

**ROLE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL  
EDUCATION: A CASE STUDY OF TWO VILLAGES OF  
DISTRICT JIND, HARYANA**

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**CERTIFICATE**


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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

The twenty first century has opened a new chapter in Indian educational history. Indian constitution recognised elementary education as a fundamental right by the 86th amendment. At the time of framing the constitution, it was incorporated in article of the directive principles of the state policy that education should be available free of charge and that attendance in the school should be compulsory for all children up to the age 14 years. School education as a fundamental right hold the possibilities for economic and social empowerment. It is also the base of individual empowerment and being empowered is an achievement in itself. Education in general and school education in particular is one of the important factors of social mobility for gender biased and caste ridden society like India. Education is widely perceived by members of socially and economically backward group as a most promising mean of upward mobility for their children.<sup>1</sup> Different oppressed groups of society find in school a mean to have access to justice to secure a status of equality. Basic education can play a positive and dominant role in the empowerment of women and help to liberate women from the patriarchal society.

Mrs. Indira Gandhi called education a liberating democratizing force, cutting across the barriers of caste and class, smoothing out inequalities imposed by birth and other circumstances.<sup>2</sup> Mahatma Gandhi viewed that education should perform its function of teaching children to discriminate between good and bad and assimilate the good while eschewing the bad. He treated it as the art of drawing out the best from the boys and the girls through training.<sup>3</sup>

“Education should not be reduced to the written alphabet but neither should it omit the worth of ability to read and write. It ultimately signifies the opportunity that may be enhanced limitlessly, leading to what we may rightly call the freedom from

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<sup>1</sup> Dreze, Jean and Amratya Sen. *Economic Development and Social Opportunity*, Oxford University Press (OUP), New Delhi, 2002, p. 14.

<sup>2</sup> Subramaniam, M. K. “School Education in Tamil Nadu: Problems and Prospect”, *Social Action*, Vol. 52, October – December 2002, p. 366.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.* p. 366.

necessity.”<sup>4</sup> Education makes the democracy in real sense a democracy by providing equal opportunity to progress. The foundation of a truly democratic and just society can only be achieved by protecting and guaranteeing basic right to all its citizens, regardless of gender, caste, creed or religious affiliation. An active democratic society must be founded on a set of principles, which set out to protect the right of children and guarantee opportunities for them to develop in to responsible citizens.<sup>5</sup>

### 1.1 Historical Growth of School Education in India

Before the arrival of the Britishers, there was a wide spread system of indigenous education consisting of primary and higher institutions. These educational institutions had been in existence from time immemorial and were woven into the texture of cultural life of the people of India. Education remained a neglected affair in the early days of the East India Company. With the charter act of 1813, East India Company decided to spend one lakh of rupee per year on education. Macaulay’s minute of 1835, adopted English as a medium of instruction, because of which vernacular school suffered. For the first time, in history of primary education in the country, a clear cut policy was declared by Wood’s dispatch which proposed- to improve the existing indigenous schools, open new government schools, to encourage private enterprise through grant-in-aid system, to adopt vernacular as the medium of instruction. The educational commission of 1882, headed by Hunter, devoted its main attention to elementary education and made recommendations regarding policy, administration and encouragement of indigenous schools, training of teachers and finance<sup>6</sup>. For example, it was recommended that primary education should be entrusted to the newly created municipal and district boards, definite funds for education should be set aside by the local bodies and government should help the local bodies financially to the extent of half or at least one third of their total expenditure on primary education.

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<sup>4</sup> Chanana, Karuna. “Gender Inequality in Primary Schooling in India: The Human Right Perspective”, *Journal of Educational Planning and Research (JEPA)*, Vol. X, No. 4, October 1996, p. 365.

<sup>5</sup> Sinha, Shantha. “Emphasising Universal Principles towards Deepening of Democracy; Actualising Children’s Right to Education”, *Economic Political Weekly (EPW)*, Vol. XL, No. 25, June 28, 2005, p. 2569.

<sup>6</sup> Shripad, S. Bolashetty and L. L. Girija. “Fundamental Human Right to Free and Compulsory Elementary Education in India: Origin, Progress and Present Status”, *JEPA*, Vol. 28(1), January 2000, p. 58.

During the national movement in the development of education as a national need, in September 1882, Dadabhai Naoroji demanded, before the first Indian education commission, that primary education should be made free and compulsory in India as soon as possible.<sup>7</sup>

The Maharaja of Baroda introduced compulsory education in the entire state in 1906. The Maharaja enacted the compulsory education regulation in 1905-1910 for Baroda...Mysore Legislative Council passed the Mysore Elementary Education Regulation (MEER) in 1913, which received an assent of the Maharaja of Mysore and became a law in 1913-1914. In 1910, Sri Gopal Krishan Gokhale, a member of the Imperial Legislative Council, moved a Resolution (bill) urging the government to make primary education free and compulsory for boys between the age group of 6 to 10, throughout the country. This council recommends that a beginning should be made in the direction of free and compulsory elementary education through out the country and that a mixed commission of officials and non-officials be appointed at an early date to frame definite proposals.<sup>8</sup> This was the first definite demand on the part of an Indian on this issue. Gokhale however failed in his mission, but the seeds sown by him were an important beginning. Mahatma Gandhi played a significant role in pleading the cause of compulsory and free primary education. In 1937, Mahatma Gandhi moved the resolution of basic education at Wardha, which provided the foundation for 'National policy of free and compulsory primary education for all children between 6 to 14 years of age'.

In 1937, when provincial autonomy was granted, popular congress ministries came into power in 6 major provinces of India. Basic education of Gandhi Ji was given a fair trial in these provinces. But it hardly had been in operation for nearly two years when World War II broke and shattered all plans. In 1944, Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) submitted 'a Post War Plan of Education Development in India', known as 'Sargent Plan'. It recommended universal free and compulsory education for all boys and girls between 6 to 14 years of age, over a period of forty

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<sup>7</sup> Shripad, S. Bolashetty and L. L. Girija. "Fundamental Human Right to Free and Compulsory Elementary Education in India: Origin, Progress and Present Status", *JEPa*, Vol. 28(1), January 2000, p. 60.

<sup>8</sup> Naik, J. P. *Elementary Education in India: A promise to keep*, Allied publishers, New Delhi, 1975, p. 48.

years (1944 to 1984). When the Sergeant plan was still under consideration, 'the partition of India' came and Indian Independence act of 1947 was passed.

The B.G. Kher Committee (1944) had 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 the India, as a directive principle of state policy (article 45) after independence.<sup>9</sup> The Kothari Commission (1964-1966) was formed as an effort at the central level, to restructure the education system. The commission said that the objective of the educational policy should be to evolve a common school system of public education and provide equality of access, over the next 20 years. The commission recommended that the government of India should ensure a statement on national policy of education, which should provide guidance to the state governments and local authorities in preparing and implementing the education plan in their areas. For enrolment of girls, it pointed out that there was a wide gap in enrolment of boys and girls at all stages; it recommended that it is necessary to eliminate this gap at the primary stage and narrow it at the other stages. It was felt necessary to expand the extent the existing special educational facilities and concession to the scheduled caste and scheduled tribe.

The National Policy on Education (1986) is a land mark in cotemporary educational history. The policy lays special emphasis on removal of disparities and educational opportunities. The policy lays down the special targets as: i) **universal enrolment** and **universal retention** of children up to 14 years of age by 1995, ii) a substantial improvement in quality of education. The policy recognised the unattractive school environment, unsatisfactory condition of building and insufficiency of institutional material function as a critical factor is discouraging children and their parents. Therefore it called for a substantial improvement of primary school and provision of support services. It proposed the taking up of a large systematic improvement for support services like non- formal education for child labourers and children of habitation without school and flexible programmes which

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<sup>9</sup> Shripad, S. Bolashetty, and L. L. Girija. "Fundamental Human Right to Free and Compulsory Elementary Education in India: Origin, Progress and Present Status" *JEPA*, Vol. 28(1), January 2000, p. 62

were relevant to the needs of the learners and the quality of which was comparable with corresponding stages of formal education.

However, despite clear demand for it since the time of Gokhale, even after 60 years of independence, India is not performing satisfactorily in field of literacy and school education. According to UNDP's *Human Developing Report 2000*, literacy rate (age 15 and above) in 1997 for India was only 55.7%. The *report* listed 174 countries and categorised them as high human development, medium human development and low human development countries. India is classified into medium category. Out of 93 countries in the medium human development category, namely Egypt (53.7 percent), Morocco (47.1 percent), Iraq (53.7 percent) and Pakistan (44.0 percent) have recorded a lower level of adult literacy as compared to India. 38 countries have already attained adult literacy rate of 90 percent or more. It clearly shows that India has a long way to go. If the youth literacy rate is higher than the adult literacy rate it would indicate that adult literacy rate is increasing. Even in case of youth literacy rate (age group 15-24), India is lagging behind. It is remarkable that while China, Indonesia, Thailand, Malaysia, Philippines, Srilanka, Iran and Vietnam have attained the youth literacy rate exceeding 90 percent (and indeed except Iran, exceeding 95 percent), India is behind with 70.9 percent. Education profile of *Human Developing Report* shows that only 6 countries namely Egypt, Morocco, Iraq, Pakistan and Cambodia are below India from among the 93 middle level human development countries. Primary age enrolment ratio falls far short of 100 percent in India (77.2 percent), while China, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Pakistan, Philippines, Srilanka, Thailand, Vietnam have attained universal primary school enrolment. While enrolment itself was inadequate the figures for enrolment in India were deplorable. India's public spending however as a proportion of GNP is not particularly low when compared with other countries such as China and Srilanka.<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>10</sup> Kothari, V. N. "Challenge of Universalization of Elementary Education in India", *JEP A*, Vol. XVIII, No. 1, July 2004, p. 365.

## **1.2 Objective of the Study**

On the basis of the area of study and literature survey, the following objectives have been-framed for which this study has been undertaken-

1. To critically examine the historical growth of school education in district Jind
2. To evaluate the role of community participation in the management and supervision of school education
3. To generate recommendations for strengthening the community participation in school education.

## **1.3 Hypotheses**

1. The community can play a decisive and effective role if mobilised in proper direction both by governmental and non government organisation.
2. The head of the school can play an effective role in bringing about the proper functioning of the school.
3. Decentralization of the education can prove very helpful but only if implemented properly.

## **1.4 Data Base**

1. Census of India, 1971-2001, General Population Table, Director of Census Operation, Haryana.
2. Census of India, 1971-2001, Socio - Cultural Table, Director of Census Operation, Haryana.
3. Census of India, 1971-2001, Special Table for Schedule Caste, Director of Census Operation, Haryana.
4. Census of India, 1971-1991, District Census Handbook, District Jind, Director of Census Operation, Haryana.
5. All India Educational Survey (4<sup>th</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup>), NCERT.
6. Data from field survey.

## 1.5 Methodology

Methodology is a tool through which the research work is arranged in a systematic way. It helps to shape the theme in a coherent manner. For the present study following methods will be followed-

1. Primary data collection will be done by the help of field survey with elaborate interviews to develop a proper understanding of the research problem.
2. Simple calculation will be done to process the data—

$$\text{a) GER} = \frac{\text{total enrolment in Primary/U.P./Secondary/H.S.} \times 100}{\text{Population of age group in respective grade}}$$

Where GER is Gross Enrolment Ratio, U.P. is Upper Primary, H.S. is Higher Secondary.

b) Drop Out Rate

$$D = \frac{D \times 100}{E}$$

Where

D = numbers of student's dropping out from grade 'g' in year 't'

E = total numbers of student's in grade 'g' in year 't'

$$\text{a. CLGR} = \text{Anti log} \left[ \left\{ \frac{(\log P_n - \log P_o)}{10} - 1 \right\} \times 100 \right]$$

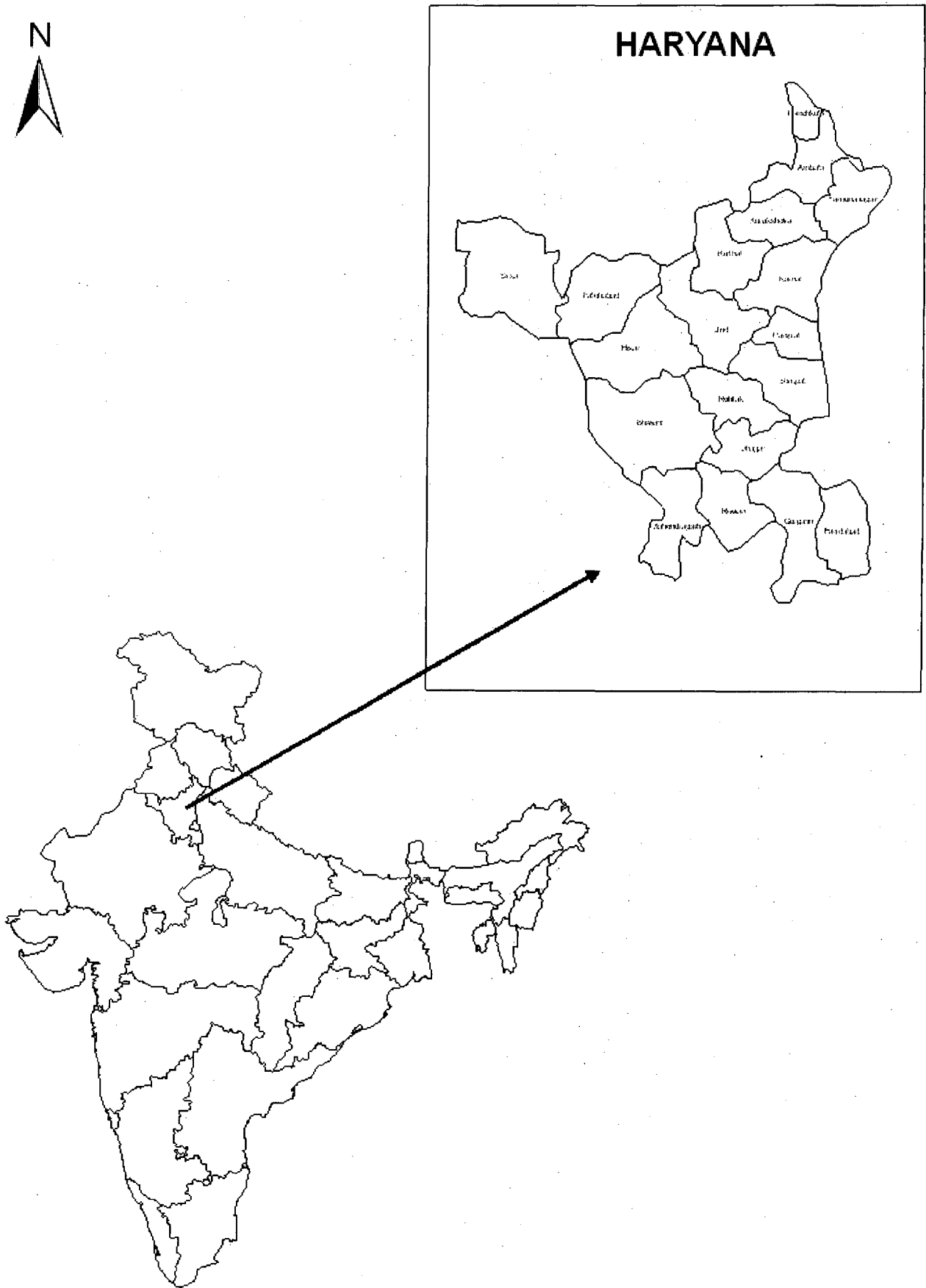
Where CLGR is Compound Literacy Growth Rate.

