments at **Jomtien**²⁷ in 1990 and the events leading to it may have had its echoes in India as well. Among official documents, it was the **Ramamurti Committee Report** in 1990, on the review of the 1986 education policy, which first chided the government for not paying attention to the right to education saying, “*this problem qualifies for being the most fundamental problem of our education system*”. This report called for recognition of the right to education as a fundamental right.

The **Dakar Conference** of the World Education Forum met in April 2000 to review the progress made to achieve the goals of Education for All (EFA). The framework of Action adopted in Dakar identified the following six goals of EFA:

1. Expanding and improving comprehensive Early Childhood Care and Education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.
2. Ensuring that by 2015, all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.
3. Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skill programs.
4. Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

²⁶ Tenth Five Year Plan – 2002-2007: 25-26.

²⁷ The World Conference on Education for All (EFA) was held in 1990 at Jomtien, Thailand. At the Conference, India, along with 155 other countries, committed itself to universalise primary education and halve the adult illiteracy rate by year 2000.

5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
6. Improving every aspect of the quality of education, and ensuring excellence so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

Recognising the importance of elementary education, the Government of India has been working with the state governments for achieving the goals of universalisation of elementary education. In this context, the major initiative has been the launch of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. Other initiatives include the District Primary Education Programme, Teacher Education Programme, activities under the National Literacy Mission and special programmes for promotion of early childhood care and education, inclusive education etcetera. A major part of the planned action in India takes place in individual states, which may not get fully represented in national plans and perspectives. Within this framework the following national goals, corresponding to the six Dakar goals, have been drawn:

- Integrated Child Development Services Scheme being universalized – Early Childhood Care and Education an important component of the scheme (Dakar Goal 1).
- Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (Movement for Education for All) launched with the aim of providing eight years of quality education to all children in the age group 6-14 by 2010. (Goal 2 and 6).
- A comprehensive plan for adolescents, especially girls, in the Tenth Five Year Plan. (Goal 3).
- National Literacy Mission to provide functional literacy to all illiterate adults in the age group 15-35. (Goals 3 and 4).
- Achieve sustainable threshold level of 75 per cent literacy by 2007.
- Special schemes targeted at girls, apart from focus on girls in general schemes. (Goal 5).
- Removal of all disparities, including gender, in primary (Classes I-V) by 2007 and elementary (I-VIII) stages by 2010.

The Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) recognized that the World Declaration on EFA was, from the national point of view, a reaffirmation of the policy orientation given to elementary education in the National Policy on Education in 1986.²⁸

The Supreme Court in its landmark judgment (in the case of **Unni Krishnan J.P vs. the State of Andhra Pradesh 1993**) stepped in and stated: *“In this context we feel constrained to say that the allocation of available funds in India discloses an inversion of priorities.”* In declaring the Directive Principle a Fundamental Right, it chided the government for the lack of achievement of the goals of Article 45, and asked: *“Has it no significance? Is it a mere pious wish even after 44 years of the Constitution? Can the state flout the same directions even after 44 years on the grounds that the article merely calls upon it ‘to endeavour to provide’ the same...?”*

With this judgment, the tide was seen to turn in the direction of amendment of the Constitution to give to children an unambiguous right to free and compulsory education.²⁹

The Supreme Court recognised the education of children in the 6 to 14 years age group as a Fundamental Right that cannot wait.³⁰ The judgment of Supreme Court assumes utmost significance since Article 45 of the Constitution of India and other provisions in the Constitution could not compel the government to provide for universal elementary education even after 50 years of independence.³¹

OVERVIEW OF CURRENT STATUS

The Census of India 2001 reveals that 65.4 per cent of people (75.85 per cent among men and 54.16 among women) are now literate. (Table 7) Over the decades literacy rates have shown substantial improvement. The total literacy rate which was only 16.67 per cent in 1951 rose to 65.37 per cent in 2001. For the first time, the number of illiterates has, in absolute terms decreased by 31.9 million. The number of literates, on the other hand has

²⁸ *Education for All - National Plan of Action, India*. Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, New Delhi: Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India (June 2003): 7-9.

²⁹ Nalini Juneja, *Constitutional Amendment to make Education a Fundamental Right – Issues for a Follow-up Legislation*. NIEPA (March 2003): 30-31.

³⁰ Ms Mohini Jain Vs State of Karnataka & Others AIR 1992. SC, 1858 and Unnikrishnan J P & Others Vs State of AP and Others, AIR 1993 SC 2178.

increased by 203.6 million between 1991-2001. During the period the female literacy rate increased by 14.87 per cent as against 11.72 per cent in the case of males, thus reducing the male-female literacy gap to 21.7 per cent from 24.84 per cent in 1991. All states have, without exception, registered an increase in literacy rates of both males and females during the last decade. Population growth rate has slowed down to an annual average of 1.95 per cent.³²

The overall political and social environment is positive. There is an intense debate on access, we still have a long way to go with respect to learning achievements, social inequality and gender issues. All children who enroll do not complete even five years; a significant proportion of them goes through schooling and learns very little. It is not uncommon to come across children who have been to school but remain functionally illiterate. Motivation and capabilities of teachers remain problem areas. And above all there are still a very large number of poor children – especially girls – living in urban and rural areas who do not have access to quality education. And the children who do get the opportunity to attend school drop out for one reason or the other. A National Family Health Survey reveals that 26 per cent of the students are not interested in studies; and the main reason for 16.7 per cent students not attending school is that they are required for household work. (Table 08)

Jyotsna Jha and Dhir Jhingaran's study concluded that there are three dimensions critical to UEE.

- the socio economic context
- the household situation
- School availability and functioning.

One of their central arguments is that inclusion of children from poor and deprived groups in the fold of sustained schooling can be achieved only with a fundamental change in the approach and functioning of the schooling system on the one hand and the socio-political empowerment of the poor and deprived on the other.³³

³¹ Jandhyala B G Tilak, "A Fundamental Right", *Seminar* 464 (April 1998): 37.

³² Vimala Ramachandran, "Backward and Forward Linkages that Strengthen Primary Education", *Economic and Political Weekly* (March 8, 2003): 959-968.

³³ Amman Madan, "Education as a Vision for Social Change - Review of Elementary Education for the Poorest and other Disadvantaged Groups", *Economic and Political Weekly* (May 31, 2003):2135-2136.

An overview of the current status of elementary education in India with the help of vital educational indicators would be worth the while at this point.

ENROLLMENT

Though considerable progress has been made in enrollment at primary and upper primary levels of education, a lot more needs to be done. Enrollment at primary level increased from 19.16 million in 1950-51 to 113.8 million in 2000-01. At the upper primary level, from 3.12 million, enrollment increased to 42.8 million in 2000-01, indicating a 13.7 times increase as against six times at the primary level. Also, the percentage share of girls to total enrollment, both at primary and upper primary levels, has increased considerably and consistently between 1950-51 (28.01 per cent) and 2000-01 (43.07 per cent). However, girl's share at the upper primary level (40.09 per cent) continues to be lower than their share at the primary level (43.07 per cent) in 2000-01. In short, the total enrollment at the primary and upper primary stages increased by 6 and 14 times respectively since 1950-51 and girls enrollment by 9 and 37 times respectively.³⁴

Growth in enrollment at the upper primary level is more impressive than at the primary level because of the very low base-level enrollment in the upper primary schools/sections.

Again, a very low base level enrollment of girls seems to account for this relatively impressive growth in the girls enrollment. Also, assuming the sex ratio to be more or less balanced at this age group, the proportion of girls' enrollment is still much lower than that of boys both at the primary and the upper primary levels.

NIEPA has analysed out-of-school children and the net additional enrollment required to meet the avowed goal of EFA by 2006-07. There will have to be a net additional enrollment of 62.49 million children by the year 2006-07 if the country's declared objective of EFA is to be attained. It involves almost 40 per cent step-up over the current enrollment of 155 million children. Then again almost two-thirds of the net additional is

³⁴ *Selected Educational Statistics 2001-02*. Planning, Monitoring & Statistics Division, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 21.

expected to be of girls. The present enrollment of girls compared to that of boys, is pretty low both at the primary and the upper primary school levels.³⁵

GROSS ENROLLMENT RATIO & GROSS DROP-OUT RATES

The Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER)³⁶ in the elementary stage (I-VIII) increased from 32.1 per cent in 1950-51 to 81.6 per cent in 2000-01. The corresponding increase in percentage for boys was from 46.4 per cent to 90.3 per cent and for girls from 17.7 per cent to 72.4 per cent.³⁷ (Table 10) The GER rose from 42.6 to 94.9 in the case of primary levels, for the same period, and from 12.7 to 58.79 for upper primary levels. The gap between boys and girls in GER at the primary and upper primary levels has declined significantly from 28.5 per cent and 29.6 per cent points respectively in 1990-91 to 19 and 18 in 1999-2000.

The Net Enrollment Ratio (NER) obtained by subtracting the number of underage and overage children enrolled in grades I-V and VI-VIII, were significantly lower than GER in the case of both boys and girls. The NER for boys and girls was 78 per cent and 64 per cent respectively at the primary level in 1997-98. The overall NER at the primary level was 71 per cent, which suggests that at least 29 per cent of children in 6 –10 age group continued to remain out of school in 1997-98. Educationally backward states, and, within them, backward districts, have lower NER than all India average.³⁸

It is widely acknowledged that a significant proportion of children (especially children from underprivileged background and girls) either drop-out before they reach Class V or, even if they continue to attend school, learn very little. This phenomenon is far more pronounced among children from the most disadvantaged sections of our society, most of

³⁵ *A Status and Evaluation Study of the Upper Primary Section of the Elementary Education System*. Study sponsored by Planning Commission, Government of India, Conducted by Indian Institute of Education, Pune (October 2002): 19-21.

³⁶ Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) is defined as the percentage of the enrolled in the Primary (Classes 1-V) and Upper Primary (Classes VI to VIII) and/or I-VIII to the estimated child population in the age groups 6 to below 11 years and 11 to below 14 and/or 6 to below 14 years respectively. Enrollment in these stages includes under-age and over-age children. Hence at times the total percentage may be more than 100.

³⁷ *Selected Educational Statistics 2001-02*. Planning, Monitoring & Statistics Division, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India:70.

³⁸ *Tenth Five Year Plan 2002-2007 (Sectoral Policies and Programs)*. vol. II, Government of India: 24.

whom rely on the government primary school system. It is common knowledge that there is a wide gap in learning achievements between government schools (rural and urban) and private aided schools.

The Gross Drop-out Rate³⁹ have decreased from 64.9 per cent in 1960-61 to 39.0 per cent in 2001-02 in primary classes and from 78.3 per cent in 1960-61 it has come down to 54.6 per cent in 2001-02 in upper primary classes.(Table 11) However, the fact remains that a substantial percentage of students still drop out.

According to a PROBE report, majority of the boys and girls (47 per cent and 66 per cent) are withdrawn from school by their parents. 68 per cent of the girls are withdrawn because they are needed for other work and 54 per cent of the boys are withdrawn because schooling is expensive.⁴⁰ (Table 12)

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

The availability of schooling facilities is measured by a set of indicators concerning access. Existing norms stipulate that a habitation (cluster of households) is entitled to have a primary school if it has a population of 300 and more and has no school within a distance of one km. Upper primary schools are to be located at a distance of three km from habitations with a population of 500 or more. These norms are often relaxed in case of hilly and tribal areas, difficult terrains and border districts.⁴¹

The growth in the number of schools, both primary and upper primary, has been impressive no doubt. Over the last five decades, there has been 300 per cent increase in the primary schools. In case of upper primary school, the growth has been stupendous, i.e. 1450 per cent. The decennial growth-rates are also quite impressive, especially in the first two decades. It can also be interpreted to mean that the innate desire of rural masses to take education was suppressed in the alien administration by neglecting the need for opening new schools.

³⁹ The Gross Drop-out Rate represents percentage of pupils who drop out from a given grade or cycle or a level of education in a given school year. The method used to calculate Gross Drop-out Rate is known as Apparent Cohort Method.

⁴⁰ *Selected Educational Statistics 2001-02*. Planning, Monitoring & Statistics Division, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 79.

Independence gave a forceful vent to this aspiration and the new administration also responded to the extent possible within the given resources, monetary, physical and human. It also means that, if the alien administration was restrictive in its program of primary education, it was much more so in the case of upper primary schools/sections. In 1950-51 there was only one upper primary school for as many as 15 primary schools. This ratio improved to 4.5 by 1970-71 and further to 3.2 by 1999-2000. POA 1992 stipulates one upper primary school for every two primary schools.⁴²

However, all is not well. A crippling factor has been that while private enterprises do exist at the elementary level, essentially it is the government, which is carrying the main load. Before 1947, schools were controlled by District Boards. If teachers were transferred, they were transferred within the district. Now in about two thirds of the states, they can be transferred all over and as everybody knows that transferring teachers is virtually an industry in which politicians, bureaucrats and corrupt elements play almost equal roles.⁴³

Moreover, the average annual growth rates of primary and upper primary schools during the last decade (i.e. 1990-91 to 2000-01) were 1.31 per cent and 3.14 per cent only.⁴⁴ (Table 13)

TEACHERS

Teachers are perhaps the most important resource in a school. In absolute terms there has been substantial increase in the number of teachers from 1950-51. The total number of teachers in primary schools increased from 5.38 lakhs in 1950-51 to 19.28 lakhs in 2001-2002 i.e. by more than three times while the number of female teachers increased from 0.82 lakhs in 1950-51 to 7.15 lakhs in 2001-2002 i.e. by about eight times. The total number of teachers in upper primary schools increased from 0.86 lakhs in 1950-51 to

⁴¹ *Tenth Five Year Plan 2002-2007, Sectoral Policies and Programs*, Volume II, Government of India: 24.

⁴² *A Status and Evaluation Study of the Upper Primary Section of the Elementary Education System*. Study Sponsored by Planning Commission, Government of India, Conducted by Indian Institute of Education, Pune (October 2002): 18.

⁴³ Amrik Singh, "Education Since 1947", *World Focus*, vol. 19, no. 10-11-12 (October – December 1998):62.

14.68 lakhs in 2001-2002 i.e. by more than 17 times, while the number of female teachers increased from 0.13 lakhs in 1950-51 to 5.47 lakhs in 2001-2002 i.e. by about 42 times.⁴⁵ (Table 14)

In real terms, however growth in number of teachers has fallen steadily over time, from 5.6 per cent in the 1950s, to 4.5 per cent in the 1960s, and 2.7 per cent in the 1970s. Between 1984-85 and 1989-90, the growth rate dropped to 1.6 per cent, and there was an absolute decline in the number of primary school teachers between 1991-92 and 1992-93. The fall in the expenditure on education was clearly reflected in the recruitment of teachers. There is little doubt that the schooling system in India needs more teachers. The Sixth All India Education Survey shows that in 1993 about 20 per cent of all primary schools were single teacher schools and another 0.8 per cent no teachers at all.⁴⁶

NET ATTENDANCE RATIO (NAR)

An ideal situation would be that near 100 percent boys and girls in the relevant age group (11-14) attend the upper primary schools. However, according to official estimates, the NAR for the upper primary schools works out to only 43 in 1995-96, which is much below the ideal level. Even for the primary schools the NAR is reported to be 71 in 1995-96. The retention rate is also quite depressing, being 45 per cent in 1999-2000. In other words out of the 100 children enrolled in grade I in 1992-93, only 45 reached grade VIII in 1999-2000, the remaining 55 having left the school on the way.

TRANSITION RATE

The transition rate (i.e. percentage of students transiting from the last grade of primary to the first grade of upper primary school) has shown a consistent improvement over the last thirty years. In 1970-71, the transition rates for boys and girls was 86.8 per cent and 74.1

⁴⁴ *Selected Educational Statistics 2001-02*. Planning, Monitoring & Statistics Division, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 10.

⁴⁵ *Selected Educational Statistics 2001-02*. Planning, Monitoring & Statistics Division, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 64.

⁴⁶ Kirt S Parikh, *India Development Report 1999-2000*. Indira Gandhi Institute of Development Research, Oxford University Press (1999): 73.

per cent respectively. These rates continued to improve steadily and reached 95.6 and 90.3 per cent respectively in 1998-99. The high transition rate for girls (9 out of 10 girls completing primary joined the upper primary school) is a very healthy sign, especially as girls reach 10, 11 or 12 years of age at completion of primary stage. Problems of puberty inhibiting girls' schooling, which were very prominent in the rural areas few decades back, seem to have receded.⁴⁷

These figures must however be looked at in relation with the drop out rates from various grades, which remains substantially high.

PUPIL TEACHER RATIO (PTR)

At the time of independence there was a wide spread dearth of educational institutions in the country and the utilization of institutions was also not optimum. During the year 1950-51 the PTR in primary schools was 1:24 and in middle schools it was 1:20. In 2001-2002 this ratio increased to 1:43 in primary schools and 1:34 in upper primary schools. Though the number of educational institutions has considerably increased after independence, the higher PTR indicates that the utilization of educational facilities has also increased.⁴⁸ (Table 15)

EXPENDITURE

In spite of substantial expansion of elementary education, disparities among and within the states prevail. There are also gender and social disparities in access to basic education.⁴⁹ The goal of UEE which was envisaged in the Constitution itself to be achieved by the year 1960 still remains a distant dream.

Although many Acts for free and compulsory education were introduced with great enthusiasm in India, both before and after independence, this enthusiasm for education of

⁴⁷ *A Status and Evaluation Study of the Upper Primary Section of the Elementary Education System*. Study sponsored by Planning Commission, Government of India, Conducted by Indian Institute of Education, Pune (October 2002): 20.

⁴⁸ *Selected Educational Statistics 2001-02*. Planning, Monitoring & Statistics Division, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 83.

the masses was not shared by all. When it came to allocation of funds, free and compulsory education for the masses was never considered to be of higher priority than some other expenditure for which money was found. Unfortunately, there was little protest against this non-provision of facilities for education of the masses. Even in the 10-year period, “after the commencement of the Constitution”, when evidence of great ‘endeavour’ may have been expected, the picture was one of lack of priority to mass education. Based on the analyses of budget speeches of the post independence years, particularly in the 10-year period, 1951-1961, which embraced both the first and second five-year plans, “there is not to be found even a passing reference to education let alone to Article 45 in the budget speeches.” Likewise, the addresses of the Education Ministers to the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) were full of apology and despair:

In 1956, Maulana Abdul Kalam Azad, Chairman at the 23rd meeting of CABE, remarked *“I must confess that I was considerably disappointed when this revised plan was drawn up...I am continuing with my endeavours and it is my resolve that we must try to provide a reasonable allocation for education in the second plan...”*⁵⁰

One of the reasons for the slow progress has been an acute paucity of resources. While the percentage of total plan outlay for education in the First Plan was 7.86 per cent, it was reduced to 3.55 per cent in the Seventh Five Year Plan. (Table 16)

A break up however shows that the highest proportional allocation to elementary education was made in the First Plan. (Table 17) In the second plan a long term plan to achieve universal education was contemplated, hence the proportional allocation was considerably reduced. In order to achieve full enrollment in the age group 6-11 years through concentrated effort, the proportion was raised a little in the Third Plan, but was again reduced in the Fourth Plan because there had been a significant increase during the preceding 15 years.⁵¹ The Fifth Plan recorded a 3.27 per cent sanction. Although in absolute terms, allocation on education increased substantially from plan to plan, the share of education in the Total Plan Outlay shows a declining trend from 7.9 per cent in the First Five Year Plan to 2.7 per cent in the Sixth Plan. In Seventh and Eighth Plan

⁴⁹ Devender Thakur and D N Thakur (ed.), *Studies in Educational Development*, New Delhi: Deep and Deep Publications (1996): 430-431.

⁵⁰ Nalini Juneja, *Constitutional Amendment to make Education a Fundamental Right – Issues for a Follow-up Legislation*, NIEPA (March 2003): 23.

however this declining trend was reversed. Elementary education received a more favourable treatment in the Eighth and Ninth Plans. The Eighth Plan that had “*human development as the ultimate goal*” allocated 4.91 per cent for this vital sector. (Planning Commission 1992). The allocations in 1992-93 and 1993-94 have been 3.88 and 3.99 per cent respectively.⁵² In the Ninth Plan the government allocated Rs. 249083.8 million for education against an expenditure of Rs. 85218.9 million in the Eighth Plan.

Ninth Five Year Plan allocation (1997-2002) for elementary education was Rs. 163695.9 million that was 65.72 per cent of total allocation for education. The Tenth Plan (2002-2007) total outlay for basic education fixed at Rs. 3,00,000 million in total outlay of Rs. 43,82,50 million for all education program, indicating a 68.5 per cent share. This indicates the country’s resolve to give highest priority to achieve goal of ‘Education for All’.⁵³

Total expenditure on education by all departments of percentage of GDP has increased from 0.68 in 1951-52 to 4.11 per cent in 2000-2001. In absolute terms outlay for education has multiplied more than 50 times since the First Five Year plan. First Five Year Plan invested Rs. 1.5 billion on education that increased to Rs. 249 billion in the Ninth Five Year Plan.⁵⁴

However, the 65.4 per cent rate of literacy (2001 figure) calls for mobilisation of additional resources. The government – union and states – have to finance elementary education out of their own budgetary resources, rather than depending on non-governmental sources such as the students, parents or the community to share the responsibility for financing elementary education. The **Saikia Committee** required the central government to meet the additional requirements of the states. This would indeed be better and effective. The economically weak state governments should be aided in providing a basic human need – elementary education. Also, the Central and State governments may formulate norms regarding the proportion of their respective budgets to

⁵¹ Atmanand Misra, *Education and Finance*, Gwalior: Kailash Pustak Sadan (1971): 266-267.

⁵² K Seeta Prabhu, “Structural Adjustment and Financing of Elementary Education: The Indian Experience”, *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration*, vol. IX, no. 1 (January 1995): 28-29.

⁵³ Nigria Abuja, *High Level Group Meeting on Education for All*, 19th-20th November 2002, Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, Published by NIEPA (2002).

⁵⁴ *India Moving Ahead: Towards Education For All*, Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 13-14.

be allocated to education as a whole and to elementary education in particular. The norms should be reasonably high so as to ensure adequate allocation of resources every year. The Saikia Committee recommended that the Central and State governments should allocate 50 per cent of budgetary allocations for education to elementary education and to see that they are not diverted to any other sector.

The government (Central and State) may have to examine and explore the scope for reallocation of resources from unproductive sectors to elementary education. For instance, the Union government has stated that resources saved from public sector disinvestment (and the resources generated through such schemes as the voluntary disclosure of income scheme) would be invested in sectors like education and other social structure.

A National Elementary Education Fund can also be created. Donations and contributions to this fund could be provided with liberal tax incentives. Contributions may be generated on a voluntary basis through innovative approaches. It may be made obligatory on the part of all manufacturing firms to necessarily make provision of elementary education of the children of their employees, either directly or through financial contributions to the fund.⁵⁵

⁵⁵ Jandhyala B.G Tilak, "A Fundamental Right", *Seminar*, 464 (April 1998): 38-41.

CHAPTER II
STATE – NGO PARTNERSHIPS:
POLICY & PRACTICE

NON GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGOs) - INTRODUCTION

The term NGO was officially brought into being with the passing of the resolution 288 (x) by the United Nations Economic and Social Council on the 27th February, 1950 and referred to those officially recognised organisations with no governmental affiliation that had consultative status with the United Nations (UN). This term was coined by the United Nations mainly to indicate the difference between the sovereign nation states, which happen to be its direct members, and the organisations that collaborate with or receive grants from its agencies to implement developmental programs.

In actual usage, NGOs have been variously called -‘voluntary agencies’, ‘action’ or ‘activist groups’.¹

There are several classification of NGOs². Shah and Chaturvedi divide NGOs in three main categories: techno-managerial, reformist, and radical. Korten distinguishes three generations of NGOs: the first committed to relief and welfare; a second attending to small scale, local development projects; and a third consisting of community organisations interested in building coalitions. In Korten’s view first generation relief and welfare NGOs, which predominate in the developing world, often have close ties with state and international development aid organisations and do not overtly engage in political activities. Second generation development NGOs organise individuals locally to address issues like public health and agricultural development. These groups frequently help their constituents to overcome structural constraints, to challenge local and regional elites, and to assist in reducing dependency relationships. Third generation NGOs explicitly target political constraints, engaging in mobilisation and ‘conscientization’.³

NGOs are engaged in education, health care activities, loan schemes for providing self-employment and micro credit plans for sustaining household enterprises, governance, advocacy, generating awareness of various laws and regulations, and addressing the basic needs of marginalized sections of the society. The **Society for Participatory Research in Asia** (PRIA) has defined a Non Profit Organisation (NPO) as an entity that has an

¹ Disha Nawani, *Role and Contribution of NGOs to Basic Education*. NIEPA and Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India (2000): 01-02.

² NGOs have also been referred to as Voluntary Development Organisations, Voluntary Associations, Action Groups, People’s Organisations in the chapter.

institutional identity, it is separate from the government and has been set up voluntarily. The largest chunk of the sector consist of institutions established since the late 1970s. Also, the sector is highly heterogeneous in terms of the philosophies practised by different segments, their areas of activity and the size of institutions.

A survey conducted by PRIA in four states, West Bengal, Maharashtra, Delhi, Tamil Nadu and Meghalaya⁴ shows that there were more voluntary sector institutions in rural areas than in urban areas. 53 per cent of NPOs were rural and 47 per cent urban. 49.6 per cent of the organizations were not formally registered despite having an institutional character. The non-profit sector during the year 1999-2000 deployed 2.7 million full-time paid employees and 3.4 million full-time volunteers, bringing the total force engaged in the sector to 6 million persons. The total central government employees in the year 2000 numbered only 3.3 million and those in the central and state governments taken together were 10.7 million. That is, non- profit employment is around 82 per cent of central government employment and over 25 per cent of the total of both central and state government employment. Total organized employment in the construction sector was merely 1.2 million and that in mining and quarrying was around one million. The sector raised a whopping sum of Rs. 17,922 crore (over Rs. 179 billion) in the year 1999-2000. Total receipts of the sector in that year were equivalent to 7.7 per cent of total central government expenditure. The study shows that the revenues raised by the sector have been increasing at an estimated annual rate of over 10 per cent. Less than 30 per cent of the revenues come from grants and merely 7.4 per cent of revenues were collected from foreign sources. 51 per cent of the total receipts in the year 1999-2000 were self-generated. A considerable amount of self-gathered funds came from fees and service charges, sale of products and other business incomes.

They are diverse, reflecting the enormous cultural, religious and ethnic diversity of Indian society itself. India does not have a uniform civil society sector. A consistent public policy has not emerged so far. A key challenge before the non-profit sector in India is to seek the enunciation of a consistent public policy that could clarify and normalize its relationship between the corporate sector and government as well as with foreign donor

³ B.V Baviskar, "NGOs and Civil Society in India", *Sociological Bulletin*, vol. 50, no. 1 (March 2001): 4-6.

⁴ Meghalaya was later added on as an example of relatively smaller state with mountainous terrain.

agencies, much in the same way as the relationship between the corporate sector and government has been established and streamlined in recent years.⁵

Voluntary movements have been the forerunners of modern-day NGOs in India. The **idea of people's action is rooted deep in India's history**. Indian communities have for centuries found ways of joining at the local level to address shared concerns. The reform movements, which were to influence so much of India's subsequent history, began in the early years of nineteenth century led by pioneers and thinkers like Raja Ram Mohun Roy and Swami Vivekanand and organisations like Arya Samaj and Ramakrishna Mission. However, it must be noted that their concerns were mainly religious.

Subsequently, the **Societies Registration Act of 1860** was enacted which has regulated the NGO activity ever since. It reflected the emergence of citizen's institution in India. The most powerful example of voluntary action was the Indian freedom movement, which Gandhi predicated on personal and community empowerment. Independence in many ways changed all this. The common citizen now expected the government to take care of all the problems. In the late 1960s there was a realisation that the government structures were too rigid and standardised to evolve plans that would meet the varied requirements of this vast country. A new approach and style of working was required to evolve programs in implementing them in a participatory manner to meet the requirements of the local people with more accountability and transparency and better quality of development and service delivery. It was a context of certain weariness with existing institutional arrangements and strategies, that attention once again, began to be focussed on the more rooted, participative experiments at 'grassroots mobilisation' for social change.

The beginning of the nineties, ushered in the trend of voluntarism, as ideology came to be linked to liberalisation. There are three reasons that point out to this: first, the increasing preference shown by international financial institutions towards voluntarism, second, the increasing availability of funds to voluntary agencies through international financial agencies and lastly, the projection of the primacy of development.

⁵ S.S Srivastava and Rajesh Tandon, "How Large is India's Non-Profit Sector?", *Economic and Political Weekly* (May 07, 2005): 1948-1951.

DECLINE OF THE STATE – CAUSES AND IMPACT

It is widely accepted that the government should shoulder the primary responsibility for elementary education, a view that is rarely debated in the dominant discourse on basic education. The question is whether the government has the capacity (financial, managerial, and human resources) to organise/provide all the backward and forward linkages that would make meaningful elementary education a reality for those who are left out of the system. Even if physical access is ensured, does the system have the capability to ensure good quality education? Special programmes of the government have tried to reach out to some sections of the population in some states of the country; but by and large it is obvious that the government does not have the capacity to work simultaneously on several fronts – access, quality and relevance. There is growing public recognition, that the other players, such as educational trusts/NGOs, citizens' groups and corporate bodies, could make a difference if given the space to do so. Unfortunately, the dominating and bureaucratic style of functioning of most state and local governments leaves little space for sustained inputs by non-governmental bodies. Despite enabling constitutional provisions under the Panchayati Raj Act, local bodies do not yet have the authority to set their own agenda, and plan, and implement educational programmes. The gap between stated intentions of the government and its actual practice continues to be wide.

While a number of central and state government officials appreciate innovations and experiments – the system continues to perceive them as exceptions, initiated by exceptional people and therefore, not replicable.⁶

In short, we are now living in an era characterised by some as marked by the decline or retreat of the state. The decline of state is accompanied by increasing attention towards civil society institutions. Among the social groups and associations of various kinds that are considered to make up civil society, NGOs have become especially prominent especially since the 1980s. According to **B V Baviskar**, the rise of NGOs is one of the central processes in the sphere of development since the 1980s. This period also coincides

⁶ Vimala Ramachandran, "Backward and Forward Linkages that Strengthen Primary Education", *Economic and Political Weekly* (March 08, 2003): 959-965.

with the demise of developmentalism as a project of the nation-state and the rise of post-developmental neo-liberal political economy or market triumphalism. In what is described as a move from inefficient states to efficient markets, NGOs hold a distinctive mediating position.⁷

According to **T K Oommen** citizen's lack of ability to resist the hegemonic power play of the state paves the way for other conscience-keeping agents to combat the state monopoly. This is known as the secondary power that falls within the ambit of civil society. And voluntary association can be seen as the manifestation of this secondary power.⁸

However, **Nirja Gopal Jayal** offers a slightly different interpretation. She agrees that the most important institutional innovation of the twentieth century has been the NGOs. Recent years certainly have seen an increasing tendency for the government to hand over developmental tasks to NGOs for implementation. However, when the state transfers the implementation of development programs from its own departments to NGOs, it does not necessarily imply a rolling back of the state. Rather, the state draws upon the skills offered by NGOs as public service contractors.⁹

B V Baviskar too points out that the growing prominence of NGOs in the field of development is strongly related to the declining legitimacy of the state. Increasingly, the state is looked upon with suspicion, if not contempt. It is supposed to be corrupt, oppressive and anti-poor. Least governance is seen as the sign of good governance. Post-developmental ideologies of neo-liberalism choose to espouse the virtues of market enterprise. 'Good governance' is believed now to consist of two functions: facilitating the free play of market forces, and enabling decentralised institutions of 'participatory management' to be formed.

Participatory management is the new mantra for the provision of services through local municipalities and panchayats, as well as in the sphere of natural resource management. The state is seen as consisting of entrenched interests and styles of functioning that make

⁷ B.V Baviskar, "NGOs and Civil Society in India", *Sociological Bulletin*, vol. 50, no. 1 (March 2001): 2-4.

⁸ T. K. Oommen, "The Theory of Voluntary Associations in a Cross Cultural Perspective", *Sociological Bulletin*, vol. 24, no. 2 (September 1975): 163.