3. Cartographic representation of the indicators shall be done through the help of relevant maps.

## 1.6 Study Area

Haryana is one of the fast developing and the smallest state in India. According to 1991 census, total literacy rate in the state was 55.85 percent as against the 52.21

# LOCATION MAP OF STUDY AREA





percent for the country as a whole. In 2001, it went up to 67.91 percent. Scheduled Caste literacy rate in the state is low in the state as compared to non scheduled caste literacy rate. It was 39.22 percent in 1991 as against 55.85 percent for the non scheduled caste. By 2001, however it went up to 55.44 percent. Non-scheduled caste and scheduled caste female literacy is low compared to male literacy. Female literacy rate was 55.73 percent in 2001 compared to 54.03 percent for national average. In area of school education, Haryana has improved a lot since 1966 (when it came into existence). In area of providing schooling facilities in rural habitation, it has made a quite remarkable progress.

**Table No. 1.1 Percentage of Population with and with out Primary Schools**

India (Primary school )										
All Community						Scheduled Caste				
No. of Survey	Within Habitatn	Up to .5 km	.6 to 1 km	1.1 to 2 km	> 2 km	Within Habitatn	Up to .5 km	.6 to 1 km	1.1 to 2 km	> 2 km
4 <sup>th</sup> AIES	78.53	6.6	7.69	5.03	2.15	62.4	12.93	13.6	8.32	2.74
5 <sup>th</sup> AIES	80.38	6.37	7.33	4.06	1.43	66.31	12.78	12.1	6.59	2.2
6 <sup>th</sup> AIES	77.81	7.69	8.27	4.24	2	67	232	3.11	2.67	0.44
7 <sup>th</sup> AIES	78.17	6.69	2.35	4.17	1.66	68.05	11.3	13.5	5.32	1.84
Haryana (Primary school)										
4 <sup>th</sup> AIES	94.07	2.62	1.89	1.15	0.27	79.89	7.45	8.97	3.25	0.44
5 <sup>th</sup> AIES	96.68	1.62	1.07	0.5	0.12	89.95	3.29	4.99	1.42	0.81
6 <sup>th</sup> AIES	94.47	2.24	1.7.46	1.15	0.38	83	14.52	12.5	6.21	2.46
7 <sup>th</sup> AIES	94.81	0.71	2.35	1.64	0.49	86.44	1.76	5.74	4.59	1.46

Source: Calculated from All India Educational Survey (1<sup>st</sup> AIES= 1978, 2<sup>nd</sup> AIES= 1986, 3<sup>rd</sup> AIES = 1993, 4<sup>th</sup> AIES 2002), NCERT. (Habitatn= Habitation)

According to the norms set in area of school education, primary school should be available within one k.m. of distance from the residence and upper primary school should be available within 3 k.m. of distance from the residence Table No.1.1 presents the availability of primary schooling facilities in rural habitations. In Rural Habitations in 4<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey (AIES), 94.07 percent of population was served by primary school within habitation, 5 percent of population within 2 k.m., and 0.27 percent of population did not have primary schools in 2 k.m. in Haryana, while India was far behind with 78.53 percent, 19 percent and 2.15 percent of population in respective categories. In habitations predominantly populated by scheduled castes, 79.89 percent of population was served by primary school within habitation, 16 percent of population within 2 k.m. and 0.44 percent of population was not being served with primary schools in 2 k.m. in Haryana. All India average was again less than state average of 62.4 percent, 35 percent and 1.84 percent in respective

categories. In 7<sup>th</sup> AIES, the facilities remained almost the same in Haryana and India both. But in habitation predominantly dominated by scheduled caste, educational facilities had improved drastically. In compare to 4<sup>th</sup> AIES, Haryana 15 percent more population had come under category enjoying schooling facilities within habitation, 12 percent population is being served within 2 k.m. and 1.46 percent still walk more than 2 k.m. of distance for primary schools. Haryana's educational facilities still remained better than national average. In India, 68.05 percent population was served with primary school within habitation, 33 percent were served within a walking distance of 2 k.m., and 1.84 percent still had to walk a distance of more than 2 k.m. Thus, it can be said that while primary schooling facilities has improved marginally in Haryana in all community category, but in scheduled caste category, the facilities has improved drastically from 4<sup>th</sup> AIES to 7<sup>th</sup> AIES.

**Table No. 1.2 Percentage of Population with and with out Upper Primary Schools**

India (Upper Primary school)										
All Community						Scheduled Caste				
No. of Survey	Within Habitatn	Up to 1 Km	1.1 to 2 Km	2.1 to 3 Km	> 5 km	Within Habitatn	Up to 1 km	1.1 to 2 km	2.1 to 3 km	> 5km
4th AIES	33.47	13.1	17.8	14.5	7.9	12.92	20	23.2	18.1	8.72
5th AIES	15.42	21.6	24.6	17.8	6.2	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
6th AIES	37.02	19.9	16.4	11.7	5.3	18.5	29	20.9	14.2	5.94
7th AIES	41.77	17	18	12	3.3	24.21	23.2	23.3	15.6	3.58
Haryana (Upper Primary Level)						Haryana (Upper Primary Level)				
4th AIES	46.78	7.85	16.5	14.1	3.2	8.77	11.2	25.2	22.4	5.89
5th AIES	31.66	12.3	24.5	17.7	2.4	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
6th AIES	64.7	10.2	11.4	6.93	1.6	41.25	14.7	21.4	8.78	3.08
7th AIES	72.51	8.45	10.6	5.17	0.5	48.9	12.7	21.8	9.21	1.21

Source: Calculated from All India Educational Survey (AIES) (1<sup>st</sup> AIES= 1978, 2<sup>nd</sup> AIES= 1986, 3<sup>rd</sup> AIES = 1993, 4<sup>th</sup> AIES 2002), NCERT. (Habitatn= Habitation)

Table no. 1.2 shows that in the area of upper primary schooling facilities in, 4<sup>th</sup> AIES, only 46.78 percent of rural population of Haryana was served by the upper primary school within habitation of residence, 31 percent within 1 k.m. to 3 k.m. and 3.22 percent walked more than 5 k.m., comparative figures for national average were 33.47 percent, 33 percent and 7.9 percent respectively. However upper primary schooling facilities in rural habitation predominantly populated by SC were unsatisfactory. Haryana's condition was very poor in comparison to India. Only 8.77 percent of population was served with upper primary schools within habitation and 47.6 percent within 1 k.m. to 3 k.m. of distance and 5.89 percent did not have upper primary schools within distance of 5 k.m. National average was slightly better than

Haryana with 12.92 percent, 41 percent, and 8.72 percent in respective categories. In 7<sup>th</sup> AIES, though Haryana had improved a lot but still much work need to be done for achieving the set norms. 72.51 percent of population was served within the habitation, 15.75 percent within 1 k.m. to 3 k.m. and 0.51 percent did not have the facility within 5 k.m. in Haryana while comparative figures for national average were 41.77 percent, 30 percent, 3.33 percent. In Haryana, in the rural habitation predominantly populated by SC, 5.74 percent of population still did not have the upper primary schools within 3 k.m. and in India 10 percent of population fell under this category. Thus, in both all community and SC category, Haryana and National average has improved a lot but still facilities in habitation predominantly habituated by SC remained inadequate. In both categories, state average is better than national average.

**Table No. 1.3 Percentage of Population with and with out Secondary Schools**

India (Secondary Level)												
All Community							Scheduled Caste					
No. of Survey	Within Habitation	Up to 2 Km	2.1 to 4 Km	4.1 to 6 Km	6.1 to 8 km	more than 8 km	Within Habitation	Up to 2 Km	2.1 to 4 Km	4.1 to 6 Km	6.1 to 8 km	more than 8 km
4th AIES	14.58	18.4	24.03	16.97	8.2	17.82	4.54	22.4	27.2	19.55	9.29	17
5th AIES	17.73	21.49	24.61	15.5	7.21	13.46	6.58	26.5	27.43	17.15	7.98	14.4
6th AIES	18.29	27.16	23.22	30.13	6.91	9.94	8.5	34.2	25.57	15.03	7	9.34
7th AIES	20.55	25.43	25.14	14.46	6.30	8.13	9.95	31.7	28.79	15.24	6.39	7.96
Haryana (Secondary school)												
4th AIES	30.86	18.82	26.84	14.58	5.07	3.83	2.99	22	32.39	17.01	12.46	13.2
5th AIES	46.04	21.29	21.32	7.76	2.12	1.47	15	29.5	34.87	14.33	4.2	2.08
6th AIES	48.87	22.22	18.21	7.18	2.23	1.29	27.8	28.9	24.72	11.6	4.11	3.49
7th AIES	57.98	21.09	15.35	4.34	0.87	0.37	35.3	34.5	21.94	6.77	0.81	0.77

Source: Calculated from All India Educational Survey (AIES), 1<sup>st</sup> AIES= 1978, 2<sup>nd</sup> AIES= 1986, 3<sup>rd</sup> AIES = 1993, 4<sup>th</sup> AIES 2002, NCERT. (Habitation= Habitation)

In the area of providing secondary schooling facilities, Haryana has improved gradually from 4<sup>th</sup> AIES to 7<sup>th</sup> AIES. During 4<sup>th</sup> AIES in Haryana, 30.86 percent of population was served by secondary school within habitation of residence, 47 percent of population within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m, rest 3.83 percent had no secondary school within the distance of 8 k.m. and comparative figures for national average were 14.58%, 41 percent and 17.82 percent. In rural areas predominantly habitated by SC population, only 2.99 percent of population in Haryana served by secondary school within habitation of residence, 62 percent within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m. of distance from habitation, 13.16 percent did not have facilities within 8 k.m of distance. National average was slightly better with 4.54 percent, 46.55 percent and 17.04 percent in respective

categories. In 7th AIES, Haryana had improved a lot, its 57.98 percent of rural population was served by secondary school within the habitation of residence, 19 percent of population within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m. of distance and 0.37 percent did not have secondary schools within 8 k.m. Haryana's position was quite better than national average, national average showed that only 20.55 percent of population had access to secondary school within habitation, 71 percent within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m., and 8.13 percent were not served within 8 k.m. In habitation predominantly populated by SC, Haryana had improved, now 35.25 percent population was served by secondary school within habitation, 30 percent within 2 to 8 k.m. and only 0.77 percent did not have the facilities within 8 k.m. India's figure with 9.95 percent, 54 percent and 7.96 percent in respective categories shows that Haryana is providing better facilities than the national average.

**Table No. 1.4 Percentage of Population with and with out Higher Secondary Schools**

India (Higher Secondary Level)												
All Community							Scheduled Caste					
No. of Survey	Within Habitatn	Up to 2 Km	2.1 to 4 Km	4.1 to 6 Km	6.1 to 8 km	more than 8 km	Within Habitatn	Up to 2 Km	2.1 to 4 Km	4.1 to 6 Km	6.1 to 8 km	more than 8 km
4 <sup>th</sup> AIES	2.78	6.36	10.5	11.85	9.59	58.92	0.6	8.09	14.56	14.94	11.96	49.85
5 <sup>th</sup> AIES	4.18	8.35	13.4	14.1	10.94	49.03	1.7	11.39	16.53	16.24	12.08	42.05
6 <sup>th</sup> AIES	5.36	15.24	15.48	15.36	12.16	36.4	2.3	18	17.96	16.29	12.5	32.97
7 <sup>th</sup> AIES	8.30	13.75	19.38	16.55	10.53	31.49	3.95	18.07	23.93	17.85	10.66	25.53
Haryana (Higher Secondary school)												
4 <sup>th</sup> AIES	1.54	3.46	7.9	9.59	10.62	66.89	nil	6.4	12.88	8.76	9.3	62.66
5 <sup>th</sup> AIES	4.41	4.16	10.37	13.97	14.73	52.36	1.31	6.91	13.06	16.83	12.67	49.22
6 <sup>th</sup> AIES	9.75	15	16.87	18.28	14.11	25.99	1.57	16.3	15.89	12.91	14.9	38.42
7 <sup>th</sup> AIES	24.53	18.29	25.12	18.48	7.43	6.15	10.69	23.43	27.74	18.52	9.01	10.62

Source: Calculated from All India Educational Survey (AIES), 1<sup>st</sup> AIES= 1978, 2<sup>nd</sup> AIES= 1986, 3<sup>rd</sup> AIES = 1993, 4<sup>th</sup> AIES 2002, NCERT. (Habitatn= Habitation)

In the area of higher secondary schools, Haryana has improved slowly and still has much to improve. In 4<sup>th</sup> the AIES, 1.54 percent of population was served by higher secondary schools within habitation, 27 percent population within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m. and 66.89 percent population did not have higher secondary schools within 8 k.m. of distance, comparative figure for national average were 2.78 percent, 30 percent, 58.92 percent in different categories respectively. In the rural habitations predominantly populated by SC, there was no higher secondary school within habitation of residence, 29 percent within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m. and 62.66 percent still have to walk more than 8 k.m., while in national average, only 0.6 percent are served by higher secondary

school within habitation 42 percent within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m. and 49.85 percent did not have school within 8 k.m. In the 7<sup>th</sup> AIES, Haryana, 24.53 percent of population was served by higher secondary school within habitation, 51.03 percent within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m., 6.15 percent did not have access to higher secondary schools within 8 k.m. of distance, while national average was far behind with 8.30 percent, 46 percent, and 31.49 percent in respective category. In the rural habitations predominantly populated by SC in Haryana, only 10.69 percent of population had access to higher secondary schools within habitation, 55 percent within 2 k.m. to 8 k.m., 10.62 percent of population did not have access to school within 8 k.m. of distance, while national average was far behind than Haryana with 3.95 percent, 52 percent, 25.53 percent in respective categories. Thus we see that Haryana, which was lagging behind from the national average in the 4<sup>th</sup> AIES, goes way above in national average by the 7<sup>th</sup> AIES.