⁹ Nirja Gopal Jayal, Reinventing the State: The Emergence of Alternative Models of Governance in India in the 1990s In *Democratic Governance in India: Challenges of Poverty, Development and Identity* edited by Nirja Gopal Jayal and Sudha Pai, New Delhi: Sage (2001): 144-146.

it unwilling and unable to work with people, a role that NGOs are supposed to be good at. Thus NGOs have emerged to perform a bridging function, taking on functions that the state is unsuited for, and or performing them with lower overheads, greater efficiency and motivation. Increasingly, it is not only funding institutions but the state itself that accepts the presence of NGOs and, in fact, expects them to take over certain tasks. It is now recognised that development requires not only the 'hardware' of investment in physical infrastructure, but also the software of developing human capabilities. Without capacity building for managing institutions, learning legal rational procedures for decision making and accounting, raising questions and suggesting alternatives, development will not be socially sustainable.¹⁰

INTERPLAY OF GOVERNMENT & NGOs

If one were to trace **voluntary agencies and the planning process** in India, it would be found that the objective of the First Plan clearly showed overarching importance of voluntary agencies in areas where they had already made an impact with almost no support from the state. Furthermore, the state was urged to extend all possible support to these efforts since they were result-oriented and therefore useful in development. The Third Plan was a watershed since the idea gained ground that the state-driven development was not adequate for India's socio-economic growth and hence voluntary agencies had a supplementary role to play. The 1957 Balwant Rai Mehta Committee as well as the 1966 Rural-Urban Relationship Committee upheld the importance of voluntary agencies. The 1978 Ashok Mehta Committee Report identified them as 'nodal' in micro-planning. The Sixth Plan earmarked areas such as education, where voluntary agencies play a determining role, thus registering a shrinking role of the state in development. The approach paper on the Seventh Plan characterised them as 'the eyes and ears of the beneficiaries', who have been left out of mainstream development benefits. The Seventh Plan is a benchmark in the growth of voluntary agencies in India for two specific reasons: (a) by formally recognizing their role in the development

¹⁰ B.V Baviskar, "NGOs and Civil Society in India", *Sociological Bulletin*, vol. 50, no. 1 (March 2001): 7-10.

process, the Seventh Plan upheld the view that there were alternative ways of development; (b) emphasis would be more on ‘professionalising voluntarism’ which meant the introduction of simple, professional and managerial expertise. Amongst other areas the Seventh Plan identified ‘innovative methods and low cost alternatives in elementary education and middle school education for children, adult education and non-formal and formal education’ as one area where the contribution of the voluntary agencies was recognized. The Plan also codified criteria for identifying rural voluntary agencies. The Eighth Plan further voiced the necessity for people’s initiative and participation in the process of development and further suggested areas of creative interaction/cooperation between the state and voluntary sector.¹¹

Some consider the word **NGO a misnomer**. It is not that the NGOs have nothing to do with the government but often their principal source of finance is the government of the country and the international organisations such as the World Bank and other specialised organisations funded by governments of different countries. There are also a small number of so-called charitable institutions funded at the expense of the government, which provide various types of tax exemptions and other incentives. For example the government might make available costly land for use to these organisations.

Rajni Kothari has aptly coined Government-Organised NGOs or **GONGOs**, which are promoted by government through official sponsorship, funding and guidance to carry out government-defined priorities and activities. It must be stated that any discourse on voluntary agencies needs to take into account the character of the state and its relationship with voluntary agencies. In a democratic set up the state plays an important role. The relationship between government and voluntary sector in India is not new. There was considerable financial support by the government for various voluntary activities, mainly welfare and developmental.

The government agencies adopted several innovative programs of voluntary groups and incorporated them into their own programs. The increasing allocation of funds for voluntary agencies in the Five Year Plans (from 40 million rupees in the First Plan to Rs. 2,000 million in the Seventh Plan) was a major step that opened a new era of

¹¹ Bidyut Chakrabarty, “Voluntary Associations and Development: The Indian Experience”, *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, vol. no. 1 (January-March 2004):363-377.

government-voluntary agency interaction and collaboration. From the mid 1980s onwards the Indian state increasingly recognised the role of voluntary agencies in promoting grassroots democracy and people's participation in developmental programs. This change in the government policy, inspite of the pronounced stand of most voluntary organisations to oppose and challenge the government policies for their failure, provided a vague clue to the emerging trend of the nineties. Niraja Gopal links this change in policy to the declining role of the government in the social sector and to the withdrawal of the state in the economic arena and the projection of voluntarism as the alternative for the liberalisation policy of the nineties.

So, the participation of NGOs in the process of development may be seen in the larger context of **development crisis**. For a country as poor as India, growth is still an urgent issue. But the concentration on growth in the early plans has given way to a 'growth with equity' strategy in the later ones. These have included a direct attack on poverty with specially designed schemes to lift the poor over the poverty line. However, the unequal distribution of the benefits of development have reached a point where they become a structural constraint on the growth process itself. While the political strains it has created have begun to undermine the legitimacy of the whole system.

Voluntary action because of its loose structure and flexibility is better suited to people's participation at the local level, than paternalistic bureaucracies and populist politics. Prof. **M L Dantwala** argues for "non-partisan constructive work through voluntary agencies : Its revival holds hope of bringing about upliftment where it is needed most and provides a countervailing force against the power seeking radicalism of the professional politician.

However, one cannot but be naïve to expect voluntary organisations to be the sole vehicle of developmental change. Obviously, massive governmental action is a sine qua non for development. But such bureaucratic action has inherent constraints that call for the kind of complement that non-government agencies can provide even as we grant their limitations. The successes and failures of each can help to suggest a more refined complementarity between the two. Thus, the accumulation of crises in the development process demands many levels of strategic action.¹²

¹² Rudolf C Heredia, *Towards a Praxis for Non-government Agencies*, South Asia Books (1988): 23-25.

It is noteworthy that government officials today are apprehensive about NGOs. Proximity to powerful people, dependence on foreign funds and the emergence of a large number of bogus organisations have forced attention on the dangers of handing over social services to them. Most government officials express reservations about involving NGOs in policy making and program development. They argue that foreign funded NGOs are not 'independent' – they could be the mouthpieces of their financiers. Government and state agencies have been the most affected by the proliferation of NGOs and the early 1990s have witnessed a dramatic transformation in government- NGO relations.

During the 1970s and 1980s, relations between NGOs and government were generally tense throughout the developing world. When an emergency was declared in 1975, a heavy curtain came down over free expression and activity. The shock was intensified as activists in the voluntary sector became prominent victims. Within a year, other restrictive measures were enforced through the **Foreign Contributions Regulation Act (FCRA)** of 1976. Ostensibly meant to counter subversion, it became a thorn in the NGOs relations with the state.

The relationship which a particular NGO shares with the existing government also depends largely on the kind of activity it is engaged in. For example, NGOs which are either charity or welfare-type may help in the implementation of concrete developmental programs and enjoy the support of the government but NGOs which concentrate on mobilising marginalised sections around a specific issue, which might challenge the distribution of power and resources in society or focus on 'empowerment' because of their political nature may sometimes lead to a clash of interests.

In India, the government tried to co-opt NGOs, through the **Council for the Advancement of People's Action and Rural Technology (CAPART)** established in 1986. Then there were proposals (which finally did not materialise) to setup a National Council for Rural Voluntary Agencies (NCRVA). In fact, both a code of conduct for NGOs and establishment of a National Council akin to the Press Bar Council of India were argued. However, the move was strongly attacked and seen as an attempt to officialise the sector. A furore was occasioned by a CAPART announcement that it was blacklisting many agencies on charges of improper financial practices. The need for codes of conduct and regulations are being debated, with some demanding official

regulation and others that discipline must be self-imposed. In fact a survey conducted under the aegis of the Central Government showed that “fifty per cent of the NGOs which want to implement the welfare schemes of the government with government funds did not exist at all.”

Almost 90 per cent of the NGOs are financed by external agencies. The others are financed directly by Government of India and only a handful function with non-official funds. But here again they receive indirect government subsidy by many of the ‘private’ donations getting tax exemption on the donated money. Until the visit of World Bank’s President to India in 1996, only non official foreign donors were making direct financing to the Indian NGOs. His visit heralded the beginning of direct donations by the multinational agencies. The nature of this development can be gauged when it is remembered that even state governments cannot seek or receive funds directly from the foreign governments even for vital nationally important projects. By the early 1990 an estimated 15-20,000 NGOs were actively engaged in rural development and annual NGO revenue from abroad, Rs. nine billion (US \$520 million), was equivalent to 25 per cent of official development assistance to India. When the Indian government’s contribution was added, annual income of Indian NGOs, roughly Rs. 10 billion was equivalent to 10 per cent of the government’s anti-poverty expenditure. Between 1988 and 1991, NGOs were involved in 27.6 per cent of all new projects funded by overseas donors. This contrasts sharply with the corresponding figure of 5 to 6 per cent for the earlier period between 1973 and 1988.

One commentator has estimated that over Rs. 2000 crores comes every year through the Foreign Contribution Regulation Act (FCRA) and the registered voluntary societies receive another Rs. 10,000 crores of foreign funds. The easy availability of funds is one of the major reasons for the proliferation of the voluntary agencies in the country. In the light of the above it has been pointed out that independent or truly voluntary NGOs are rare. With the exception of membership-based organisations and those that mobilise funds from the public, the proportion of foreign funds have gone up by leaps and bounds in the last 20 years. There are reasons for preference of NGOs over government machinery. Influential donors see NGOs as an often more effective alternative for channeling their assistance, particularly after the candid admission by the late Rajiv

Gandhi that less than 15 per cent of India's disbursements through government-controlled anti-poverty programmes actually reach the intended beneficiaries.¹³

Some scholars believe that the transition has not been as smooth as it sounds. **Balveer Arora** points out that a theory of an inherent conflict between the nonprofit sector and the state is part and parcel of conservative political ideology, which views the state as a bureaucratic monolith inherently hostile to alternative centres of power. As the state expands, it renders voluntary organisations functionally irrelevant, thereby contributing to their decline, and undermining the spirit of community which they sustain.¹⁴

The broad sectors where the NGOs work are primary schooling, literacy, non-formal education, post-literacy and continuing literacy, adult education, pre-school and early childhood care and education, curriculum reform, textbooks designing, teacher training, improving the management inputs to education, research, documentation of material relevant in this field and networking with other NGOs.¹⁵ Awareness building is one of the forte of NGOs – street plays, folk songs, puppet shows, holding public meetings, implanting success stories, developing popular local institutions, obtaining media support are the common tools employed.¹⁶

Disha Nawani in her study examined NGOs perception of their role vis-à-vis the government: 56 per cent of the NGOs pointed out that their role was independent to that of the government as they wished to bring about innovations in education and carry out new experiments.(Table 28) On the issue of focus areas of NGOs in basic education, most of the NGOs expressed that they were working in more areas than one. 80 per cent of the NGOs said that their focus area was in mobilising community; followed by 72 per cent of the NGOs who regarded their core area in imparting literacy.(Table 29)

¹³ Disha Nawani, *Role and Contribution of NGOs to Basic Education*. NIEPA and Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India (2000): 03-10.

¹⁴ Balveer Arora, "State, Civil Society and the 'Voluntariat: Institutional, Dimensions and Dynamics'" In *Society, Politics and the Voluntary Sector* edited by Ajay K Mehra, Anil K Singh and Gert W Kueck, Centre for Public Affairs, Konrad Adenauer Foundation, Voluntary Action Network, India (2003):35.

¹⁵ Disha Nawani, *Role and Contribution of NGOs to Basic Education*. NIEPA and Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India (2000): 46.

¹⁶ Biswambhar Panda and Binay Kumar Pattnaik, "Role of Grassroots NGOs: A Social Activists' Perspective", *Journal of Rural Development*, vol. 22 no. 1 (2003): 31-37.

STRATEGIES & ALTERNATIVES

An alternative response to the failure of government to meet the needs of its citizens in the past is not to replace it or strip it of its powers but to ‘reinvent it,’ as say **Osborne and Gaebler**. This does not signal a retreat from the market but in a local institutional environment where they are no longer the only player, government institutions are being encouraged into an enabling role, working in partnership with others to release a range of resources for change. **Marilyn Taylor** points out that one part of the reinvention agenda has been a new managerialism borrowed from the private sector which seeks to improve systems within government by introducing market principles. A second, and sometimes contradictory, part of the agenda is the move from government to governance. Recurring themes in this discourse are the need for collaborative, ‘partnership’ approaches and the need to revive the democratic process through democratic renewal or democratisation. The theme of partnership has resonated across the globe, whether the partners be different levels of government, business, NGOs, voluntary non-profit organisations, indigenous groups or community organisations. Government institutions are being encouraged to devolve decision making and promote participation through new forms of deliberative democracy and participatory planning which recognise the limitations relying solely on the electoral process.¹⁷

Ravi Shankar Kumar Singh points out that many lessons can be learnt from typologies of NGOs in context of their political spacing with the state. A development model that is basically people oriented must provide for NGOs a development function as against a mere service function, a collaborative role rather than a subordinate role, a catalysts role rather than a reformist role. In addition, the NGOs should be given political sanctions to voice the problems of the people and be treated an “insider” of the system to be trusted rather than “outsider” to be suspected.¹⁸

The relationship between government and NGOs has been mixed and is likely to continue to be so in the prevailing socio economic and political environment. There are areas of agreement and disagreement, of cooperation as well as confrontation. It has been

¹⁷ Marilyn Taylor, *Public Policy in the Community*, Palgrave Macmillan (2003): 30-31.

¹⁸ Ravishankar Kumar Singh, *Role of NGOs in Developing Countries*, New Delhi: Deep and Deep Publications (2003): 43.

generally observed that the more active, dynamic and radical the NGO is, the more troublesome is its relationship with government. A large number of NGOs seek to build up a purposeful partnership with the government on people centered and people led development to realise their tremendous potential based on their autonomy, freedom, flexibility and dignity. They would agree and co-operate where possible and disagree, confront and fight democratically and peacefully, where necessary. There is need and scope for such partnership in India, which calls for further improvement in the policy environment for the functioning of NGOs. In the interest of promotion of NGOs, as effective instrument of people's participation, there is an urgent need for some fora at the national and state level which should be used for the exchange of information, creating infrastructure for training, undertaking research, sharing of resources etcetera, and to consider their common problems arising out of voluntary action. The NGOs should have an opportunity for a dialogue with the government in order to redefine their role and demarcate the functions of agencies. Also, there is a need to link isolated micro-level successes of widely scattered NGOs to generate sufficient pressures "to influence macro level mainstream transformative political process to improve the policy environment. Evidently, if the NGOs role in policymaking and policy implementation areas are to be strengthened the debate between the right of the state to restrict and regulate the activities has to be settled in favour of true decentralisation through the instrumentality of autonomous NGOs and building up a healthy relationship of government-NGO relationship rather than repression on the part of the state to attain particular interests, or state adopting confrontation on some sensitive issues, or entering into a superior or supplicant relationship.¹⁹

The key to successful **collaboration** is to bring together the complementary strengths and comparative advantages of the government and the NGOs. Three areas where the synergy between NGOs and government is most likely to occur are:

1. '*Collaboration for Demand Mobilisation*'

NGOs can mobilize, organize, and educate the poor for government services and activities, by playing a catalyzing or facilitating role.

¹⁹ Noorjahan Bawa, *NGOs in Development – Theory and Practice*, New Delhi: Kanishka Publications (1997): 139-149.

2. 'Collaborative Planning and Delivery of Services'

NGOs have the capacity to tap local knowledge, and to utilize it to ensure the effective design, planning and implementation of government programmes and activities.

3. 'Collaboration for Replication'

NGOs act as research and development innovators for regional and national level programmes administered by the government. The idea is to scale up successful development initiatives to higher levels and thus widen the scope and impact of these activities.²⁰

AN ERA OF COLLABORATIONS

A study of the different policy frameworks over the years suggests that the state is increasingly adopting a methodology of collaborating with voluntary organizations and the community. Community participation is an integral part of area development planning. The involvement of the people in the planning process becomes necessary so that the plan is more responsive to the local needs, reflects more accurately the local perceptions and produces a sense of ownership and responsibility. Such community participation is of particular relevance for mobilizing community resources in which participation is viewed as a facilitator or a desired plan output, to sort any differences in the planning and implementation stages, to speed up the process of implementation, and to complement and supplement the efforts of the government in the development process. Achieving successful public participation in local level development is no easy task.

The greater the distance from where a plan is formulated to where it is implemented, the greater the gap between the objectives and actual achievement. It is being realized now that unless people are involved in the process of development, no real improvement will take place. Therefore there is a need for an effective local level institution to energize and involve the public in managing and controlling their resources. The local leaders of the community, teachers, students, people's representatives, beneficiaries' groups, non-

²⁰ James V Riker, "Contending Perspectives for Interpreting Government-NGO Relations in South and Southeast Asia: Constraints, Challenges and the Search for Common Ground for Rural Development" In Noeleen Heyzer, James V. Riker, Antonio B Quizon edited *Government – NGO Relations in Asia –*

governmental organizations, farmers' groups, self help groups, users groups, research institutions etc., need to be actively involved in the various stages of the planning. People's participation in the developmental schemes can be assured if the programmes are based on the felt needs of the people.

The key point of intervention in today's context lies in building collaborations and coalitions to impact the system at all levels. There is an increasing realisation that organisations which are interested in improving the educational status of girls and women in this country, must come together on a common platform to synergise their efforts and, to influence both formulation of policies as well as implementation of those policies. The resources required to improve the system are immense, both in financial as well as in human terms. It is not possible to harness these resources within any one institution; even it is as large as the Indian bureaucracy. This is why the government sector, the NGO sector, the corporate sector, and even the aid agencies are now looking at different ways of building collaborations and partnerships to tackle the task at hand for long-term sustained change and improvement.²¹

Right after independence, all efforts in the field of education were regarded as the prime responsibility of the state. Apart from a few notable exceptions such as Kishore Bharati and later Eklavya in Maharashtra and Social Work and Research Centre in Tilonia, Rajasthan, NGOs largely stayed away from this field.

The recent years have seen mushrooming of two kinds of NGOs: first are the field based implementing agencies that work directly with the target group in the delivery of formal and non-formal education programs. The second are best described as knowledge based agencies that provide support to grassroots organizations, people's movements, and also to government programs. This could be in the form of providing a resource base or assistance in curriculum development, training of para-professional teachers, research, advocacy, evaluation and information dissemination.

A range of externally funded programs fall halfway between NGOs and the government. These are essentially government programs which are registered under the Societies Act

Prospects and Challenges for People Centred Development. Asian and Pacific Development Centre (1995): 50-51.

²¹ Rekha Wazir, *The Gender Gap in Basic Education – NGOs as Change Agents*, New Delhi: Sage Publications, London: Thousand Oaks (2000): 227.

to facilitate the receipt and disbursement of funds provided by bilateral and multilateral agencies. This construction gives them the semblance of an independent NGO; it allows them autonomy in developing and implementing experimental programs; and allows them to bypass government bureaucracy and use earmarked funds for the purposes for which they are intended. However, they also mirror the government in many ways: their salary and employment structures are similar; civil servants are seconded to run them and the government is represented on their boards. Lok Jumbish, Shiksha Karmi and Mahila Samakhya fall in this category.

By and large, the delivery of formal education has been left to the state, while the NGOs concentrate on the non-formal sector. The relationship of NGOs with the Indian State is at once complex and ambivalent. At one level it has all the elements of an unequal donor-recipient partnership with the government taking on the role of a major funder. This position is reinforced by the controls that the government exercises on account of the regulatory role that it has assumed. At another level, NGOs are treated as equal partners and invited to contribute to policy debates and to the development of guidelines and standards in education. There is space for cooperation as well and NGO assistance and technical inputs are frequently subcontracted for the development and delivery of government programs.

Collaborations for complementarity are reflected in National Adult Education Program, National Literacy Mission, the Total Literacy Campaign, the Non Formal Education Program, the Mahila Samakhya program, and the District Primary Education Program. NGOs such as Eklavya, the Centre for Learning Resources, Bharatiya Gyan Vigyan Samiti, Samuhay, the Society for Participatory Research in Asia (PRIA), Ankur, Nirantar etcetera have all been involved in complementing the government's education programs. The nature of this complementarity has ranged from straightforward contracting for running non-formal teaching centres or teachers training and combined efforts in mobilizing communities for literacy classes to pedagogical inputs in the improvement of teaching learning methods as well as content.²²

²² Rekha Wazir, *The Gender Gap in Basic Education – NGOs as Change Agents*, New Delhi: Sage Publications and London: Thousand Oaks (2000): 226-240.

Perhaps the first major attempt by Indian NGOs at united action and at influencing policy in the field of education was in relation to the 93rd constitutional amendment bill. Pratham, a Mumbai based NGO, launched the voice of India campaign to provide national feedback on the bill. As a result, the National Alliance for Fundamental Right to Education was created.

Voluntary Organisations (VOs) are considered to have certain advantages over government agencies. They have greater freedom to adapt themselves to changing needs and ideas, and accordingly can modify their methods and areas of work. They have better rapport with people and get better response from them for their programmes. As VOs are characterized by greater human touch and with closer personal contact, they are in a better position to mobilize community resources for the welfare programmes. In the Compendium of Partnerships between Government and Voluntary sector brought out by the Union Planning Commission, it is indicated that the nation is facing the following problems:

- Experience of implementation of several schemes shows that reach of services is poor.
- Benefits of development have not percolated to the poorest of the poor.
- Administrative overheads consume most of the allocations leaving very little for services.
- Health service and primary education continue to be disturbing.
- Empowerment of women, children, SCs, STs, Backward Classes and Minorities is much less than targeted.
- Soil and water conservation, watershed development, greening of India, cleaning of rivers, rural and slum development schemes are not having desired impacts on the ground.
- Inefficient functioning of all-important infrastructures.

The Compendium gives details of various schemes to be assisted by different Ministries/ Departments of Government of India and to be implemented by VOs during the Tenth Plan: Education Guarantee Scheme & Alternative and Innovative Education, Innovative Projects, Mahila Samakhya; Adult Literacy; Integrated Education for Disabled Children

(IEDC), Environmental Orientation to School Education, Improvement of Science Education in Schools, Promotion of Yoga in Schools, Strengthening of Boarding and Hostel facilities for Girl Students of Secondary and Higher Secondary Schools, Vocationalisation of Secondary Education and Pre-Vocational.

At the present juncture, based on EFA 2000 Assessment and other reviews, the strategy for achieving total literacy and universal elementary education focuses on several interrelated strategies:

- (a) Government of India and the state governments are actively engaged in preparing contextualized action plans which would be implemented through the programmes of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and National Literacy Mission (NLM). The focus is on reaching the unreached through innovative and alternative modes of schooling. Decentralised district wise planning introduced in the 1990s is expected to address local needs and demands more effectively.
- (b) The second strategy is to actively involve the people at the grassroots through democratic devolution of powers. Though there are variations across the states, there is a decisive move towards decentralization of educational governance all over the country. In some states, this is done through by transferring powers to the Panchayati Raj Institutions (local self-governing bodies), while in others it is done through the creation of empowered Village Education Committees and school management bodies. Micro-planning and participatory school mapping exercises, as in Lok Jumbish, are other means of involving people in the local-level planning of EFA.
- (c) While recognizing that the problem is closely linked to poverty and deprivation, employment of children in work is viewed as a direct denial of their fundamental right to education. Though direct action from the State has been slow to come, it has become a major plank of action in several parts of the country due to the significant role played by the NGOs. But much greater support and cooperation from parents and employers is critical for achieving success in this area.
- (d) Another policy level action with far-reaching impact is the effort to remove legal hurdles in accessing basic education as a fundamental right. Towards this, the

Indian Constitution has been amended, making basic education a justiciable right in line with the international convention on child rights.

Social mobilization and eradication of adult illiteracy are attempted through mass literacy campaigns, largely as a national programme but planned and implemented at the district level. These are complemented by actions initiated by state governments such as the Jan Sampark Abhiyan (people's contact campaign) of Madhya Pradesh and by civil society organizations such as *Prajayatna* (people's effort) in Karnataka.²³

In the light of this theoretical framework, it would be worth the while to have an insight into the different policies that have been pursued by the NGOs and the government in the arena of elementary education. The note worthy feature in each of these policies is that either there is a collaborative interplay of the government and the NGOs; or else the methodology of implementation of the policies suggests strong community linkages. As an important development of the 1990s, the government has decentralized educational planning, administration, financing, monitoring and supervision of the working of the school system. Following the Constitutional amendment in favour of Panchayati Raj Institutions, and also the launching of externally aided projects in primary education, village education committees, school development committees and similar committees at various levels have been set up.

According to the latest statistics, there are more than 772 NGOs or voluntary organizations working on various aspects of education in India. These are the organizations that received grant-in-aid from Ministry of Human resource Development, government of India in 1997-98. A large number of them, more than 550, work in the area of non formal education, and 61 in the area of adult education. There may be several other NGOs or voluntary organizations working, but not receiving any aid from the government. Some of the important initiatives made by NGOs refer to Pratham, MV Foundation etc. Some noteworthy initiatives have also been taken by foundations and trusts such as Azim Premji Foundation, ICICI Social Initiatives, CII-UNDP initiatives etc. which mark a welcome change on the contribution of NGOs to the field of education.

²³ *Education for All, National Plan of Action: India*. New Delhi: Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India (June 2003):03-06.

Quite a few NGOs also contributed to the success of a few projects like the Shiksha Karmi in Rajasthan.²⁴

Successful experiments and new approaches to education have emerged from Non Government Organisations.

Shanti Jagannathan²⁵ in her study argues that the current climate for nation-wide reform and development in elementary education makes it an opportune time for the government to forge strategic alliances with the voluntary sector. The experimental approaches of the NGOs have successfully tackled many shortcomings in schooling. NGO models in education increase the accountability of the schooling system to the beneficiaries. The NGOs are keen to establish partnerships with the government to share their models rather than create islands of excellence. The study voices a critical need for an “institutional mechanism” for GO-NGO dialogue that lends credibility and independence to NGO action. The effectiveness of NGO action is best in evidence in the successful schooling of underprivileged children, communities in remote locations, scheduled caste, scheduled tribe and other children that face social barriers to education. NGOs have demonstrated that targeted actions are required for specific deprived groups, for instance, the urban poor, child workers or street children. The NGO experiences establish that there is a strong latent demand for education even among the poorest and a responsive education system can overcome the obstacle of poverty to bring children into schools. An expanded pre-school education, special attention for first generation learners, especially in the first three grades, remedial classes and bridge courses for over-age entrants to schools are considered to be important by the NGOs to increase enrolments and retention in the primary grades.

The NGOs surveyed expanded the horizons of quality in schooling. Quality is defined by the NGOs in a much broader context than learning achievements of pupils. Acquisition of cognitive and non-cognitive abilities by children, a strong school-community link, relevance and contextuality of education are considered to be some of the indicators of quality. All the NGOs pursued community participation as a central plank for increasing

²⁴ Jandhyala B G Tilak, *A Study on Financing of Education in India with a Focus on Elementary Education*, South Asia EFA Forum, NIEPA: 45-47.

the quality of education. Participation of parents in school management increases the accountability of schools and attendance rates of teachers and pupils. The NGOs have demonstrated that community resources (financial and human) lie largely unexploited and should be garnered, as should resources from the Panchayati Raj Institutions.

The models of the NGOs surveyed reinforce the importance of a school based approach to quality improvements and the need for decentralized academic support structures. The government needs to create and strengthen educational institutions at decentralized local levels. An “educational referral” that takes professional support right down to the village school needs to be developed. The NGOs need to pay attention to the development of their human resources, both technical and managerial, as they acquire a larger role. Professional development is the key to future organizational growth and technical excellence. Process documentation and action research tended to be neglected among most NGOs surveyed.

The NGOs need to recognize the importance of external evaluation of their actions as a means of increasing credibility for large scale application. The NGOs also need to build networks amongst themselves to create opportunities for collective action and joint advocacy, which will help them to graduate to a macro role.

The government needs to create an enabling environment to encourage participation of NGOs of different kinds. NGOs could be small resource groups to assist at the field level, to catalyse innovations in schools and clusters; they could collaborate with key educational institutions of the Government for curriculum reform, training or improvement of education management; they could be professional centre for research and evaluation of micro activities; and they could perform social audits of the true impact and influence the government programs. NGOs can also play a strategic role of participating in policy formulations. A climate of partnership based on principles of equality needs to be built up.²⁶

One can now, take an overview of a few select plans:

²⁵ The study is based on six NGOs – M V foundation, Pratham Mumbai Education Initiative, Bodh Shiksha Samiti, Rishi Valley Rural Education Centre, Eklavya, Centre for Education Management and Development.

EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION (ECCE)

Realising the crucial importance of rapid physical and mental growth during early childhood, a number of programmes of ECCE were started particularly after the National Policy for Children (1974). The existing ECCE programmes include:

- i. Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS).
- ii. Scheme of assistance to voluntary organisations for conducting Early Childhood Education (ECE) centres.
- iii. Balwadis and day-care centres run by voluntary agencies with Government's assistance.
- iv. Pre-primary schools run by the State Governments, Municipal Corporations and other governmental and non-government agencies.
- v. Maternal and child health services through primary health centres and sub-centres and other agencies.

Early Childhood Education (ECE) is considered a significant input to compensate for early environmental deprivations at home, by providing a stimulating environment to the children. While on one hand, it is expected to provide the necessary maturational and experiential readiness to the child for meeting the demands of the primary curriculum; it also affects positively the enrolment and retention of girls in primary schools by providing substitute care facility for younger siblings. Envisaged as a holistic input, fostering health, psychological and nutritional development, the policy emphasized the significance of making it play-based while cautioning against the danger of reducing it to the teaching of three R's i.e. reading, writing and arithmetic. The holistic and integrated concept of ECCE clearly represents this spirit.²⁷

India as a signatory to the declaration adopted at the World Conference on Education for All in March 1990 in Jomtien and the subsequent World Education Forum held in Dakar

²⁶ Shanti Jagannathan, *The Role of Non Governmental Organizations in Primary Education – A Study of Six NGOs in India*, Policy Research Working Paper WPS2530, World Bank Library (31.01.2001).

²⁷ *Education For All: National Plan of Action, India*. New Delhi: Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India (June 2003):04.

in April 2000, has internationally articulated its commitment to expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged. The Tenth Plan document reaffirms this commitment. The government and the private sector share the responsibility of providing ECCE services in India. The Department of Elementary Education and Literacy being charged with the responsibility of elementary education has enhanced coverage to the 3-6 year olds with pre-school education through its programmes and schemes viz., SSA, DPEP, Mahila Samakhya, Janshala, and NPEGEL in conjunction with the ICDS by either strengthening its pre school component or setting up ECCE centres where there is no ICDS and a need exists for pre-school education.

Community involvement has been an integral element of the ECCE centres in DPEP. Community based organisations such as the Village Education Committees (VEC), Mother Teacher Associations (MTA), Mothers' Groups, etc., have been closely involved in the entire process of establishing the centres, running them and also in securing community support for early childhood education. This has succeeded in creating greater community ownership.

Realising the importance of pre-school learning and ECCE, the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan aims to support (i) strengthening pre-school component in ICDS by need-based training of Aanganwadi Sevika, provision of additional person, learning materials etc., (ii) setting up Balwadis as pre-school centres in uncovered areas, (iii) building advocacy for the importance of early childhood development, (iv) organising training programmes for community leaders (v) providing for intensive planning for ECCE (vi) development of materials and (vii) promoting convergence between the school system and the ECCE. The scheme has provision for Rs. 15 lakh per district per year for opening ECCE centres. Under the recently launched 'National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary Level' (NPEGEL) programmatic provisions for child care centres and mobilisation/community monitoring room for ECE services in the underprivileged areas has been created. The scheme provides for opening of two child care centres (run by the community) at the cluster.

Other important initiatives for achieving Education For All are:

MAABADI (Our school)

The MAABADI scheme was formulated in order to give access to all children in the age group of 6-11 years, even in small habitations with a population of 100-200. Government provides assistance to local communities to engage community instructors wherever there are at least ten learners. Assistance is also provided for training the community instructors. So far 1200 MAABADIs have been set up.

AKSHARA SANKRANTHI PROGRAMME

In Andhra Pradesh, the most significant change is the strengthening of the self-help group (SHG) movement, and common interest groups have been formed around a variety of activities, ranging from thrift to management of forest resources. A special drive was launched in July, under which SHGs that were interested in implementing Continuing Education Programme were identified, along with the illiterates within the groups, as also a volunteer to teach them. A programme was launched with the proposal to cover the first primer before the Sankranti festival in the middle of January under a programme called Akshara Samiti. Taken up in all the districts, around 2.9 million learners completed the project by the end of March 2001. The programme has resulted in Andhra Pradesh recording a literacy rate of 61.11 per cent in 2001 as compared to 44.08 per cent in 1991. This represents a 17 per cent increase over the figure recorded in 1991 census and the highest decadal growth ever to be recorded in the state.

OPERATION BLACKBOARD

The Operation Blackboard (OB) scheme, started in 1987-88 aimed at improving the classroom environment by providing infrastructural facilities, additional teachers and teaching-learning material to primary schools and by provision of a third teacher to schools where enrollment exceeded 100, has been extended to upper primary schools. A total of 5,23,000 primary schools and 1,27,000 upper primary schools have been provided funds for the development of academic infrastructure (teaching-learning material).

Besides, 1,50,000 posts of additional teachers for single teacher primary schools, 76,000 posts of additional teachers at the upper primary stage and 83,000 posts of third teachers have been sanctioned so far.

The scheme of Operation Blackboard is implemented through the state governments with 100 per cent assistance from the Central government towards the salary of additional teachers and teaching learning equipments. Construction of school buildings is the responsibility of the state governments but funds were arranged for this purpose from other ministries like the rural development. However, in the revised scheme, assistance is made available to the state governments on 75:25 share basis. For construction of school buildings, during the period 1987 to 2000, an amount of Rs. 2,617 crores was invested on OB scheme.