Besides schooling facility, gender gap in education is also a matter of concern. In all the four surveys, gender disparity has decreased in the both Haryana and the national average in all the four levels i.e. primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary in both all community category and scheduled caste category. In all the four surveys, disparity has decreased in the both state and national average. But in spite of this gradual decrease, in Haryana disparity is higher than the national average in all the four surveys. When national level scenario presented 0.22, 0.43, 0.43 disparity in upper primary, secondary, higher secondary for scheduled caste, Haryana witnessed 0.23, 0.44, 0.50 disparity in respective classes. Though in both the rural and the urban areas, disparity had decreased in both Haryana and India, but in the rural areas this decrease was more drastic than the urban areas. In secondary and higher secondary classes, decrease in disparity was higher than primary and upper primary level in rural areas of both Haryana and India. In Haryana when disparity had decreased from 0.56, 0.79 (4<sup>th</sup> AIES) to 0.35, 0.37 (7<sup>th</sup> AIES) in primary and upper primary respectively, secondary and higher secondary has witnessed the decrease of 0.92, 1.13 (4<sup>th</sup> AIES) to 0.41, 0.47 (7<sup>th</sup> AIES) in respective classes in all community category. In scheduled caste category, disparity had decreased from 0.41, 0.68 (5<sup>th</sup> AIES) to 0.34, 0.39 (7<sup>th</sup> AIES) in primary and upper primary respectively and from 0.92, 1.02 (5<sup>th</sup> AIES) to 0.46 and 0.54 (7<sup>th</sup> AIES) in secondary and higher secondary.

**Table No. 1.5 Girls-Boys Disparity In Enrolment**

No of survey/area	ALL COMMUNITY				SCHEDULED CASTE			
	PR	UP	SEC	HSEC	PR	UP	SEC	HSEC
<i>Total</i>	India							
4th AIES	0.44	0.52	0.57	0.65	0.50	0.63	0.68	0.84
5th AIES	0.41	0.48	0.54	0.55	0.44	0.54	0.61	0.67
6th AIES	0.38	0.43	0.47	0.48	0.40	0.47	0.57	0.56
7th AIES	0.34	0.37	0.40	0.40	0.34	0.22	0.43	0.43
	Haryana							
4th AIES	0.52	0.65	0.67	0.53	0.67	0.99	1.15	NA
5th AIES	0.41	0.54	0.17	0.56	0.39	0.65	0.83	0.84
6th AIES	0.35	0.42	0.77	0.54	0.35	0.46	0.53	0.73
7th AIES	0.35	0.37	0.40	0.43	0.34	0.23	0.44	0.50
<i>Urban</i>	India							
4th AIES	0.36	0.42	0.47	0.55	0.41	0.51	0.59	0.80
5th AIES	0.36	0.40	0.46	0.49	0.38	0.45	0.54	0.62
6th AIES	0.34	0.36	0.40	0.43	0.35	0.39	0.46	0.50
7th AIES	0.33	0.34	0.36	0.37	0.35	0.35	0.38	0.40
	Haryana							
4th AIES	0.35	0.43	0.48	0.47	0.50	0.82	0.94	NA
5th AIES	0.33	0.41	0.46	0.49	0.33	0.53	0.65	0.76
6th AIES	0.33	0.36	0.95	0.50	0.28	0.39	0.47	0.69
7th AIES	0.36	0.37	0.38	0.40	0.31	0.33	0.37	0.46
<i>Rural</i>	India							
4th AIES	0.47	0.60	0.67	0.93	0.52	0.70	0.77	0.95
5th AIES	0.43	0.53	0.60	0.66	0.46	0.59	0.67	0.76
6th AIES	0.40	0.47	0.53	0.56	0.42	0.52	0.58	0.63
7th AIES	0.34	0.39	0.44	0.44	0.34	0.41	0.46	0.48
	Haryana							
4th AIES	0.56	0.79	0.92	1.13	0.71	1.07	1.30	NA
5th AIES	0.42	0.60	0.73	0.89	0.41	0.68	0.92	1.02
6th AIES	0.36	0.44	0.51	0.62	0.36	0.49	0.62	0.80
7th AIES	0.35	0.37	0.41	0.47	0.34	0.39	0.46	0.54

Source: Calculated from All India Educational Survey (AIES), 1<sup>st</sup> AIES= 1978, 2<sup>nd</sup> AIES= 1986, 3<sup>rd</sup> AIES = 1993, 4<sup>th</sup> AIES 2002, NCERT, PR= Primary, UP= Upper Primary, SEC= Secondary, HSEC= Higher Secondary.

Thus, it can be said that disparity has decreased gradually throughout four surveys in Haryana. But still position of Haryana is not as good as that of India, gender disparity is slightly higher in Haryana in all classes. Some exception are also visible from the data e.g. in 7<sup>th</sup> AIES in upper primary and secondary classes secondary classes, in rural areas Haryana has 0.37, and 0.41 disparity, India has little higher disparity 0.39 and 0.44 in respective classes in all community categories.

### 1.7 Organisation of the Study

The work has been divided in five chapters. In the first chapter, I will discuss the importance of school education, historical growth of school education, objective of the study, hypotheses, data base, and sources for the data collection and area of the study.

The second chapter deals with problems and prospects of the school education in India. For a broad understanding of the research problem, review of the various works will be done under this chapter.

Third chapter has an empirical basis. Historical growth of educational development is traced out from 1971 to 2001 with help of census data. In this the district's profile will be discussed which will include demography, social, economic, educational profile. Education profile will include education level, literacy rate, compound literacy growth rate, status of child labour based on census data. Besides this, the present school education scenario will be discussed which will include gross enrolment ratio, drop out rate, ancillary facilities calculated from 7<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey.

The fourth chapter will be based on primary field survey. This chapter will deal with the village profile of two the villages which will include demography, education, literacy profile, village education committee; schooling facilities etc. A comparative study of both the villages will be done. The following questions will sought to be investigated- Up to what extent the decentralisation of the educational administration can influence school education? How can Village Education Committees make a difference in the working of the schools? Does Community Participation play a key role in running government schools? What are the factors which can encourage community mobilization? Which of the factors influence the working of VEC? What is the impact of the mushrooming of the private schools on Government School's working? A comparative study of the two villages will be attempted to find the answer to the above questions.

The last chapter consists of a summary of conclusions and suggestions for future research.

**CHAPTER 2**  
**PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS OF SCHOOL EDUCATION: A**  
**SURVEY OF EXISTING LITERATURE**

**2.1 Introduction**

The principle of the 1959, Declaration of rights of the child states –

*“The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages....education is a critical component in personal fulfilment and in individual and group social mobility, and thus it is unfair that individual can be denied access to education simply because their families are unable to pay the fee.”<sup>1</sup>*

Since independence, various policies and strategies were adopted for universalization of elementary education. But even after 61 years of independence, we are not able to provide basic education to all the children. Efforts have been made for planned development of education and to bring about changes in the structure of educational administration. These development measures were based on the recommendation of various education commissions and committees. Different areas which were focused in these strategies were, to open schools in inaccessible areas, to decrease the drop out rate, increase the retention rate, make schools more accessible for girls and children from vulnerable sections of the society, to bring out of school children back to school, incentives for making the school more attractive etc. Various incentives were started like the mid day meal scheme, free books and uniforms were provided to the girls and SC/ST children. But still community, caste, region and gender wise imbalance persisted.

The objective of this chapter is to outline the theoretical underpinnings of research hitherto done on school education. To study the problems related to school education and its various aspects, the literature cited has been classified into two sub-

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<sup>1</sup> Bray, M. “Is Free Education in the Third World either Desirable or Possible”, *Journal of Education Policy*, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1987, pp. 119-129.



themes. The first theme is focused on the studies related to various factors which work as barriers in accessing the school education. This includes issues related to universalization of school education, drop outs, girls' education, caste issues, out of school children, child labour, privatisation of school education, non formal education, mid day meal etc. The second theme covers the studies on decentralisation of educational administration, Village Education Committees and community participation.

## **2.2 Hindrances towards Achieving the School Education**

In this section of the study, effort has been made to bring out the various problems highlighted in existing literature in universalising education.

### **2.2.1. Universalization of School Education**

J.P Singh's<sup>2</sup> in his work on universalization of education mentioned that people were gradually becoming more and more sensitive to the value of education in their lives than ever before. Among the factors working as hindrance in the way towards universalization of education- abject poverty, poor standard of teaching in government schools, unavailability of infrastructure, inadequate budgetary allocation to education, rapid rise in population, bad governance, lack of strong political will, were being considered as the most important ones. The author suggested that a higher expenditure, greater bureaucratic efficiency, and sincerity and integrity of public servants and social mobility were important conditions to expedite the process of universal education.

Deepa Mukherjee's<sup>3</sup> study pointed out that elementary education system served as base on which the super structure of the entire education system was built. But still it did not get the importance, it should have been given. Attainment of basic education was more important both due to its impact on the living standards of the people as also in augmenting their capabilities. Enrolments in schools had improved

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<sup>2</sup> Singh, J. P. "State of Universal Education in India", *Journal of Educational Planning and Administration (JEPA)*, Vol. 26, No. 4, October 2002, pp. 471-482.

<sup>3</sup> Mukherjee, Dipa. "Educational Attainment in India: Trends, Patterns and Policy Issues" *JEPA*, Vol. XIX, No. 4, October 2005, pp. 523-541.

in recent years but the retention rates were poor and only a fraction of enrolled students completed even the primary classes. Factors like poverty, presence of a wide child labour market, absence of assured employment after schooling and infrastructural problems were identified as the failure of elementary education system in India. Providing incentives for attending school, making the schooling process attractive to the children, streamlining the middle and high curriculum to make it more vocational and job oriented and providing better infrastructure for school were some of the suggestions made, which, if implemented as policies it was said, would improve the picture.

P. S. Raghavendra and K. S. Narayana<sup>4</sup> in their paper on problems of Elementary Education had however traced different factors responsible for the educational deprivation of India. Historically caste, religion and linguistic associations had contributed to the development of education. Because of this, regional, community, caste and gender imbalances still persisted in education. Geographically India being an agro-based country, it offered varied work opportunities and engaged a large segment of illiterate labour force, thereby pushing the need and importance of literacy to the back-seat. On the financial part, the allocation of money for elementary education had always been scarce and a significant part of that had been accounted for salaries of teachers and education administrators, leaving little money for infrastructure and other development. The author suggested that allocation should be increased at least up to 6percentof GDP and higher share should be wisely utilized to develop infrastructure. Effective campaigns through multimedia should be carried out to create awareness and need for childrens' education. Gram panchyats should play more meaningful role in identifying and enrolling the non-school goers by convincing parents about the necessity of sending children to school.

On the other hand, Shripad S. Bolashetty and L. L. Girija's<sup>5</sup> study on elementary education as fundamental right, pointed out that the main hurdle in the

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<sup>4</sup> Raghavendra, P. S. and K. S. Narayana. "Problems and Prospects of Elementary Education and Literacy in India" *Perspective in Education*, Vol. 20, No. 3, 2004.

<sup>5</sup> Bolashetty, Shripad S. and L. L. Girija. "Fundamental Human Right to Free and Compulsory Elementary Education in India: Origin, Progress and Present Status" *JEPA*, Vol. XVIII, No. 1, January 2004, pp. 57-82.

success of education was corruption, perpetuated by both the political and social condition of the country. The educational resources, right from the lower level to the upper level had been misused. Another problem was the access to educational institutions which included both physical and social problems. Though physical accessibility has been overcome up to a certain extent but social inaccessibility still persists. Caste and gender factor were seen to fall within this category. This unequal access to education led to inequality in the society. The author said that there was need for setting up realistic achievable targets, with conceivable maximum input of planning and resources- financial as well as human. The state had to meaningfully transfer the fundamental right to education into a reality without any further delay and had to bear the full cost of primary education and make it totally free of private cost.

Mohd. Sanjeer Alam<sup>6</sup> in his study “Genesis and Perpetuation of Social disparities in the School Education in India: An Explanatory Analysis” has tried to study the genesis of disparities in school education in India since colonial times. Though the magnitude of the disparities over the years has come down, but even then the wide gap in education among the different segments of the population still existed in spite of the several constitutional/legal provisions to equalise educational opportunities. In the case of gender disparities the author had mentioned poverty, lack of educational facilities for girls, gender division of labour and social attitude as the major reasons for educational deprivation of girls. In the case of caste disparity, a number of empirical studies had revealed that the practise of untouchability in schools, more especially in rural areas still persisted. The study suggested that some affirmative actions should be taken for disadvantaged and underprivileged so it would be possible for all to lead valuable and valued life.

V.N. Kothari<sup>7</sup> has pointed out some other factors responsible for the failure of universalization of education in our country in his work “Challenges of Universalization of Elementary Education in India”. Though India was not spending less as a proportion of GDP than others countries such as China and Srilanka, still elementary age enrolment fell short of 100 per cent in India while these countries had

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<sup>6</sup> Alam, Mohd. Sanjeer. “Genesis and Perpetuation of Social disparities in the School Education in India: An Explanatory Analysis”, *JEPA*, Vol. XXI, No. 2, April 2007.