During the Ninth Plan, more than 48 thousand primary schools were provided third teacher and about 90 thousand upper primary schools were provided teaching-learning material. Despite all these significant achievement, all is not well in the schools. Large number of primary schools still have one teacher and do not have adequate physical facilities and other teaching-learning material. In addition, a few schools do not have buildings and those who have, may not be in a good condition and need repairs. The instructional rooms are also not adequate in a good number of primary schools. Even if the teaching-learning material is available, that itself is not a guarantee that teachers are equipped to utilize these aids, which is noticed recently even in a state like Kerala also. The OB support is one time affair and the material provided under the scheme may not even be traceable in a good number of schools. Even teachers in schools spread over four states that the survey team visited were not aware of such equipment in schools. Teachers in other schools where the OB kits are available are of the view that they are inadequate. It has also been noticed that teachers appointed under the OB scheme were not efficiently deployed. That explains the single-teacher schools. On the other hand, a few schools have more than adequate number of teachers. This is more so true in case of schools located in the urban areas or in areas that are located in towns and cities. The OB scheme envisaged that one of the two teachers appointed under the scheme would preferably be a female teacher. OB interventions have improved number of female teachers but in many

locations their share is still poor. On an average there is one female teacher for every two and three male teachers respectively at the primary and upper primary level.

RESTRUCTURING AND REORGANISATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

The scheme of Restructuring and Reorganisation of Teacher Education, started in 1987, aims to strengthen the institutional base of teacher training by taking up special programmes for training of teachers in specified areas and other non-institutional training programmes. Other objectives of the scheme are: Setting up District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) to provide academic and resource support to elementary school teachers and non-formal and adult education instructors; and establishment of Colleges of Teacher Education (CTEs) and Institutes of Advanced Studies in Education (IASEs) for pre-service and in-service training for secondary school teachers. The scheme also envisages strengthening State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT); orienting teachers in the use of Operation Blackboard material; and implementation of the Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL) strategy.

Under this scheme, 471 DIETs, 96 CTEs, 38 IASEs have been sanctioned so far. More than 1.9 million teachers have been trained under the Special Orientation Programme of school teachers in the use of Operation Blackboard material and implementation of the MLL strategy. The scheme has recently been revamped with greater thrust on improving the quality of teacher training institutions in partnership with the states. The revised scheme provides for more assistance to states; memorandum of understanding (MOU) with states to improve the efficiency of key resource institutes; widening the scope of the Special Orientation Programme for school teachers; and enhancing the capacities of existing personnel for the management of teacher education programmes.

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan envisages creating BRC and CRC in non-DPEP districts. The DIETs are now twelve years old but still many of them are not fully functional. In the DPEP districts, a good amount of data is now available but hardly any DIET is using this set of information. Most of the DIETs do not function in the areas of planning and management and the faculty is neither actively involved in planning nor in implementation of the district plans. The prime activity of the DIETs is to impart training

but in the DPEP districts even this responsibility is shared by the BRCs. The DIETs are involved in training the master resource persons and concentrate only on training of primary school teachers. Hardly any DIET is imparting training to upper primary teachers and to other functionaries working at the block level. Even the training calendar in most of the cases is provided by the state level institutions like the SCERT which leave little scope for DIETs to develop need base training programmes.

DISTRICT PRIMARY EDUCATION PROGRAMME (DPEP)

Launched in 1994, it is assisted by the World Bank, European Commission, and Department of International Development (DFID) of the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF). It aims at operationalising the strategies for achieving UPE/UEE through district- specific planning and disaggregated target setting in low female literacy districts and builds on the successful Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) which has created a favourable climate for universalisation.

The three major objectives of DPEP are (i) to reduce drop out rates to less than 10 per cent, (ii) reduce disparities among gender and social groups in the areas of enrollment, learning achievement etc. to less than 5 per cent and (iii) improve the level of learning achievement compared to the baseline surveys.

The programme components include construction of classrooms and new schools, opening of the non-formal/alternative schooling centres, appointment of new teachers, and setting up of Early Childhood Education (ECE) centres, strengthening of SCERTs and DIETs, and setting up of block resource centres/cluster resource centres. It also comprises teacher training, interventions, development of teacher-learning material, research and a thrust on education of girls, SC/ST etc. A new initiative of providing integrated education to disabled children and distance education for teacher training has also been incorporated in the DPEP scheme.

Under DPEP, 21,000 new formal schools and over 67,000 new alternative schools have been opened, covering 2.5 million children, and 20,000 bridge courses conducted. The programme has set up over 10,000 ECE centres and strengthened more than 50,000 pre-

primary centres of Anganwadis. DPEP has provided training to over three million community members and about one million teachers. About 27,700 school buildings, 37,000 classrooms and 11,100 resource centres have been completed or are in progress in DPEP districts. The programme now covers about 50 per cent of the children in the primary stage in over 271 districts in 18 states.

85 per cent of the project cost is shared by the Government of India and the rest 15 per cent by the concerned projects states. The Government of India's share is sourced by the external funding from IDA, European Community, Government of Netherlands, DFID (UK) and UNICEF. One of the major limitations of the DPEP is the targets on Gross Enrollment Ratio (120 per cent) and retention (90 per cent) which is almost same across the districts. The first phase districts got seven years while the phase two and three districts got only five years to implement the plan. In this process, districts which were in a position to achieve the goal earlier than seven years also got seven years project duration. A glance at a few of the plan documents reveal that districts have undertaken analysis of educational development and also attempted demographic and enrollment projections but the same in most of the cases need further refinement. In most of the DPEP districts, Computerised Educational Management Information System is now in existence but poor dissemination and low utilization of data have marred this significant achievement. Districts have also undertaken micro-planning exercises but the information generated is neither properly analysed nor is used in planning exercises. A huge amount of data is generated but only partially been utilized. Micro planning was conducted as one time exercise and all the villages were not covered in the exercise. Schools having low completion rates and achievement along with the reasons should be identified, to form school-specific interventions and strategies. The districts have not utilized school mapping in deciding the location of a new school. Rather, the capacity to conduct school mapping is not available at the state and district level. Other significant limitation visible across the DPEP states is lack of co-ordination between DPEP and the mainstream education departments. There are many states which even seven years after the program cannot handle efficiently the task of planning and implementation. The upper ceiling of the plan under DPEP was kept at Rs. 40 crore irrespective of the size of the district. In view of this, districts proposed overambitious proposals. They planned for Rs. 40 crore

than for UPE. The utilization pattern suggests that most of the districts do not have the capacity to utilize the funds. Whatever they could utilize, a chunk of that was spent on civil activities. Activities relating to innovation, research, retention and quality improvement programs are not picked up as per the expectations. Also, frequent transfers of DPEP officials at all levels across states have severely affected the implementation of the program²⁸

SHIKSHA KARMI PROJECT AND LOK JUMBISH IN RAJASTHAN

Two externally-aided projects for basic education are the Shiksha Karmi²⁹ and Lok Jumbish projects in Rajasthan. Both are innovative projects aimed at the universalisation of elementary education together with a qualitative improvement in remote and socially backward villages with a qualitative improvement in remote and socially backward villages with a primary focus on gender. The projects address some of the major obstacles in achieving UEE, namely, teacher absenteeism, high drop out rate working children, uninteresting teaching methods, lack of contextual learning materials, low motivation and competence of teachers, a centralized and inflexible approach etcetera. There is a special emphasis on community participation in these projects. The Shiksha Karmi project covers 2,708 villages in 147 blocks spread over 31 districts and has been responsible for a seven-fold increase in the enrollment of children in schools taken over by the project.

The Lok Jumbish Project was started in 1992 in Rajasthan with the aim of providing education for all through people's mobilization and their participation. Lok means people and Jumbish means movement or a dynamic activity. The Lok Jumbish project too has been able to set up innovative management structures incorporating the principles of decentralization and delegation of authority as well as building partnerships with local communities and the voluntary sector. It has conducted school mapping in 8,921 villages, opened 2,560 Sahaj Shiksha centres covering 47,000 children and started 529 new

²⁸ Arun C Mehta, *EFA in India with Focus on Elementary Education: Current Status, Recent Initiatives and Future Prospects*, NIEPA Occasional Paper (February 2002): 33-40.

²⁹ A Shiksha Karmi is a local person with a minimum educational qualification up to Class VIII for men, and class V for women. To overcome the basic lack of qualifications, Shiksha Karmis are given intensive training through induction programme as well as periodic refresher courses.

primary schools and 268 upper primary schools. The programme has also strengthened 239 pre-school centres of anganwadis and formed over 7,600 Mahila groups.

MAHILA SAMAKHYA

Another externally-assisted programme with a specific focus on gender is Mahila Samakhya, started in 1989 in five states. It aims to promote women's education and empowerment of women in rural areas, particularly women in socially and economically marginalised groups. The programme is currently implemented in over 9,000 villages in 53 districts spread over ten states. Mahila Samakhya has reached the poor and marginal women who have been able to overcome social barriers and are addressing issues such as child marriage, child labour and violence against women.

MID-DAY MEAL SCHEME

The National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education commonly known as the Mid-day meal programme was launched in 1995. It aims to give a boost to universalisation of primary education by increasing enrollment, retention and attendance and simultaneously improving the nutritional status of students in primary classes. Under the scheme, cooked meals are served with calorie value equivalent to 100 gm of wheat or rice per student per school day. The honour of starting the Mid-day Meal scheme in elementary schools in the country goes to Tamil Nadu. The number of children covered under the programme has risen from 33.4 million in about 3,22,000 schools in 1995-96 to 105.1 million students in 7,92,000 schools spread over 576 districts in 2000-01. Over 15 lakh tones of food grains were lifted for the scheme during 2000-01 compared to 14 lakh tones in 1999-2000. At present, 29 states/UTs are providing cooked meals to about 5.79 crore children accounting for 54.8 per cent of the total target group of 10.56 crore children. According to available information, 13 states and six UTs namely, Andhra Pradesh, Chhatisgarh, Gujarat, Karnataka, Kerala, Maharashtra, Mizoram, Nagaland, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tamil Nadu, Tripura, Uttaranchal, Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Dadra and Nagar Haveli, Daman and Diu, Pondicherry, Lakshwadweep and Chandigarh

are providing cooked meals across the states and UTs, while it is being provided partially in Bihar (2,579 schools), Haryana (17 blocks) Himachal Pradesh (three tribal districts), Goa (three blocks), Jharkhand (200 schools), Madhya Pradesh(tribal blocks) Meghalaya (12 districts) Orissa and Madhya Pradesh (tribal areas), Punjab (17 blocks), West Bengal (6000 schools) and Delhi (1924 schools). The Operations Research Group, evaluated the scheme in July 1999 in ten states with the support of UNICEF and found that the scheme has attracted SC/ST children and children belonging to lower income groups to school. Other studies conducted by National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT) and Public Report on Basic Education (PROBE) have also upheld the view that the scheme has had a positive impact in the direction of universalisation of primary education.

However, the scheme suffers from drawbacks like Non-provision of a cooked meal, non-availability of enrollment data on the basis of which food grains are allocated for ten academic months, lack of community participation because of poor awareness and advocacy etcetera.

From October 2002, the programme has been extended to children studying in Education Guarantee Scheme and other alternative learning centres also.

NON FORMAL EDUCATION (NFE) and EGS & AIE

The scheme of non-formal education (NFE) introduced in 1977-78 on a pilot basis focused on out-of-school children in the 6-14 age group who have remained outside the formal system due to socio-economic and cultural reasons. It expanded in subsequent years. The scheme was initially limited to ten educationally backward states, covering urban slums, hilly, tribal, and desert areas. The scheme suffers from several lacunae – lack of enthusiasm of teachers, poor quality of training, ambiguity in curriculum and text books, lack of community participation, weak management system, insufficient outlay, lack of emphasis on mainstreaming etcetera. Moreover, most NFE centres were in habitations already served by formal schools.

The programme was revised and renamed the Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education (EGS and AIE) in 2000.

The new scheme makes provision for diversified strategies and has flexible financial parameters. It has provided a range of options, such as EGS, Back to School Camps, Balika Shivirs, etc. There are four broad focus areas:

- i. Full time community schools for small unserved habitations
- ii. Mainstreaming of children through bridge courses of different duration
- iii. Specific strategies for special groups like child labour, street children, adolescent girls, girls belonging to certain backward communities, children of migrating families, etc.
- iv. Innovative programmes - the innovations can be in the areas of pedagogic practices, curriculum, programme management, textbooks and TLMs, etc.

It provided for opening EGS schools in habitations where there are no schools within a radius of one kilometer. Children who have dropped out-of-school will have an opportunity to avail of bridge courses, aimed at their mainstreaming. The objective is to see the EGS and AIE as integral to the quest of UEE. The linkages with CRC/BRC/DIET/SCERT will be required for EGS and AIE. The investment cost per child per year has been increased from Rs. 375 to Rs. 845 at the primary level centre and from Rs. 580 to Rs. 1,200 at the upper primary level. The EGS & AIE, being a part of SSA, has no separate budget provision and expenditure on the scheme is incurred from overall budget provision of SSA. The scheme is largely implemented and monitored by state level societies set up for SSA by the State/UT governments, which have powers to appraise and approve proposals running either through state agencies or voluntary sector. The states of Bihar, Uttaranchal, and Uttar Pradesh have processed 289, 272 and 425 proposals respectively from NGOs.

A large number of voluntary agencies are also involved in NFE programme. An amount of Rs. 1,195 million to states and UTs and Rs. 400 million to voluntary agencies was released in 1998-99 for the implementation of the programme.

Approval for bringing 110 lakh children under the scheme was accorded in the financial year 2003-2004. As against this, the states were able to cover 66 lakh children. West

Bengal and Assam exceeded their target. Assam, Bihar and Jharkhand proposed to cover 16.60, 10.30 and 11.73 lakh children under the various strategies of EGS/AIE in 2003-2004, whereas they could bring 8.19, 6.50, and 5.96 lakh children under EGS/AIE interventions respectively.³⁰

JANSHALA (GOI-UN) PROGRAMME

The Janshala (GOI-UN) programme is a collaborative effort of the Government of India (GOI) and five United Nations agencies – UN Development Programme (UNDP), UNICEF, UNESCO, ILO, and UNFPA.

Janshala aims to make primary education more accessible and effective, especially for girls and children in deprived communities, marginalized groups, SC/ST/minorities, working children and children with specific needs. It is a block based programme with emphasis on community participation and decentralization.

It provides programme support to the ongoing efforts towards achieving UEE. UNDP, UNICEF, and UNFPA have committed to contribute \$20 million for the programme while UNESCO and ILO have offered technical know-how. The programme covers 139 blocks in nine states – Andhra Pradesh, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Chhatisgarh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh – with a total project outlay of Rs. 103.29 crore. The programme was to run for five years, from 1998 to 2002, but was extended for two years, i.e. till 31st December 2004. At the state level, the programme is implemented through existing structures of educational administration. Janshala has started a large number of alternative schools in small and remote habitations in the programme areas besides evolving strategies and setting up schools with community participation in the urban slums of Jaipur, Hyderabad, Ajmer, Bharatpur, Puri, and Lucknow.³¹

All the states have covered the programme areas with micro planning which include formation and capacity building of Village Education Committees (VEC), Mother Teacher Associations (MTAs) and Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs). States have also

³⁰ *Annual Report 2003-04*, New Delhi: Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Department of Secondary and Higher education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India:54-56.

³¹ *Five Year Plan 2002-2007*, Planning Commission: 26-30.

held orientation and training programmes for the VEC members to ensure their continued involvement with the schools. Nearly 20,000 habitations/schools have been covered under this activity so far. Involvement of the community was particularly high in the alternative schools opened under the programme. More than 3,000 alternative schools opened under the programme in unserved habitations in rural areas and slums in urban areas provide access to nearly 1,20,000 children. There has been an emphasis in states to develop the capacity of Panchayati Raj Institutions members in understanding issues related to primary education and better management of schools.³²

BALJYOTHI

The formulation of the Baljyothi project was the outcome of two seemingly parallel efforts, one by the government and the other by Pratyamnaya, an NGO, to address the issue of education and arrive at a common understanding. The micro-level insights gained by the NGO were successfully translated into a large project under the National Child Labour Project. It must be noted that an enthusiastic, committed NGO met with a positive response with successive district collectors, and this synergy led to the formulation of Baljyothi.

Pratyamnaya's interactions with the community in Borabanda basti in Secunderabad, revealed that the problem of schooling was compounded by issues of migration, lack of government schools in the vicinity, and a gradual drift of boys and girls away from education and into work. Another crucial issue was the total absence of community leadership. Given this situation, Pratyamnaya's effort was to stop the drift away from schooling and initiate a process of developing and strengthening community leadership and initiative. A decision was taken to start three schools with the help of the District Collector. Initially the response from the District Collector was lukewarm. The District Education Officer argued that there was no need to open more schools in the *basti* as children were not even attending the ones that already existed. Pratyamnaya initiated a study to assess a school requirement in the area, and identify places where schools could

³² *Annual Report 2003-04*, New Delhi: Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Department of Secondary and Higher Education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 57-58.

be located. A training programme was started from locally selected women teachers. Armed with the fact that around 6,000 children were out of school and with feedback received from the community, Pratyamnaya once again approached the District Collector who now responded positively and provided slates and notebooks for the three schools. Continuing dialogue with the district administration led to the mutual development of trust between the NGO and the government. Consequently the District Collector requested Pratyamnaya to design a project under National Child Labour Project of the Government of India. The proposed project was to be run by the district administration and Pratyamnaya in collaboration with each other. Thus began a very effective partnership. Also, another survey in 800 *bastis* of Secunderabad and Hyderabad helped in the selection of 150 slums for the Baljyothi project which was formally launched in December 1995 as a registered society called the Hyderabad District Child Labour Project Society, under the Chairmanship of the District Collector. It was sanctioned a project for 2,000 children with 40 schools and 50 children each.

Once the project was launched, the demand for schools was overwhelming. The decision to extend the original sanction to 70 schools by the end of the first year expanded the coverage to over 9,000 children as against the sanctioned 2,000. Procedural delays in the release of monies due to questions regarding deviations from the original NCLP guidelines stretched the project to breaking point. In the first year, as against the released Rs. 9 lakh, close to 35 lakh had been spent. At this stage, the versatility of the project director in exploring various strategies and mobilising resources from a variety of sources, proved effective. At the same time social pressure was brought to bear on the government. Thirty five thousand post cards were written by children with the help of their teachers to a leading local daily and to the Chief Justice of Andhra Pradesh. The Chief Justice accepted these as a writ petition. Concerned officials of the education and labour department were asked by the court to explain the paucity of funds for such an effective project. A ruling was given for the money to be released within 15 days. This was done and the project design was validated.

The management structure of the project has demonstrated that it is possible to establish a vibrant partnership between an NGO and the government when both are committed to a common objective. Baljyothi was facilitated by a policy framework that was committed

to children's education as well as to addressing the issue of child labour. At the same time, the experience highlights the crucial role of individual agency, both on the part of Pratyamnaya and the government. Successive collectors have demonstrated a very high sense of ownership of the project objectives and have protected the autonomous functioning of Baljyothi. From the beginning, Pratyamnaya recognised the need for regular interaction and advocacy with the government, backed by solid, field level feedback. This has enabled Baljyothi to demand flexibility in functioning as well as to work towards its long-term strategy of facilitating the government take-over of the project's schools and educational agenda.³³

PRATHAM

The case study of Pratham clearly brings forth one significant point – it chose to be a supporter of the government rather than its critic. The logic was clear. Education is the responsibility of the state, therefore, the state ought to be held accountable for any mismanagement in the system. If schools do not operate regularly or properly, if they lack infrastructure, if teacher absenteeism is a problem, if children drop out, it is due to lack of concern on the part of the state.

Pratham, realised the limitations of NGOs on the issue of scale. The first requirement, therefore, was to put a system in place and then respond to the qualitative issues pertaining to education. Pratham was not visualised as a project; rather, it is seen as a citizen's movement. The citizen's role is to contribute in a positive way to what the government is already doing.

For every tier in the primary education structure, Pratham has a committee that interfaces with the government and provides support in planning and implementation. All the 'offices' and 'centres' of Pratham are made available free of cost to the municipal corporation or the community. Pratham does not invest in space. The logic behind this policy decision was that such an arrangement would not only create a sense of ownership in the government, but would also make the programme sustainable. Creating parallel

³³ Kameshwari Jandhyala , "Baljyothi: Bringing Child Labour into Schools" In Vimala Ramachandran's *Getting Children Back to school - Case Studies in Primary Education*, New Delhi:Sage Publications and London: Thousand Oaks (2003): 55-83.

structures could become counter-productive. Similarly, corporate partners not only provide financial support, they also permit their workers to give 'official time' to Pratham's work. Pratham's decision to work with a wide range of partners has nurtured a sense of joint ownership. The Municipal corporation sees Pratham as its own initiative. Corporate partners express a sense of belonging. And at the school level, teachers feel that it is their programme.

Another distinctive style of Pratham's management style is its resolve to refrain from undue criticism. While workers in Pratham are aware of the weaknesses of the government school system, they refrain from openly criticising it. Problems are discussed with the concerned officers/teachers and sorted out. Working with the system involves patience, discretion and self-control. This is perhaps the greatest strength of Pratham's management style.

As of March 1999, Pratham was functioning in 23 wards and six zones of Mumbai, employing 2,543 balwadi teachers, 843 balsakhis and 714 bridge course teachers. The number of personnel had gone upto 5,500 from the modest association of two or three people. By March 2000, almost 80,000 children were benefitting from this venture. Over the past few years, six independent urban initiatives and five rural initiatives across the country have begun with the support of Pratham, Mumbai. These new urban initiatives are in Delhi, Patna, Vadodra, Pune, Bangalore and Ahmedabad. The rural ones are in the states of Maharashtra, Gujarat and West Bengal. A wide range of partners is associated with Pratham. There are 12 core partners, including international donor agencies, corporate groups, the Government of India and the municipal corporations of Greater Mumbai, Pune, Vadodra, Bangalore, Surat and Delhi. Ten long-term partners from different sectors network with eight Indian academic institutions. In addition, there are several local NGOs, four international academic linkages and three service clubs.

Pratham's Balwadi programme gives one an insight to its grass root level functioning. It is a low cost model with high operational replicability. The community provides the space and no rent is charged for it. The instructors come from backgrounds similar to those of the children and are allowed to charge a fee in consultation with the parents. They can retain the fees as their income. Pratham does not lay any claim on the collection, neither does it inquire about the quantum. Pratham workers note that 60 to 70

per cent balwadis record reasonable fee collection, with more than 70 per cent of students paying. No child is turned away because of the failure of parents to pay for whatever length of time. In 1994, Pratham used to pay instructors Rs.100 per month to cover non-payment of fees by some children. This assistance was hiked to Rs. 150 after two years and then to Rs. 200 after another year. In September 2000, each instructor got Rs. 300. If the number of children in the balwadi exceeds 25-30, the instructor may divide her (all balwadi instructors are women) class into two balwadis and receive financial assistance of Rs. 300 for each class. There have been attempts to divide a class by furnishing false information, but they have been usually caught out in a relatively short time. Teaching-learning material worth Rs. 1,000 is provided to the instructors.

A word about the style of Pratham's functioning: In 2000-2001, the Mumbai programme introduced books in the balwadis under the 'Book Bag' project. Each child got a book for himself or herself. A set of daily activities was centered on the book: how to hold the book, how to turn the pages, discussion about pictures in the book. Parents had to be oriented too in terms of what to do because children now brought books home. The 'Book Bag' project was a precursor to the evolving 'Shishuvachan' programme for early literacy. The focus is on early literacy with children in which simple picture books with simple words and few sentences are used. It provides a rich literacy environment for children with the help of story-telling sessions. It builds a strong foundation for reading and dealing with letters and books. It then takes care of one of the major reasons for children falling behind and eventually dropping out. Every community in which Pratham has a presence has a community children's library. Every effort is being made to have books for pre-schoolers and early readers in the libraries. The librarian keeps track of all children in the community, ensuring that all children are in pre-school and that as pre-school children graduate they enroll and attend regularly.³⁴

A few schools adopting a few *bastis* (slum colonies) in a few areas would not lead to any significant change. The government will always be the main actor and the key player in providing primary education in India

However, the years since independence have shown that the government alone cannot deliver success. Civil society should become proactive to ensure system effectiveness.

³⁴ Rukmini Banerji, "Pratham Experiences", *Seminar* 546 (February 2005): 33-37.

The revitalisation of the system required a multi-pronged strategy, partnerships between people and organisations, and very strong community support.

The government has the capability to work on scale, manage and provide resources; those outside the government have the capacity to involve, innovate, experiment, contextualise and respond to specific demands. Given an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect, much can be done.

The most difficult part for Pratham was to create and foster a partnership with the government. To work within the government system rather than to create new structures/processes required a great ability to listen. Initially, the attempt was to communicate and share problems/visions/achievements, in the hope of achieving a better understanding of each other and the issues involved.

The second significant principle followed for promoting partnership was honesty in sharing success. Very often, success in project leads to partnerships breaking down. While everyone pitches in enthusiastically to make a project work, when a particular effort succeeds or is recognised, the participants vie with each other to claim credit for the success.

The government system and its officials tended to take credit for any positive achievement in the field. Pratham made it clear from the beginning that it would not work unless the government contributed to its efforts. Pratham did not criticise or comment, but instead tried to join hands with the government to address problems. This helped officials appreciate the constructive nature of Pratham's work, and they responded by creating spaces for Pratham to work within the system.³⁵

This dynamism also explains the need for flexibility in approach which in turn reflects in the adoption of different plans to achieve the goal of UEE and EFA.

Institutions and NGOs in partnership in Pratham are:

Indian

1. Nirmala Niketan college of social work, Mumbai (students placed for practical work every year).

³⁵ Sharda Jain and Sanju Sharma, "Pratham: Redefining a Societal Mission" In Vimala Ramachandran's *Getting Children Back to School - Case Studies in Primary Education*, New Delhi: Sage Publications and London: Thousand Oaks (2003):173-205.

2. Child Relief and You (CRY) (donors and partners to develop programs with other CRY partners).
3. National Institute for Women, Child and Youth Development, Nagpur.
4. Suvidha Samajik Sanstha (for Thane district).
5. Bhasha Research and Publication Centre, Vadodra.
6. District Institute for Education and Training (DIET), Gujarat.
7. Jana Sanskriti, North 24-paragnas, West Bengal.
8. Many local NGOs and community based organizations.

International

1. Queensland University of Technology, Centre for Applied Studies in Early Childhood, and Department of Computer Sciences (joint research and development projects).
2. Massachusetts Institute of Technology; Dr. Abhijit Bannerji for impact assessment.
3. Northwestern University, Chicago; Dr. A Paulson for impact assessment.
4. University of Twente, Netherlands; Joint development of INDEED (Indian-Dutch exchange program in Education Development).

Government Partners in Other Regions.

1. Pune Municipal Corporation.
2. Vadodra Municipal Corporation.
3. Directorate of Public Instruction, Government of Karnataka.
4. District Primary Education Project, Uttar Pradesh³⁶.

M V FOUNDATION

The MV Foundation (MVF), a private, charitable Trust in Andhra Pradesh, has developed a model that uses education as a means of tackling child labour. Starting its work in 1991 in three villages in Ranga Reddy district of Andhra Pradesh, MVF has withdrawn 80,000

³⁶ Sharda Jain and Sanju Sharma, "Pratham: Redefining a Societal Mission" In Vimala Ramachandran's *Getting Children Back to School - Case Studies in Primary Education*, New Delhi: Sage Publications, London: Thousand Oaks (2003):209.

children from work and has enrolled them into schools. 4,000 bonded child labourers have been liberated and put into schools. The age group of children varies from the very young to adolescents. MVF now operates in nearly 500 villages in which 90 per cent of all children in the 5-11 age groups are in schools. The organization has made a significant dent in the schooling of the difficult age group of 9-14 years. 5000 adolescent children (including 2000 adolescent working girls) have been enrolled through camps and bridge courses into formal schools. 157 villages have been declared child labour free.

MVF uses a set of strategies and systematic efforts to put working children into the school system. It runs short and long-term residential camps, which help the children to go through the difficult process of withdrawing from work and preparing for school. Parents are also oriented to adjust to the schooling of their children. While young children are encouraged to join school directly, the older ones, mostly first-generation learners, are conditioned to the process of schooling in long-term camps.

One of the key features of MVF's intervention is the reliance on the formal, regular Government schools to provide for the education of hitherto working children. MVF has eschewed the use of special schools for child labourers. MVF has established that the Non-Formal Education (NFE) Centres for working children and over age children, by offering flexible timings and a compressed curriculum, do not really help to break the child labour cycle. MVF designed residential camps primarily to ensure that children do not relapse back to work. MVF also developed the unique concept of bridge course to help working children come on par to join the appropriate Grade. MVF's endeavour has been to reinforce the role of the formal school as a means of ensuring equity in schooling, given the long standing criticism that the NFE system provides "second class" education to poor children. Social mobilization and awareness building among communities and parents is the mainstay of MVF's work. In many villages where MVF has intervened, communities are contributing to teacher salaries, building and furniture costs, where state support has fallen short of requirements.

The MVF approach to tackling child labour differs from that followed by the National Child Labour Eradication Program of the Government of India. NCLEP provides support for the setting up of special schools for child labourers, financial incentives to parents and mid-day meals to attract children into schools. MVF has demonstrated that financial

incentives and special facilities are neither necessary nor sufficient to pull children away from work.

MVF's activities have expanded significantly over the years. MVF's current operations span 18 mandals covering about 500 villages. Over 8000 youth volunteers, 1600 education activists, 1500 government teachers, 3000 women's groups, hundreds of elected representatives and members of PTAs are associated with its program. 1500 Government teachers joined the Baala Kaarmika Vimochana Vedika (BKVV), a forum for the elimination of child labour. Apart from playing the role of advocacy, the BKVV has also emerged as a nodal resource point for training teachers and NFE instructors.

MVF has influenced the larger educational scenario by collaborating with government schools. MVF's work has been instrumental in making the Government of Andhra Pradesh revamp several thousand NFE centres in the State into day centres, operating in much the same way as formal schools do, or as motivation centres in the villages, whereas earlier they were running evening classes. MVF has trained NFE instructors to play the role of education activists rather than act as poor substitutes for teachers. On the one hand, MVF's activities exposes the severe limitations of the traditional NFE program and, on the other hand, reaffirms the role of the formal school in making even the most difficult group literate. The Government of Andhra Pradesh has also made a strong policy pronouncement for the eradication of child labour.

A large gap has emerged between the expectations of the communities for education and the ability of Government infrastructure to cope with increased demand. With large numbers of working children coming into formal schools, the state has been hard pressed to provide additional classrooms and teachers for the growing number of new enrollees. MVF has had to provide a large number of voluntary teachers to the government schools to cope with increased demand. MVF's mobilization work with communities has led to Parent Teacher Associations paying for another 505 teachers to work in government schools. A large collective of government teachers constitutes the Forum for Liberation of Children from Work and supports MVF in withdrawing children from work, by giving them special attention in bridge courses and participating in enrollment drives.

The MVF model has been replicated widely by a number of government and non-government agencies to tackle the problem of child labour. The 'Back to School'

program of the Government of Andhra Pradesh embraced the camp approach of MVF. The Social Welfare Department hostels were used to run camps for getting children out of work and preparing them for schools. 1,00,000 children are estimated to have been sent to formal schools from 34 hostels. The Department of Women and Child Development, Government of Andhra Pradesh, used Women's Training Institutes to run camps for girl child labourers. The Andhra Pradesh Women's Cooperative Finance Corporation has taken up the model as a pilot project to rehabilitate working children from both hazardous and non-hazardous industries. 23 women's training centres are running residential courses for girls to mainstream them into regular schools. These training institutes are expected to make a dent in the schooling of adolescent girls and in educating women. The DPEP in Andhra Pradesh is collaborating with MVF to run a pilot project for the eradication of child labour in eight districts. Many MVF volunteers have been taken over by the DPEP under the project. MVF is also providing training and technical support to DPEP in other states. A number of NGOs have adopted the model of MVF. MVF's work has effectively complemented the government's role and has also reinforced the intrinsic value and trust in the government schooling system.³⁷

SCALING UP AND REPLICATION OF MVF's MODEL

Implementing Agency	Program And It's Reach	MVF's Role
Social Welfare Department, Government of Andhra Pradesh	Back to School Program. 1,00,000 children enrolled.	Transfer of the Bridge Course. Training of volunteers, social welfare hostel wardens.
Department of Women and Child Welfare, Government of Andhra Pradesh	Girl Child Program in 23 districts	Transfer of the Bridge Course. Training of volunteers for awareness building.

³⁷ Shanti Jagannathan, *The Role of Non Governmental Organizations in Primary Education – A Study of Six NGOs in India*, Policy Research Working Paper WPS2530, World Bank Library (31.01.2001).

Joint DPEP – UNICEF	Child Labour pilot project in 20 mandals in 8 districts of Andhra Pradesh	MVF's implementation in 2 mandals and use of MVF model in 18 mandals.
District Primary Education Program	Alternative schooling and Bridge course adaptation in Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Haryana, Gujarat	Transfer of the bridge course. Training for State Coordinators for sensitization on child labour
State Governments of Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh and West Bengal.	Eradication of child labour programs in the states	Resource group for the programs
District Administration Kurnool, Andhra Pradesh.	National Child Labour Eradication Project	Training for volunteers and sensitization of educational personnel on child labour issues.
Police Department, Reddy Foundation, Hyderabad City.	Pro-active stance by police officers to detect and end child-labour. Police stations become child-friendly.	Transfer of the camp model and sensitization on child labour issues
Baljyothi, Hyderabad.	National Child Labour Eradication Project. Primary schooling for the urban deprived. 250 schools.	Use of MVF's camp approach.
NGOs: Jeevika.	Child Labour project in Karnataka	Transfer of Bridge course and the camp approach.
Prem.	Child labour project in Orissa	Transfer of Bridge course and the camp approach
Lok Jumbish, Rajasthan.	Camps for girl children in 18 blocks.	Initiated camps in four blocks and use of MVF model in 14 other blocks by Lok Jumbish.

NGOs in Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu and Haryana.	Respective NGO activities.	Training on community mobilization for child labour eradication.
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MVF's COVERAGE	1991/92	1997/98
No. of villages	3	470
No. of mandals	1	18
MVF employees:		
Education activists (Volunteer Teachers)	15	1600
Supervisors	5	80
Camp teachers/District Resource Unit and Office Staff	15	200
Unpaid Volunteers Working with MVF	40	10000
No. of Youth Clubs	40 (1994)	700
No. of Women's Groups	10 (1994)	3000
Formation of Parent Teacher Associations	3 villages (1993)	400 villages
Membership of the Youth Forum	40	8000
Membership of the Teacher's Forum	16	2000

CHAPTER III
SARVA SHIKSHA ABHIYAN

A FUNDAMENTAL RIGHT...

The landmark in the true sense came with the passing of the 93rd Constitution Amendment Bill by the Lok Sabha, the lower house of the parliament, on 27th November 2001, and then by the upper house, the Rajya Sabha, on 14th of May 2002, a major stride was witnessed in the evolution of the 93rd Constitution Amendment Bill into the 86th Constitution Amendment Act. With this act for the first time since the framing of the Constitution, was a Fundamental Right added to the Constitution of India. Befittingly, for India, with the largest number of illiterates in the world, this first addition to Fundamental Rights list relates to education. The Indian Constitution now guarantees eight years of elementary education to each and every child in the country.

An **outline of the events** leading up to the passage of the 93rd Constitution Amendment Bill (86th Constitutional Amendment Act) in both houses of the Parliament is presented below:

- 1990: The Committee to review the National Policy on Education, 1986 – Ramamurti Committee in its report titled ‘Towards an enlightened and Humane Society – NPE 1986 - A Review’ chides the government for its continued failure since independence to fulfill the Constitutional Directive: *“Now time has come to recognize ‘Right to Education’ as one of the fundamental rights of the Indian citizens for which necessary amendments to the constitution may have to be made and more importantly, conditions be created in society such that this right would become available for all children of India.” (Para 6.1.3)*
- 1991: Myron Wiener’s Book, “The child and the State in India: Child Labour and Education Policy in Comparative Perspective” creates ripples. Its main thesis being that India’s poverty was less relevant, as an explanation for the failure to eradicate child labour and enforce compulsory education, than the belief system of the middle classes (to which class, the state bureaucracy also belonged).

1992: India becomes signatory to the UN Convention on Rights of the Child (CRC). Article 28 of this Convention states:

“State parties recognise the right of the child to education and with a view to achieving this right progressively, they shall in particular (a) make primary education compulsory and available free to all...”

International treaties serve to set standards and Courts generally interpret domestic laws so as to maintain harmony with the provisions of international law.

Article 51(c) of the Indian Constitution states that the State shall endeavour to foster respect for international law and treaty obligations.

1993: The Supreme Court judgment in the case of *Unnikrishnan J.P vs State of Andhra Pradesh and others (SC. 2178, 1993.)* makes education a fundamental right.

1994: The ‘Common Minimum Programme’ of the United Front Government resolves to make the right to free and compulsory elementary education into a fundamental right and to enforce it through suitable statutory measures. It sets up a committee (Saikia Committee) to examine this proposal.

1997(Jan.): The Report of the Committee of State Education Ministers on ‘Implications of the Proposal to Make Elementary Education A Fundamental Right’ (Saikia Committee Report) recommends:

“The Constitution of India should be amended to make the right to free elementary education up to the age of 14 years of age, a fundamental right. Simultaneously an explicit provision should be made in the Constitution to make it fundamental duty of every citizen who is a parent to provide opportunities for elementary education to all children up to 14 years of age.”

The Committee also recommended the amendment of existing state legislation on compulsory education.

1997(July): The Constitution (83rd Amendment) Bill, 1997, tabled in the Lok Sabha, (this was further referred to the 'Department-Related Parliamentary Standing Committee on Human Resource Development). The 83rd Amendment Bill proposed:

"2. After Article 21 of the constitution, the following article shall be inserted, namely:

"21A.(1) The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all citizens of the age six to fourteen years.

(2)The right to free and compulsory education referred to in Clause(1) shall be enforced in such manner as the state may, by law, determine.

(3) The state shall not make any law, for free and compulsory education under clause(2), in relation to the educational institutions not maintained by the State or not receiving aid out of state funds."

3. *Article 35 of the Constitution shall be renumbered as clause (1) of that article and after clause (1) as so renumbered and before the Explanation, the following clause shall be inserted, namely:*

"(2) The competent legislature shall make the law for the enforcement of right to free and compulsory education referred to in clause (1) of Article 21A within one year from the commencement of the Constitution (Eighty-third Amendment) Act, 1997:

Provided that a provision of any law relating to free and compulsory education in force in a State immediately before the commencement of the Constitution (Eighty-third Amendment) Act, 1997 which is inconsistent with the provisions of Article 21A, shall continue to be in force until amended or repealed by a competent legislature or other competent authority or until the expiration of one year from such commencement, whichever is earlier".

4. *Article 45 of the Constitution shall be omitted.*

5. *In Article 51A of the Constitution, after clause (j), following clause shall be added namely:*

“(k) to provide opportunities for education to a child between the age of six and fourteen years of whom such citizen is a parent or guardian.”

1997(Nov.)

The Department-Related Parliamentary Standing Committee on Human Resource Development submits report to both houses of Parliament, and recommends that the bill be passed subject to changes recommended by it. The major recommendations of the committee related to:

-) Retention of Article 45 to cater to the 0-6 age group.
 -) Clause (3) of the proposed Article 21-A relating to private institutions may be deleted.
 -) ‘The Centre should prepare one simple legislation with some skeletal framework which may also indicate the Central share in the financial burden. The details can be formulated by the respective states according to their requirements. The Central government may therefore consider working out the necessary legislation.’ (Para 15.16)
- The 83rd Bill was amended, and reintroduced as Constitution (93rd amendment) Bill 2001 in the Parliament with the following provisions:
- After Article 21 of the Constitution, the following Article shall be inserted namely: “21-A The state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of 6-14 years in such manner as the state may, by law, determine.”
 - For Article 45 of the Constitution, the following shall be substituted, namely: “45. The State shall endeavour to provide early childhood care and education for all children until they complete the age of six years.”
 - In Article 51-A of the Constitution, after clause (j), the following clause shall be added, namely: “(k) Who is a parent or guardian

to provide opportunities for education to his child or as the case may be, ward, between the age of 6 and 14 years.”

The Constitution 93rd Amendment Bill, 2001, was discussed and passed by unanimous vote in the Lok Sabha on 27th November 2001 and by the Rajya Sabha on 14th May, 2002. It again went back to the Lok Sabha for approval of the clauses to amend the date of the Bill to 2002.

According to Article 368 of the Constitution, there was no need for ratification by the state legislatures. After the Bill received the President’s assent, it became the 86th Constitution Amendment Act. The new law as recommended by the Parliamentary Standing Committee shall be a central legislation. It is anticipated that this shall be the first central legislation on elementary education.¹

It is for the first time that a positive right has been included in the Constitution. By moving free and compulsory education from the ‘Directive Principles’ in Part IV of the Constitution to the Fundamental Rights in Part III, the value added to the right to education is ‘justiciability’.²

The centrally sponsored scheme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan³ has set time bound targets for the achievement of Universal Elementary Education (UEE). The target is to have all children in school/ EGS school/ alternative school by 2003; for all children to complete primary education by 2007; and for all children to complete elementary level education by 2010.⁴

SARVA SHIKSHA ABHIYAN

The scheme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) evolved from the recommendations of the State Education Minister’s conference held in October 1998 to pursue universal

¹ Nalini Juneja, *Constitutional Amendment to make Education a Fundamental Right – Issues for a Follow-up Legislation*, NIEPA (March 2003):32-36.

² Nalini Juneja, “Free and Compulsory Education (Draft) Bill – Challenge for Rural Areas”, *Kurukshetra*, vol. 52, no.11 (September 2004): 09-10.

³ Funded by the Central Government it is a movement/program for universalisation of education in collaboration with local organisations in the states. Under it a SSS Mission, a registered society generally headed by the Chief Minister or the Education minister is set up in each state. The Society provides the required funds to the local organisation that sets up and manages the schools, be it a Panchayat or an NGO in the area. (Sudha Pai)

⁴ *Handbook for Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education*, Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, (2001): 02-04.

elementary education in a mission mode. The scheme of SSA was approved by the Cabinet in its meeting held on 16 November 2000. It provides for a wide convergent framework for implementation of elementary education schemes such as Operation Blackboard, Teacher Education, Non Formal Education, Mahila Samakhya, National Programme for Nutritional Support for Primary Education, State Specific Education Projects in Bihar, Rajasthan, UP and Andhra Pradesh and DPEP in 248 districts of 18 States.

The **objectives** of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan can be enumerated as follows:

- All children in school, Education Guarantee Centre, Alternate school, 'Back to school' camp by 2003.
- All children complete five years of primary schooling by 2007.
- All children complete eight years of elementary schooling by 2010.
- Focus on elementary education of satisfactory quality with emphasis on education for life.
- Bridge all gender and social category gaps at primary stage by 2007 and at elementary education level by 2010.
- Universal retention by 2010.

It aims to provide useful and relevant elementary education for all children in the 6 to 14 age group by 2010. Useful and relevant education signifies a quest for an education system that is not alienating and that draws on community solidarity. Its aim is to allow children to learn about and master their natural environment in a manner that allows fullest harnessing of their human potential both spiritually and materially. This quest must also be a process of value-based learning that allows children to work for each others' well being rather than to permit mere selfish pursuits. The thrust of SSA will be on providing integrated and inclusive education to all children with special needs in general schools viz. educational needs of girls, Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and other children in difficult circumstances. It will also support a wide range of approaches, options and strategies including education through open learning system and open schools, non formal and alternative schooling, distance education and learning, special schools, wherever necessary, home based education, itinerant teacher model,

remedial teaching, part time classes, community based rehabilitations (CBR) and vocational education and cooperative programmes.⁵

The Human resource ministry calls it a **framework for implementation** and not a guideline because it allows the states to formulate context specific guidelines within the overall framework; it encourages districts in states and UTs to reflect local specificity; promotes local need based planning based on broad National policy norms; and seeks to make planning a realistic exercise by adopting broad national norms.

It is an effort at effectively involving the Panchayati Raj Institutions, School Management Committees, Village and Urban Slum level Education Committees, Parents' Teachers' Associations, Mother Teacher Associations, Tribal Autonomous Councils and other grass root level structures in the management of elementary schools. Capacity development is regarded as vital under SSA which is sought to be achieved in the preparatory phase, for which up to Rupees fifty lakhs has been provided. The focus has to be on capacity building through training, rigorous planning processes, focus on community based data collection and its analyses, and most of all, a willingness to allow the local community to manage schools. SSA calls for a **community-based planning process** and accommodates the heterogeneity of local communities in many regions by recognizing a habitation as a unit of planning as most habitations have a higher degree of community solidarity.

The **assistance** under the programme of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is on an 85:15 sharing arrangement during the ninth plan, 75:25 sharing arrangement during the Tenth plan, and 50:50 sharing thereafter, between the central government and the state government. The programme covers the entire country and addresses the needs of 192 million children in 11 lakh habitations. 8.5 lakh existing primary and upper primary schools and 33 lakh existing teachers would be covered under the scheme. The second and equally significant change is in the method of fund flows. SSA funds will be transferred directly to state implementation societies, which in turn are expected to transfer funds, along with the state share, to bank accounts maintained by village education committees (VECs), school management committees (SMCs), etc. These will be responsible for expenditure on

⁵ *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan – Programme for Universal Elementary Education: Framework for Implementation*. Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 46.

school construction and maintenance, school and teacher grants, and emoluments paid to alternative schooling teachers. Such decentralized structures would lead to greater accountability and social auditing.⁶

The expenditure of a State /UT has to be maintained at the level in 1999-2000. The State share for Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan has to be over and above the expenditure already being incurred at the 1999-2000 level in a particular State. The State level Implementation Society for SSA, the National Level Mission and NIEPA will provide professional support for regular monitoring of expenditure on elementary education.

The success of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan will depend on the quality of the community based planning process. The starting point of planning activities has to be the creation of a core group of governmental and non governmental persons, entrusted with the task of implementing SSA. The SSA conceives a major **capacity building role** for national, state and district level institutions like NIEPA / NCERT / NCTE / SCERT / SIEMAT / DIET. Each district is required to prepare a **perspective plan** to assess and plan for the unfinished UEE agenda and an annual plan which is an exercise in prioritization. Each district will prepare a perspective plan and an annual plan. The perspective plan will be a plan for universalisation within the time frame of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, taking note of the presence of the non-governmental sector and its contribution towards UEE. The annual plans have to be based on a broad indication of resource availability to a district in a particular year. While the objective of the perspective plan is to assess and plan for the unfinished UEE agenda in a particular district, the annual plan is an exercise in prioritization.

Habitation plans will be the basis for formulating district plans. After preparation of the District Elementary Education Plans, the perspective as well as the annual plans will be jointly appraised by a team of experts constituted jointly by the National and the State Level Implementation Society. The National Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan Mission will approve the Annual Plan on the basis of the appraisal report, the recommendation of the State Implementation Society, the availability of the Central Plan funds and, the commitment of the state government regarding financial resources. The recommendation of the State Level Implementation Society must also be accompanied by a commitment

⁶ *National Plan of Action – India*, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 91-93.

of the state government to transfer its share to the state society within thirty days of the receipt of the central contribution, as per the approved sharing arrangement.

The release of the first installment to the state/UT will be processed after receipt of these written commitments. The appraisal and approval of plans should be completed in time for the first installment, to meet the proposed expenditure of the first six months, to be released by 15 April. There would be two installments each year: one in April for expenditure between April and September and the second in September for expenditure between October to March. A supervision visit to the programme implementation districts must be undertaken before the second installment is processed. The second installment will be based on the progress in expenditure and the quality of implementation. Local level Non Governmental Organisations must also be associated in the planning activities and in the process of constitution of VECs.

The National/ State Mission plays the role in selection of personnel in order to ensure objectivity in such processes. It must be reiterated that quality planning process will require institutional reforms that allow local communities to participate effectively in the affairs of the school. The involvement of the teaching community in the planning process is also regarded necessary to ensure that the school system emerges as the principal institution for community partnership.

Lessons from the conduct of various previous programmes in the field of elementary education, like DPEP and Lok Jumbish are being adopted by the states in SSA. For instance, providing formal schooling facilities in centres of religious instruction viz., Makhtabs and Madarsas; Conducting Balika Shikshan Shivirs (camps for adolescent girls); Using women's groups to follow up issue of girls' education; Follow up of dropout girls; Remedial classes organised by VEC/MTA members for girls who are not faring too well at school; Monitoring each child to prevent drop outs etc⁷.

During the Tenth Plan, an allocation of Rs. 17,000 crore has been made for SSA. The total expenditure under SSA for the year 2003-04 was Rs. 3,650 crore.

⁷ In Uttar Pradesh, children are awarded graded colours for their monthly attendance- green for the best, yellow for the mediocre and red for the deficient. This system is showing results. Children want to achieve the green colour. It is proposed to publically felicitate the children with good attendance records at local level functions. This has not only enthused the children further but has also instilled a sense of commitment and responsibility among parents and guardians.

Monitoring under SSA is a three-tiered monitoring: at the local community level, at the state level and the national level. The community through its representative institutions like village education committees has been entrusted with the primary level of ensuring that the schools are functioning effectively. Being local stakeholders, they are best placed to ensure quality education in the schools. For assisting the various levels of management in the task of monitoring, two kinds of information systems have been developed. One is the Educational Management Information System (EMIS), also known as District Information System on Education (DISE), under which school level data is collected every year with September 30 as the record date. This was first developed in DPEP in 1995. With the advent of SSA, the system was expanded to the upper primary sections also and to all districts in the country. EMIS will correlate school level data with community-based information from micro planning and surveys. Besides this, every school will be encouraged to share all information with the community, including grants received.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan highlights **transparency** in programme implementation. All efforts have to be made to ensure that expenditure on elementary education is a public domain subject. The school display board has to show all investments being made in the school. Teacher Attendance should be publicly displayed. For improving the quality of school-level data regarding enrollment, attendance, retention, drop out, etc., besides the mandatory maintenance of Village Education Registers, Retention Registers, and Pupil Progress Cards, any information sent to Cluster/ Block/ District level, has to be displayed on the School Display Board for public scrutiny. The seeds of a community based monitoring system can only be sown by acceptance of a Right to Information at the school level. Similar efforts at transparency should be made right up to the national level. Copies of all sanction orders for pre-project/project activities would be pasted on the web-site of the Department of Elementary Education & Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development.

The second information system developed is the Project Management Information System (PMIS), in which the emphasis is on recording the progress made, towards the implementation of the annual plans, as well as to capture the quality of the education process.

The EMIS shall form the basis of the periodic reporting system. Besides this, trainers will act as classroom process observers to record changes in classroom practices. Periodic monitoring teams will make random visits to selected schools and these will be discussed at various levels. The basic principle in monitoring will be its community ownership and periodic quality checks by external teams – external to the activity but internal to the system. To encourage independent feedback on programme implementation, research and resource institutions with proven excellence will be involved in monitoring at all stages. The system of financial monitoring would also be important in developing demystified community based approaches that allow for social audit. All financial monitoring has to work within a system of social monitoring with full transparency. Joint training programmes for auditors, community leaders, teachers, etc. to understand and appreciate the context of universal elementary education would be made under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan.

Towards the objective of improving the infrastructure, arrangements have been made to open more than 80,000 new schools and appointing around 4.5 lakh teachers in the last two years. Further, physical infrastructure has been sought to be improved through provision of more than one lakh additional classrooms, around 60,000 school buildings, 1 lakh toilets and 75,000 drinking water facilities. In addition, maintenance grant for civil repairs and a school grant for replacement of equipment is given to all schools. For children who are difficult to bring to school, SSA has relied on the Education Guarantee Scheme and Alternative and Innovative Education to bring these children to school.⁸

The total requirement for UEE comes to Rs. 9,80,000 million over a ten-year period till 2010. Of this, the requirement of funds projected for the period till 2007, the target date for universalisation of primary education is Rs. 5,22,800 million, to be shared between the centre and the states. To ensure the sustainability of this funding, the sharing between the Centre and states has been modified for SSA. The traditional pattern of funding of schemes sponsored by the central government has been to provide resources up to the end of the Five Year plan period, in which the programme is being implemented. When the plan period comes to a close, the liabilities on all recurring expenditure are transferred to

⁸ *Annual Report 2003-04*. Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Department of Secondary and Higher education, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 52-54.

the state government concerned, which is then expected to provide resources for continued implementation. Such an arrangement has not always been conducive to long term planning and execution of the EFA programme. For instance, states have been reluctant to appoint teachers on a large scale in view of the fact that they have to meet the entire expenses of the salaries after a few years.

While encouraging all efforts at equity and 'access to all' in well-endowed private unaided schools, efforts to explore areas of **public-private partnership** will also be made. Government, local body, and government aided schools would be covered under the SSA, as is the practice under the Mid Day Meal scheme and DPEP. In case private sector wishes to improve the functioning of a government, local body or a private aided school, efforts to develop a partnership would be made within the broad parameters of State policy in this regard. Depending on the state policies, DIETs and other Government teacher-training institutes could be used to provide resource support to private unaided institutions, if the additional costs are to be met by these private bodies.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan conceives a vibrant partnership with **Non Governmental Organizations** in the area of capacity building, both in communities and in resource institutions. These partnerships will require nurturing through an on going partnership in activities. The research, evaluation, monitoring activities under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is proposed to be done in partnership with institutions/NGOs. This would improve transparency of programme interventions and would also encourage a more open assessment of achievements. In the education sector, non-governmental organizations have been making very meaningful contributions. Work related to pedagogy, mainstreaming out of school children, developing effective teacher training programmes, organising community for capacity development for planning and implementation, expressing gender concerns, work in the sphere of disability among children, are some such examples. Their partnership is conceived in three ways:

- through direct funding by central and state governments;
- through funding activities by identified National and State Resource Institutions;
- through participation in community activities funded by Village Education Committees.

NGOs can discharge a very useful role in advocacy as well as accountability of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. Under the Education Guarantee Scheme (EGS) and Alternative and Innovative Education (AIE), it has been decided to fund NGOs (other than experimental and innovative Projects) through State Implementation Societies. It will also be possible to record the contribution of NGO Projects in the District Elementary Education Plans, as their interventions would also be made in the DEEP. It will facilitate transparency of NGO activities also. Substantial partnership of NGOs is conceived through community organisations like VEC, PTA, MTA, SMCs, etc. This is suggested so that NGOs actually participate in building capacities in the community. Efforts to explore a longer-term partnership with NGOs with a well-defined arrangement for continuity will be encouraged.

The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan seeks to develop **context specific interventions**, over and above the mainstreamed interventions. For instance, the interventions for children belonging to **SC/ST** communities are based on intensive microplanning addressing the needs of every child. Some interventions could range from engagement of community organisers from SC/ST communities, special teaching support as per need, ensuring sense of ownership of school committees, training programmes for motivation for schooling, setting up alternative schooling facilities in unserved habitations, using community teachers, monitoring attendance and retention of children from weaker sections regularly, providing context specific intervention in the form of a hostel, an incentive or a special facility as required, involving community leaders in school management.

Special interventions for children from **tribal areas** that can be utilized are textbooks in mother tongue for children at the beginning of primary education where they do not understand regional language; Bridge Language Inventory for use of teachers; Anganwadis and Balwadis or crèches in each school in tribal areas so that the girls are not required to do baby-sitting; special training for non-tribal teachers to work in tribal areas, including knowledge of tribal dialect.

SSA will ensure that every **child with special needs**, irrespective of the kind, category and degree of disability, is provided education in an appropriate environment. SSA will adopt 'zero rejection' policy so that no child is left out of the education system. All activities, interventions and approaches in the area of education for children with special

needs will be implemented in convergence with existing scheme like Assistance to Disabled Persons for purchase/fittings of Aids/Appliances (ADIP), Integrated Education of the Disabled Children (IEDC) and in coordination with the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, State Department of Welfare, National Institutions and NGOs.

Urban areas have special problems like the education of street children, the education of children who are rag pickers, children whose parents are engaged in professions that makes children's education difficult, education of children living in urban working class slums, children who are working in industry, children working in households, children at tea shops, etc. A diversity of approaches is required to tackle the educational problems in urban areas. This calls for a provision of planning distinctively for the urban areas either as separate plans or as part of District Plans in the case of smaller towns. In either case, this would require partnership with NGOs, Municipal bodies, etc.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan will make efforts to take a holistic and comprehensive approach to the issue of **quality**. Efforts to decentralize the whole process of curriculum development down (grassroot level) to the district level will be made. Reducing the load of non-comprehension by facilitating child-centered and activity-based learning will be attempted. Learning by doing, learning by observation, work experience, art, music, sports and value education shall be made fully integral to the learning process. Appropriate changes will be made in the evaluation system to make it more continuous and less threatening. Performance of children will be constantly monitored in consultation with parents but shall not be restricted only to cognitive areas. Teachers' role in preparation of textbooks and secondary learning materials will be enhanced. School timings will be made contextual. Based on a broad curriculum framework, districts would be free to define their content areas in their local contexts. State and national level institutions will facilitate this process of decentralized arrangements for development of curriculum and evaluation systems.

Use of local dialects as language in classes one and two; association of local artisans/workmen in school activities; Primacy to cultural activities, art, sports, etc.; Content based and motivational training for teachers are some of the methods suggested. Also, effective interface of teachers and teacher educators is highlighted as critical for developing a context specific intervention. Study tours of teachers will be encouraged.

NGOs with experience in pedagogy will be associated in developing capacity among teachers for innovative practices.

The shift in focus should result in a greater involvement of a number of extension workers in schools. Agriculture extension workers, health workers, anganwadi workers, extension workers in artisan based programmes, activities of the Khadi and Village Industries Corporation, learning from traditional wisdom by interaction with the respected senior citizens in an area, etc. should form an integral part of the strategies of education for life. Children should be encouraged to think and observe independently and the classroom should be a forum for interaction.

SSA, in order to facilitate a decentralized mode of education, constitutes groups at various operational levels, namely - national, state, district and sub-district. The following could be involved in the groups:

National level - NCERT, NIEPA, Ed Cil (TSG), Universities, NGOs, experts and eminent educationists.

State level - SCERT, SIEMAT, Universities, IASEs/CTEs, NGOs, experts and eminent educationists.

District level - DIETs, representatives from DPEP District Resource Group, higher educational institutions, innovative teachers from the districts, NGOs.

Sub-district – Block Resource Centres, representatives from Community Resource Centres, innovative teachers.⁹

⁹ Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan – Programme for Universal Elementary Education: Framework for Implementation. Department of Elementary Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India.

NORMS FOR INTERVENTIONS UNDER SSA

	INTERVENTION	NORM
1.	Teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One teacher for every 40 children in primary and upper primary. • At least two teachers in a primary school. • One teacher for every class in the upper primary.
2.	School/Alternative schooling facility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Within one Kilometre of every habitation. • Provision for opening of new schools as per State norms or for setting up EGS like schools in unserved habitations.
3.	Upper primary schools/ Sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As per requirement based on the number of children completing primary education, up to a ceiling of one upper primary school/section for every two primary schools.
4.	Classrooms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A room for every teacher in primary & upper primary, with the provision that there would be two class rooms with verandah to every primary school with at least two teachers. • A room for Head-Master in upper primary school/section.
5.	Free textbooks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To all girls/SC/ST children at primary & upper primary level within an upper

		<p>ceiling of Rs. 150/- per child.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • State to continue to fund free textbooks being currently provided from the state plans.
6.	Civil works	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ceiling of 33 per cent of SSA programme funds. • For improvement of school facilities, BRC/CRC construction. • CRCs could also be used as an additional room. • No expenditure to be incurred on construction of office buildings • Districts to prepare infrastructure Plans.
7.	Maintenance and repair of school buildings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only through school management committees/VECs. • Upto Rs. 5000 per year as per specific proposal by the school committee. • Must involve elements of community contribution.
8.	Upgradation of EGS to regular school or setting up of a new Primary school as per State norm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision for TLE @ Rs. 10,000/- per school • TLE as per local context and need. • Involvement of teachers and parents necessary in TLE selection and procurement. • VEC/ school-village level appropriate body to decide on best mode of procurement. • Requirement of successful running of EGS centre for two years before it is considered for up-gradation. • Provision for teacher & classrooms.
9.	TLE for upper-primary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • @ Rs. 50,000 per school for uncovered schools.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As per local specific requirement to be determined by the teachers/ school committee • School committee to decide on best mode of procurement, in consultation with teachers. • School Committee may recommend district level procurement if there are advantages of scale.
10.	Schools grant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rs. 2000/- per year per primary/upper primary school for replacement of non functional school equipment. • Transparency in utilization. • To be spent only by VEC/SMC.
11.	Teacher grant	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rs. 500 per teacher per year in primary and upper primary. • Transparency in utilization.
12.	Teacher training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provision of 20 days In-service course for all teachers each year, 60 days refresher course for untrained teachers already employed as teachers, and 30 days orientation for freshly trained recruits @ Rs. 70/- per day. • Unit cost is indicative; would be lower in non residential training programmes. • Includes all training cost. • Assessment of capacities for effective training during appraisal will determine extent of coverage. • Support for SCERT/DIET under existing Teacher Education Scheme.
13.	State Institute of Educational Management and Training (SIEMAT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One time assistance up to Rs. 3 crore. • States have to agree to sustain. • Selection criteria for faculty to be rigorous.
14.	Training of community leaders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • For a maximum of 8 persons in a village for 2 days in a year - preferably women.

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • @ Rs. 30/- per day.
15.	Provision for disabled children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Up to Rs. 1200/- per child for integration of disabled children, as per specific proposal, per year. • District Plan for children with special needs will be formulated within the Rs. 1200 per child norm. • Involvement of resource institutions to be encouraged.
16.	Research, Evaluation, supervision and monitoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Up to Rs. 1500 per school per year. • Partnership with research and resource institutions, pool of resource teams with State specific focus. • Priority to development of capacities for appraisal and supervision through resource/research institutions and on an effective EMIS. • Provision for regular school mapping/micro planning for up dating of household data. • By creating pool of resource persons, providing travel grant and honorarium for monitoring, generation of community-based data, research studies, cost of assessment and appraisal terms & their field activities, classroom observation by resource persons. • Funds to be spent at national, state, district, sub district, school level out of the overall per school allocation. • Rs. 100 per school per year to be spent at national level. • Expenditure at State/district/BRC/CRC/School level to be decided by State/UT, This would include expenditure on appraisal, supervision, MIS, classroom observation, etc. Support to SCERT over and above the provision under the Teacher Education scheme may also be provided. • Involvement of resource institutions willing to undertake state specific responsibilities.

17.	Management Cost	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not to exceed 6 per cent of the budget of a district plan. • To include expenditure on office expenses, hiring of experts at various levels after assessment of existing manpower, POL, etc.; • Priority to experts in MIS, community planning processes, civil works, gender, etc. depending on capacity available in a particular district. • Management costs should be used to develop effective teams at State/District/Block/Cluster levels. • Identification of personnel for BRC/CRC should be a priority in the pre-project phase itself so that a team is available for the intensive process based planning.
18.	Innovative activity for girls' education, early childhood care & education, interventions for children belonging to SC/ST community, computer education specially for upper primary level	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Upto to Rs. 15 lakh for each innovative project and Rs. 50 lakh for a district per year will apply for SSA. • ECCE and girls education interventions to have unit costs already approved under other existing schemes.
19.	Block Resource Centres/ Cluster Resource Centres	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • BRC/CRC to be located in school campus as far as possible. • Rs. 6 lakh ceiling for BRC building construction wherever required. • Rs. 2 lakh for CRC construction wherever required - should be used as an additional classroom in schools. • Total cost of non-school (BRC and CRC) construction in any district should not exceed 5 per cent of the overall projected expenditure under the programme in any year. • Deployment of up to 20 teacher in a block with more than 100 schools; 10 teachers in smaller Blocks in BRCs/CRCs. • Provision of furniture, etc. @ Rs. 1 lakh for a BRC and Rs. 10,000 for a CRC • Contingency grant of Rs. 12,500 for a BRC and Rs. 2500 for a CRC, per year. • Identification of BRC/CRC personnel

		after intensive selection process in the preparatory phase itself.
20.	Interventions for out of school children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As per norms already approved under Education Guarantee Scheme & Alternative and Innovative Education, providing for the following kind of interventions. • Setting up Education Guarantee Centres in unserved habitations. • Setting up other alternative schooling models • Bridge Courses, remedial courses, Back-to-School Camps with a focus on mainstreaming out of school children into regular schools.
	Preparatory activities for micro planning, household surveys, studies, community mobilization, school-based activities, office equipment, training and orientation at all levels, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As per specific proposal of a district, duly recommended by the State. Urban areas, within a district or metropolitan cities may be treated as a separate unit for planning as required.