<sup>7</sup> Kothari, V. N. “Challenges of Universalization of Elementary Education in India” *JEPA*, Vol. XVIII, No. 3, July 2004, pp. 363-378.

attained universal elementary education. He mentioned that economic factors could hard press very poor family to put their children at work to supplement meager family income. It included working for wages or working on family farm or working in household establishment, inability to incur necessary school related expenditure etc. Also, it was said that without any literate adult at home, a family might not be aware of the opportunities which could come as result of literacy and education. Physical environment factors such as sanitation, roads transport, general law and order, water supply, control of communicable diseases, health facilities and low level of development of these facilities could adversely affect school attendance. The work suggested that for construction labourer, seasonal migrant labourer, street children, children engaged in gainful activities, illegal and criminal activities, girls and first generations learners, school had to become more attractive.

K. R. Shah's<sup>8</sup> paper on policies in elementary education in India noted that the elementary education had suffered in the process at the hands of our planners and politicians alike. The constancy of crucial ratios like, pupil teacher ratio, salary per teacher, ratio between salary and non-salary expenditure failed to hold good in favour of elementary education. It suggested for reallocation of resources in any of plan for expansion of educational facilities for elementary education. The work pointed out that per pupil real expenditure in terms of the rising wholesale and consumer prices had increased where as in terms of constant salary per teacher, it had fallen. Teacher-pupil ratio at elementary level was far more than the norms of 1:35. In terms of training and educational qualifications, teachers were qualitatively superior. But if quality of education was observed in respect to qualitative indicators- real expenditure per pupil, teacher pupil ratio, the disproportionate share of non-salary expenditure, then it would be clearly shown that quality might have deteriorated. The drop-out rate had not dropped and retention had not increased to satisfactory levels. The author suggested to improve the intra-sectoral resource allocation in elementary education.

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<sup>8</sup> Shah, K. R. "Policy Issues in Elementary Education in India" in Yash Aggerwal and Kusum K. Premi, *Reforming School Education: Issues in Policy Planning and Implementation*, National Institute of Educational and Planning and Administration.

Devraj Chauhan<sup>9</sup> pointed that failure of the state in providing free and compulsory education had brought out the imbalanced development of our education system. More than 1/3<sup>rd</sup> of our children dropped out without completing the primary level after enrolment and more than half of them before completing VIII class. Among drop outs there were more girls than boys, from the vulnerable sections of society. The study pointed out that adult literacy, primary education, vocational education, technical education, decentralization of management should be the areas to make education relevant to the needs of community and to achieve the Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE). Parent's attitude towards the child's education and state's responsibility towards fulfilling the universalization goal were most important. Improving the teaching quality and teacher's educational qualifications and providing good school facilities would be extensively helpful to the parents in motivating and preparing their children towards primary education. The author suggested that locating education backward districts rather than states, providing universal access to education facilities to girls, socially backward groups, and working children, participative approach by process of mobilization and motivation and over all planning could prove helpful to achieve the objective of universal Primary Education.

A. R. Vasavi and Archana Mehandale<sup>10</sup> in their paper on out of school children opined that the large and significant body of out of school children reflected not only the failure of the state and the education system to ensure universal access to elementary education but also the persistence of a range of social disadvantages which combine to deprive children the opportunity to be educated. Other reasons for non-enrolment and drop-out were domestic responsibilities, migration, and early marriage, parent's lack of interest and sibling care. In the context of child labour, the author observed that the growth of urban informal sectors and tertiary sectors drew the labour of children and acted as magnets for children to withdraw from school and placed into labour conditions. The lack of state regulations on prohibition of child labour in these sectors provided the base for these sectors to draw on the labour of

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<sup>9</sup> Chauhan, Devraj. "Education for All by 2000: Still a Distant Dream" *Kurukshetra*, September 1997, pp. 2-11.

<sup>10</sup> Vasavi, A. R. et. al. "Out of School Children: Contexts and Experiences of Education Deprivation" *JEPA*, Vol. XVII, No. 1, January 2003, pp. 69-84.

children. The inability of larger political system and educational system to address all these problems was solely responsible for failure of UEE.

Madhura Swaminathan and Vikas Rawal<sup>11</sup> in their study raised some other issues related to the status of primary education in India, putting it in a comparative framework, with the exception of Urban Kerala, attendance rate among girls was lower than among boys. School attendance was very low in Haryana, Orissa, Jammu and Kashmir. In spite of being one of the richest states, Punjab had only 25 percent of rural children attending school. But it was observed that pace of change in terms of education achievement in urban was slow as a whole, while the rural area had witnessed a rapid increase. In the BIMARU states the attendance rates had doubled. The proportion of never enrolled children had declined; special attention had been given to the problems of getting, older children (currently working or not attending school) back to school. Particular attention was needed to be given to the gender gap in educational achievements. In the context of child labour, it was opined that it was also easier to implement a policy of universal schooling than to enforce laws regulating the use of child labour. Absence of a functioning school in neighbourhood, poor quality of schooling and infrastructure were seen as the main determinants of non-attendance. Also, due to long years of deprivation and inadequate information about the returns of education, parents and children both were demotivated. The author had suggested that to attain the goal of universalization of primary education, legal compulsory and adequate public expenditure must be combined with social and political changes including changes in teachers and parents motivation.

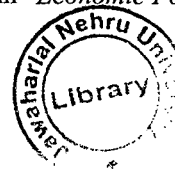
Rekha Kaul<sup>12</sup> had focussed her study to examine the barriers in access to primary education. She had studied the problem from two important perspectives i.e. Firstly, lack of basic facilities, class room pedagogy and low quality of education, secondly, need to go beyond the class room and look at the broader related structural issues located in society and prevailing power structures. The denial of education was linked to socio- economic conditions of the family which constitutes, low family earning, parental apathy for girls education in the form of denial of free accommodation of the hostels to the girls, sending the girls to government schools and

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<sup>11</sup> Swaminathan, Madhura and Vikas Rawal. "Primary Education for All" in Kirti S. Parikh (Ed), *India Development Report*, 1999, pp. 68-84.

<sup>12</sup> Kaul, Rekha. "Accessing Primary Education: Going Beyond Classroom" *Economic Political Weekly (EPW)*, January 13, 2001.

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boys to private schools, caste bias etc. Caste bias could be witnessed by Dalit representatives' were absent in VEC and school committees because, they felt that their presence would hardly made any difference in the school functioning. Unequal treatment meted out to dalit student by some of upper caste teachers in class rooms and the perception among upper castes that teacher from the lower rank caste group were of a low calibre because they got jobs due to reservation, shows that social attitude had not changed. Lack of basic infrastructural facilities like absence of toilets, pucca roads and shortage of staff were other major factors. The author had suggested adoption of more integrated development programme which would help to view education in relation to other core issues such as poverty alleviation, upliftment of the girl child, removal of bonded labour and landlessness.

Though poverty is the often as the repeated cause for the poor performance of India in the field of school education, but Shantha Sinha<sup>13</sup> in her work "Poverty Argument" had contested that poverty and financial crisis acted as a hurdle for access to school education. She had presented the evidence showing that a number of families with income below the normally defined poverty line send their children not to work but to school. She pointed out that the role which culture and other factors play in influencing the parents' decision to send their children to work or to school was more important. She revealed that examples of children from relatively poor families attending schools while their better off counter parts were sent to work. Accustomed by norms set for them over generations, these families have conventionally as a rule sending their children to work and notion of utilising an organization like the school is something that is really unknown. Sinha laid emphasis on motivating the parents and proposed to work out a mechanism that enables smooth transition of a child from a work situation to school. This discussion suggested that though the government had tried many programmes to counter these causes but still the problem existed. The need of a movement for social awareness was urgently required.

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<sup>13</sup> Sinha, Shantha and Mamindipudi Nagarjun. *Poverty Argument; In Context of Total Elimination of Child Labour*, M.V. Foundation, 2000.

### ***2.2.2 Gender Gap in School Education***

In the caste ridden society of India, gender based and community based bias has always been witnessed in the area of school education. Girls' education is still lagging behind in comparison to boys' education. Gender discrimination had always made its presence felt in access to school education. D. P. Chaudhari's<sup>14</sup> study on female child labour pointed that full time child female labour had been growing in both rural and urban areas. The rate of growth in urban area was faster. Two occupations where the growth of female child labour was alarmingly high were wage-based agricultural labour and manufacturing and household Industry. "No where children" are those children who neither fall under enrolled children category nor under child labourer category. The "no where" girls as a proportion of female child population as well as in absolute number continued to be a large segment of female child population in India. The study had counted that per capita income, infrastructural development of the state, female participation rested in non-agricultural activities and engagement of girls as labour force in agricultural, proportion of female agricultural workers emerged as the main reasons responsible for female child labour.

Martine Kruijtbosch<sup>15</sup> in her work "Girl Child and Education" had discussed various factors which worked as barriers to girls' access to school under pedagogical, institutional, financial, socio-cultural and economic factors. The pedagogical and institutional reasons were lack of adequate infrastructure (school, teacher, water and toilet facilities etc.) and low level of commitment in teachers, irrelevant curriculum, and school calendar did not allow girls to work during the peak harvesting season. The familial and socio-cultural ethos was that include girl's need to perform domestic chores, girl's earning and work need to supplement the poor family. The case study very lucidly explains the role of community participation in form of school girls committee, girls youth activities, volunteers and mahila organization, in helping to overcome the problems like lack of infrastructure and teachers, up gradation of primary school up to high school, bringing girls from child labour to school.

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<sup>14</sup> Chaudhari, D. P. "Female Child Labour and Gender Bias in School Education in Indian States: 1961-1991", *The Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, Vol. 40, No. 3, 1997.

<sup>15</sup> Kruijtbosch, Martine. *Girl Child and Education*, M.V. Foundation, Jeevan Institute of Printing, 2001.



Veena Kulkarni<sup>16</sup> has traced out the reason for low literacy among the girls. She studies the rural survey conducted by National Council of Applied Research (NCAER) in the states of Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, and Tamilnadu. She states the lack of conveniently located school as the major reason for influencing the dropout among girls. The highest level of school accessible within the village most often decides the maximum level of girl's education. Social attitude i.e. attitude of the parents, teacher and relative was considered as the other reason for highest dropout among girls. Girls were still considered as a liability that would leave house of the parents after marriage. So investment for their study was considered as wastage. Commonly accepted idea for male education was that higher the level of education that a boy attains, greater will be the economic return. Performance of the non-committed village school teacher was considered another cause. Financial crisis, economic constraints made it mandatory for girl child to contribute to house hold chores and work on farms which resulted in dropping out of school.

In contrast to the reason for backwardness for girls' education presented by Kulkarni, Jean Dreze<sup>17</sup> has discussed the reasons for Himachal's success in promoting female education. In Himachal, rate of school participation of girls almost was as high as that of boys. Womens' involvement in economics activities outside the house was higher than any other state in north India. It is mentioned that participation in economic matters provides the women more bargaining power in family matters. Against the idea of considering girl a liability, in Himachal concern for the well being of the daughter after marriage remain greater and education ultimately contributes to it. The State Government's long standing commitment to the promotion remained the other cause for the success.

In another study conducted by Marie Eve Bondroit<sup>18</sup>, on gender relation and schooling on Himachal Pradesh and Haryana, social conditions were found to be main reason behind the slow the female literacy growth rate. In Haryana, education has been seen as a mean to improve the marriage prospects. It is preferred to marry ones

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<sup>16</sup> Kulkarni, Veena. "Why they dropout? Reasons for Low Literacy among Girls", *Manushi*, November-December, 1996, New Delhi.

<sup>17</sup> Dreze, Jean. "A Surprising Exception: Himachal's Success in Promoting Female Education", *Manushi*, March- June, 1999.

<sup>18</sup> Bondroit, Marie Eve. "Gender Relations and Schooling: Himachal Pradesh vs. Haryana", in *Public Report on Basic Education in India (PROBE)*, Oxford University Press (OUP), 1999.

daughter before the age of 21. Attitude of society towards female seems the biggest hurdle for their education in Haryana. Even the teaching standard in Haryana are found to be very different and of lower quality.

Karuna Chanana<sup>19</sup> studies the situation of girls' education from human right perspective in her work "Gender Inequality in Primary Schooling in India". Denial of access to primary education was not only a denial of access to higher levels of education, but it was also a denial of basic human right. Besides, the idea that education is important for reforming the woman's position in the society, results in equality amongst men and women, ensures over all development of human resource besides the empowering of women through education. Principal of private unaided schools tended to confirm the trend that while son was enrolled in expensive school, the daughter was being sent to cheaper school. Besides, family's pivotal role, ideological commitment from the society was also crucial in gender equality. Even in the schemes implemented by the state the gender inequality persists, e.g. the all India average of scholarship varies from Rs. 67 for girls to Rs. 103 for boys in the rural areas. The author had suggested that it was not enough to formulate the policies but to evolve the strategies to counteract the ideological, structural and familial impediments so that the educational facilities were fully utilized.

Geetha B. Nabissan<sup>20</sup> in her study opines that the dynamics of schooling girl children are significantly related to their participation in socio-cultural and economic structures which sustains gender inequalities e.g., the organization of production and sexual division of labour, pattern of inheritance, social institutions and opportunities. The burden of work, nature of employment and other opportunities available to poor women were likely to be the important reasons for why girls were not sent to school. The substantial drop out of children especially at the middle stage of schooling is because of restrictions, takeovers and social pressures associated with puberty. The absence of schooling within safe distance, predominance of male teachers as well as co-education had been cited as major obstacles to girl's education. The author felt the need for a more liberal outlook on the issue of girl children and to analyze the

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<sup>19</sup>Chanana, Karuna. "Gender Inequality in Primary Schooling in India: The Human Right Perspective", *JEPA*, Vol. X, No. 4, October 1996, pp. 361-381.

<sup>20</sup> Nabissan, Geetha B. "Gender and Education: The Social Context of Schooling Girl Children in India" *Perspective in Education*, Vol. 11, No. 3 and 4, pp. 197-207.

relationship of economic and socio-cultural factors through which gender norms were mediated.

Usha Nair<sup>21</sup> in her work on pilot programme sponsored by UNESCO; 1992-1998, has made an effort to study various measures to improve girls' education. In the project, an effort had been made at sensitizing and orienting the educational administrators, the teacher, educators in Haryana concerning girls' education and other disadvantaged group of the society. Community was mobilised and mahila mandals were constructed for giving emphasis on gender equality. Efforts were made to improve the infrastructure. Community participated in the related issues i.e. education of girl child, removal of literacy and ill effects of liquor consumption on family budget and well being. School infrastructure was improved e.g. libraries were set up, multicoloured cloth bags were distributed etc. The project had achieved to increase mass awareness for promoting gender equality and improving the quality of primary education.

Shilpi and Suniti Sanwal<sup>22</sup> in their study on gender discrimination in primary education observed that large family size is the major factor responsible for educational deprivation among low socio group. Community participation activities such as street plays, rallies, cultural programs and orientation programs should be organized at regular intervals to highlight social evil like early marriage and child labour and gender biases. Adult education centres should be opened to widen the sphere of parents' thinking with deprived socio-economic background and educate them about the importance of girls' education. High teacher pupil ratio affect the ability of teachers, so efforts should be made by the government to appoint sufficient number of teachers to achieve the 1:35 NCERT norms of teacher pupil ratio. Government teachers who are base of education system should be encouraged and motivated to improve entire methods by various incentives such as best teacher award and promotion policies.

Besides gender bias, caste system has always played a very prominent role in every institution of the Indian society. Though intensity of the *caste bias* had

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<sup>21</sup> Nair, Usha. *Shiksha Lehar- An Action Research Project on Universalization of Primary Education Among Girls and Disadvantaged Groups in Rural Haryana*, NIEPA, New Delhi, 1997.

<sup>22</sup> Shilpi and Suniti Sanwal. "Gender Discrimination: A Hurdle in Primary Education" *JEPA*, Vol. XVI, No. 3, July 2002, pp. 399-409.

decreased but still it was evident, when we looked at enrolment and drop out rate, it became crystal clear that a particular section of our society was still lagging behind. Vandana Mahajan<sup>23</sup> in her study on district Hisar in Haryana had pointed out another form of gender in school education. The author observed that the village under study had almost an equal ratio of SC to OBC and other general category caste, more than 90 percent of the children in the government schools were from SC community and more than 90 percent of the children going to private school were from OBC and other population. Gender bias was again in favour of boys in private school was very sharp. A few children belonging to the rich background did not attend any school in village, but went to with English medium school situated in the nearest town. This presents a general phenomenon of school education in Haryana. The author also pointed out that in absence of any regulatory and accountability mechanism, the growth of poor infrastructural and indifferent academic quality of private school in Haryana remains unconstrained. The growth of private schools had widened the social differentiation and the gender gap. The author argued that there was a positive hope for government schools if the quality issue of the government school would be given proper attention.

### ***2.2.3. Inequality in School Education***

Indian school education has two parallel education system i.e. private schools for those who can afford to pay high fees, government schools for those who cannot pay exorbitant fees of private school and do not have access to any other better alternative. Yash Aggarwal<sup>24</sup> in his work “Primary Education in Unrecognised School in Haryana: A study of DPEP districts” studies the growth of private schools (recognised and unrecognised). Growth of these schools started increasing since 1990s. In the terms of availability of infrastructure facilities unrecognised school had better student class room ratio, availability of drinking water and toilet facilities was ensured. But in case of library, reference books, teaching learning material, these schools were lacking behind. Reasons observed for growth of these schools were mainly- their achievement in the public examination, teaching of English, dissatisfaction with

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<sup>23</sup> Mahajan, Vandana. “The Hidden Picture: A Case from Hisar District, Haryana” in Vimala Ramachandran (ed), *Gender and social Equity in Primary Education, Hierarchies of Access*, Sage Publication, 2004.

<sup>24</sup> Aggarwal, Yash. *Primary Education in Unrecognized Schools in Haryana- A study of DPEP District*, NIEPA, New Delhi, 2000.

performance of government school and the ability of the parents to pay for the cost of quality education in Haryana. The author pointed that absence of effective liaison between the government schools and community was responsible for emergence of private school as a significant component of school education. The author suggested that “private school should be seen as a supplementary to that of the government and not as a substitute or a replacement of one with other”.

Gernail Singh Sangwan<sup>25</sup> has critically examined the role of privatisation in school education in Haryana in “Shiksha Ka Private Dancha”. In the government school besides the poor quality of education, infrastructural facilities were severely inadequate. In most of the government school there was no science and commerce faculty and if it was there, the shortage of teachers and labs had made it meaningless. Private schools with all the required facilities were beyond the pocket of the masses. This turned education from a state run responsibility and welfare activity to shops run by unemployed youths. The role of teacher has changed from a guide to a salary seeking employee. Two parallel systems of education were being run; one for poor studying only in government school and other is for upper strata with expensive private schools.

Geeta G. Kingdon<sup>26</sup> has given important insights on the mushrooming of private unaided schools (PUAS). Because of the deterioration in the quality of the publicly funded schools, private schools were spreading in rural and urban areas both. It had been pointed out that enrolment in recognised primary PUA schools grew three times as much as enrolment in government and private aided school, e.g. 75percent of the total increase in primary enrolments between 1978 and 1986 was absorbed by PUA schools. The study shows that secondary PUAS were very few in numbers in comparison to elementary PUAS. This raised concerns to worry about the equity effects of the prevailing school education.

Besides private schools, there is another form of schooling called ‘Non Formal schools’. Under the influence of poverty argument and accepting the essence of child

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<sup>25</sup> Sangwan, Gernail Singh. “Shiksha Ka Private Dancha”, *Haryana Adhyapak Samaj*, No. 11, November 2002, pp. 15-16.

<sup>26</sup> Kingdon. Geeta G. “Private schooling in India; Size Nature and Equity Effects”, *EPW*. Vol. XXXI, No 51, December 21, 1996, pp. 3306-3314.

labour in running the family up to certain extent, government has started the system of non formal education. K. Jayachandrama Naidu<sup>27</sup> raised the question on the utility of non formal education and ultimately their existence. The author made an effort to examine whether there is equivalence of academic achievement of the students in non formal schools and formal schools. The findings of the study reflected that academic achievements of the learners of non formal education were very low compared to the academic achievement of the formal school children.

In her work “Child labour and education”, Shanta Sinha<sup>28</sup> held the policies and programmes adopted by the government for failure of universalising of education and ultimately for existence of child labour. The education policy had never been viewed as a method of keeping the children away from work. The emphasis had been on formulating a policy which would supply to requirement of the working child without actually by interfering with their work schedule. Instead of non formal education scheme, formal education, in the formative years of a child in the age group 5-14 years, had an intrinsic value that could not be provided by any other means including vocational education.

In order to attract children to school, government kept initiating new policies and incentive schemes. *Mid day meal* is one of those schemes. Mid day meal scheme was started as an incentive to bring the children to school and made them more regular. Though it helped to improve the attendance but it was also being seen as a measure to improve the nutritional level amongst children. Shantha Sinha<sup>29</sup> in her study “Mid Day Meals: A Need for Universal Coverage, Securing Children’s Right to Food”, opined that school should be recognised as an institution that not only provides children their right to education but must also be seen as the only institution that could offer all other rights to children. The study indicates that that there existed correlation between the mid day meal programme and enrolment of children, especially that of girls in schools. Children learnt to combat stubborn caste prejudices, they even sat

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<sup>27</sup> Naidu, Jayachandrama K. “A Comparative Story of the Academic achievement of the Students of formal and Non- Formal and Non-Formal Education”, *Indian Educational Review*, Vol. 33, No.1. January 1998. pp. 152-158.

<sup>28</sup> Sinha, Shanta. *Child Labour and Education*, M.V. Foundation, Jeevan Institute of Printing, 2004.

<sup>29</sup> Sinha, Shanta. *Mid Day Meal: A Need for Universal Coverage; Securing Children’s Right to Food*, M.V. Foundation, Jeevan Institute of Printing, 2004.

together and ate. In a way schools became spaces for harmonising relations among the communities. School should also be seen as an attempt to respond to the appalling conditions of health and poor food intake of millions of children in this country, e.g. NFHS data of 1998-1999 showed that 74percentof Indian children between 6-35 months of age were anaemic and thus impairing cognitive performance, behavioural and motor development, coordination and language development.

Suniti Gahlot<sup>30</sup> had critically examined the mid day meal scheme in Haryana, in her work “Mid Day Meal: Poshan Ya Kuposhan”. The grain supplied for scheme was of very bad quality and many a time hardly worth eating. Moreover the menu prepared for meal was not liked by the students. The untrained cooks hired by the schools just cooked for formality. As there was no separate place for kitchen; one room from the already existing building had been occupied for cooking the food. Instruments for cooking the food had not been supplied yet.<sup>31</sup> The head teacher was mostly occupied with managing the mid day meal. The author suggested that the scheme should be implemented in those states where there was no sufficient production of grain like Rajasthan. States like Haryana actually did not need it. It had also been suggested that Menu should be properly re-examined and all requirements should be supplied immediately. Besides cook, helper for distribution should be appointed. In ration buying committees teacher should be appointed.

Jean Dreze<sup>32</sup> had very well countered the argument given generally against mid day meal like, nutritional content of mid day meal was very low, scheme did not guarantee that having meal together at school will break the barrier at home also, or it would further lower the quality of education. In his study “Mid Day Meal and Children’s Right’s, Dreze argued that the low nutrition did not distract from the possibility of using mid day meal, but it suggested only to enhance the nutrition level. In response to the caste barrier argument, which says that having meals together at school did not guarantee the removal of caste barriers at home, Dreze said that whatever happen at home, the act of breaking traditional caste taboos at school was,

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<sup>30</sup> Gahlot, Suniti. “Mid Day Meal: Poshan Ya Kuposhan,” *Haryana Adhyapak Samaj*, No. 10, October 2004, pp. 12-14.

<sup>31</sup> Gahlot, Suniti. “Mid Day Meal: Poshan Ya Kuposhan,” *Haryana Adhyapak Samaj*, No.10, October 2004, pp. 13.

<sup>32</sup> Dreze, Jean. “Mid day meal and Children’s Right”, *EPW*, 8-14 May, 2004, p.1937.

quite significant in its own right. Against quality argument, he said that if it was felt that it affect the quality of education, the way to go was not to dismantle it but to ensure that adequate arrangements were made to upgrade the quality. He suggested to use the term 'school' in a broader meaning. The purpose for which schools had been created was not just imparting formal knowledge but to ensure wholesome upbringing of the children.

Prabhu Singh<sup>33</sup> had pointed out the lack of seriousness on the part of the government for the mid day meal scheme in Haryana in his study "Dam Todati Mid Day Meal Yojana." The lack of regular supply of ration and supply of grain which was of degraded quality, no arrangements for kitchen created problems in rainy seasons had made the scheme a bad joke.

Though many hurdles were being faced but the scheme should be continued and proper measures should be arranged for its implementation.

### **2.3 Decentralization of Education and Community Participation**

Vinod Raina<sup>34</sup> in his paper on decentralization of education said that many attempts have been made by the state, administration to introduce decentralized administration of education, such as the community development programme in 1952 and Balwant Rai Mehta committee,s recommendations in 1957. In 1986, in National Policy on Education (NPE) and in 1992, Programme of Action (POA), the need for an alternative to centralized bureaucracy in school education was forcefully reiterated. Many times it was asked whether; the community would be able to deliver their responsibility or not. In reply to this suspicion, the author said that this was reminiscent of the British, response to the concept of an independent India – Can they govern themselves?' however Raina argued that The motivation behind the state's efforts for decentralization of education was state's failure in universalizing elementary education. Because of the lack of will to provide 6percentof GDP to

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<sup>33</sup> Singh, Prabhu. "Dam Todati Mid Day Meal Yojana", *Haryana Adhyapak Sama,j*, No.10, October 2005, pp. 14-15.

<sup>34</sup> Raina, Vinod. "Decentralization of Education" in R. Govinda (eds), *India Education Report; Profile of Basic Education, National Institute of Educational and Planning and Administration*, Oxford University Press (OUP), 2002.



education, the Government wanted the community to contribute to various needs related to schooling.

But the decentralization remained confined only to administrative and management aspects. Baldev Mahajan<sup>35</sup> in his work on decentralized management of school education had discussed the various aspects of the decentralized administration of education. The issue of decentralized administration of education again became the centre of discussion with National Policy of Education (NPE), 1986 and Programme of Action (POA), 1992. The policy laid down that local community, through appropriate bodies, would be made responsible to play a major role in programme of school management. Establishment of Village Education Committee in each Village Panchyat was suggested by Programme of Action (POA), 1992. The author highlighted the advantages of decentralized management like mobilization of resources for infrastructural development, particularly construction of school building, exercising local supervision and control, bringing down the drop out rate and increase the enrolment. But lack of sufficient funds, illiteracy and incompetence of members of Village Education Committee proved to be the main hurdles for proper functioning of the Village Education Committee. Mechanisms suggested to encounter these problems were to provide adequate financial resources to Panchyati Raj functionaries in planning and management of education and need to train the VEC and PRI member to demand and serve the rights of children of the village.

It was expected that decentralisation of educational administration will involve people in solving the problems related to school education. But Manabi Majumadar<sup>36</sup> in her paper observed that decentralisation did not automatically enhance people's participation, what really mattered was people's mobilisation and organisation. She also raised the issue that it was very important to decide at which level of governance, the management and supervision of teachers should rest. The delegation of authority for the promotion and transfer of teachers and disciplinary action to PRI's was a really contentious issue and needed attention. Community participation should not be treated

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<sup>35</sup> Mahajan, Baldev. "Decentralised management of School Education and Panchyati Raj Institution" in Yash Aggerwal and Kusum K. Premi, *Reforming School Education: Issues in Policy Planning and Implementation*, National Institute of Educational and Planning and Administration.

<sup>36</sup> Majumadar, Manabi. "Decentralisation Reforms and Public Schools: A Human Development Perspective" *JEPA*, Vol. XVII, No. 4, October 2003, pp. 481-506.

like as an anti-teacher campaign. Local vigilance and monitoring should work to weaken the endemic dereliction of duties on the part of teachers by involving them in schooling matters and making greater professional demand on them, and certainly not by alienating them from their work. Thus, the control of the community on the teacher should be well defined.

Mahi Pal<sup>37</sup> also supported the argument by adding that There is alienation between the community and educational system and efforts towards ensuring larger enrolment, raising retention rates and improving the teacher learning process, has not succeeded substantially. Therefore it was being felt that people's participation and control was necessary for success on this front. The author pointed out that to enlist full participation of the people in primary education, control and power to take disciplinary action against the teaching staff should have been given to Gram Panchyat but it would further mean power to take action was still with state and its bureaucracy.