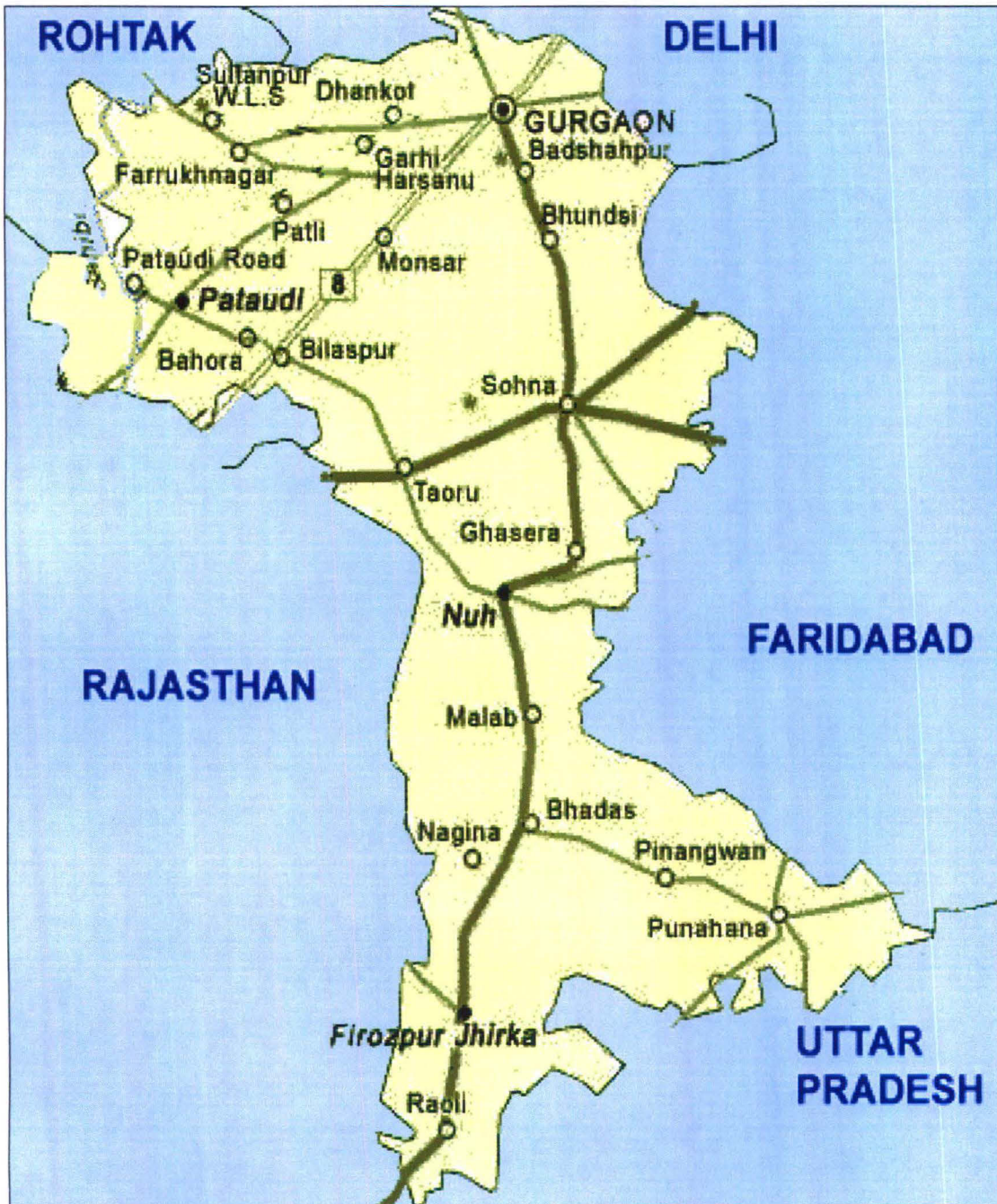
CHAPTER IV
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN
HARYANA

HARYANA (DISTRICT MAP)



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MAP OF GURGAON



HARYANA - A PROFILE

Haryana state was carved out of erstwhile Punjab on November 1st 1966. It comprises of **19 districts** namely, Gurgaon, Mahendergarh, Sonapat, Hissar, Jind, Bhiwani, Karnal, Kurukshetra, Ambala, Sirsa, Faridabad, Rohtak, Rewari, Panipat, Kaithal, Yamuna Nagar, Panchkula, Fatehabad and Jhajjar. According to the 2001 census of India, Haryana comprises of 2 per cent population of the country i.e. 2,10,82,989. Among them are 11,327,658 males and 9,755,331 females.

Haryana with 1,891,599 urban illiterates and 6,966,354 rural illiterates presents an interesting case for study. The total sex ratio of rural literates is just 572 per thousand males. The **child sex ratio** of the state at 820 is the second lowest in the country. The population of Haryana has doubled in the last 28 years.¹

With 1.4 per cent of the total area of the country, Haryana is one of the leading states in terms of per capita income. It has more than 1,100 big and medium industrial units with foreign technical/financial collaborations.

Haryana's **per capita income** in the year 2001-2002 was Rs. 14,331 (at constant prices, 1993-94 base year) and Rs. 23,742 (at current prices). The net state domestic product for the year 2001-2002 was Rs. 28,655 crore (at constant prices 1993-94 base year) and Rs. 47,474 crore (at current prices).²

The **area** of the state as per provisional figures supplied by Surveyor General of India is 44,212 square kilometers. Among districts, Bhiwani with an area of 4,778 sq. km. is the largest while Panchkula with an area of 898 sq. km. is the smallest one. The density of the state, according to the 2001 census, is 477 persons per sq. km. as compared to the national average of 324 persons. Faridabad district retains its position as the most densely populated district of the state with the density of 1,020 person/sq km, while Sirsa district has the lowest density of 260 persons/sq. km.

As per provisional result of 2001 census there are 861 females per thousand males as compared to the national average of 933. The ratio was 865 in 1991. The **sex ratio** is

¹ Sunil Gulati, *Census of India 2001: Haryana Provisional Population Totals*. Series 07, Paper 2 of 2001: vii-x.

² <http://www.haryana-online.com/business.htm>

above the state level in ten districts namely Mahendragarh, Rewari, Fatehabad, Sirsa, Bhiwani, Gurgaon, Ambala, Kurukshetra, Karnal and Yamuna Nagar.

Percentage of 0-6 population was 15.46 in 2001 as compared to 18.98 per cent in 1991 and the sex ratio in 0-6 group is 820/1000 in 2001 as compared to 879/1000 in 1991 census. It has gone down in all districts of the state.

In 1966, at the time of reorganization, the state's **literacy** rate (19.92 per cent, Census 1961) was lower than the national average of 27.76 per cent. Haryana reported a literacy rate of 68.59 per cent in 2001 as compared to 55.85 per cent in 1991. The respective literacy rates for male was 79.25 per cent against 56.31 per cent of females. Translated in absolute terms, it is 1,22,25,036 literates – 75,58,443 males and 46,66,5993 females. The sex literacy rate is 617/1000 in 2001 as against 505/1000 in 1991. The literacy rate of Haryana is comparatively higher than the national average. The male literacy is relatively higher than female literacy rates in all districts. Rewari district with a male literacy rate of 89.04 per cent ranks first in the state while Fatehabad with 68.71 per cent is the lowest. Female literacy rate is highest in Panchkula with 68.98 per cent and lowest in Fatehabad with 46.40 per cent.

In five districts the male literacy is lower than the national average and in seven districts the female literacy rate is the lowest. Gurgaon, Jind, Sirsa, Kaithal and Fatehabad have low male literacy rates. The gap between male and female literacy is lowest in Panchkula and Ambala and maximum in Mahendargarh and Gurgaon.

Girls' **enrollment** still lags behind that of the boys in the primary and middle school stages in spite of the fact that there has been a substantial increase in the girls enrolled at both the levels. The total enrollment at high/senior secondary stage increased from 1.67 lakhs in 1970-71 to 8.71 lakhs in 2000-2001. Annual growth of girls enrollment was also higher than that of the boys during the period. (Table 20)

There has been sharp increase in all levels of **schools**. There is more than eight fold increase in the number of high/sr.secondary schools between 1966-67 and 2001-2002. With every high and middle school, primary section was also attached before 1990-91. Presently, school going children have to walk only within a radius of 1.13 km for primary schooling, 1.6 km for middle and 2.35 kilometer for high/ sr. secondary school.(Table 21)

The state has reasonable **facilities** with regard to drinking water, separate urinals/lavatories for girls in schools, yet the facilities need to be expanded to cover all the institutions/rural areas. Compared to all-India figures, the state shows remarkable performance. For instance, 76.95 per cent of primary schools and 92.56 per cent upper primary schools in Haryana have drinking water facility as against 44.23 per cent and 63.47 per cent all India figures. (Table 22)

Though the **budgetary allocation** for education has increased over the years yet a major portion of the allocation is expended on salaries leaving small sums for developmental and capital works. The national average of the budgeted expenditure to the total budget is 19.6 per cent on education whereas the state percentage is 12.95 only which is among the lowest in the country. The Planning Commission has recommended 6 per cent of the state Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to be spent on education whereas the present state allocation is only 2.1 per cent (97-98) of the state GDP.

The first impetus for education in Haryana was provided by Mr. J Thomas, Lieutenant-Governor of Agra, who after the revenue settlement of 1830-40 felt the need for organized educational programmes. The progress however was very slow. The government wanted to encourage the western style of education but very few even in urban areas were attracted. A zilla school was established in Delhi in 1858, followed by similar institutions in Jhajjar, Rohtak, Karnal and Rewari, all affiliated to the Calcutta University. In the district of Hissar there were only two Anglo-middle schools, at Bhiwani and Hissar. To improve the standard of education some steps were taken to train the teachers and to provide for a system of inspection. Women's education was practically non-existent due to social prejudices. A few schools at Delhi even tried to attract students from the poorer classes by paying them small stipends.³

The central government while revising NPE (1986) in 1992 took a significant decision to direct the state governments to have their own State Programme of Action (POA) for implementing the thrust areas of the policy in view of local conditions keeping the spirit of NPE intact. The state of Haryana also devised its own State POA in 1994. At the time of initial thrust for universalisation of elementary education, there was voluntary community participation. Most of the schools in the rural areas were made by the

³ D.C. Verma, *Haryana*, New Delhi: NBT (1975): 29-30.

panchayats or the communities and the land for the schools were given free of cost by the panchayats.

District Primary Education Program (DPEP) is the major centrally sponsored scheme put in place in Haryana in 1994. Funded by the World Bank, it was initially started in four districts – Jind, Kaithal, Hisar and Sirsa. These districts are also known as DPEP I districts. Later in 1997 it was extended to three more districts – Bhiwani, Gurgaon and Mahendargarh, called the DPEP II districts under the patronage of Haryana Prathamik Shiksha Pariyojna Parishad.⁴ (HPSPP)⁵

Though the major policy intervention started in 1994, various **incentive schemes** have been in place for decades. Attendance prize to scheduled caste girls was introduced in the year 1979-80 to encourage their enrollment as well as retention. Under this scheme an amount of Rs. 10 per month is given as attendance prize to each SC girl student, whose parents/guardians annual income did not exceed Rs. 10,000 and fulfils the condition of at least 70 per cent of the total attendance in a month. The scheme of providing free uniforms to girls belonging to SC/weaker sections was introduced in 1976-77. Under this scheme, poplin cloth was provided free of cost to the SC girls for school uniform. Also, in 1979-80 was introduced the scheme of providing free stationary and writing material to students of poor parents.

‘Book Banks’ too have been in place since 1975-76. They provide text books free of cost to the students of SC/weaker sections of the society. In 1988 was introduced a special scheme for children of nomadic tribes, who were given cash incentive of Re one per school day for attending school. The Department of Scheduled Caste and Backward Class Welfare in 1991-92 started to give pre-matric scholarship of Rs. 25 per month, besides an annual ad hoc grant of Rs. 500 for ten months in an academic session. A stipend of Rs. 10 per month was also given to each notified tribe student of primary school.⁶

Due to programs of enrollment drives, mass contacts, propaganda and provision of incentives, mid day meal schemes, attendance scholarship, the enrollment in classes I to V registered an increase from 8.2 lakhs in 1967-68 to 15.75 lakhs in 1985-86. Provision of school educational facility at the middle and high school level was available within a

⁴ HPSPP is a Society registered by the Registrar, Co-operative Societies on 11.3.1994 to implement DPEP.

⁵ *DPEP Haryana, Annual Report 1999-2000*, Chandigarh: HPSPP: 05.

⁶ *DPEP Haryana, Annual Report 1999-2000*, Chandigarh: HPSPP: 43-44.

radius of 2.15 km and 2.70 km in 1985-86 as compared with 3.88 km. and 5.06 km in 1966.⁷

In the same breath it can be stated that the returns from incentive schemes are not as positive anymore. According to studies, incentive schemes in Haryana are weakly administered programs with little impact on attendance or drop out rates. The studies found that school records indicated far more children receiving incentives than parents reported – two to three times more – suggesting that schools received more incentives than were distributed. Also, the parents reported receiving smaller attendance allowance than were indicated on the receipts to which they gave a thumb print. In Haryana, over the three year period studied, 17 per cent of the students receiving incentives dropped out of school, compared to 20 per cent of students who were not receiving incentives. One reason cited for the small effect was that attendance allowance was too low to compensate for the costs of schooling. In a forced choice exercise comparing school quality factors with existing incentive schemes, 60 to 90 per cent of parents preferred to improve school quality rather than to have more incentives.⁸

A **comparative study** of three years (2001-2004) elementary education data compiled by NIEPA shows that the percentage growth of government schools has decreased, though insignificantly, in the primary as well as upper primary segments. Percentage of rural government schools in both the, primary and upper primary, segments have declined as well. (Graph 01) A comparison of the government data and the NIEPA data points out that significant changes should be made on an annual basis in order for it to translate into bigger proportions on a decadal scale.

The enrollment in Grade I and Grade VI shows a positive trend. However, it is not very promising. While the enrollment in all the grades have increased, it has decreased in Grade IV and V over the years – depicting the trend of students to drop out before making the transition to the upper primary stage. (Graph 02)

Percentage of SC enrollment in the state has increased from 31.8 per cent in 2001-02 to 32.5 per cent in 2003-04 in the primary segment. The corresponding increase in the upper primary segment is from 23.5 to 27.1 per cent. Enrollment of children with disability too

⁷ V.K. Raina, *Emerging Trends in School Education in Haryana*, Chandigarh: NCERT (1988): 08-09.

⁸ *Primary Education in India*, The World Bank and Allied Publishers Limited (1997): 234-235.

has registered a positive trend. However, the percentage enrollment of girls with disability is far lower than percentage enrollment of boys with disability. (Graphs 03 and 04)

Interestingly, the Pupil-Teacher Ratio in the primary section has increased marginally from 46.7 to 48 and decreased from 27.6 to 25 in the upper primary section. (Graph 05)

It is important to note that the percentage of boys and girls passing Grade VIII has significantly declined between 2001-02 to 2003-04. In 2001-02, 73.34 per cent of boys passed class VIII as against 62.02 in 2003-04. Considering that enrollment in Grade VIII was highest in 2002-03, it can be suggested that the quality of teaching might have gone down. (Graph 06)

While school uniforms and attendance have served as incentive for girls, it has been text books all the way for boys i.e. in the primary as well as upper primary sections. (Graph 07). The nature of incentives in order to have a positive correlation with enrollment and retention must take care of a substantial portion of the cost of schooling.

GURGAON DISTRICT - PROFILE

According to legend, the Pandavas had presented Gurgaon village to Guru Dronacharya as *guru dakshina*. Today, it is declared as a backward district by the Haryana government. As per the 2001 census the growth rate of Gurgaon's population is 44.64 per cent; Sex ratio is 874 (rural 877 and urban 864); and it has a population density of 599/sq. km.

Gurgaon, with an area of 2,760 km., has three **sub divisions** – Gurgaon, Nuh and Ferozpur Jhirkha. For administrative purposes, the region is divided into nine community development blocks - Gurgaon, Pataudi, Farukhnagar, Tauru, Nuh, Nagina, Punhana and Ferozpur Jhirkha. There are seven tahsils (Gurgaon, Pataudi, Tauru, Nuh, Punhana and Ferozpur Jhirkha) and eight sub-tahsils with a total of 516 panchayats. There are 730 villages in the district out of which 688 are populated and 42 non-populated.

Gurgaon, with 7.26 per cent of the state's population, is the second largest populated district of the state. The density of **population** in the district has gone up to 599 per

square kilometer in 2001 as against 414 persons in 1991 when it ranked fourth. Industrial development and the proximity to Delhi can be cited as reasons for the same.

In 1901, only 2.6 per cent of the population of the district was literate. The **literacy** percentage stood at 3.3 per cent in 1931 and 8.2 per cent in 1951.⁹

Today, though the literacy rate of the district is 68.59 per cent (Table 23), 52,780 children in the age group of 5 to 10 years and 35,872 children in the 11 to 14 year age group are still out of school. Majority (23,316) in the latter age group is employed in the agriculture sector and in the former majority are employed in occupations other than agriculture, industries or shops (Table 24).

According to the 2001 census, Gurgaon tahsil leads in Haryana out of 67 tahsils in the state in terms of literacy. Ironically, the tahsil not only records a literacy rate of 81.62 per cent, it also comprises of Punhana, Ferozpur Jhirka and Nuh tahsils - all lying at the bottom end with a literacy rate of 37.58 per cent, 40.61 per cent and 45.23 per cent respectively. (Table 19)

Punhana tahsil also has the lowest sex ratio of literates among rural areas of the state at 248 followed by Ferozpur Jhirka having a ratio of 276. The figure for Punhana is 324 points lower than the state average of 572.

The rise in the level of literacy has also attributed to the **work participation rate** in the district which has increased to 38.04 per cent in 2001 as against 32.06 percent in 1991. Work participation rate for female workers has increased (+) 12.33 in the district. Gurgaon is primarily an agricultural district and majority of its population lives in villages. 40.37 per cent of its workers are engaged in agricultural activities which include cultivators and agricultural labourers. The proportion of workers engaged in household industry is 2.68 per cent and in other worker category it is 56.95 per cent.¹⁰

As per 2001 census Gurgaon had 814 primary **schools**, 114 middle schools, 100 high schools and 61 senior secondary schools. It is noteworthy that there are only nine aided schools at the primary level and the number of aided schools at the middle level is nil. The low level of middle schools in comparison to the primary schools is certainly a bottle

⁹ K.S. Bhoria and B. Raj Bajaj, *Haryana District Gazeteers –Gurgaon*, Chandigarh: Govt. of Haryana (1983):589.

¹⁰ Sunil Gulati, *Census of India 2001, Provisional Population Totals*, Paper 3 of 2001, Series 7: 196.

neck. The infrastructure is not yet ready to support the students who pass out from the primary level (Table 25). According to reports the conditions of senior secondary schools in Gurgaon are a cause of genuine concern.¹¹

Graph 12 clearly shows that there has been practically no increase in the number of government schools between 2001-02 to 2003-04.

In terms of **teachers**, against 5,847 sanctioned posts only 4,125 are in position. The availability of teachers is not so much of a problem. It is their proper and rationalised deployment which should be taken care of (Table 26).

NIEPA studies suggest that the gross as well as net enrollment ratio in Gurgaon has declined significantly after 1999-2000 and so has the percentage **enrollment** in class I since 1997. After a sharp decline from 1997-98 to 1999-2000, the enrollment stabilized at a low level. Also, there has not been any significant growth in the enrollment of SC girls in the primary segment over the same period. (Graphs 8-10)

Enrollment of children with disability also shows a very fluctuating trend. The enrollment of boys in the primary and upper primary segment initially increased in 2002-03 but again fell in 2003-04. However, the enrollment of girls in the primary segment has recorded a fair increase. (Graph 11) The trend in **repetition rate** also does not signify any marked improvement since 1997. (Graph 13)

In view of the dismal performance urgent steps should be taken.

The content of teaching is certainly important. But equally important is the efficacy of the delivery system and the teaching technologies. Besides in-service training, induction and in-school training should be introduced for the teachers. A new transfer policy should be evolved to ensure that rural schools in backward areas do not remain without teachers while at the same time making the whole issue of transfers more transparent, fair and equitable for the teaching community. The state should also endeavour to increase the allocation of funds for education from the present 2.1 per cent of the state GDP to 6 per cent by the year 2010 as recommended by the Planning Commission.¹²

Having provided the socio-economic data of Haryana and Gurgaon in the backdrop, it would be worth the while to now proceed to examine the **Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan** here.

¹¹ Payal Saxena, "Gurgaon Government School in Shambles", *The Times of India* (18.01.05): 05.

¹² http://haryana.nic.in/policies/edu_policy.htm

Cluster and village level surveys were conducted in accordance with the central government directive before the implementation of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. The survey revealed that to promote the enrollment of students in schools, especially girls and SC students, certain measures shall have to be adopted. Firstly, the girls had to walk on foot for more than two kilometers to attend the upper primary classes. This causes many girl students to drop out. Further, the parents kept girls back during the season of harvest and marriages. The parents also withdrew them from school on the attainment of age of 10-12 years, for fulfilling domestic needs. School heads suggested provision for better drinking water facilities. An additional amount was demanded for the same as the allotted amount of Rs. 12,000 was found increasingly insufficient. Infrastructural improvement by way of repair of classrooms and schools too figured on the list of priorities. Free textbooks for the underprivileged children, electricity fans, good sitting arrangement, clean schools etcetera also promised an increase in enrollment. Vacant posts of teachers in government schools were yet another vital grey area highlighted by the survey.

It also suggested that to enhance quality, all primary school teachers may be specially trained for “How to teach English of Class IV and V”, as English is newly introduced. Upper class teachers of all the subjects may also be trained to teach the newly introduced Class VII syllabus. Considerable steps were taken by the state government to refurbish the primary schools in terms of infrastructure. During 2003-04, under the SSA 176 branch primary schools were upgraded to primary schools and 108 primary schools were upgraded to middle schools. Under the Education Guarantee Scheme, 1781 alternative and innovative education centres await initiation. 100 ‘bachpanshalas’ were set up in the state - 20 each in five districts of Karnal, Fatehabad, Faridabad, Sirsa and Panipat. Under the Integrated Education for the Disabled Scheme, 28,548 disabled children have been enrolled in schools. Such schools have been opened in 10 districts in Haryana.¹³

To achieve the objective of universalisation of elementary education Government of Haryana introduced various incentive schemes like attendance prize for scheduled caste girls, free uniform to girls belonging to scheduled castes/weaker sections, free stationery and writing material, special incentive scheme for children of nomadic tribes, Pre-metric

¹³ V.P. Prabhakar, “Haryana Refurbishes Primary Schools”, *The Tribune* (24.04.04):02.

scholarship, stipend to students belonging to the de-notified tribes, and Mid-day meal scheme in primary school.

The district study proved that success could not be attained through any of the previous policies because of the ineffective supervision and monitoring mechanism which was not only lethargic but also beyond the grassroots approach. Hence, the Governor of Haryana vide his letter no. 21/18-2002PE (2) dated 11th September 2002 constituted committees for proper monitoring and supervision at village, school, cluster, block, district and state level comprising of Parent–teacher Association, Mother Teacher Association, Village Education Committee, Village Construction Committee, Urban Education Committee, Cluster Level Education Committee, Block Level Education Committee, District Level Committee, State Level Monitoring Committee.¹⁴

The state government views **NGOs as partners** in the march towards achieving the goal of Education For All. It comes from the realization that no single delivery system, be it in private or public, alone can achieve the goal of universal elementary education without the participation of the voluntary sector. The realization stems from the fact that NGOs offer alternative development models. They have established reputation in terms of accountability, quality of services, cost effectiveness, innovation, closeness to the grass root and effective management style. The role of the NGOs assumes further significance as the government itself admits that it has not been able to control drop out in rural and slum areas in the cities.¹⁵ NGOs have made significant contribution in education in developing new models of pedagogy, innovative curriculum, teaching & learning aids new textbooks, teacher training, community empowerment, effective school management, building environment and institutional development. Government agencies have adapted or replicated many of these innovations. At present, involvement of NGOs is generally limited to running non formal education centres and literacy programmes. They also implement small-scale innovative experiments in education. The state education policy ensures a larger role for the NGO sector in consonance with the central directives.¹⁶

¹⁴ *District Elementary Education Plan - Prospective Plan and Budget Provision for 2003-04*: 05-25.

¹⁵ *DPEP Haryana, Annual Report 1999-2000*, Chandigarh: HPSPP: 05.

¹⁶ *National Plan of Action – India*, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India: 42.

At this juncture it would be worth the while to bring up the case study of **Adi Gram Samiti** (AGS) to highlight the vital role played by NGOs in achieving the target of universal elementary education.

Set up in 1993, AGS started its work by opening five centres in five villages of Nagina and Nuh blocks of Gurgaon district in 2001. With an initial enrollment of 125 girls and five teachers, AGS had little in the name of infrastructure. The classes were conducted either in the *Chaupal* or Panchayat Ghar with the consent of Village Education Committee. For two years AGS survived without any external aid. In 2002 AGS received a grant of Rs. 2,60,000 from the Australian High Commission which was used to run ten non formal centres and to buy two sewing machines. By 2004, i.e. in a period of three years, AGS had managed to prepare 40 students to appear in the Class V examination conducted by the state. Having registered a cent per cent result it also went ahead to get all 40 students enrolled in the mainstream education system. In 2004 AGS finally got a grant from HPSPP to run non-formal education centres in Gurgaon district (Table 27). However, it had to close down its older non formal centers because the grant required them to open centres in new villages. Financial restraints could not permit AGS to sustain its old centres without any external grant.¹⁷

The trajectory of AGS reflects the **complementary and conflictual relations between NGOs and the government** in subtle ways. Firstly, the flexibility of its approach can be gauged from the fact that AGS tried to employ Urdu teachers in villages with predominant Muslim population. Moreover, AGS employs only female teachers in order to curb the inhibitions of parents in sending the girl child to schools. Its flexibility also reflects in holding classes during the summer holidays in order to make up for the harvest season and complete the mandatory 200 school days.

Secondly, its interaction and consultation with the Village Education Committee, District Education Office, and Panchayats for the implementation of the program too is commendable. To elaborate: the teachers for the non formal centres are employed in consultation with the Village Education Committee and the panchayats. The teachers are also partially accountable to these committees. This kind of decentralization gives a sense of participation and responsibility to the villagers. Other decisions regarding the centres

¹⁷ On the basis of information provided by Mr. Vinod Kanathia, Director, Adi Gram Samiti.

are also taken in consultation with these committees. For instance, the venue for the classes etcetera.

However, despite the decentralized pattern of program implementation grey areas still remain. Firstly, at times the grant installments from the District Education Office are delayed. This indirectly affects the payment of education volunteers and leads to demotivation. The pattern of grant installment is also an issue for serious consideration. Till last year, first installment comprised of 50 per cent of the grant amount with the third and fourth installment of 25 per cent each. This year onwards there are four equal installments. It comes across as a highly impractical decision because the investment at the beginning of the programme implementation is the highest as the NGO has to spend on school bags, books, copies, stationary and other centre infrastructure.

Secondly, all NGOs are rewarded contracts only for one year at a time. Even if the contract of a particular NGO is renewed a considerable time period goes without grant, thus affecting the continuity of classes. In order to overcome this, the district office should send the NGO's performance detail to the state office well in advance of the due date of expiry of the contract. Abrupt discontinuity of program is one of the major causes of scheme failure.

Thirdly, the villages where the NGOs have to be operational are decided by the District Education Office (DEO). This at times serves as a bane. It was only due to the rigid bureaucratic framework of the government that AGS had to discontinue its earlier centres and open new centres elsewhere. The lesser be said about the plight of the students, who had to drop out because of this reason, the better.

Interestingly, it was directed to open centres in villages where government aided, private unaided schools already existed. Clearly, it was only because the formal educational system had failed to bring the children to school, did the need arise to rope in NGOs for the same task.

One can safely conclude that the government of Haryana is increasingly seeking the assistance of NGOs in programme implementation, from the fact that in 2005 the amount of grant to AGS was increased and so were the number of centres. In 2004 AGS operated only 25 centres in Gurgaon district. In 2005 additional 20 centres in Faridabad district were allotted to it.

However, it is not that the NGOs are immune from any fallacies. While on one hand they do enroll out of school children, on the other hand even NGOs register drop out cases. For instance, in AGS, at the end of two years only 60 students out of 125 students were left. The rest had dropped out.

The case study of AGS yet again proves that neither the state nor the NGO is the perfect delivery model. Both are not just interdependent on each other, they are also complementary. All the grey areas cited in the analysis can easily be tackled with some co-ordination and better understanding. More so, because the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan provides only a framework for implementation and not a guideline. It, therefore, empowers every state to make rules in accordance with the local conditions and requirements.

The role NGOs can play in achieving the objectives of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan cannot be undermined. In fact, SSA as a programme has brighter chances of success on the grounds that decentralization gives greater space to resolves nodes of conflict between the state and the NGOs.

Although the performance in terms of literacy rate, total enrollment of children and accessibility of schools has been commendable, yet, many of the disadvantaged and weaker sections and physically and mentally challenged groups have largely remained outside the ambit of elementary education. In order to achieve universalisation of elementary education, the needs of these special groups will have to be addressed. Drop-out rate of boys and girls at primary and middle stage continues to be high and urgent steps are required to address this area.

CONCLUSION

In 1950, the architects of the Indian Constitution stipulated that by 1960, every child upto the age of 14 years shall be provided free and compulsory education. Presently, the same goal is hoped to be achieved by 2010. Years of efforts have not been successful in diluting stark facts - India is home to one in every three illiterate persons in the world. With 34 per cent of the illiterate population in the world, it has the largest number of illiterates.¹ About 12 million children, aged 6-11, are out of school. Only 35 per cent of the total teacher requirement has been met.² All children who enroll do not complete even five years of schooling. A significant proportion goes through schooling and learns very little. It is not uncommon to come across children who have been to school but remain functionally illiterate. The realization that the paradigm of development failed to produce the desired results led the state to adopt alternative approaches – strengthening role of voluntary organizations, non-profit making companies, corporate bodies, cooperatives and trusts in social and economic development. Initiatives to decentralize education in India began way back in the 1990s, with the launch of the District Primary Education Programme. The nationwide launching of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in 2001 for achieving universal elementary education is the definite step forward for decentralized planning and implementation.

Having traced the historical evolution of elementary education in India to its present status, the dissertation has raised relevant questions and problems which pose a challenge to universalisation of elementary education. Investigation of the same, with the interplay of government and NGOs as the central plank, has highlighted the existing gap between perception and reality. This gap helps in drawing **conclusions** for future strategies.

NGOs have undoubtedly carved a domain for themselves. Optimism reins its very mention. There are underlying expectations and hopes that the potentiality of the NGO sector can indeed be tapped to achieve developmental ends. The very suggestion that management of NGOs should be on a more professional scale surmises in subtle terms that they ought to come to power with the government and even establish their credibility on the very parameters established for the government.

¹ “India has a Third of World’s Illiterates”, *The Times of India*:01.

² Urmi A Goswami, “Education-for-all a Dream as States Fail to Hire Teachers”, *The Economic Times* (23.06.04):10.

Since the government remains the main actor in the political and developmental scene at the national level, a central concern is the structuring and restructuring of relations between government and NGOs. Government and NGOs working together can accomplish more than they can separately and hence improve their own potential for development. The challenge facing us today is to bring about development that is responsive, accountable, equitable and sustainable. The steering capacity of the state is yet another vital and determining factor. The state should give NGOs the desired independence to evolve as independent entities. It is essential to ascertain the **role of the government** in the process of credibility building for NGOs. Voluntarism in NGOs should not come in the garb of exploitation.

The six NGOs surveyed by Shanti Jagannathan established that enhancing **access to schooling** is constrained more by a lack of good quality supply than lack of demand. The NGO experiences reveal that there is a strong latent demand for education even among the poor communities, and that poverty as a factor for low educational participation can be overcome with a responsive education system. MVF's communities not only withdrew their children from work, they also contributed in cash and kind to their children's schooling. Pratham found that even really poor parents such as pavement dwellers sent their children to school. Thus, while social mobilization can increase enrollments, the challenge is to retain children in school by making it interesting and worthwhile. The NGOs surveyed hold the view that financial incentives are really not required for improving enrollments and retention.

NGOs should be approached for a larger consultative role in the national agenda for elementary education. Presently, the collaboration is clearly weighted in favour of the Government. Successful NGO experiments should be replicated on larger scales by the government.

The NGO sector has developed and implemented **incipient concepts** such as multi-grade, multi-level teaching, child centered teaching-learning processes, and cognitive and non-cognitive attributes in children and integrated learning (across subjects). It is different from the strict progression in grades in the government schools. The government must replicate the success model of NGOs in regard to specific contexts.

Further, although the NGOs attempted to adhere to the Government prescribed Minimum Levels of Learning (MLL) in Grade V in order to enable the students to make a transition to the upper classes, the MLL tool was found to be ineffective in capturing all the dimensions of children's learning. The NCERT acknowledged for the first time that the Grades system need not be followed rigidly. Minimum Levels of Learning are also sought to be defined and made more flexible. The NCERT invited consultations with the NGOs in its initiative for revising the national curricular framework for the primary years.

The **school-community link** is considered indispensable and recognized as central by all the NGOs surveyed. The value of community participation is increasingly recognized by the Government. Communities and youth have been the backbone of the Total Literacy Campaigns. Wherever the Government took the initiative to establish a dialogue with the community, there was a strong response in favour of primary education. This is true of the Janmabhoomi program in Andhra Pradesh and the Lok Sampark Abhiyan in Madhya Pradesh, both of which are the Government initiatives for mass people contact. Youth groups have been a potent force in the work of all the NGOs. Pratham's young balwadi instructors function not only as teachers, but also as community mobilisers and community leaders. The NGOs opine that the community resources for primary education lie largely unexploited by the Government. The NGOs surveyed have mobilized significant financial and human resources from communities. This has been borne out in both rural and urban settings. The Parent-teacher associations have contributed funds for teachers salaries, school building, furniture etc. When a strong demand for schooling built up, the communities did not wait for the government to provide infrastructure support. They came forward to pay the teachers salaries and to expand school buildings.

As NGO mobilization brings an inflow of children into schools, the **government should back up** their efforts by providing timely classroom space and teachers. A strong policy thrust, combined with political will and resources are required to make elementary education universal. New directions and commitments to realize the goal of UEE are required. Related policies with a bearing on education should also be reviewed in order to strengthen the commitment for schooling. The Education Policy does not categorically

stress that children should not work. The non-formal stream of education proposed for working children has allowed them to continue working.

The Government is investing significant resources in **non-formal and alternative (education) schools**, with innovative curriculum, enhanced teacher training, progressive pedagogy, etc. Yet these schools are considered somewhat inferior to the formal schools – they receive less infrastructure support and teachers are less qualified. In addition, there is an ideological contradiction whereby the really deprived communities that benefit from such facilities are expected to contribute resources, whereas regular schools in better off locations are entirely funded by the government. What is really needed is “**non-formalisation**” of formal schools and making the education administration more flexible and responsive. Alternative schools require “formal” equivalence with regular schools.