C. N. Bharti<sup>38</sup> critically analysed the process of decentralisation of educational administration in Haryana. It had been pointed that decentralisation of education could be very helpful. The administration of primary education had been shifted to Zila Parishad and Panchyats. But this programme would also encourage local political elements to interfere in the administration of school. Before implementing all these schemes, the government should ensure that proper environment existed like active Village Panchyat and Zila Parishad. The proper measures should be set for accountability of the Panchyats and Zila Parishad because after all they were also a part of government bureaucracy. In spite of being a positive step, this process of decentralization could be ineffective in the absence of the required conditions.

In this context, Vinod Raina<sup>39</sup> in another study, pointed out that community participation which did not come through a pressure from the below, but through government notification from the above, raised many important questions regarding

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<sup>37</sup> Pal, Mahi. "People Participation in Universalization of Primary Education." *Kurukshetra*. October-November 1996, New Delhi, pp. 81-84.

<sup>38</sup> Bharti, C. N. "Shikshak Andolan Tej Hoga", *Haryana Adhyapak Samaj*, No. 8, August 2001, pp. 4-6.

<sup>39</sup> Raina, Vinod. "Making Sense of Participation", in Govinda, R. and Rashmi Diwan (eds), *Community Participation and Empowerment in Primary Education*, Sage publication, 2003.

the processes' of decentralisation. Since community participation was coming from above, there should be viable safeguards and institutional mechanism to ensure that the quality of work did not further deteriorate. For active and meaningful participation, corresponding changes should be brought about in the institutional, social and political conditions. It must ensure political empowerment of the poor. Further, the study suggested that the communities themselves had class, caste, gender, religious ethnic affinities. So instead of ending the community participation project at local level communities, state should be allowed to play a major role if education was to be universalised.

P. K. Micheal Tharakan's<sup>40</sup> paper described how democratic decentralisation process had been enhanced through people's planning campaign in Kerala. The study mentioned the process through which decentralisation resulted in greater community participation in school education and it further resulted in improvement of the educational process. In Kerala, Village Panchyat had proved capable of bearing the organisational and academic responsibilities of the school complexes. Support from the elected representatives of the local community, mothers of school children, school authorities and teachers played remarkable role. It was found that even after weakening of these experiments, the only factor which promoted the cause of community participation was the commitment of the individual teachers and educational officers. The paper noted that though the direct involvement of the community was limited, but the wide public participation in conducting all experiments, legitimised the VEC, PTA and other committees. Kerala experiments had proved that popular committees had not only provided resources required for additional physical facilities, but a model of popular monitoring in academic matters-where people's representatives and educational experts works together, was also set.

Rajender Singh Yadav<sup>41</sup> studied the working of Village Education Committee in DPEP district of Haryana. He observed that the Village Education Committees played an important role in operationlisation of micro level planning and school

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<sup>40</sup> Tharakan, P. K. Micheal. "Community Participation in School Education: Experiments in the State of Kerala" in Govinda, R and Rashmi Diwan (eds), *Community Participation and Empowerment in Primary Education*, Sage publication, 2003.

<sup>41</sup> Yadav, Dr. Rajendra Singh. *Community Participation in Education: Role of Village Education Committee*, The Associated Publishers, New Delhi, 2006.

mapping in the village through a systematic house to house survey and periodic discussion with parents. He suggested that it required people's involvement and participation in the administration of education at the grass root level and the participation of voluntary agencies on a much larger scale. To achieve universal quality education, the Village Education Committee was expected to ensure that every child in every family participated in primary education through the process like school mapping and micro planning. R. S. Tyagi<sup>42</sup> in his work based on the two village studies of Bihar observed that VEC could play a very significant role in mobilisation of resources and in the creation and substance of awareness in the community about the educational development of the village. The VEC created such an environment where all the inherent difficulties of education administration were solved with the effort of the community.

Anjali Noronha<sup>43</sup> in her study on Madhya Pradesh located a different aspect of the community participation and its limitation. The community participation was in the form of contribution by parents and community leaders for school development. Some time political involvement played the role of a watchdog to supervise teacher, and ensured controlled use of resources etc. The study found that the Panchyat's involvement remained limited to the recruitment and control of Shiksha Karmi (teachers employed by panchyats). Teachers were also very vocal against this set up where they were controlled by illiterates. If any where, formal participation of Panchs and Sarpanchs was found, it was usually only where the headmaster or teachers were committed. Besides to achieve the involvement of the community, the intelligentsia, civil society institutions' and individuals had to be motivated for it. The state had to strengthen the will to motivate the political organisations to make the decentralisation effective.

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<sup>42</sup> Tyagi, R. S. "Role of Village Education Committees in improvement of Community Participation in Education" *JEPA*, Vol. XIII, No. 3, July 1999, pp. 345-359.

<sup>43</sup> Noronha, Anjali. "The Community in Charge: Shades of Experience from Madhya Pradesh" in Govinda, R. and Rashmi Diwan (eds), *Community Participation and Empowerment in Primary Education*, Sage publication, 2003.

While discussing Rajasthan Shiksha Karmi Project and Lok Jumbish Programme, Vimala Ramachandran<sup>44</sup> has attempted to study the role of community participation in reforming the school education and its limitations. According to her, community participation means participation of those who have little or no access to basic education- as a community, geographical area or gender. In VEC or other committees the poorest people, backward caste and women were given representation but they do not readily participate in the large societal forms and bodies. So the strategy used for community participation had to be changed. In the Rajasthan Shiksha Karmi Project, the community members helped in the selection of Shiksha Karmi's, in enrolment of children, and in day to day monitoring also. In the project, initially the community was driving force, but later on government officials gave much importance to Para teachers and community support was ignored. In Rajasthan Lok Jumbish, the main focus was on, to mobilise, motivate and energise the community. It was emphasised to create an environment where parents felt motivated to send their children to school. Involvement of teacher in the community was highlighted. The core principle was to rely on the people to diagnose the problem and articulate their demand. Findings of the project suggest that it was very difficult to build a consensus in an unequal society like India, so community participation needed a supportive environment and a very high level of commitment. The state also had to play a very proactive role in sustaining the level of community participation.

P. K. Acharya and Girija Shankar<sup>45</sup> laid emphasis on the role of community participation in universalization of primary education through discussion of the Janshala Programme which was a joint venture of the government of India and the five UN agencies (UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA, UNESCO, and ILO). The formation and function of school committee, parent teacher association, mother teacher association, were the important measures adopted to ensure community participation in school management. The authors suggests that system of regular monthly meeting of the school committee, distribution of training module and reference manual of all agencies, preparation of gradation list based upon availability understanding and

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<sup>44</sup> Ramachandran, Vimala. "Community Participation and Empowerment in Primary Education: Discussion of Experiences from Rajasthan" in Govinda, R and Rashmi Diwan (eds), *Community Participation and Empowerment in Primary Education*, Sage publication, 2003.

<sup>45</sup> Acharya, P. K. and Others, "Community Participation in Primary Education under Janshala Programme in Orissa", *JEPA*, Vol. XX, No. 2, April 2006, pp. 247-256.

utilisation of guidelines, and participation in various aspects of school managements and development should be conducted to make the community participation more effective.

Anandita Chakrabarti and Niharika Banerjee<sup>46</sup> in their work on primary education in Himachal Pradesh have presented the success story of the Kinnaur district. In spite of being a very remote mountainous, tribal district with inadequate infrastructural facilities, Kinnaur had done relatively well in all sphere of primary education. The active community participation at the local level has remained the main factor responsible for changing the whole scenario. In this district both teacher and student absenteeism was very low and there was no discrimination against the girl child and SC children at least in the primary education sphere. Kinnaur presented an example a case where both supply and demand sides had acted as facilitating conditions. Though the problem still persisted regarding the qualitative aspects of education, but the spread of awareness about the importance of education along with conditions necessary to facilitate it by the active participation of the community, had produced positive results.

In an in-depth study of the efforts towards the universalization of primary education in the country since Independence, Daljit Singh Bedi and Satyanarayana Patnayak<sup>47</sup> said that though the budgetary allocation for education had been stepped up, but the government tried to move in too many directions, with no clear focus or defined strategy on primary education. Only Panchyati Raj Institutions and NGOs could play a crucial role in making the universalization process a success. The parents' attitude towards the child's education and the state's responsibility towards the goal were of paramount importance. The role of media in the dissemination of information and creating an educational environment was very important.

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<sup>46</sup>Chakaravarti, Anindita and Banerjee, Niharika, "Primary Education in Himachal Pradesh: A Case Study of Kinnaur District", *JEPA*, Vol. 24, No. 4, October 2000, pp. 445-460.

<sup>47</sup> Bedi, Singh Daljeet and Patnayak Satyanaryana, "Universalization of Primary Education: a Myth or Reality?" *Kurukshetra*, Vol. XLV, No. 12, New Delhi, pp. 4-11.

For implementing the decentralisation management of education, R. Govinda<sup>48</sup> said that the transfer of the power to local leadership could expose to the school to undue political pressure. Proper implementation of the changed structure at different tiers was a basic requirement. Local community and teachers had to learn new skills and develop a new sense of partnership in managing the affairs of school education. Because of the low education level of the local population, their capacity to manage the education problem was being suspected while other asserted that they could develop the capacity if they were given opportunity to develop them. The author had suggested accepting new structure for operation and to allow local community for trial and learn from the errors as part of learning process. S.P. Jain<sup>49</sup> in his study opined that all studies had concluded that Gram Panchyat can play the important role in handling the subject of school education. The problem of drop out, universalization of elementary education and smooth functioning of the school could not be solved unless the village schools were brought under the supervision and control of village Panchyat.

#### **2.4. Present Scenario of School Education in Haryana**

Haryana has made remarkable development in all the fields since 1966 (Haryana came in to existence in 1966). In the field of education, various new schemes have been started e.g. recently, Haryana started the satellite education for primary classes and higher secondary classes; it became the first state in India to do so. Still, there were various loopholes in the educational system.

Jai Prakash Shastri<sup>50</sup> pointed out that because of relatively low share of educational expenditure in budget, the post of teachers were being decreased regularly in his study “Shiksha Ka Sarvajnik Swaroop”. The state of universalization in Haryana was getting worse day by day. The schemes of Guest Teacher, Project

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<sup>48</sup> Govinda, R. “Capacity Building for Educational Governance at Local Levels ” in Govinda, R. and Rashmi Diwan (eds), *Community Participation and Empowerment in Primary Education*, Sage publication, 2003.

<sup>49</sup> Jain, S. P. “Decentralisation, Panchyati Raj and Education”, in Janadhalya B. G. Tilak’s (eds), *Education, Society and Development: National and International Perspectives*, NIEPA, APH publishing house, 2003.

<sup>50</sup> Shastri, Jai Prakesh. “Nakal aur Shiksha Sudhar Par Sagosthi”, *Haryana Adhyapak Samaj*, No. 3, March 1995, p. 18.

Teacher, Shiksha Sewak, and Shiksha Karmi had proved very helpful in *increasing* the educational deprivation steadily. Though the quality of computer education was very poor, but government was increasing the financial burden on students and excluding the commoners from the quality education. The posts of heads in many schools were still lying vacant. The author suggested that all the section of society—students, teachers and parents have to stand up against the anti masses policies of the government.

In his another study “Haryana Main Schooli Shiksha”, Bharti<sup>51</sup> has reflected on the loopholes in Haryana’s education system. The model set at the time of independence had failed and now quality education had remained limited within few hands. This is applicable to all school which provide quality education, whether it is Navodaya Vadhalaya, Model School or highly expensive public school. In 70percentto 80percentgovernment school (including primary, middle and high), there was no head for last 5 to10 years. ‘If post of an MLA or an M.P is vacant, it had to be filled within 6 months, then why not school head’s post?’ Refuting all the recommendation of educational commissions and educationist, the government had planned to set teacher pupil ratio - 1:60 for all school under its rationalisation policy, which meant discarding minimum need of an institution. Government started computer education without supplying required infrastructure i.e. computer teacher, syllabus of course, electricity etc. The author mentioned that at one time 72percentof total budget used to be spent on salaries and rest 28percentfor infrastructures required in school, but now 98percentof budget was used for salaries purposes and only 2percentfor other infrastructural facilities. Government made teachers to do all the jobs like making ration cards, financial survey, census survey, election duty. The author suggested to change the present scenario. For this, joint effort from the all components of society was required.

Surajmal and Balwant Bura<sup>52</sup> critically assessed the state of primary education in Haryana in “Prathmik Shiksha”. Primary schools in Haryana suffered from shortage of very basic requirement of schools infrastructure like boundary wall, play

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<sup>51</sup> Bharti, C. N. “Haryana Main Schooli Shiksha”, *Haryana Adhyapak Samaj*, No. 11, November 2002, pp. 12-15.

<sup>52</sup> Surajmal and Balwant Bura. “Prathmik Shiksha”, *Haryana Adhyapak Samaj*, No. 11, November 2002, pp. 16-18.



ground, library, toilet and teaching aids. Students performed the duties of safai karamcharis and peons. In the name of filling the vacant posts of teachers', ad hoc and part time teachers were appointed and even in that process, merit was never been considered. In the private schools, very huge amounts of money on the name of admissions and fees were being looted and teachers were being exploited by paying a meger 500 to Rs. 1000. Scholarships were the same as what they were 20 to 5 years back. In year 2000, 1369 posts of primary teachers ended and process remained continued in the coming years. The author eagerly felt the need of a social movement by all components of society that to spread awareness among masses about this intolerable situation.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

Thus, study of the literature has thrown light on the various trends and problems of our school education system. Many problems have been considerably overcome for instance, physical inaccessibility of schools. But still many social and economic constraints still exist. The gender gap is very high and SC and ST continued to be backward. For girls, early marriages, domestic chores, sibilings care, parental apathy, lack of adequate toilet facilities at schools, consideration of girls as social liability and inconveniently located schools in rural areas emerge as major factors which proved as a hindrance in their education. Girls are still considered a liability that will go to other house after marriage. Even if their education is considered important, it is because education is seen as a mean to improve marriage prospects. There is a need to bring about a change in the social attitude towards education of girls.

On the financial side, it was noticed that the budgetary allocation was insufficient. Though budget for education had increased over the years, but the portion for elementary education had been insufficient. Moreover, a major part of the budget was spent on teacher's salaries and very little on developing infrastructure. So, there is an urgent need of increasing the budget for elementary education and it should be used judiciously for developing infrastructure. Lack of the political will and bureaucratic inefficiency has made all the policies and development strategies a failure. Efforts should be made to energise the political organisations and bureaucracy, for implementing the policies at the ground level. Decentralisation can

prove very helpful. Community mobilisation and participation can prove decisive in achieving the goals of universalization of basic education. In chapter four, in a concrete case study of two villages in Haryana, I have tried to show the critical role of community participation.

## CHAPTER 3

# HISTORICAL PROFILE OF THE DISTRICT JIND WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO EDUCATION (1971 -2002)

### 3.1 Introduction

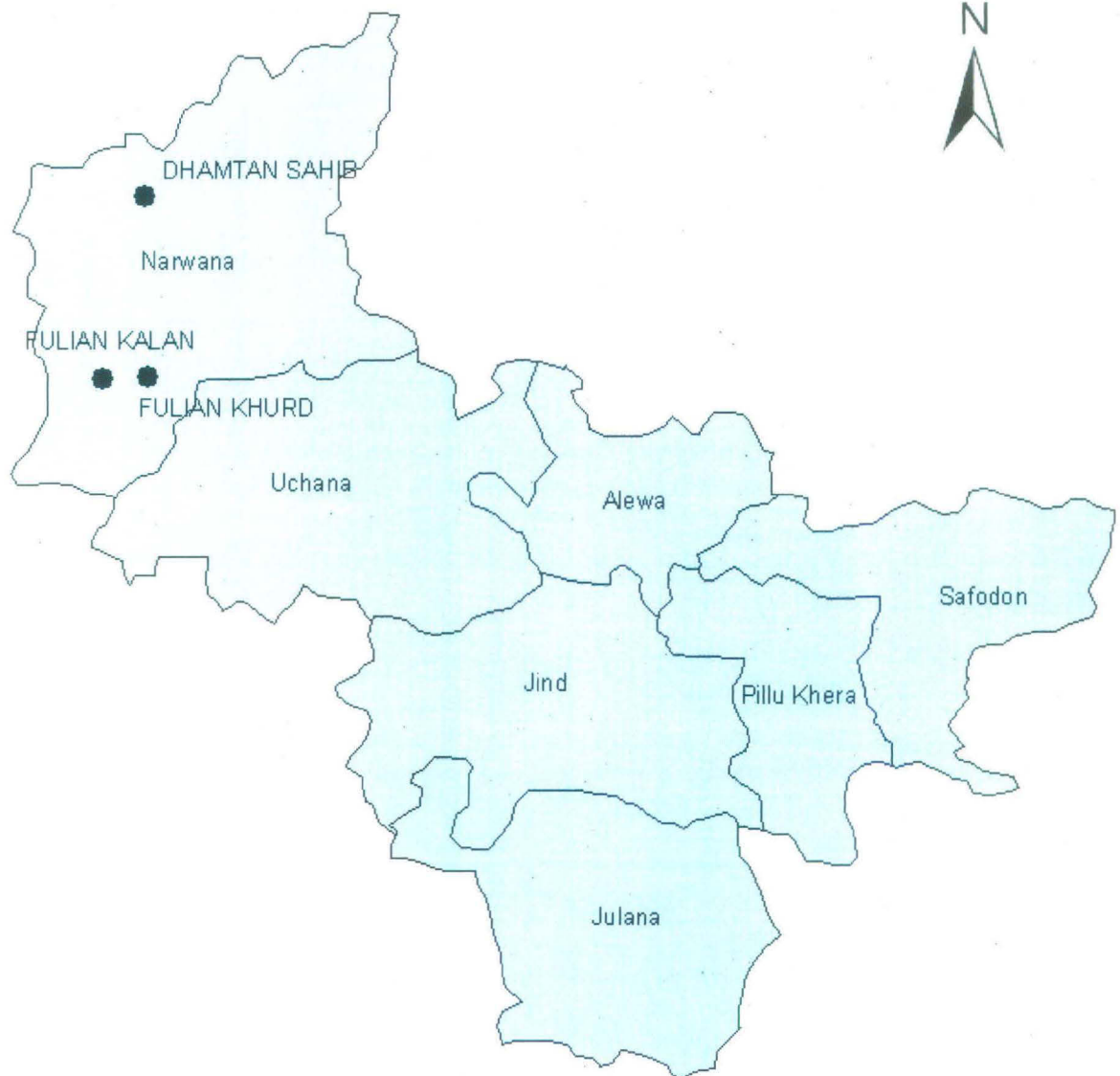
Education is essential for the success of democracy, improving productivity and bringing about desirable changes towards social as well as national development. It is regarded as a potential instrument of individual development as well as social upliftment. It is intimately related with the national development and positively correlated with productivity and quality of life. It enables an individual to be aware of his or her rights and responsibilities and to discharge his/her duties properly. Those who have remained backward and underprivileged over years can be empowered by education to assert their rights and to fulfil their places in the society. Education is also found to be a powerful means of removing disparities, discrimination and disabilities in the society.

Education has been given a place of great importance and value in the constitution of India. It is, however unfortunate, that even after 61 years of independence the goal of 'Education for All' (EFA) has not been realised and the target of 'Universalization of Elementary Education' (UEE) has not been achieved so far. India being the largest democracy of the world has the stigma of having the half of the world's illiterate.

Education in India is under heavy strain. Disparities in education among the states, between rural and urban, societies are increasing in spite of various egalitarian attempts by government. The present scenario is characterised by the growing illiteracy, unabated dropout-rates in elementary education, huge non-attendance of students in primary classes in backward areas and overcrowding of students in urban areas. Illiteracy is a sin and shame. Though the literacy percentage has increased slowly from 1947 to 2001, but the gross number of illiterates today is greater than what it was in 1947.

# HARYANA JIND DISTRICT

Map: 4.1



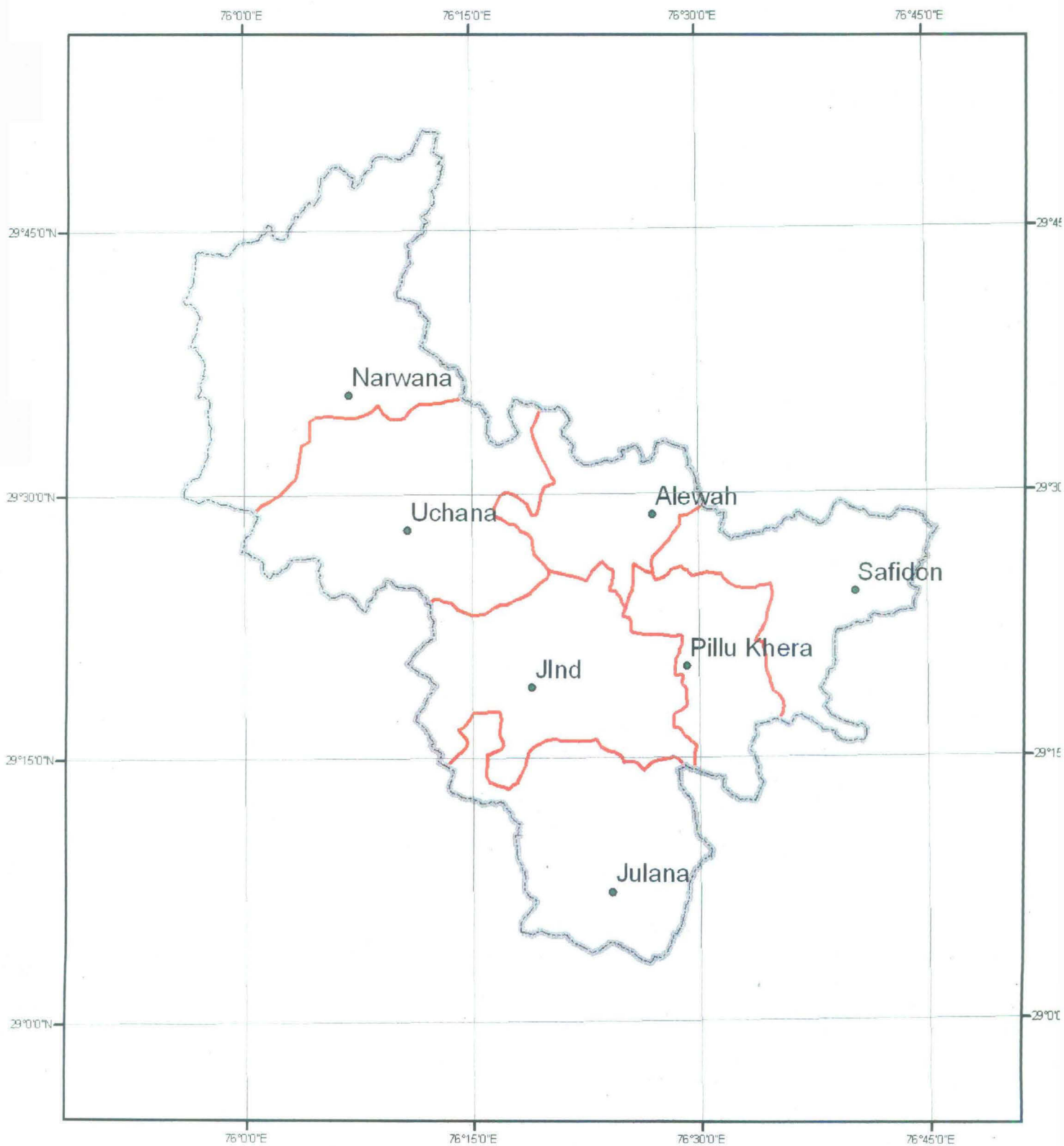
● CASE STUDY AREA

SOURCE: Census of India

Not to Scale

# Jind District

Map: 3.2



According to the All India Educational Survey Reports, there has been a rapid stride in the development of elementary education in respect to number of schools, students, teachers and expenditure. But still presence of out of school children and child labourers in large number is a great problem. More than two thirds of the non enrolled children are girls. Dr. M. B. Buch has rightly observed, "The country adopted national policy on education in 1968 and the same was reviewed and in 1986, a national policy- a revised version was adopted. Five years (now more than five has passed) have gone, yet one finds a state of stalement in many aspects of education. UEE has remained a dream."<sup>1</sup>

In this chapter an attempt has been made to trace the growth of literacy, compound literacy growth rate (CLGR), and total strength of students, child labourers and 'no where children' by using census data in district Jind. The Seventh All India education survey has been used to show the gross enrolment ratio (GER), drop out rate, number of schools according to building, schools having ancillary facilities etc. A brief introduction of the district has been discussed which includes history, economy, society and demographic profile of the district.

### **3.2 History**

District Jind was formed at the time of the reorganisation of the composite state of Punjab and creation of Haryana in November 1966 with merging by the two tahsils of Narwana and Jind which were earlier part of Sangrur district. The Sangrur district was itself carved out of the territories of erstwhile Patiala, Nabha and Jind states, collectively known as Phulkian states, on the formation of Patiala and East Punjab States Union (PEPSU) in 1948.<sup>2</sup>

In the middle half of 19<sup>th</sup> century, Gajpat Singh, the great grand son of Phul, the founder of *Phulkian misl* (one of the 12 confederacies of the Sikhs), defeated the Afghan governor of the province and occupied a large tract of the country including Jind and Safidon. He made Jind district his headquarter and built a large brick fort.

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<sup>1</sup> Quoted in Ibid. p. 233.

<sup>2</sup> Bhati S.C. (ed.), *The Encyclopaedic District Gazetteers of India; Northern Zone*, Vol. 3, Gyan Publishing House 1999, p. 122.

The lineage of Gajpat kept ruling on Jind. They kept helping the British government throughout their rule.

During the First World War, Jind maintained its loyal tradition by placing all the resources of the state at the disposal of the government. The Jind imperial services regiment was on the active service for about three and half years in east Africa.<sup>3</sup> During the freedom struggle, Praja Mandal was established at Narwana. The praja mandalist waged a long struggle which led to the establishment of representative government. Raja Ranbir Singh was ruling the state when independence dawned in 1947.

When India got independence, a non official poll was taken by the Jind state Praja Mandal in Jind and Dadri to ascertain the views of people about whether they wanted to merge with Punjab or wanted for a separate state. The majority of people voted for the former proposal but the government merged the state with the newly created PEPSU on July 15, 1948. With the formation of the PEPSU, the state was grouped into 8 districts namely, Patiala, Parnala, Bhatinda, Kapurthala, and Fatehgarh Sahib, Sangrur, Mahendargarh, and Kohistan (Kandaghat). In 1953, the number of districts was reduced to 5, by merging Barnala with Sangrur, Kandaghat with Fatehgarh Sahib and Patiala. Thus the Sangrur District comprised five tahsils, namely, Barnala, Malerkotla, Sangrur, Narwana and Jind. During the reorganisation of the Punjab in 1966, the Sangrur district was bifurcated into 2 tahsils and Jind and Narwana were allocated to Haryana and were constituted into district Jind. The Jind tahsil was bifurcated into 2; Jind and Safidon in 1967. In January 1973, 54 villages of Kaithal were transferred to Jind district, 43 went to Jind tahsil and 5 to Safidon, 6 to Narwana tahsil. One village named Barnala was transferred to Jind tahsil from Hansi tahsil of Hisar district in 1974. Two villages namely Bithmara and Surewala of Narwana tahsil was transferred to Tohana tahsil of Hisar district in 1979.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>3</sup>[http:// www.Jind.nic.in](http://www.Jind.nic.in)

<sup>4</sup> Bhati S. C. (ed). *The Encyclopaedic District Gazetteers of India; Northern Zone*, Vol. 3, Gyan Publishing House, 1999, p. 124.