The bigger NGOs need to build networks with others at all levels – National, State, district and below, not only for sharing and dissemination of experiences but also for potential joint action. Appropriate links with research institutions and universities as well as the private sector would also be useful for the NGOs to continually upgrade their technical competencies. The NGOs should seek to build a joint platform for effective dialogue with the Government to counteract the weak negotiating position that individual NGOs have in collaborating with the Government. Such a joint platform will also assist the NGOs to bring to bear the combined weight of their models and approaches on the larger elementary education scenario. Networking and concerted action with identified key partners will help the NGOs to move away from fragmented activities to collective advocacy and action.³

Moreover, voluntary agencies are not actually free to decide their priority because the funding agencies – whether they are international institutions or non-official foreign donors – bring the inevitable baggage of agenda set elsewhere.⁴ Effective networking would aid the NGOs in this arena as well.

³ Shanti Jagannathan, *The Role of Nongovernmental Organisations in Primary Education – A Study of Six NGOs in India*, Policy Research Working Paper WPS2530, World Bank Library, (31.01.2001).

⁴ Bidyut Chakrabarty, “Voluntary Associations and Development: The Indian Experience”, *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, vol. 01 (January-March 2004):378.

Norms for enhancing the **credibility of the voluntary sector** are essential. Norms viz. identity; vision, aims, objectives and achievements; governance; operations; accountability and transparency are “minimum” to ask for. “Desirable” norms give greater focus to governance, accountability and transparency. Governance norms may include (1) at least two-thirds of the members are not related by blood or marriage, (2) the board has a rotation policy for its members, (3) distribution of staff in the annual report should be in accordance with salary levels, and (4) details of national and international travel to be provided by all personnel along with designation and purpose. The good practices have been prepared by the Credibility Alliance group in respect to norms pertaining to (1) annual report, (2) personnel policy, and (3) accounting procedures.⁵

Asia Regional Workshop on constraints to successful NGO-GO collaboration primarily cites the following as responsible – lack of understanding of each other’s goals, lack of clear government policy and guidelines on NGOs, poor communication among NGOs and between NGOs and Government Organisations.⁶

Kamal Uddin Ahmed and Ehsaan Latif also opine that one of the most important reasons of poor performance of NGOs is that their activities are not complemented by activities of the government and international donors. NGOs have comparative advantage in small scale activities but to incorporate such micro level impact into broader macro context the big players like government and multilateral donors should come forward with pro poor strategies.⁷

It may be reasonable to say that the efforts of the previous decade, even if they may not have significantly contributed to a large scale decentralization of education, have nevertheless provided the vigour to explore and debate the question through an analysis of the governance functions, like funding, regulation and delivery on one hand, and the actors; the state, market and community on the other, thus restoring the link between development, pedagogy and educational practice. The stress on Panchayati Raj,

⁵ Mahi Pal, “Voluntary Sector and Credibility Issues”, *Economic and Political Weekly* (June 26, 2004): 2677-2679.

⁶ John Farrington, David J Lewis, S Satish and Teves Michlat edited, *NGOs and State in Asia – Rethinking Roles in Sustainable Agricultural Development*, New York: Routledge (1993):318.

⁷ Kamal Uddin Ahmed and Ehsan Latif, “NGOs in International Development: Policy Options and Strategies”, *BISS Journal*, vol. 19, no. 2 (1998):212-213.

community action, literacy campaigns and voluntary action provide hope that a renewed policy perspective, that goes beyond the issues of management and administration and focuses on questions like equity, local and global knowledge systems and cultural pluralism would locate decentralization within these bounds.⁸

Pratham provides formulae to NGOs for **strengthening ventures** designed in a collaborative mode:

- If you want to involve an institution or organisation, identify and activate volunteers for your cause inside the institution.
- Relying on an approach of inclusiveness and voluntarism pays. Allow partners to 'own' the programme rather than limit their role to some specific responsibilities. This helps not only in the qualitative improvement of the programme, but by ensuring partners' involvement in the whole process, creates a sense of joint ownership.
- Give enough space and opportunity to people to do things after their own style. This increases their sense of belonging and encourages efforts to find answers to specific problems.
- Implementing the fundamental right to education brings a responsibility on both government and citizens. Whether combative or cooperative, the framework of rights and responsibilities requires the active participation of the state and civil society.
- Working with the system calls for patience, discretion, self-control and trust. Lack of trust is the biggest hurdle in the way of a partnership between government and NGOs/volunteers. Building this trust is a basic requirement for collaboration.
- Working with communities demands a great deal from the formal school system and the government. It is, therefore, necessary to set in motion processes that contribute in harnessing community involvement in an effective manner.⁹

Another set of conclusions emerge from the slow progress of elementary education in India. The rationale and analysis of the reasons why the existing state-run system of education does not function are well known and often repeated. The World Bank (1997),

⁸ Vinod Raina, *Decentralisation of Education: Assessment Education For All*. Ministry of Human Resource Development and NIEPA (April 2000):17-18.

⁹ Sharda Jain and Sanju Sharma, "Pratham: Redefining a Societal Mission" in Vimala Ramachandran 'Getting Children Back to School - Case Studies in Primary Education', New Delhi: Sage Publications and London: Thousand Oaks (2003): 206-207.

in its study on primary education in India, highlights the following **specific challenges** that need to be taken to task for understanding the economic and social outcomes of primary education, improving access and efficiency, enhancing learning achievement, reducing the gaps in enrollment, retention and achievement, improving teachers performance, improving the quality of text books and the efficiency of production, building managerial and institutional capacity, and increasing financing for primary education.¹⁰

The educational administration at no level demands **accountability** from the school to ensure the regular attendance of children. Schooling of children belonging to marginalized groups requires ore sensitive and responsible functioning which could break barriers created by social positioning and economic disadvantage. Rigid and vertical linkages leading to a hierarchical chain of decision-making and reporting are typical features of schooling system. Horizontal linkages and a problem-solving approach are not encouraged which hampers initiatives at lower levels.

Also, the **employment linkages** of education, considered to be the most tangible benefit by poor parents, are perceived to be weak and in some cases, non-existent. Two factors contribute to this. One, all jobs in government and public sectors require at least secondary level education. Most poor families feel that they cannot afford the substantial investment of money and time required for this. A very high rate of failure at the secondary level examinations further dampens their motivation. The second factor is the widespread unemployment among educated youth, too visible to be ignored, making the message loud and clear – education in itself does not lead to *naukri*.¹¹ Creation of education-employment linkages can certainly go a long way in motivating the parents of underprivileged children to send them to school.

The challenge facing Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is to reach the **out-of-school children** and draw a proper plan of action, refined estimates of out-of-school children at micro-levels i.e. village and habitation levels need to be worked out and planning for ensuring upper primary education by 2007 would have to be followed-up. Another

¹⁰ Rekha Wazir, *The Gender Gap in Basic Education – NGOs as Change Agents*, New Delhi: Sage (2000): 226.

¹¹ Jyotsna Jha and Dhir Jhingran, *Elementary Education for the Poorest and Other Deprived Groups – The Real Challenge of Universalisation*. New Delhi: Centre for Policy Research (2002): 234 -236.

important aspect that needs serious attention is the social education of rural parents especially in respect to girls' enrollment. The macro-analysis of faster growth in girls' enrollment seems to be heavily weighed in favour of urban areas as the situation in rural areas is improving at a low rate.¹²

Although the government remains responsible for ensuring the universalisation of elementary education and is the largest provider of educational services, the experiences of NGOs are particularly valid for understanding the approach necessary to reach vulnerable groups.¹³

Compulsory education laws make it a duty of the government to provide the facilities and the means for children to be able to go to school. Had enough money been allotted for the purpose, then the regular surveys stipulated by the compulsory education laws would have been seriously conducted to identify children who should be in school; notices would have been issued to parents to inform them that a seat has been allotted to their child in a school. Schools at reasonable distances would have been provided staffed and suitably equipped. This would have been followed up by enquiries to ascertain whether the child is going to school, and, if not, the reasons for non-attendance would have been verified. Officers appointed for the purpose would have dealt with problems as soon as they occurred, and made it possible for the child to get education somehow, if not in a formal school.

Another basic problem is that the national government is busy chasing targets and, therefore, impatient with **context-specific issues**. The average number of teaching days is as low as 140 in many parts of the country, more so in schools that are away from the main road or those situated in slums in urban areas. Harvest, planning, rains, heat, cold and festivals – almost any reason is sufficient to close down the schools. Teachers – who do not want to teach and those on contract who have to teach realize that they not only manage different grades on one classroom but have to deal with tremendous diversity inside the classroom. First generation school-goers have little support at home while those with literate siblings or parent are able to cope better. Children from very

¹² *A Status and Evaluation Study of the Upper Primary Section of the Elementary Education System*. Study Sponsored by Planning Commission, Government of India, Pune: Indian Institute of Education, (October 2002): 21.

¹³ Jyotsna Jha and Dhir Jhingran, *Elementary Education for the Poorest and Other Deprived Groups – The Real Challenge of Universalisation*. New Delhi: Centre for Policy Research (2002): 03.

poor landless families miss school when their parents migrate for short periods. They find it difficult to manage their lessons when they return. The work burden of children before and after school - especially of girls - leave them exhausted inside the classroom. The SSA is one national programme that uses the rhetoric of decentralized planning, but the entire planning and appraisal process has converted it into one multiplication exercise – targets, unit costs, budgets. While some state governments have used DPEP and SSA funds judiciously to improve overall access and quality – the educationally backward states have done little. Universal elementary education is not a priority. It is more than apparent that while the educationally forward states may not require any handholding from Government of India, the backward states not only need continuous resource support but also need to be monitored far more closely. One all-India monitoring/appraisal mechanism will not do. The new government at the centre needs to review the SSA programmes like the National Programme for Girls Education at the Elementary Level (NPEGEL). Thorough reviews of working guidelines are necessary to ensure that there is scope to deal with region and context specific issues – in particular to acknowledge diversity and tailor the programme to meet the varying needs of such a vast and complex country. It may be recalled that the SSA programme and also the new NPEGEL programmes were introduced with little debate or participation of stakeholders. They remain top-down programmes introduced with little consultation from the Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE), state governments or the larger elementary education committee. Can the new government put it on its agenda of urgent issues to tackle?¹⁴

Interestingly, for the past decade, most states have consistently spent much less than what was allocated to them by the Centre under programmes like the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP), and Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. In 2003-04, the total **expenditure** for SSA by all the states was about Rs.3,600 crore against the planned expenditure of Rs.8,300 crore. In the past two years the funds released by the Centre to the ten educationally backward states have been only about 30 per cent of the total SSA allocations earmarked for them. The major reason for this has been the inability of many

¹⁴ Vimala Ramachandran, “Is Schooling for the Poor on the Government Agenda?”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. 39 no. 30 (24-30 July, 2002):3349-3350.

of them to undertake the entire range of planned activities resulting in fund under-utilisation. Allocation of more funds in this context would only increase the “burden of spending” on them. There are several reasons behind the same – in most educationally backward states, a large proportion of the funds are earmarked for salaries to teachers who are to be recruited for new schools or in schools where enrollments have shot up significantly. Since many of these states are unable to pay even existing salaries regularly, they are wary of appointing too many new ones. Secondly, the requirement of SSA that states contribute a part of the amount proposed to be spent weighs heavy on the state.

So, more crucial than additional resources is the need to ensure that funds are targeted based on the twin principles of, one, the actual need of each district, panchayat, village, and school and, two, preferential allocation for disadvantaged areas and groups.¹⁵

A focus on and **priority to disadvantaged areas and groups** would require planning and implementation processes and strategies that ensure a preferential allocation of funds, personnel and attention to such deprived pockets. In fact, these issues are mentioned only in the framework and have not been put at the forefront of the programme-implementation process in the initial stages of SSA as prerequisites for UEE, especially in educationally backward states and regions. Instead, the SSA planning and plan appraisal processes have stressed the inclusion of activities as per the standard list included in the guidelines and financial norms. This has resulted in the preparation of district perspective plans that have largely uniform interventions based on the “approved” SSA norm-based activities, and a focus on the quick ‘utilization’ of SSA funds. The state governments, where the real onus for reforms lies, also face genuine dilemmas on several counts. The choices between expanding the system through formal schools or flexible alternative schools, between placing local teachers expected to be more sensitive to local parents and children but who may not be pre-trained and regular, may not know the local language, but be pre-trained, between large scale campaigns and process-oriented, small-scale people’s mobilization programmes, and so on are not easy choices. However, what is worrying is that the choices are not made based on long-term vision but generally on short-term considerations and hence guided by immediate concerns. Also, many of the

¹⁵ Dhir Jhingran, “Cess appeal: Go Beyond It”, *The Indian Express* (12.07.04):08.

real constraints faced by poor and marginalized groups are really difficult to address for the education policy alone. However, they are not outside the realm of the State policies as a whole.¹⁶

Dhir Jhingran contends that after the launch of SSA, the debate has focused erroneously on the inadequate budgetary allocation for the scheme, detracting from the major issues that demand immediate attention. He cites four aspects that are crucial to any government effort to provide **quality basic education** to all children - evidence and norm-based planning and implementation, ensuring basic learning conditions in all schools, strong commitment to equity that is reflected in policies, fund allocation and implementation; and decentralization of decision-making and accountability at all levels, including schools.¹⁷

The exhaustive list of acts serves to emphasise the point that if legislation alone could have achieved universalisation of elementary education, India would have achieved UEE by now. In the context of realities of the lives of children of the poor, it would mean that a **follow-up legislation** should deal with more than just the provision of schooling facilities and incentives. Rather, it should concern itself with a large array of issues ranging from making schooling accessible and available, to making the contents and processes of education acceptable to all. It should make it a duty of the providers to find ways and means of making education more accessible and acceptable to all children.¹⁸

Raghavendra P. S and Narayana K.S. suggest that **legal provisions** are inadequate in educating the unlettered masses. Effective campaigns through the multi media should be carried out to create awareness and need for children's education. Both the parents and the state failing to honour the right of children to education should be brought to justice. There is need to make elementary education free in the private schools at least for the socially and economically disadvantaged in compliance with the constitutional obligation.¹⁹

¹⁶ Jyotsna Jha and Dhir Jhingran, *Elementary Education for the Poorest and Other Deprived Groups – The Real Challenge of Universalisation*, New Delhi: Centre for Policy Research, (2002): 247-248.

¹⁷ Dhir Jhingran, "Beyond Resources", *Seminar* 536 (April 2004):34-39.

¹⁸ Nalini Juneja, *Constitutional Amendment to make Education a Fundamental Right – Issues for a Follow-up Legislation*, NIEPA (March 2003): 51.

¹⁹ P.S. Raghavendra and K. S. Narayana, "Problems and Prospects of Elementary Education and Literacy in India", *Perspectives in Education* vol.20, no. 3 (2004): 157-158.

A Report on a workshop on ‘How social capital could aid rural development in Haryana’ highlighted the role of agency as very important in forming and activating the dormant **social capital**. In Haryana, various institutions and associations like the gram sabha (village assembly), mahila mandals, youth clubs, kisan clubs and parent–teacher associations and health committees have been in existence but they are not active. But in places where an NGO or an individual, acted as an Agency, these associations not only became vibrant, but also networked with each other and performed their work effectively. Interestingly, the created social capital has strengthened panchayati raj institutions also by inducting people’s participation, transparency and accountability in their functioning.²⁰

²⁰ Mahi Pal, “Role of Social Capital in Haryana”, *Economic and Political Weekly*, vol. 40 no. 9 (26 February – 4 March, 2005): 822-23.

ANNEXURE 01

TABLES

TABLE 1

Status of Compulsory Education in the World

No. of Countries Where Compulsion

Countries	Exists	Doesn't Exist	No Information
Africa	44	8	-
North America	23	2	-
South America	12	-	-
Asia	34	8	8
Europe	43	-	1
Oceania	5	5	-
Total	16	23	9

TABLE 2

List of Compulsory Education Acts

PRE-INDEPENDENCE

1. The Bombay Primary Education (District Municipalities) Act, 1917
2. The Bengal Primary Education Act, 1919
3. The Bihar and Orissa Primary Education Act, 1919
4. The Punjab Compulsory Education Act, 191
5. The United Provinces Primary Education Act, 1919
6. The Bombay city Primary Education Act, 1920
7. The Central Provinces Primary Education Act, 1920
8. The Madras Primary Education Act, 1920
9. The Patiala Primary Education Act, 1926
10. The Bikaner State Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1929
11. The Madras Primary Education Act, 1937
12. The Bombay City Primary Education (District Boards) Act, 1922
13. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923.
14. The Assam Primary Education Act, 1926
15. The U.P. (District Boards) Primary Education Act, 1926
16. The Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930
17. The (Jammu & Kashmir) Compulsory Education Act, 1934
18. The Bombay Primary Education (Amendment) Act, 1938
19. The Punjab Primary Education Act, 1940
20. The Mysore Elementary Education Act, 1941
21. The Travancore Primary Education Act, 1945

22. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947

POST INDEPENDENCE

1. The Assam Primary Education Act, 1947
2. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947
3. The Cochin Free Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1947
4. The Madhya Pradesh Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1950
5. The Ajmer Primary Education Act, 1952
6. The Madras Elementary Education Act, 1952
7. The Hyderabad Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1952
8. The Vindhya Pradesh Primary Education Act, 1952
9. The Himachal Pradesh Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1953
10. The Assam Basic Education Act, 1954
11. The PEPSU Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1954
12. The Bhopal State Compulsory Primary Education Act, 1956
13. The Madhya Pradesh Primary Education Act, 1956
14. The Saurashtra Primary Education Act, 1956
15. The Kerala Education Act, 1958
16. The Delhi Primary Education Act, 1960
17. The Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Act, 1961
18. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands (Primary Education) Regulation, 1959
19. The Mysore Compulsory Primary Education Acts, 1961
20. The Assam Elementary Education Act, 1962

TABLE 3

Data on Enforcement of Compulsory Education in India Since Independence - Number of Notices Issued: All India

YEARS	URBAN	RURAL	TOTAL
1949-50	209050	412791	6,21,841
1950-51	N.A.	N.A.	6,45,890
1951-52	N.A.	N.A.	5,91,793
1952-53	N.A.	N.A.	5,92,279
1953-54	N.A.	N.A.	6,18,447
1954-55	269770	356697	6,26,467
1955-56	N.A.	N.A.	6,87,421
1956-57	N.A.	N.A.	7,81,924
1957-58	N.A.	N.A.	6,68,496
1958-59	N.A.	N.A.	6,97,834
1959-60	N.A.	N.A.	6,29,149
1960-61	N.A.	N.A.	5,73,921
1961-62	N.A.	N.A.	5,15,768
1962-63	N.A.	N.A.	4,89,381
1963-64	283144	657378	9,40,522
1964-65	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1965-66	445871	870071	13,15,942
1966-67	123860	206015	3,29,875
1967-68	130682	581633	7,12,315
1968-69	230816	272326	5,03,142
1969-70	214526	298666	5,13,192
1970-71	183217	212087	3,95,304

Compiled from Education in India (1949-50 to 1970-71) Ministry of Education, Govt. of India.

Source: Juneja (1996)

TABLE 4

Data on Enforcement of Compulsory Education in India Since Independence - Number of Prosecutions – Fines Released (Rs.): All India

YEARS	URBAN	RURAL	TOTAL (Rs.)
1949-50	8455	37437	45,892
1950-51	N.A.	N.A.	40,575
1951-52	N.A.	N.A.	42,110
1952-53	N.A.	N.A.	37,651
1953-54	N.A.	N.A.	29,259
1954-55	7921	17037	24,958
1955-56	N.A.	N.A.	23,629
1956-57	N.A.	N.A.	20,785
1957-58	N.A.	N.A.	31,881
1958-59	N.A.	N.A.	14,483
1959-60	N.A.	N.A.	12,932
1960-61	N.A.	N.A.	26,534
1961-62	N.A.	N.A.	18,068
1962-63	N.A.	N.A.	8,880
1963-64	2861	8007	10,868
1964-65	3629	8151	11,780
1965-66	1056	2962	4,018
1966-67	9366	2037	11,403
1967-68	951	2159	3,110
1968-69	1034	1593	2,627
1969-70	912	1420	2,332
1970-71	672	1647	2,319

Compiled from Education in India (1949-50 to 1970-71) Ministry of Education, Govt. of India.

Source: Juneja (1996)

TABLE 5

Increase in Pupils in the Age Group 6-14 and Number of Institutions Imparting Education During the First Five Year Plan Period

	1950-51	1955-56	Percentage Increase
PUPILS			
6-11 years	18,680,000	24,812,000	32.3
11-14 years	3,370,000	5,095,000	50.3
6-14 years	22,050,000	22,907,000	35.6
INSTITUTIONS			
Primary/Junior Basic schools	209,671	277,197	32.2
Middle/Senior Basic schools	13,596	21,702	59.6

The Real Challenge of Universalisation by Jyotsana Jha and Dhir Jhingran,
Centre for Policy Research, New Delhi, 2002.

TABLE 6

Expansion of Elementary Education and Plan Targets

AGE GROUP ELEMENTARY (6-14)	1960-61		1965-66		1968-69		1973-74 (Target)	
	Enrollment in Lakh	% of age group	Enrollment in Lakh	% of age group	Enrollment in Lakh	% of age group	Enrollment in Lakh	% of age group
BOYS	286.6	65.2	398.6	78.5	436.8	78.0	534.4	83.7
GIRLS	130.3	30.9	211.4	43.0	240.8	44.7	332.4	55.1
TOTAL	416.9	48.7	610.0	61.0	677.6	61.7	866.8	69.8

TABLE 7

Literacy Rate (%) **

Year	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971	1981	1991	2001*
Persons	5.4	5.9	7.2	9.5	16.1	18.3	28.3	34.5	43.6	52.2	65.4
Male	9.8	10.6	12.2	15.6	24.9	27.2	40.4	46.0	56.4	64.1	75.8
Female	0.6	1.0	1.8	2.9	7.3	8.9	15.3	22.0	29.8	39.3	54.2

* Source: Provisional Population Totals, Census of India 2001

**Literacy rates for 1901-1941 relate to crude literacy i.e. literacy rates of the entire population.

Literacy rates for 1951, 1961, 1971 censuses relate to population aged five years and above.

Literacy rates for 1981, 1991, 2001 relate to population aged seven years and above.

TABLE 8

Reasons For Children Not Attending School (Percentage of Children of 6-17 years Who Have Dropped Out Of School)

Main reason for not currently attending school (dropped-out-of-school)	Urban		Rural		Total	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
School too far away	0.2	1.0	1.0	5.9	0.8	4.8
Transport not available	0.1	0.2	0.4	1.6	0.3	1.3
Further education not considered necessary	2.4	5.4	2.3	4.3	2.4	4.5
Required for household work	5.7	14.7	8.7	17.3	8.0	16.7
Required for work on farm/family business	4.7	1.6	9.2	2.9	8.0	2.6
Required for outside work for payment in cash or kind	11.3	3.0	9.9	3.7	10.3	3.5
Costs too much	15.2	17.0	13.3	11.4	13.8	12.6
No proper school facilities for girls	0.0	1.2	0.0	3.5	0.0	3.0
Required for care of siblings	0.2	1.5	0.6	2.3	0.5	2.2
Not interested in studies	42.5	30.2	40.0	24.8	40.6	26.0
Repeated failures	6.0	6.1	5.3	3.7	5.5	4.2
Got married	0.1	4.9	0.2	8.5	0.2	7.7
Other	5.8	8.2	5.3	6.2	5.5	6.6
Don't know	5.7	5.1	3.8	4.0	4.2	4.2
Total Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of children	1,852	1,747	5,475	6,121	7,327	7,868.

TABLE 9

Growth of Schools, 1950-51 to 2000-01

YEAR	AT PRIMARY LEVEL
1950-51	15 million
1960-61	30 million
1970-71	50 million
1980-81	70 million
1990-91	85 million
2000-01	105 million

YEAR	AT UPPER PRIMARY LEVEL
1950-51	05 million
1960-61	10 million
1970-71	15 million
1980-81	20 million
1990-91	30 million
2000-01	40 million

TABLE 10

Gross Enrollment Ratios

Year	ELEMENTARY (I – VIII)		
	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
1950-51	46.4	17.7	32.1
1960-61	65.2	30.9	48.7
1970-71	75.5	44.4	61.9
1980-81	82.2	52.1	67.5
1990-91	100.0	70.8	86.0
2000-01	90.3	72.4	81.6
2001-02	90.7	73.6	82.4

TABLE 11

Drop-out Rates at Primary and Elementary stages (In Percentage)

	1960-61	1970-71	1980-81	1990-91	2001-02
Classes I – V					
Boys	61.7	64.5	56.2	40.1	38.4
Girls	70.9	70.9	62.5	46.0	39.9
Total	64.9	67.0	58.7	42.6	39.0
Classes I – VIII					
Boys	75.0	74.6	68.0	59.1	52.9
Girls	85.0	83.4	79.4	65.1	56.9
Total	78.3	77.9	72.7	60.9	54.6

TABLE 12

Why Children Drop-Out.

	BOYS (%)	GIRLS (%)
CIRCUMSTANCES WHEREBY CHILDREN DROP-OUT		
Not allowed by school/teachers to continue	5	2
Child did not wish to continue	35	16
Withdrawn by parents	47	66
Other Circumstances	13	16
Total	100	100
Circumstances whereby parents withdraw		
Child needed for other activities	50	68
Schooling is too expensive	54	29
School is too far	0	6
Poor teaching standards at school	8	18
Hostile school environment	4	6
Child fell ill	4	9
Child is not bright enough	0	6
Child is not interested in studying	8	6
Parents are not interested	8	27
Other reasons	8	22

Source: PROBE Survey

TABLE 13

Literacy Rates and No. of Primary Schools (1951-2001)

Year	Literacy (%)			No. of Schools	
	Persons	Male	Female	Primary	Upper Primary
1951	18.33	27.16	8.86	215036	14,576
1961	28.31	40.40	15.34	351,530	55,915
1971	34.45	45.95	21.97	417,473	93,665
1981	43.56	56.37	29.75	503,763	122,377
1991	52.21	64.13	39.29	566,744	155,926
2001	65.37	75.85	5.16	641,695	198,004

Source: Education For All – National Plan of Action,

TABLE 14

Teachers by Type of Schools (In '000)

Year	PRIMARY			UPPER PRIMARY		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1950-51	456	82	538	73	13	86
1960-61	615	127	742	262	83	345
1970-71	835	225	1060	463	175	638
1980-81	1021	342	1363	598	253	851
1990-91	1143	473	1616	717	356	1073
2000-01	1221	675	1896	820	506	1326
2001-02	1213	715	1928	547	1468	1157

TABLE 15

Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR)

YEAR	PRIMARY	UPPER PRIMARY
1950-51	24	20
1960-61	36	31
1970-71	39	32
1980-81	38	33
1990-91	43	37
2000-01	43	38
2001-02	43	34

TABLE 16

Inter Sectoral Allocation of Plan Expenditure in Education in the Five Year Plans in India
(Rs. In crores)

Five Year Plan	Elementary*	Adult	Secy	Higher	Technical	Grand Total	% of Total Plan Outlay
First	85	5	20	14	20	153	7.86
	(56)	(3)	(13)	(9)	(13)	(100)	
Second	95	4	51	48	49	273	3.83
	(35)	(1)	(19)	(18)	(18)	(100)	
Third	201	2	103	87	125	589	6.87
	(34)	(0.3)	(18)	(15)	(21)	(100)	
Annual plans **	75	...	53	77	81	322	4.86
	(24)		(16)	(24)	(25)	(100)	
Fourth	239	6	140	195	106	786	5.04
	(30)	(1)	(18)	(25)	(13)	(100)	
Fifth	317	33	156	205	107	912	3.27
	(35)	(4)	(17)	(22)	(12)	(100)	
Sixth	883	156	736	530	324	2943	2.70
	(30)	(3)	(25)	(18)	(11)	(100)	
Seventh	2849	470	1829	1201	1083	8500	3.50
	(34)	(6)	(22)	(14)	(12)	(100)	
Annual Plans	1734	376	1079	595	848	5318	4.20
	(33)	(7)	(20)	(11)	(16)	(100)	
Eighth	8936	1808	3498	1516	2786	21217	4.90
	(42)	(8)	(16)	(7)	(13)	(100)	
Ninth Plan	27363	1102	9526	4350	4778	52524	6.20
	(51)	(2)	(18)	(8)	(9)	(100)	

Note: * includes pre school education;
..Negligible; E: estimates by the Planning Commission
Totals may not add up, as totals include expenditure on other programs such as art & culture, youth services etc.
** 1965-66 to 1967-68 (three years);
Source: Five Year Plan (s), Annual Plans (s), Analysis of Annual Plan, Education Sector (various years), Economic Survey, and the report of the NDC Committee on Literacy, Planning Commission, New Delhi.

TABLE 17

Financial Allocation in the Plans for Elementary Education (In percentage)

First Plan (1951-56)	Second Plan (1956-61)	Third Plan (1961-66)	Fourth Plan (1969-74)	Fifth Plan (1974-1979)	Sixth Plan (1980-85)	Seventh Plan (1985-90)	1990-92	Eighth Plan (1992-97)	Ninth Plan (1997-2002)	Ninth Plan (1997-2002)	Tenth Plan (2002-2007)
58	35	34	50.0	52	32	37	37	48	66	65.7	65.6

*Five Year Plan Documents, Planning Commission and Analysis of Budget Expenditure, Ministry of HRD.

TABLE 18

Share of Education in GNP (%)

YEARS	%	YEARS	%	YEARS	%
1950-51	1.2	1970-71	2.7	1990-91	3.4
1951-52	1.2	1971-72	2.8	1991-92	3.2
1952-53	1.4	1972-73	2.8	1992-93	3.2
1953-54	1.4	1973-74	2.6	1993-94	3.0
1954-55	1.6	1974-75	2.5	1994-95	3.0
1955-56	1.8	1975-76	2.8	1995-96	3.0
1956-57	1.7	1976-77	2.8	1996-97	3.0
1957-58	1.9	1977-78	2.8	1997-98	3.6
1958-59	1.9	1978-79	2.9	1998-99	3.9
1959-60	2.0	1979-80	2.9	1999-00 R	4.5
1960-61	2.1	1980-81	2.8	2000-01	4.2
1961-62	2.3	1981-82	3.1		
1962-63	2.4	1982-83	2.9		
1963-64	2.3	1983-84	2.8		
1964-65	2.2	1984-85	2.9		
1965-66	2.4	1985-86	3.0		
1966-67	2.4	1986-87	3.1		
1967-68	2.4	1987-88	3.3		
1968-69	2.5	1988-89	3.3		
1969-70	2.6	1989-90	3.5		

Note: 1984-85 onwards government expenditure only

R: revised estimate B: Budget Estimate

Source: upto 1983-84, based on Education in India, (various years)

After 1983-84, based on *Analysis of Budgeted Expenditure on education and selected Educational Statistics*.

GNP: New Series, Economic Survey 2001-02 and 2002-03

p. 62, Tilak

TABLE 19**Block-wise Consolidated Scenario in Gurgaon**

District: Gurgaon

Name of the Block	Social Group	Children in the target group age: 5+ to 14 years														
		Total Children			In school			Out of School								
								Non- Starters			Drop - out			Total		
		B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
Farrukh Nagar	SC	2413	2064	4467	2123	1893	4016	38	35	73	152	136	288	190	171	361
	BC	5015	4831	9846	4770	3882	8652	27	26	53	108	104	212	135	139	274
	Gen	2806	2085	4891	2719	2007	4726	17	15	32	70	63	133	87	78	165
	Total	10234	8980	19214	9612	7782	17394	82	76	158	330	303	633	412	388	800
Sohna	SC	4635	3857	8492		3434	7709	150	219	369	200	204	404	350	423	773
	BC	10271	8072	18343	9605	7097	16702	336	578	914	330	339	669	666	917	1583
	Gen	5992	4665	10657	5909	4525	10434	102	119	221	60	84	144	162	203	365
	Total	20898	16594	37492	19789	15056	34845	588	916	1504	590	627	1217	1178	1543	2721
Gurgaon	SC	7159	6032	13191	6787	5681	12468	76	70	146	306	281	587	382	351	733
	BC	11340	9145	20485	10903	8727	19630	86	82	168	351	336	687	437	418	855
	Gen	16790	14173	30963	16365	13769	30134	85	80	165	340	324	664	425	404	829
	Total	35289	29350	64639	34055	28177	62232	247	232	479	997	941	1938	1244	1173	2417
Pataudi	SC	4583	3740	8323	5455	4510	9965	45	47	92	177	191	368	222	238	460
	BC	7769	6449	14218	11073	9149	20222	29	32	61	119	128	247	148	160	308
	Gen	8046	6533	14579	10710	8697	19407	165	65	230	654	254	908	819	319	1138
	Total	20398	16722	37120	27238	22356	49594	239	144	383	950	573	1523	1189	717	1906

Punhana	SC	1703	1341	3044	1080	707	1787	367	378	745	256	256	512	623	634	1257
	BC	25466	19790	45256	14393	7609	22002	9541	9755	19296	1532	2426	3958	11073	12181	23254
	Gen	614	590	1204	570	535	1105	25	20	45	19	35	54	44	55	99
	Total	27783	21721	49504	16043	8851	24894	9933	10153	20086	1807	2717	4524	11740	12870	24610
Taoru	SC	2737	2425	5162	2476	1923	4399	168	302	470	95	200	295	263	502	765
	BC	9928	7897	17825	8026	4837	12863	995	2078	3073	907	982	1889	1902	3060	4962
	Gen	2404	1557	3961	1349	1393	3742	23	75	98	32	89	121	55	164	219
	Total	15069	11879	26948	12851	8153	21004	1186	2455	3641	1034	1271	2305	2220	3720	5946
Nuh	SC	2191	1536	3727	1967	1325	3292	184	195	379	40	16	56	224	211	435
	BC	24198	17349	41547	18208	10018	28226	3456	3671	7127	2534	3660	6194	5990	7331	13321
	Gen	3134	2386	5520	3072	2325	5397	28	25	53	34	36	70	62	61	123
	Total	29523	21271	50794	23247	13668	36915	3668	3891	7559	2608	3712	6320	6276	7603	16879
Nagina	SC	1474	1265	2739	942	725	1667	220	219	439	312	321	633	532	540	1072
	BC	16342	122001	28343	10019	5079	15098	3045	3798	6843	3278	3124	6402	6323	6922	13245
	Gen	642	481	1123	525	383	908	92	37	129	25	61	86	117	98	215
	Total	18458	13747	32205	11486	6187	17673	3357	4054	7411	3615	3506	7121	6972	7560	14532
Firozpur Jhirka	SC	1981	1648	3629	1318	908	2226	423	390	813	240	340	580	663	730	1393
	BC	15302	11244	26546	9780	4317	14097	3319	4324	7643	2203	2603	4806	5522	6927	12449
	Gen	726	583	1309	653	512	1165	30	20	50	43	48	91	73	68	141
	Total	18009	13475	31484	11751	5737	17488	3772	4734	8506	2486	2991	5477	6258	7725	13983
TOTAL	SC	28876	28876	23908	52784	26423	21106	47529	1671	1855	3526	1778	1945	3723	3449	3800
	BC	125629	125631	96778	222409	96777	60715	157492	20834	24344	45178	11362	13702	25064	32196	38055
	Gen	41156	41154	33053	74207	42872	34146	77018	567	456	1023	1277	994	2271	1844	1450
	Total	195661	195661	153739	349400	166072	115967	282039	23072	26655	49727	14417	16641	31058	37489	43305

TABLE 20**Enrollment in Primary and Middle Stages (in lakhs)**

Year	Primary (I-V)		Middle (VI-VIII)	
	Total Enrollment	Percentage of Girls	Total Enrollment	Percentage of Girls
1970-71	8.59	28.9	3.36	21.4
1980-81	12.45	33.9	4.77	26.4
1990-91	16.15	44.3	7.26	36.9
2001-02	19.71	47.1	9.89	44.9

Source: Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education, Haryana, 2003

TABLE 21**Number of Primary, Middle, High and Senior Secondary Schools**

Year	Pre-Primary	Primary	Middle	High	Sr. Secondary	Total
1966-67	3	4447	735	597	--	5832
1970-71	3	4204	760	869	106	5942
1980-81	27	4934	881	1367	106	7315
1990-91	27	5109	1399	2022	334	8891
2001-02	27	11208	2170	3116	1378	17899

Source: Directorate of Primary and Secondary Education, Haryana, 2002.

TABLE 22

Schools Having Ancillary Facilities

%age of Schools Having Ancillary Facilities	Stage		Drinking Water	Urinal	Separate Urinal for girls	Lavatory	Separate lavatory for girls
	Primary	India	44.23	18.93	08.66	10.86	05.12
		<i>Haryana</i>	<i>76.95</i>	<i>56.30</i>	<i>27.10</i>	<i>15.77</i>	<i>08.72</i>
	Upper Primary	India	63.47	48.44	31.54	29.88	17.17
<i>Haryana</i>		<i>92.56</i>	<i>88.24</i>	<i>72.08</i>	<i>43.27</i>	<i>30.02</i>	

TABLE 23

Literacy Rate as per 2001 Census

	Total	Male	Female
Rural	63.65	57.79	82.42
Male	77.11	73.23	89.53
Female	48.29	40.22	74.27

Literate Persons in District

	Total	Male	Female
Rural	845103	545481	299622
Male	584943	394512	190431
Female	260160	150969	109191

TABLE 24

Number of Out of School and Working Children in Gurgaon

District Gurgaon	No. of Out of School Children in the Age Group		No. of Working Children					
			Agriculture	Industries	Service	Shop	Others	Total
	5 to 10	52,780	7,917			18,473	26,390	52,780
	11 to 14	35,872	23,316	1,793		5,380	5,383	35,872

TABLE 25

Number of Schools in Gurgaon

Block	Primary		Middle		High		Sr. Secondary	
	Govt.	Aided	Govt.	Aided	Govt.	Aided	Govt.	Aided
Gurgaon	75	8	15		19		16	
Farrukh Nagar	63		11		5	2		
Firoz Pur Jhirka	86		9		7			
Manesar	70	1	3		3	2		
Pataudi	78		16		14	7	6	
Sohna	86		7		22	5		
Nuh	134		11		10	3		
Taoru	87		13		7	1		
Nagina	90		10		7	1		
Punhana	116		10		10	7		
Total	885	9	105	0	104	28	22	0

Source: District education Officer, Gurgaon.

TABLE 26

Teachers Position in Gurgaon District

Block	Primary		Upper Primary		Total
	Sanctioned	In position	Sanctioned	In position	
Gurgaon	512	390	463	434	975
Sohna	328	244	327	310	655
Pataudi	359	233	394	336	753
Nagina	292	163	184	121	476
Nuh	510	282	232	153	742
Tauru	316	211	233	194	549
Farukhnagar	201	180	247	207	518
Punhana	438	167	203	143	641
Firozpur Jhirka	271	134	267	223	538
Total	3297	2004	2550	2121	5847

Teachers in position as on 31.3.03

	Sanctioned post	Overall (Working)			SC (working)		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Government (Primary)	3182	1179	1172	2351			
Govt. (Upper Primary)	2550	1644	705	2349			
Aided Primary		94	60	154			
Aided Upper Primary	18	6	12	18			

TABLE 27

Villages of Gurgaon District where Adi Gram Samiti is Functional

Village	Minority Community	General	SC	ST
Salamba	25	-		
Salamba	25	-		
Bajhera	11	8	5	1
Pinugua	21		1	3
Sikrawa	21		4	
Firozpur Namak	25			
Jaisingpur	23		2	
Rithora	25			
Bhopwali	24			1
Khera Khalilpur	25			
Nangla	25			
Bajhera	23	1	1	
Sultapur	25			
Bibipur	25			
Sanghail	8		19	
Nagina	23		1	1
Marora	25			
Hawa nagar	22		2	1
Marora	25			
Nangla	22			3
Alalpur	23		1	1
Gundwas	25			
Chilawali	25			
Khera Khalilpur	24			1
Total	570	9	36	12

Source: Adi Gram Samiti

TABLE 28

NGOs Perception of their Role vis-à-vis the Government

<i>Perceived Role</i>	<i>Number of NGOs</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Assist	47	62.7
Intervene	47	62.7
Innovate	42	56
Neglected Areas	38	50.7

TABLE 29

Focus Areas of NGOs in Basic Education

<i>Focus Area</i>	<i>Number of NGOs</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Mobilising community	60	80
Imparting literacy	54	72
Enhancing quality	49	65
Training Teachers	34	45
Providing additional facilities	33	44
Providing teaching- learning material	24	32

Elementary Education: Report Card - Haryana

STATE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION REPORT CARD : 2001-02												
State	HARYANA		Code	06	Primary cycle	1 - 5	Upper primary cycle	6 - 8	DPEP Districts **	7		
Population, literacy and access to elementary education												
Number of blocks/taluks	55		Number of CRC's	536		Number of villages	3,347		Primary school pop.(in 000's)	1177.4		
Number of schools	5,681		EGS/AS schools			EGS/AS enrolment						
Key data: elementary education (2001-02)												
School category	Total schools*		Rural schools*		Total enrolment*		Rural enrolment*		Teachers*			
	Govt.	Private	Govt.rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private	Govt. rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private		
Primary only	3,881	11	3,690	9	696,518	2,037	656,206	1,266	14,810	35		
Primary with upper primary	70	12	67	9	28,515	2,281	25,626	1,682	487	27		
Primary with upper primary & sec/higher sec.	23	11	22	5	11,061	3,208	10,613	987	170	49		
Upper primary only	638	3	620	3	71,997	309	69,744	309	2,512	3		
Upper primary with sec./higher secondary	775	5	744	2	127,091	784	118,359	195	3,915	21		
Performance indicators (2001-02)												
	Enrolment*					Enrolment of SC/ST						
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec	Grade	2001-02			Primary	U. Prim	
% Single classroom schools	2.9	3.7	0.0	1.1	1.2	I	147,825	% SC enrolment		31.8	23.5	
% Single teacher schools	8.4	1.2	0.0	6.1	0.5	II	146,029	% SC girls to SC enrolment		47.4	42.5	
% Schools with SCR > 60	21.8	56.1	52.9	3.9	11.5	III	144,688	% ST enrolment		0.1	0.4	
% Schools with pre-primary	2.4	0.0	5.9	0.0	0.0	IV	154,989	% ST girls to ST enrolment		80.1	47.8	
% Schools with common toilets	76.7	84.1	88.2	67.7	67.6	V	136,515	Enrolment of children with disability				
% Schools with girls toilets	53.2	59.8	61.8	68.3	75.4	VI	83,746			Boys	Girls	
% Enrolment in Govt. schools	99.5	92.6	74.4	98.4	98.9	VII	68,083	Primary		3,279	2,045	
% Enrolment in schools with SCR > 60	34.5	72.8	69.9	8.4	18.8	VIII	65,128	Upper primary		828	580	
% Enrolment in single teacher schools	4.1	1.0	0.0	2.5	0.4	Pr.	730,046	Total		4,107	2,625	
% No female teacher schools (tch>=2)	37.9	30.5	20.6	51.3	49.2	U.Prim	216,957					
% Enrolment in schools without buildings	0.4	2.3	0.0	0.8	0.2	Examination results (Previous academic year)						
% Enrolment in schools without blackboard	3.2	5.7	4.2	3.2	4.9			V boys	V girls	VIII boys	VIII girls	
% Underage & overage grade I (<5 & >6)	15.1	7.5	10.4	0.0	0.0	% Passed		91.06	92.02	73.34	72.27	
Indicators (2001-02)												
	School category					Incentives : Number of beneficiaries (Previous academic year)						
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec	Primary		Upper primary				
% Girls	48.9	37.9	36.1	49.0	46.2	Boys		Girls		Boys	Girls	
Pupil teacher ratio (PTR)	46.7	58.1	62.6	27.6	31.7	Text books		241,068		218,494	10,183	9,490
Student classroom ratio (SCR)	43.2	74.6	63.4	23.3	27.2	Uniform		2,374		63,910	1,562	6,460
% Schools with <=50 students	7.7	11.0	11.8	0.0	0.0	Attendance		6,188		49,004	19,165	16,785
% Schools with PTR > 100	5.7	13.4	11.8	1.6	1.8	Stationery		62,470		60,424	15,456	11,934
% Female teachers	35.9	34.6	42.9	18.7	21.4							
% Schools established since 1995*	9.4	17.1	17.6	38.8	14.6							
Classrooms/Other rooms (2001-02)												
School category	Classrooms					No. of schools by type of building*						
	Total classrooms	% good condition	% minor repair	% major repair	Other rooms	Pucca	Partially Pucca	Kuccha	Tent	Multiple Type	No	
Primary only	16,169	69.9	20.9	9.1	1,649	3,829	1	0	0	12	24	
Primary with upper primary	413	70.3	17.2	12.5	29	76	0	0	0	0	5	
Primary with U.P. & sec/higher	225	75.8	11.5	12.7	11	33	0	0	0	0	0	
Upper primary only	3,098	72.4	19.5	8.1	452	629	0	0	1	1	7	
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	4,703	72.5	20.8	6.7	645	764	1	0	0	3	5	
Position of teachers by educational qualification (other than para teacher) (2001-02)												
School category									%Tch trained (in-service)			
	Below secondary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post graduate	M. Phil.	Others	No response	Male	Female		
Primary only	2,713	4,794	2,129	2,554	1,025	15	33	1,480	67.8	71.0		
Primary with upper primary	103	82	67	123	80	1	3	51	38.4	46.6		
Primary with Upper primary & sec/higher sec	29	29	34	65	41	0	0	21	33.6	42.6		
Upper primary only	141	286	150	739	651	13	10	514	2.4	1.1		
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	93	415	239	1,238	1,030	21	19	864	1.5	2.4		
Para teachers	11	20	45	36	19	1	0	2				
Gender and caste distribution of teachers (2001-02)												
School category	Regular teachers			Para teachers			SC teachers		ST teachers			
	Total	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Primary only	14,845	8,295	5,288	1,160	68	34	0	1,577	278	79	32	
Primary with upper primary	514	302	178	30	4	0	0	35	12	9	1	
Primary with Upper primary & sec/higher sec	219	116	94	9	0	0	0	15	3	6	0	
Upper primary only	2,515	1,600	467	437	8	3	0	146	28	13	2	
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	3,936	2,296	839	784	12	5	0	143	35	10	3	
Enrolment by medium of instructions (2001-02)												
School category	Total enrolment*	Hindi	Others	French	Garro							
Primary only	566597	561491	4578	528	0							
Primary with upper primary	22074	21970	104	0	0							
Primary with U.P. & sec/higher	11247	11247	0	0	0							
Upper primary only	56287	54098	2189	0	0							
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	102453	101281	1020	0	152							
Grand total	758658	750087	7891	528	152							

= not applicable. na = not available * Some totals may not match due to no response in classificatory data items

STATE ELEMENTARY EDUCATION REPORT CARD : 2002-03											
State	HARYANA	Code	06	Primary cycle	1 - 5	Upper primary cycle	6 - 8	Total Districts	19	Dist. Covered	9
Data reported from											
Number of blocks/taluks	71	Number of CRC's	591	Number of villages	4,402	Number of schools	7,366				
Basic data : 2001											
Total Population in (000's)	21,083	Decadal growth rate	28.06	% Urban population	29.00	% 0 - 6 Population	15.46				
Sex ratio	861	Overall literacy rate	68.6	Male literacy rate	79.3	Female literacy rate	56.3				
Key data: elementary education (2002-03)											
School category	Total schools*		Rural schools*		Total enrolment*		Rural enrolment*		Teachers*		
	Govt.	Private	Govt.rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private	Govt. rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private	
Primary only	4,877	45	4,530	30	863,250	6,208	795,762	4,123	18,247	208	
Primary with upper primary	117	44	101	34	30,769	10,858	26,645	9,078	699	400	
Primary with upper primary & sec/higher sec.	76	101	60	41	24,845	43,185	16,134	13,348	643	1,296	
Upper primary only	670	6	645	5	73,854	604	70,929	551	2,795	30	
Upper primary with sec./higher secondary	1,140	17	1,071	8	205,931	3,459	187,874	1,680	6,652	95	
No response	272	1	38	1	5,919	58	4,580	58	134	4	
Total	7,152	214	6,445	119	1,204,568	64,372	1,101,924	28,838	29,170	2,033	
Performance indicators (2002-03)											
	School category						Enrolment*		Enrolment of SC/ST		
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec		Grade	2002-03	Primary	U. Prim	
% Single classroom schools	5.4	2.5	2.3	4.9	1.0	I	206,076	% SC enrolment	32.3	24.6	
% Single teacher schools	9.0	1.9	0.6	5.9	0.7	II	185,891	% SC girls to SC enrolment	47.1	43.7	
% Schools with SCR > 60	21.9	26.1	11.9	5.0	8.1	III	183,212	% ST enrolment	0.3	0.4	
% Schools with pre-primary	34.8	27.3	31.1	0.0	0.0	IV	179,828	% ST girls to ST enrolment	52.2	50.3	
% Schools with common toilets	77.7	80.1	65.0	68.2	65.9	V	178,800	Enrolment of children with disability			
% Schools with girls toilets	58.4	75.8	92.1	79.4	82.7	VI	127,953				
% Schools with drinking water facility	89.8	89.4	93.8	90.1	92.6	VII	103,945	Boys	Girls		
% Enrolment in schools with SCR > 60	34.7	38.1	11.4	8.1	12.4	VIII	103,235	Primary	4,631	2,813	
% Enrolment in single teacher schools	4.0	0.9	0.1	3.5	0.4	Pr.	933,807	Upper primary	1,272	889	
% No female teacher schools (tch>=2)	32.6	32.9	21.5	39.1	36.0	U.Prim	335,133	Total	5,903	3,702	
% Enrolment in schools without buildings	0.9	1.8	0.0	0.9	0.5	Examination results (Previous academic year)					
% Enrolment in schools without blackboard	3.7	4.2	1.3	3.7	6.1						
% Underage & overage grade I (<5 & >6)	17.6	14.1	14.3	0.0	0.0						
% Enrolment in Govt. schools	98.8	73.9	34.9	98.7	97.6						
							% Passed	V Boys	V Girls	VIII Boys	VIII Girls
							% Passed with >60%	90.82	91.53	72.45	72.87
								33.27	33.73	17.47	18.82
Indicators (2002-03)											
	School category						Incentives : Number of beneficiaries (Previous academic year)				
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec		Primary		Upper primary		
% Girls enrolment	48.4	35.0	43.4	51.7	46.5	Type of Incentive	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
Pupil teacher ratio (PTR)	47	38	34	26	31	Text books	306,485	282,429	12,915	12,852	
Student classroom ratio (SCR)	46	51	36	29	28	Uniform	2,443	109,690	2,214	17,106	
% Schools with <=50 students	10.1	24.8	25.4	0.0	0.0	Attendance	8,309	94,710	31,603	35,397	
% Schools with PTR > 100	4.3	6.2	2.8	1.2	1.9	Stationery	108,063	103,704	22,313	23,295	
% Female teachers	41.5	31.5	57.7	27.0	28.0						
% Schools established since 1995*	9.4	36.6	23.7	38.6	16.5						
Classrooms/Other rooms (2002-03)											
School category	Classrooms					No. of schools by type of building*					
	Total classrooms	% good condition	% minor repair	% major repair	Other rooms	Pucca	Partially Pucca	Kuccha	Tent	Multiple Type	No Building
Primary only	18,759	70.3	20.7	9.0	3,923	4,272	42	397	18	27	70
Primary with upper primary	825	77.2	16.1	6.7	214	146	4	0	1	2	4
Primary with U.P. & sec/higher	1,919	90.9	4.9	4.2	586	150	5	3	0	1	2
Upper primary only	2,565	71.6	20.4	8.0	987	606	0	9	1	3	9
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	7,482	68.1	22.6	9.3	2,489	1,015	2	89	0	4	10
Position of teachers by educational qualification (other than para teacher) (2002-03)											
School category	Below secondary								% Teachers trained (in-service)		
	Secondary	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post graduate	M. Phil.	Others	No response	Male	Female	All Tch.	
Primary only	3,675	5,313	2,640	3,458	1,571	29	42	1,661	71.5	65.5	68.8
Primary with upper primary	96	113	122	357	244	12	11	139	14.6	9.6	12.9
Primary with U.P. & sec/higher	35	249	130	713	518	13	2	272	5.0	1.3	2.5
Upper primary only	159	391	186	820	821	11	19	408	2.4	2.0	2.3
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	261	796	417	2,020	1,925	36	49	1,216	2.2	1.9	2.1
Para teachers	17	10	26	31	27	2	0	3			
Gender and caste distribution of teachers (2002-03)											
School category	Regular teachers				Para teachers			SC teachers		ST teachers	
	Total	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	Male	Female
Primary only	18,455	9,463	7,625	1,301	29	36	1	1,747	392	85	59
Primary with upper primary	1,099	644	343	107	2	3	0	92	22	9	5
Primary with Upper primary & sec/higher sec	1,939	561	1,114	257	3	4	0	47	25	3	2
Upper primary only	2,825	1,687	762	366	9	1	0	171	38	9	3
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	6,747	3,834	1,884	1,002	22	5	0	214	68	29	13
Enrolment by medium of instructions (2002-03)											
School category	Total enrolment*		Hindi	Others	English	Gujarati					
Primary only	759656	752177	6927	479	73						
Primary with upper primary	38594	37304	192	1098	0						
Primary with U.P. & sec/higher	65257	49784	3963	11205	305						
Upper primary only	63531	61687	1730	114	0						
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	183073	181427	1220	426	0						
Grand total	1110111	1082379	14032	13322	378						
# = not applicable na = not available * Some totals may not match due to no response in classificatory data items											

DISTRICT ELEMENTARY EDUCATION REPORT CARD : 2001-02													
District GURGAON		Code 0618		State HARYANA		Primary cycle 1 - 5		U. primary cycle 6 - 8		Project Inception		1994	
Population, literacy and access to elementary education													
	1991	2001		1991	2001		2001		2001		2001		2001
Population (in 000's)	1146		Overall literacy	53	63.6	Sex ratio (females per 1000 males)	874	No. of blocks/taluks					10
% Urban population	22		Female literacy	35	48.3	EGS/AS schools		No. of villages					765
% SC population	14	na	SC female literacy	35	na	EGS/AS enrolment		No. of CRC's					103
% ST population		na	ST female literacy		na	Primary school pop., 2001(in 000's)	198.5	Number of schools					930
Key data: elementary education (2001 - 02)													
School category	Total schools*		Rural schools*		Total enrolment*		Rural enrolment*		Teachers*				
	Govt.	Private	Govt. rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private	Govt. rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private			
Primary only	761	0	730	0	115,164	0	108,781	0	1,951	0			
Primary with upper primary	57	0	54	0	24,186	0	21,297	0	410	0			
Primary with upper primary & sec/higher sec.	20	0	19	0	10,112	0	9,664	0	146	0			
Upper primary only	38	0	35	0	5,515	0	5,055	0	204	0			
Upper primary with sec./higher secondary	13	0	13	0	2,413	0	2,413	0	64	0			
Performance indicators (2001-02)													
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec	Grade	1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	
% Single classroom schools	7.0	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	I		51,409	39,672	33,752	30,895	29,691	
% Single teacher schools	20.2	1.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	II		23,017	41,347	36,186	29,388	28,739	
% Schools with SCR > 60	27.5	71.9	80.0	2.6	0.0	III		21,183	22,941	39,251	33,762	27,549	
% Schools with pre-primary	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	IV		17,959	19,152	21,888	31,043	28,533	
% Schools with common toilets	80.8	86.0	95.0	81.6	53.8	V		16,496	16,719	18,892	18,558	23,812	
% Schools with girls toilets	39.2	56.1	45.0	65.8	76.9	VI	#	#	#	#	#	#	7,685
% Enrolment in Govt. schools	99.8	100.0	95.6	94.8	100.0	VII	#	#	#	#	#	#	6,155
% Enrolment in schools with SCR > 60	42.9	83.1	90.2	5.5	0.0	VIII	#	#	#	#	#	#	6,055
% Enrolment in single teacher schools	13.3	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	Total Pr.		130,064	139,831	149,969	143,646	138,324	
% No female teacher schools (tch>=2)	34.3	31.6	25.0	31.6	15.4	Total U.P	#	#	#	#	#	#	19,895
% Enrolment in schools without buildings	1.0	2.7	0.0	3.5	10.4	GER / NER							
% Enrolment in schools without blackboard	3.8	6.6	5.4	3.8	27.5		1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02		
% Underage & overage grade I (<5 & >6)	16.4	7.8	15.9	0.0	0.0	GER (Primary)	70.7	74.7	85	74	74		
Enrolment of SC/ST							NER (Primary)						
Primary schools							U. Prim						
	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2001-02							
% SC enrolment	15.3	16.6	20.3	19.6	19	22.2							
% SC girls to SC enrolment	48.6	48.5	48.8	48.8	48.5	45.5							
% ST enrolment					0	0.1	Examination results (Previous academic year)						
% ST girls to ST enrolment					0	53.3		V boys	V girls	VIII boys	VIII girls		
Indicators (2001-02)							% Passed						
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec			93.75	93.67	84.87	87.04		
School category							% Passed with >60%						
% Girls	42.9	35.8	30.3	41.1	54.0			27.35	26.48	13.13	12.43		
Pupil teacher ratio (PTR)	57.4	59.0	69.3	25.6	21.4		Trends in repetition rate						
Student classroom ratio (SCR)	46.9	92.7	106.4	27.6	23.7		1996-97	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01		
% Schools with <=50 students	8.0	3.5	10.0	0.0	0.0			6	6.7	6.5	8.1		
% Schools with PTR > 100	15.2	17.5	20.0	0.0	0.0			6.3	8.4	6.4	8.4		
% Female teachers	44.1	35.4	34.2	26.0	39.1			13.5	15.9	13.2	11.9		
% Schools established since 1995	8.3	3.5	10.0	28.9	15.4			13.1	14	12.3	11		
Classrooms/Other rooms (2001-02)							No. of schools by type of building*						
School category	Classrooms				Other rooms	No. of schools by type of building*							
	Total classrooms	% good condition	% minor repair	% major repair		Pucca	Partially Pucca	Kuccha	Tent	Multiple Type	No		
Primary only	2,458	49.8	25.6	24.6	33	749	0	0	0	1	13		
Primary with upper primary	261	56.7	19.9	23.4	1	55	0	0	0	0	2		
Primary with U.P. & sec/higher	95	64.6	21.5	13.8	0	20	0	0	0	0	0		
Upper primary only	200	26.2	29.2	44.6	2	37	0	0	0	0	1		
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	102	70.6	8.8	20.6	0	12	0	0	0	0	1		
Position of teachers by educational qualification (other than para teacher) (2001-02)													
School category	Below secondary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post graduate	M. Phil.	Others	No response	Enrolment of children with disability				
									Primary	Boys	Girls		
Primary only	461	504	348	304	165	7	9	148	731	353			
Primary with upper primary	89	67	51	92	66	0	2	43	U. prim.	56	27		
Primary with Upper primary & sec/higher sec	25	27	30	34	27	0	0	3	Total	787	380		
Upper primary only	14	24	6	47	67	1	0	45					
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	1	2	5	18	25	1	0	12					
Para teachers	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	2	%Teachers recvd. in-service training				
Gender and caste distribution of teachers (2001-02)*													
School category	Regular teachers				Para teachers			SC teachers		ST teachers			
	Total	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Primary only	1,951	999	860	87	5	0	0	184	41	28	6	86.4	80.3
Primary with upper primary	410	238	145	27	0	0	0	30	11	8	1	41.6	55.9
Primary with Upper primary & sec/higher sec	146	96	50	0	0	0	0	14	3	6	0	36.5	74.0
Upper primary only	204	127	53	24	0	0	0	12	3	2	1	2.4	0.0
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	64	30	25	9	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	3.3	12.0
Enrolment by medium of instructions (2001-02)													
School category	Hindi	Others	Sanskrit	English	Incentives : Number of beneficiaries (Previous academic year)								
					Primary		Upper primary						
Primary only	94175	170	4	0	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls					
Primary with upper primary	18119	0	0	0	Text books	52,428	34,157	304	184				
Primary with U.P. & sec/higher sec	7798	0	0	0	Uniform	227	9,786	40	216				
Upper primary only	4273	573	0	0	Attendance	817	8,074	616	554				
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	1289	264	0	0	Stationery	9,174	8,273	534	378				

= not applicable

na = not available

* Some totals may not match due to no response in classificatory data items

DISTRICT ELEMENTARY EDUCATION REPORT CARD : 2002-03

GURGAON		Code	0618	State	HARYANA	Primary cycle	1 - 5	U. primary cycle	6 - 8					
Population, literacy and access to elementary education														
Population (in 000's)	2001	1991	2001	2001		2001			2002					
Overall literacy	1658	52.6	63.6	Sex ratio (females per 1000 males)		874			No. of blocks/taluks	10				
Female literacy	22.3	34.9	48.3	EGS/AS schools					No. of villages	778				
SC female literacy	na		na	EGS/AS enrolment					No. of CRC's	107				
ST female literacy	na		na	Primary school pop., 2001(in 000's)		na			Number of schools	1,036				
Elementary Education (2002 - 03)														
School category	Total schools*		Rural schools*		Total enrolment*		Rural enrolment*		Teachers*					
	Govt.	Private	Govt. rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private	Govt. rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private				
Primary only	760	0	721	0	117,456	0	108,482	0	1,981	0				
Primary with upper primary	47	10	45	10	14,312	2,230	14,003	2,230	303	109				
Primary with upper primary & sec/higher sec.	16	4	16	4	5,506	1,674	5,506	1,674	98	34				
Upper primary only	74	1	68	1	9,294	53	8,265	53	362	6				
Upper primary with sec./higher secondary	72	1	64	0	16,956	131	14,319	0	728	0				
Performance indicators (2002-03)	School category					Enrolment*								
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec	Grade	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03		
Single classroom schools	11.3	7.0	5.0	12.0	2.7	I	51,409	39,672	33,752	30,895	29,691	31,277		
Single teacher schools	22.9	1.8	0.0	2.7	0.0	II	23,017	41,347	36,186	29,388	28,739	27,438		
Schools with SCR > 60	29.6	50.9	35.0	8.0	6.8	III	21,183	22,941	39,251	33,762	27,549	25,758		
Schools with pre-primary sections	26.4	17.5	15.0	0.0	0.0	IV	17,959	19,152	21,888	31,043	28,533	23,747		
Schools with common toilets	80.4	84.2	65.0	74.7	75.3	V	16,496	16,719	18,892	18,558	23,812	23,147		
Schools with girls toilets	43.2	59.6	85.0	76.0	78.1	VI	#	#	#	#	6,155	10,800		
Enrolment in Govt. schools	100.0	86.5	76.7	99.4	99.2	VII	#	#	#	#	6,055	11,160		
Enrolment in schools with SCR > 60	41.9	65.6	40.5	7.9	7.8	VIII	#	#	#	#	6,055	11,160		
Enrolment in single teacher schools	14.0	1.2	0.0	1.9	0.0	Total Pr.	130,064	139,831	149,969	143,646	138,324	131,367		
No female teacher schools (tch>=2)	29.7	33.3	30.0	24.0	21.9	Total U.P.	#	#	#	#	19,895	36,245		
Enrolment in schools without buildings	2.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	1.5	GER / NER								
Enrolment in schools without blackboard	4.2	7.0	0.0	6.9	9.8		1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03			
Underage & overage grade I (<5 & >6)	17.7	10.2	7.0	0.0	0.0	GER (Primary)	74.7	85.0	74.0	70.0	54.7			
Enrolment of SC/ST	Primary schools					Upper Primary								
	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2001-02	2002-03	NER (Primary)	71.7		71.0		46.4		
SC enrolment	20.3	19.6	19	19.9	22.2	21.7	GER (U. Primary)					30.3		
SC girls to SC enrolment	48.8	48.8	48.5	48.4	45.5	45.5	NER (U. Primary)					21.7		
ST enrolment			0	0	0.1	0								
ST girls to ST enrolment			0	0	53.3	0	V boys		V girls		VIII boys		VIII girls	
Indicators (2002-03)	School category					% Passed with >60%								
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec	Trends in repetition rate								
Girls	43.6	25.4	30.6	46.5	48.2	Grades	1997-98	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02			
Student teacher ratio (PTR)	58	40	45	25	23	I	6.0	6.7	6.5	8.1	8.2			
Student classroom ratio (SCR)	51	57	46	31	27	II	6.3	8.4	6.4	8.4	8.7			
Schools with <=50 students	7.8	17.5	30.0	0.0	0.0	III	13.5	15.9	13.2	11.9	12.3			
Schools with PTR > 100	14.3	14.0	10.0	1.3	0.0	IV	13.1	14.0	12.3	11.0	12.0			
% Female teachers	49.9	30.6	34.8	39.7	43.3	V	10.1	13.9	6.4	8.8	8.7			
Schools established since 1995	10.5	28.1	10.0	30.7	11.0	Overall	8.8	10.9	9	9.8	10.0			
Classrooms/Other rooms (2002-03)	Classrooms					Other rooms								
	School category	Total classrooms	% good condition	% minor repair	% major repair	Pucca	Partially Pucca	Kuccha	Tent	Multiple Type	No Building			
Primary only	2,291	68.0	22.5	9.5	560	727	0	0	0	9	16			
Primary with upper primary	289	76.8	15.9	7.3	88	54	0	0	1	1	1			
Primary with U.P. & sec/h. sec.	155	72.3	16.8	11.0	53	20	0	0	0	0	0			
Upper primary only	305	71.5	22.6	5.9	166	72	0	0	0	2	0			
Upper primary with sec./higher sec.	626	71.7	23.0	5.3	223	72	0	0	0	0	1			
Qualification of teachers by educational qualification (other than para teacher) (2002-03)	School category	Below secondary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post graduate	M. Phil.	Others	No response	Enrolment of children with disability				
										Boys	Girls			
Primary only	479	461	386	337	183	5	7	122	Primary	972	450			
Primary with upper primary	42	52	37	134	116	7	3	20	U. prim.	163	81			
Primary with Upper primary & sec/ h. sec.	8	22	13	44	30	1	2	12	Total	1,135	531			
Upper primary only	20	35	40	112	145	2	0	12						
Upper primary with sec./higher secondary	33	53	51	235	193	1	1	160						
Para teachers	0	0	0	4	1	0	0	0						
Gender and caste distribution of teachers (2002-03)*	School category	Regular teachers			Para teachers			SC teachers		ST teachers		% Teachers recvd. in-service training		
		Total	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Primary only	1,981	957	988	35	1	0	0	194	77	14	13	84.6	78.8	
Primary with upper primary	412	281	125	5	0	1	0	40	9	6	5	18.9	15.2	
Primary with Upper primary & sec/ h. sec.	132	84	46	2	0	0	0	6	7	0	0	21.4	21.7	
Upper primary only	368	217	146	3	2	0	0	21	6	3	1	3.2	1.4	
Upper primary with sec./higher secondary	728	338	315	74	1	0	0	17	10	8	5	3.0	2.2	
Enrolment by medium of instructions (2002-03)	School category	Hindi	Others	English	Incentive Type			Primary		Upper primary				
					Text books	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls			
Primary only	115848	1080	0	0										
Primary with upper primary	16257	0	0	87										
Primary with U.P. & sec/ h. sec.	6594	199	305	82										
Upper primary only	9347	0	0	0										
Upper primary with sec./ h. sec.	16595	492	0	0										

= not applicable

na = not available

* Some totals may not match due to no response in classificatory data items

Elementary Education in India - Where do we stand?

DISTRICT ELEMENTARY EDUCATION REPORT CARD : 2003-04

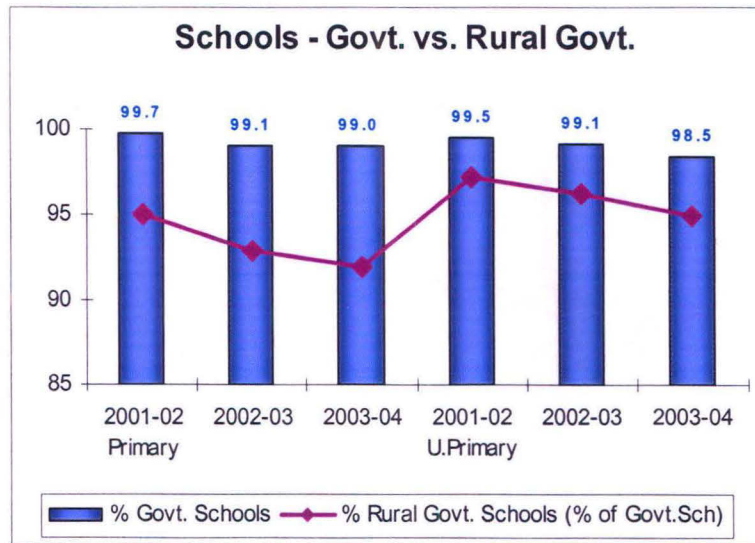
District	GURGAON				State	HARYANA				Primary cycle	1 - 5		U. primary cycle	6 - 8							
Data reported from																					
No. of blocks/talukas	11				No. of CRC's	146				No. of villages	908		Number of schools	959							
Basic Data, 2001																					
Total population (in 000's)	1660				% 0 - 6 Population	20.1				% Urban population	22.2		Sex ratio	873		Sex ratio 0-6	858				
Decadal growth rate	44.6				% SC Population	11.3				% ST Population	0.0		Overall literacy	62.9		Female literacy	47.8				
Key data: Elementary Education																					
School category	Total schools*		Rural schools*		Total enrolment*		Rural enrolment*		Teachers*												
	Govt.	Private	Govt. rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private	Govt. rural	Pvt. rural	Govt.	Private											
Primary only	753	2	710	2	122,740	227	112,386	227	2,115	3											
Primary with upper primary	21	3	21	3	3,699	861	3,699	861	119	28											
Primary with upper primary & sec/higher sec.	11	5	10	5	3,129	1,436	2,738	1,436	85	50											
Upper primary only	31	1	31	1	3,174	66	3,174	66	125	6											
Upper primary with sec./higher secondary	69	1	66	1	16,127	122	13,961	122	655	8											
No response in school category	61	1	16	1	2,942	227	2,942	227	61	0											
Performance indicators	School category					Enrolment*															
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec	Grade	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04										
% Single classroom schools	44.0	37.5	50.0	31.3	32.9	I	33,752	30,895	29,691	31,277	29,461										
% Single teacher schools	18.0	4.2	0.0	6.3	0.0	II	36,186	29,388	28,739	27,438	29,404										
% Schools with SCR > 60	47.9	45.8	50.0	25.0	32.9	III	39,251	33,762	27,549	25,758	26,048										
% Schools with pre-primary sections	42.5	29.2	50.0	12.5	5.7	IV	21,888	31,043	28,533	23,747	23,741										
% Schools with common toilets	76.6	79.2	68.8	78.1	71.4	V	18,892	18,558	23,812	23,147	21,166										
% Schools with girls toilets	52.5	79.2	87.5	62.5	78.6	VI	#	#	7,685	14,285	9,385										
% Schools with drinking water facility	80.9	83.3	87.5	81.2	88.6	VII	#	#	6,155	10,800	7,704										
% Schools without Black Board	2.6	8.3	0.0	15.6	8.6	VIII	#	#	6,055	11,160	7,841										
% Enrolment in Govt. schools	98.3	81.1	68.5	93.8	99.2	Total Pr.	149,969	143,646	138,324	131,367	129,820										
% Enrolment in single teacher schools	11.7	1.2	0.0	2.6	0.0	Total U.P	#	#	19,895	36,245	24,930										
% No female teacher schools (tch>=2)	35.9	33.3	25.0	28.1	28.6	GER / NER															
% Enrolment in schools without buildings	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04										
% Enrolment in schools without blackboard	2.2	1.2	0.0	10.3	4.3	GER (Primary)	85.0	74.0	70.0	54.7	56.8										
Enrolment of SC/ST		Primary schools			Upper Primary			NER (Primary)													
	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	2001-02	2002-03	2003-04	71.0			GER (U. Primary)		46.4			46.3						
% SC enrolment	19	19.9	19.2	22.2	21.7	22.2	Flow rates					NER (U. Primary)									
% SC girls to SC enrolment	48.5	48.4	48.6	45.5	45.5	44.9	Grade	R.R.	D.O.R.	P.R.	Enrolment of children with disability										
% ST enrolment	0	0	1.5	0.1	0.0	0.3	I	8.6	7.6	83.8	Grade	Boys		Girls							
% ST girls to ST enrolment	0	0	46.1	53.3	0.0	40.6	II	11.6	7.0	81.4											
Indicators	School category					Enrolment of children with disability															
	P. only	P + UP	P+sec/hs	U.P. only	UP+sec	III	14.4	8.0	77.6	I	175		91								
% Girls	41.5	42.9	34.8	49.2	43.3	IV	15.7	8.6	75.7	II	193		126								
Pupil teacher ratio (PTR)	57	31	32	24	24	V	13.8	50.1	36.1	III	242		123								
Student classroom ratio (SCR)	90	147	152	79	71	I - V	12.6	15.2	72.2	IV	187		127								
% Schools with <=50 students	14.0	54.2	43.8	0.0	0.0	VI	7.2	47.7	45.1	V	169		101								
% Schools with PTR > 100	15.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4	VII	11.7	45.1	43.2	VI	24		33								
% Female teachers	40.2	29.3	27.4	26.7	23.8	VIII	28.5	#	#	VII	21		12								
% Schools established since 1995	9.9	41.7	25.0	37.5	22.9	Transition rate		36.1		VIII	22		14								
Classrooms/Other rooms		Classrooms				Other rooms		No. of schools by type of building*													
School category	Total classrooms	% good condition	% minor repair	% major repair			Pucca	Partially Pucca	Kuccha	Tent	Multiple Type	No Building									
Primary only	1,372	50.7	32.5	16.8	883		888	36	3	0	9	12									
Primary with upper primary	31	62.1	27.6	10.3	38		33	1	0	1	1	1									
Primary with U.P. & sec/h. sec.	30	46.7	26.7	26.7	18		15	0	1	0	0	0									
Upper primary only	41	59.0	35.9	5.1	47		38	2	0	0	2	0									
Upper primary with sec./higher sec	229	55.4	25.5	19.1	186		93	17	2	0	0	1									
Position of teachers by educational qualification (other than para teacher)											Examination results (Previous academic year)										
School category	Below secondary	Secondary	Higher secondary	Graduate	Post graduate	M. Phil.	Others	No response	Terminal grade		% Passed with >60%										
Primary only	504	443	354	348	197	3	3	253	V boys		88.34		25.00								
Primary with upper primary	13	14	21	35	21	0	0	40	V girls		90.27		27.99								
Primary with Upper primary & sec/ h. sec.	7	8	13	44	34	0	0	28	VIII boys		66.44		16.20								
Upper primary only	6	16	8	33	47	0	0	20	VIII girls		67.67		16.45								
Upper primary with sec./higher secondary	16	58	29	177	213	1	3	165													
Para teachers	5	3	3	4	5	1	0	0	% Teachers recvd. in-service training												
Gender and caste distribution of teachers*											Regular teachers		Para teachers		SC teachers		ST teachers				
School category	Avg. No. of Tchs.	Total	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	No res	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female							
Primary only	2.8	2,118	988	848	269	8	4	1	193	47	5	6	84.6	78.8							
Primary with upper prim.	6.1	147	64	43	37	3	0	0	7	1	3	0	18.9	15.2							
Prim.with U.P.&Sec/H.S	8.4	135	58	37	39	0	0	1	8	1	0	0	21.4	21.7							
Upper Primary only	4.1	131	75	35	20	1	0	0	7	1	0	0	3.2	1.4							
U. Primary with Sec./H.S.	9.5	663	332	158	172	1	0	0	29	4	1	1	3.0	2.2							
Enrolment by medium of instructions		% Total Grossness		Primary	Upper Primary	% Schools recvd. (Previous year)		Incentives : Number of beneficiaries (Previous academic year)													
Category	Hindi	Others	English	Gujarati	Sanskrit	School dev. grant	T L M grant	Incentive Type	Primary		Upper primary										
P. only	70159	6178	858	410	85	82.8	84.9		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls									
P + UP	2260	985	0	0	0	50.0	45.8	Text books	56890	43588	1363	3228									
P+sec/hs	2252	297	196	0	0	31.3	25.0	Uniform	247	10360	195	1079									
U.P. only	2089	453	0	0	0	6.3	21.9	Attendance	890	8088	7366	1893									
UP+sec	9153	1215	274	812	684	24.3	31.4	Stationery	12007	9865	4079	1248									

ANNEXURE 02

GRAPHS

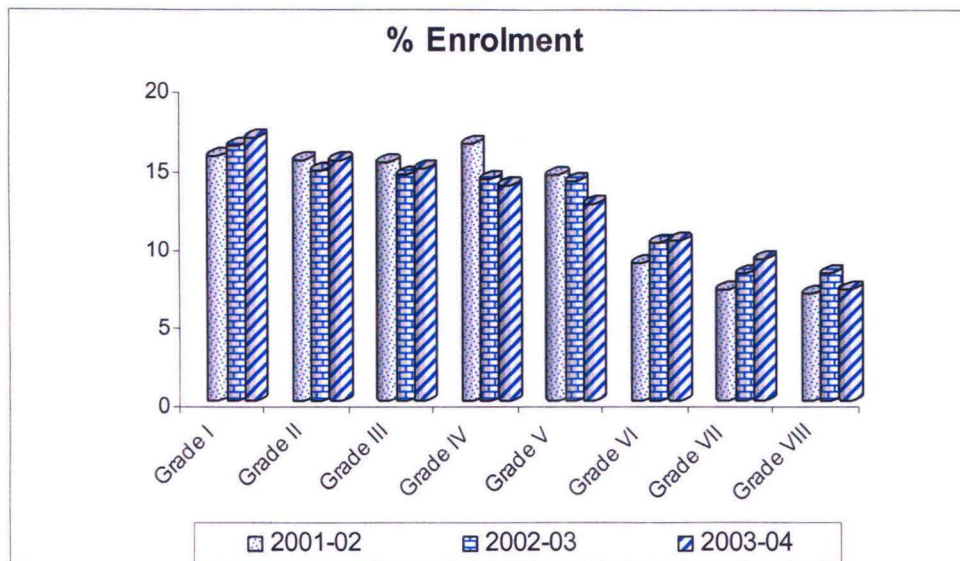
GRAPH 01

Trend of Government Schools in Haryana



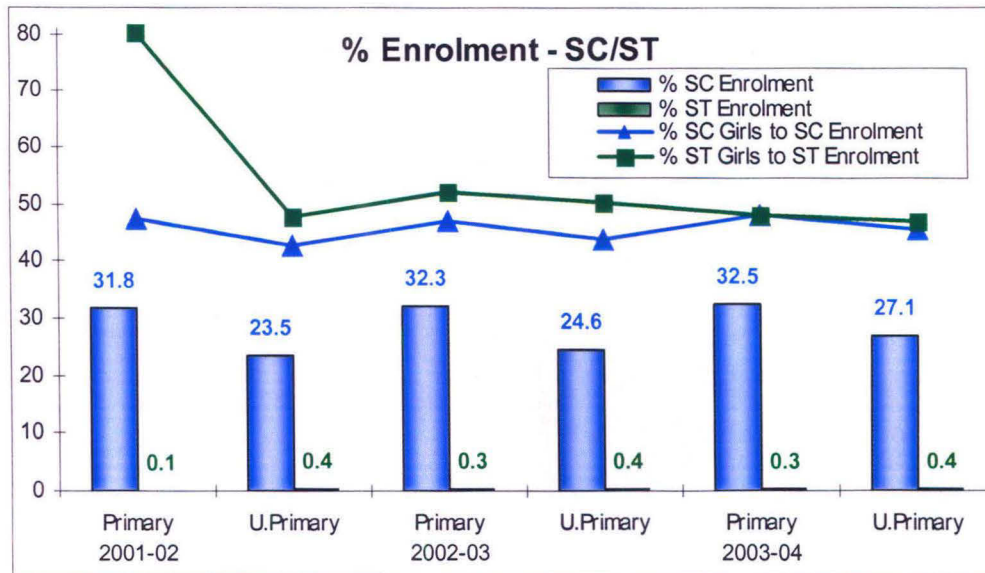
GRAPH 02

Trend of School Enrolment in Haryana



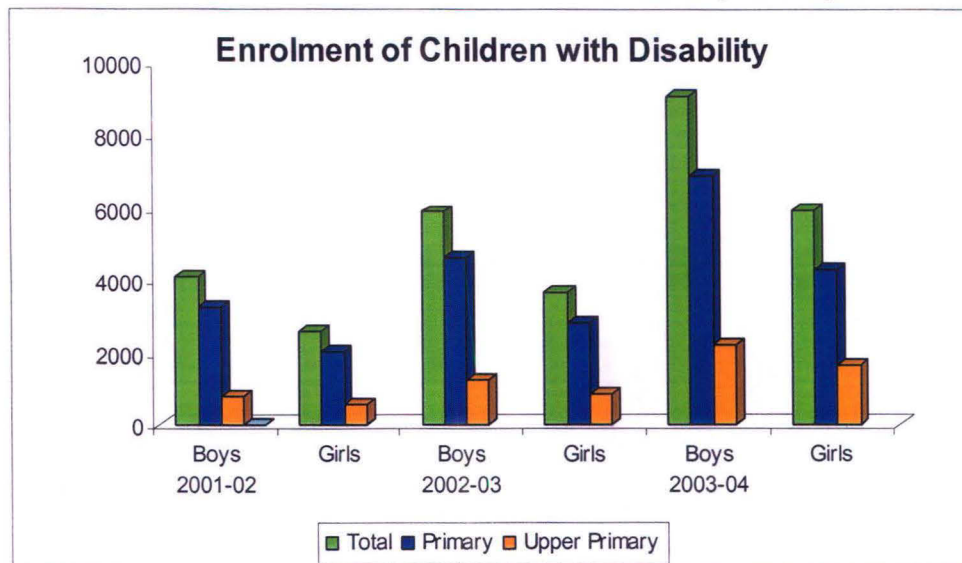
GRAPH 03

SC/ST Enrolment in Haryana



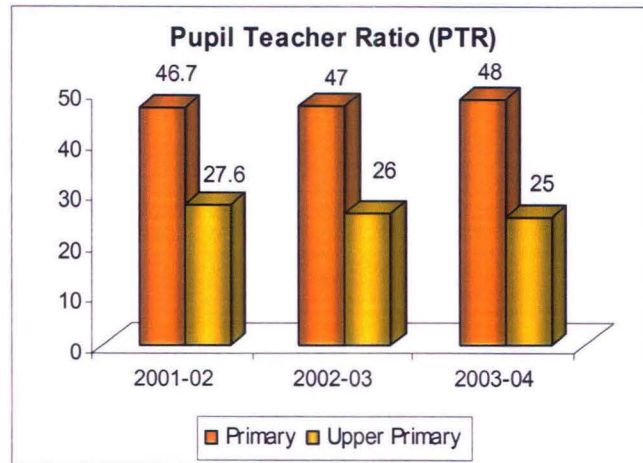
GRAPH 04

Percentage Enrolment of Children with Disability in Haryana



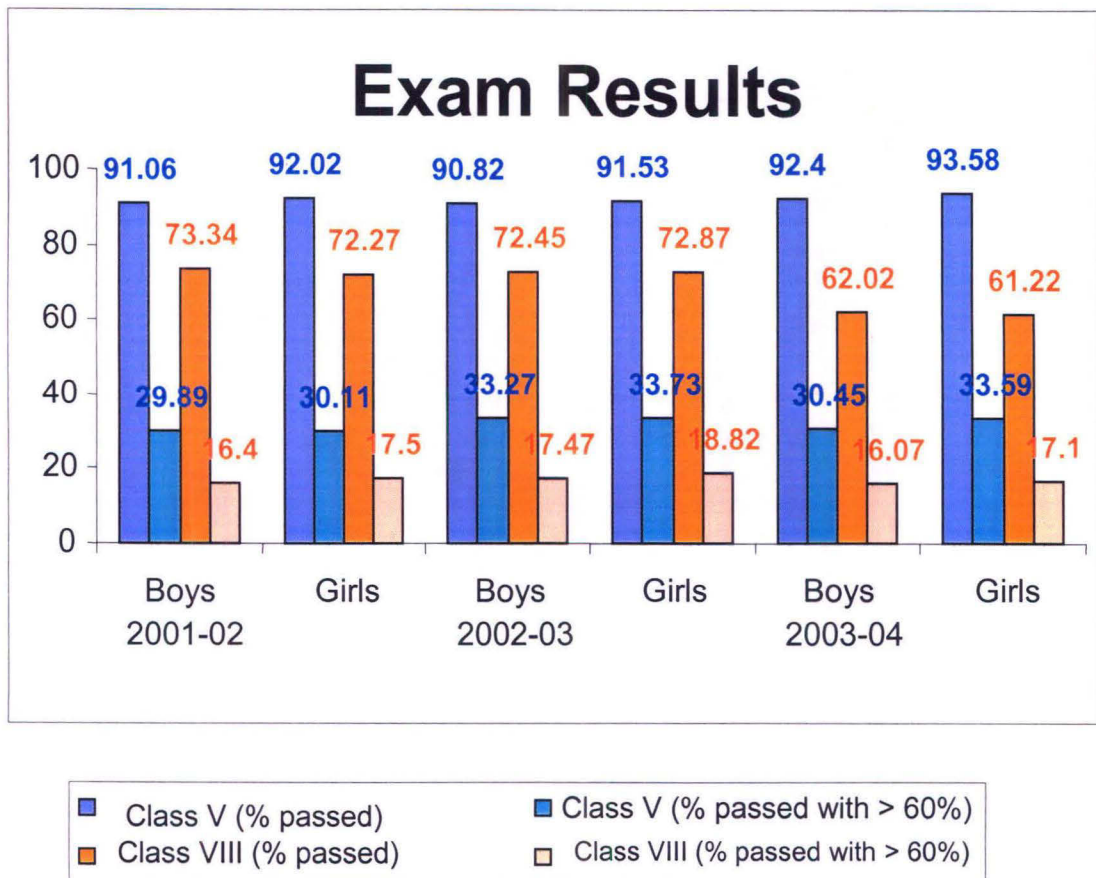
GRAPH 05

Pupil Teacher Ratio in Haryana



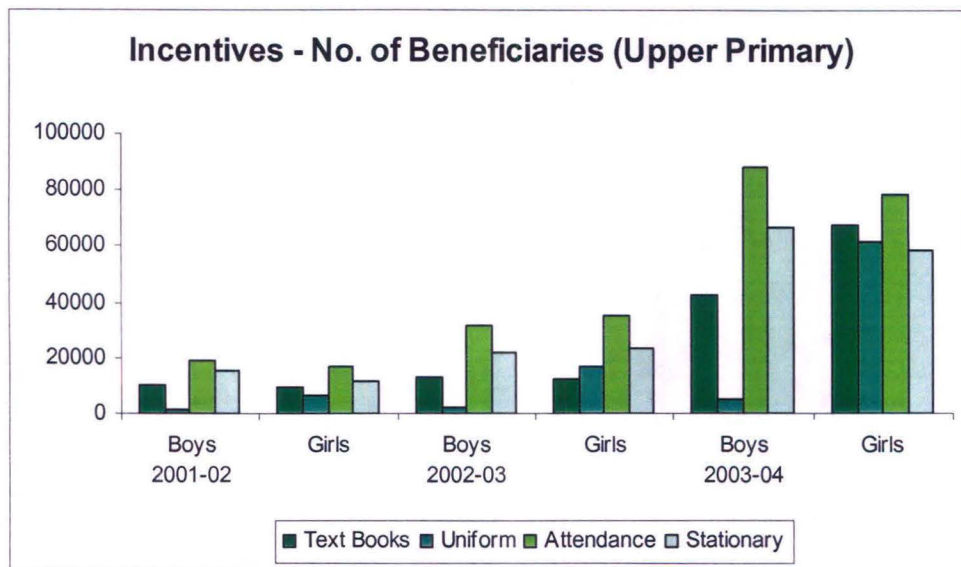
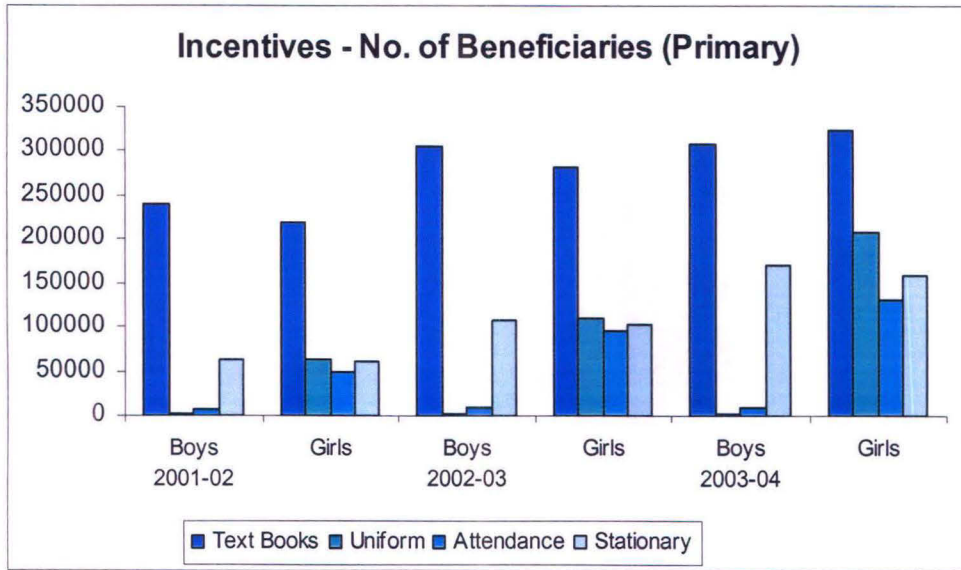
GRAPH 06

Trend in Exam Results in Haryana



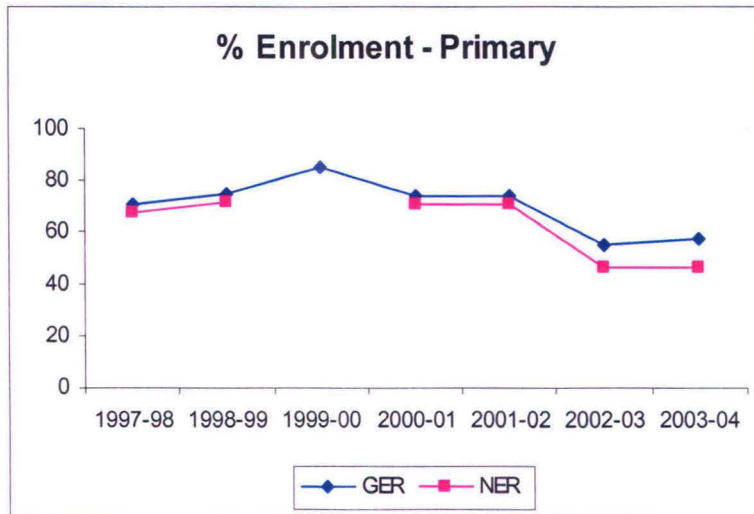
GRAPH 07

No. of Incentive Beneficiaries in Haryana



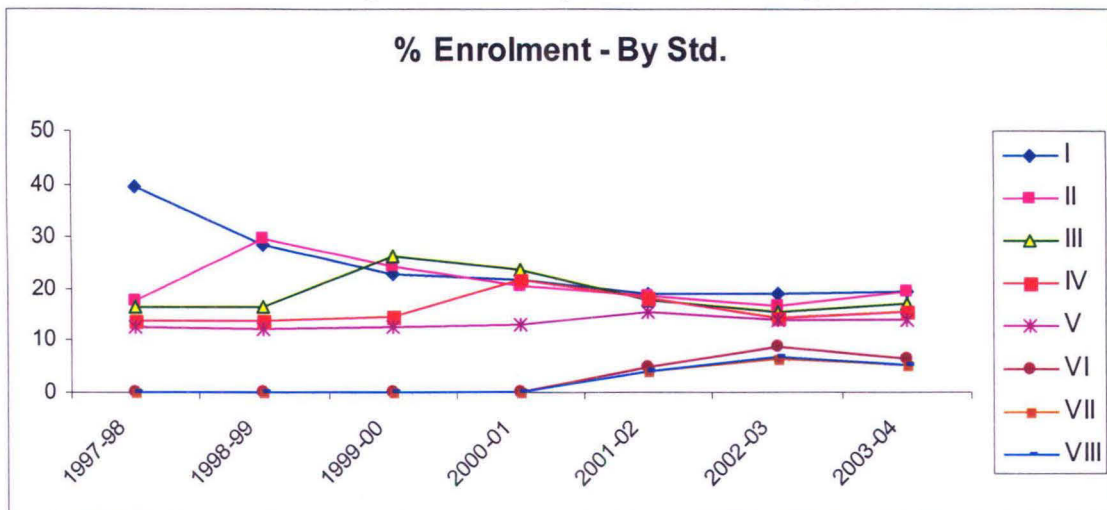
GRAPH 08

Percentage Enrolment in Primary Schools in Gurgaon



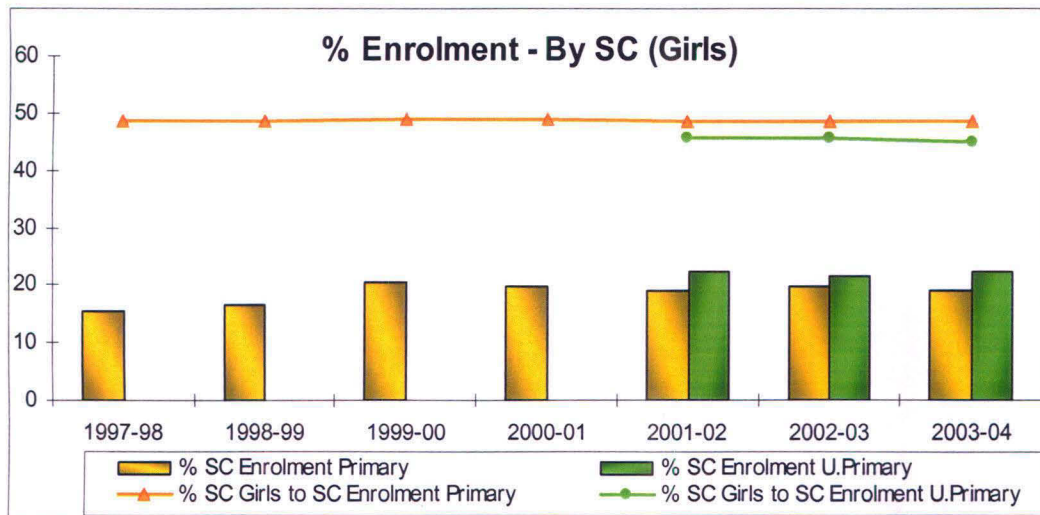
GRAPH 09

Percentage Enrolment by Standards in Gurgaon



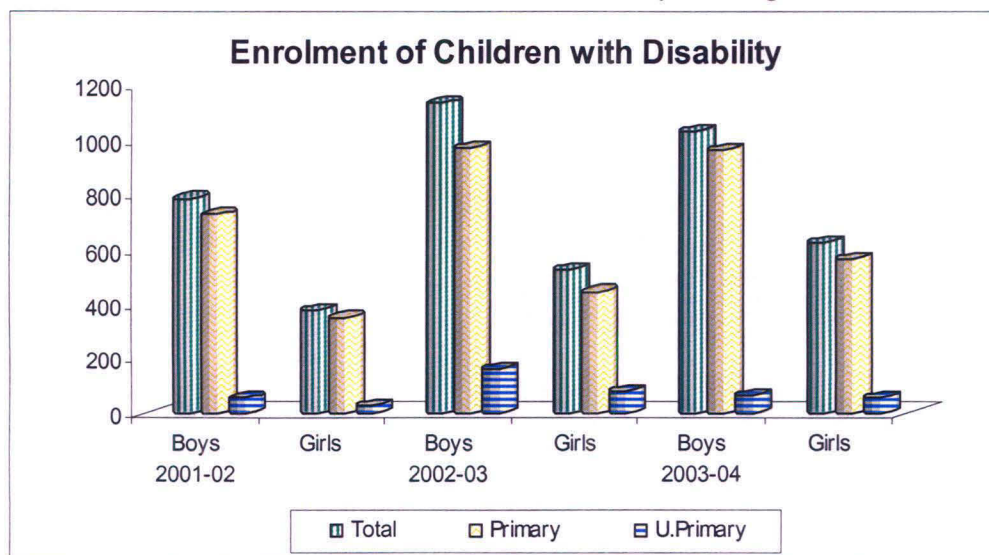
GRAPH 10

Percentage Enrolment by SC Girls in Gurgaon



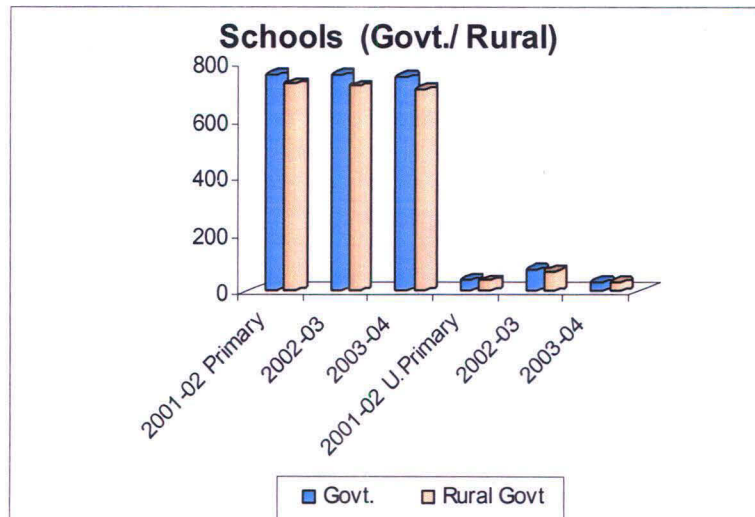
GRAPH 11

Enrolment of Children with Disability in Gurgaon

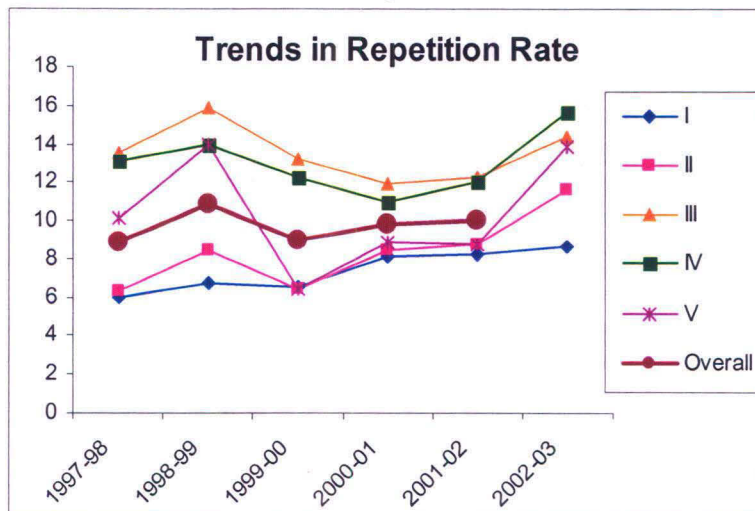


GRAPH 12

Schools in Gurgaon

**GRAPH 13**

Trends in Repetition Rate



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