### **3.3 Origin and Name of the district**

The district derives its name from headquarters town Jind which is said to be corrupted form of Jaintipuri. It is also said this town had been founded at the time of Mahabharata. According to an old saying the Pandavas built a temple in honour of Jainti Devi (the Goddess of victory), offered prayers and launched the battle with Kauravas. The town grew up around the temple and was named Jaintipuri (abode of Jainti Devi) which later came to be known as Jind.<sup>5</sup> The district lies in the North of Haryana between 29.03' and 29.51' North latitude & 75.53' and 76.47' East longitude. On its East and North-East lie the districts of Panipat, Karnal and Kaithal respectively. Its boundary line on the North forms the inter-state Haryana- Punjab border with Patiala and Sangur districts of Punjab. In the West and South-West it has a common boundary with district Hisar & Fatehabad and in its South and South-East lies the district of Rohtak and Sonapat respectively.

The area of the district is 3,606 square kilometers. The district is divided into three Sub-Divisions, Jind, Safidon and Narwana. The Jind Sub-Division comprises two tahsils, viz. Jind and Julana. The Narwana and Safidon Sub-Divisions comprise the Narwana & Safidon tahsil respectively.

### **3.4 Economy**

Before independence Jind was a part of the erstwhile princely state of Jind and the ruler could do little for the development of this area. But the implementation of various developmental plans in the post-independence era, resulted in a considerable impact on the socio-economic life of this district.

The pace of over all economic development however accelerated after the formation of Haryana in 1966, when a separate district of Jind was created. The increased irrigational facilities, implementation of the improved agricultural techniques and utilisation of barren and uncultivated land for agriculture helped to absorb a sizable portion of under employed working population of the district.

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<sup>5</sup> Phulikian States Gazetteer- Patiala, Jind and Nabha; 1904, p. 334.



Agriculture is the mainstay of the bulk of the population. With the provision of the better irrigational and other facilities; the primitive agriculture rapidly converted to modern mechanized farming agricultural production, which is continually increasing. There are two well defined crops- Kharif and Rabi. The major Kharif crops are (locally called Sammani) sugarcane, cotton, jowar, bajra, rice, while major Rabi crops (locally called Sadhi) are wheat gram, barley and oil seeds. Potatoes, onions, chillies, oil seeds are the main cash crops of the districts.<sup>6</sup>

In the absence of well developed secondary and tertiary sectors, there was hardly any change in the livelihood pattern and primary sectors continued to dominate in the district until recently. Several small scale industrial units for the manufacturing of radio and electrical goods, fabrication of cement jellies, soaps and candles, etc., were set up in urban areas. Some more important units manufacturing agricultural implements, chemicals, thermometers, surgical cotton foundries, screws, plastic products, paper boards, coke briquettes etc were established after 1968.<sup>7</sup> The first large scale and medium scale units were milk plant, Jind; Hafed cattle a feed plant; Jind; industrial cables (India) Ltd. Kila Zafargarh (Jind tahsil); the Jind cooperative sugar mill, etc. The labour force for industries was generally drawn from Punjab and UP and also from nearby villages. There existed a paucity of skilled labour. Unskilled labour is available in abundance except during the peak agriculture seasons. Industrial development was looked after by the district industrial officers, who is assisted by 4 inspectors and 4 blocks level extension officers (industries). The government assisted the entrepreneurs in respect of finance, raw material, marketing, industrial training and common facility centres.<sup>8</sup> In general, these improvements in economic condition definitely facilitated the process of educational advancement. Economic betterment has worked hand in hand with the incentives and facilities provided by the government.

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<sup>6</sup> Haryana District Gazetteers. Jind, Haryana Gazetteers Organisation, Gazetteers of India, 1986, p. 69.

<sup>7</sup> Ibid p. 95.

<sup>8</sup> <http://www.Jind.nic.in>.

### 3.5 Society and Culture

Well researched published material on the socio – cultural features of Jind is not available. On the basis of gazetteers reports, it has been found that the main social groups are Jats, Brahmans, Mahajans, Aroras, Khattris, Ahirs, Gujjars, Balmiki, and Chamars.

The Jaats, who are large in number, are mainly cultivators. Due to the teaching of the Arya Samaj, they are liberal in social relations. Apart from cultivation, their adult members prefer to join the army. The Brahmans are scattered all over the districts. Under the changed economic and social conditions, they have also started joining services in the public and private sectors. The Rajputs concentrated in Narwana tahsil are said to have migrated from Ayodhya (U.P.). They are cultivators generally and prefer to join army and other government services. The Mahajans are mostly Aggerwals. They are said to have come from Agroha (Hisar District) and settled in different places in district. They are mostly engaged in commerce industry and service. The village Mahajan constituted the backbone of the village economy and he still continues his hold in rural areas as he is always ready to meet the unproductive credit requirement of the peasantry. Aroras and Khattris are migrants from Gujrawala, Layalpur and Shekhpura districts of Pakistan after partition of the country in 1947. They are engaged in shop keeping, trade and service. Ahirs call themselves Yadavs and claim their descent from Krishna. They are agriculturists and many of them are in army. Gujjars are mainly engaged in animal rearing but now they have indulged into cultivation and service sector. Balmikis functioned as scavengers and even now in urban areas they follow their profession. In rural areas they are cultivators and agricultural labourers. But they also rear pigs, goats and sheep. They have started realising their social rights and are now inclined towards education. Chamars follow their old profession of leather and shoe making. This community is politically conscious and its members now occupy important positions in services.<sup>9</sup> The Department of Welfare of Scheduled Castes and Backward Classes has adopted certain measures for their benefit of these in pursuance of the Directive Principle embodied in the Constitution of India.

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<sup>9</sup> Haryana District Gazetteers; Jind, 1986, Gazetteers of India, pp. 43-44.

Community life is somewhat more effectively organised in villagers than in towns. A growing town can not claim to be the nucleus of a single community. Its various social and economics groups tend more exclusive than inclusive. They do not come into such frequent contact with one another. The social situation in villages is different. Big and small land owners, agricultural labourers and others and workers are not far apart from each other. The limited amenities and amusements of village life are equally shared by all of them and require their combined attention. The community development programmes have given a fillip to community activities of various kinds and the panchyats also have become a nucleus of community activities. To bring over all development in rural areas through various extension agencies, 7 community development blocks, viz. Jind, Narwana, Uchana, Kalayat, Safidon, Julana and Rajaund were functioning in the districts during 1974-75. The community development programmes initiated by block agencies have made significant achievements in the field of agriculture and health, education, sanitation, roads and communications, art and craft in districts. The block agencies help the villagers to provide extension facilities.<sup>10</sup>

### 3.6 Demographic Profile

Total population of Jind according to 2001 census, is 1189827 persons, comprising of 642282 males and 547545 females. Rural population of the district was 948250 (512205 males, 436045 females). The schedules caste population in the district as per 2001 census was 235765 (127176 males and 108589 females). Of these, 198790 persons (107461 males, 91329 females) were from rural areas and remaining 21204 persons from urban areas.<sup>11</sup> If we see the decadal variation of the population in table no 3.1, there was a decreasing trend visible. It had decreased from 36.16 percent in 1971 to 21.36 percent in 2001.

**Table no. 3.1 Decadal Variation of the Population**

YEAR	GROWTH (IN percent)
1971	36.16
1981	25.21
1991	23.03
2001	21.36

Source: Calculated from Census of India 1971,1981,1991,2001

<sup>10</sup> Ibid p. 155.

<sup>11</sup> Administrative Atlas; Haryana, Census of India, 2001.

District Jind was mainly populated with Hindu community (99.35 percent) followed by Sikhs (2.45 percent) and Muslim (1.73 percent). Christian, Buddhists and Jains were also with negligible proportion.

**Table no.3.2 Religion wise Composition of the Population**

RELIGIOUS COMMUNITY	JIND percent age	HARYANA percent age
HINDUS	95.35	88.23
MUSLIM	1.73	5.78
CHARISTIANS	0.02	0.13
SIKHS	2.45	5.54
BUDDHISTS	0.01	0.03
JAINS	0.43	0.27

Source: Calculated from Census of India, Administrative Atlas Haryana 2001

There were 307 villages, out of which 306 are inhabited with 948250 persons (512205 males, 436045 females). Among these, Narwana block was most populous with 21.51 percent (21.30 percent males, 21.75 percent females) residing in 61

**Table no. 3.3 Percentage of Rural Population**

BLOCK	PERSON	MALES	FEMALES
NARWANA	21.51	21.30	21.75
UCHANA	17.45	17.50	17.39
ALEWA	8.78	8.84	8.72
JIND	18.60	18.65	18.54
JULANA	12.68	12.69	12.67
PILLUKHERA	8.60	8.62	8.56
SAFIDON	12.38	12.40	12.36

Source: Calculated from Census of India, Administrative Atlas Haryana 2001

villages. Pillukhera was the least populated with 8.60 percent population (8.62 percent males, 8.56 percent females) residing in 25 villages.

Table no. 3.4 presents population of each of the urban areas of the district with sex wise break-up. The highest population had been recorded in Jind Municipal Corporation. with 56.24 percent population (56.43 percent males, 56.01 percent females), lowest in Julana M.C with 5.64 percent (5.56 males, females 5.74 percent). Density of population has increased from 238 per sq. km. to 440 per sq. km. in 2001.

**Table no. 3.4 Percentage of Urban Population**

TOWN	PERSON	MALES	FEMALES
NARWANA (M.C.)	20.88	20.81	20.95
UCHANA (M.C.)	5.84	5.84	5.85
JIND (M.C.)	56.24	56.43	56.01
JULANA (M.C.)	5.64	5.56	5.74
SAFIDON (M.C.)	11.40	11.35	11.45

Source: Calculated from Census of India, Administrative Atlas Haryana, 2001.

Decreasing sex ration has always remained an area of urgent concern. Haryana is a region in which socio- religious movement have been conspicuous by their absence. Consequently it is the women in Haryana who suffer more acutely from the problem created by both social underdevelopment and economic prosperity<sup>12</sup>. Same is the case with district Jind.

**Table no. 3.5 Sex Ratio**

YEAR	JIND	HARYANA
TOTAL	SEX RATIO	SEX RATIO
1971	859	867
1981	856	870
1991	838	865
2001	852	861
RURAL		
1971	861	853
1981	782	849
1991	834	868
2001	851	847
URBAN		
1971	845	870
1981	757	876
1991	862	864
2001	857	866

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 1971,1981,1991,2001

Jind also witnessed a decreasing trend as far as the sex ratio is concerned, when throughout the study, it is evident that Jind's sex ratio has been lower then the state average. In 1971 when Jind's sex ratio was 859 (861 in rural areas, 845 in urban areas), the state average was 861 (853 in rural, 845 in urban areas). Both state and district has recorded decreasing trend in the sex ratio. In 2001, Jind's sex ratio was recorded 852 (851 in rural areas, 857 in urban areas) and state average declined up to 861 (847 in rural areas, 866 in urban areas). In rural areas sex ratio decreased gradually in the district. As per table no. 3.6, out of total 306 villages, only 27 villages came under category with category of > 900 sex ratio, in the age group of 0-6, 60 villages come under this category.

**Table no. 3.6 Sex Ratio in Rural Areas**

Villages with sex ratio	Number of villages/ age group	
	Total pop	0-6
<750	4	52
750-799	21	59
800-849	131	85
850-899	123	50
>900	27	60
Total	306	306

Source: Calculated from Census of India, Administrative Atlas Haryana 2001.

<sup>12</sup> Mahajan, Vandana. "The Hidden Picture: A Case Study from District Hisar; Haryana", in Vimala Ramachandran's (ed) *Gender and Social Equity in Primary Education: Hierarchies of Access*, Sage Publication, 2004, p. 260.

While taking into consideration the Total Population, 4 villages fell under the category of >750 sex ratio. On the other hand while looking at the age group of 0-6, 52 villages fell under this category which indicated the grave problem in future. This state of child sex ratio suggests two major reasons behind it. First, it may be because of the higher mortality among girls in the age group 0-6. Female foeticide can be another major factor. This may be because of the preferential discrimination against the girl sex ratio. NFHS data (1998), which revealed that for infants, aged up to 11 months, female mortality was at least 10 percent higher than that of male mortality. After the age of one, sex differential in mortality is even greater and female mortality is at least 1.5 times higher than that of their male counterparts.<sup>13</sup>

### 3.7 Educational Profile

Before the middle of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, only the indigenous system of education existed in the Jind district. The indigenous schools were of different types, e.g. *patshalas*, *dharmashalas*, *chatshalas* and *maktabs*. Special religious instructions were given in the *patshalas* and *dharamshalas* where pupils were mainly Brahmins. In *chatshalas padhas* (teachers) taught mahajan boys to read and write lande and to learn accounting. The *maktabs* were the Arabic and Persian schools, the former taught Koran and latter taught Arabic. The methods used in these indigenous schools were crude and pupils were subjected to repetitive, oral and loud recitation for hours.<sup>14</sup> No serious effort were made by the princely states, till the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century when a few upper primary and vernacular middle schools were run modelled on Punjab Education System, but there was hardly any progress. In the 1930's of 20th century some *patshalas* were also established for teaching Sanskrit.

However, no worth while attention was paid to education and in 1950-51; there were merely 7 high schools, 14 middle schools and 64 primary schools.<sup>15</sup> Before independence, education of the girls remained neglected and was also looked upon with disfavour. Whatever little, the girls education was confined to religious instruction. In 1950-51, there was only one 1 high school for girls in Jind and 3

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<sup>13</sup> <http://www.educationforall.com>

<sup>14</sup> *Haryana District Gazetteers*, Jind, Haryana Gazetteers Organisation, Gazetteers of India, 1986, p. 219.

<sup>15</sup> *Ibid.* p. 220.

primary school for girls; 2 at Jind and 1 at Narwana. Things started changing thereafter and more attention was paid to education and in 1955-56, there were 11 high schools (10 boys and 1 girl) 23 middle schools (20 boys and 3 girls), 191 primary schools (179 boys and 12 girls) established. However there was no college in the district.

### **3.7.1 Growth of Literacy**

Literacy is one among the several indicators of educational development. It is capable of transferring the existing order and defines the aims and objectives of an authentic human resources development. The principle effect of literacy is to provide people with an additional means of communication. Literacy may contribute to economic development by a) raising the productivity of new literates b) raising the productivity of individuals working in association with literates the so called “first round spill-over of literacy, c) reducing the cost of transferring useful information to individuals (about health and nutrition) by creating a new channel for disseminating knowledge, d) strengthening economic incentives meaning the tendency for people to respond positively to a rise in the rate to reward for their efforts.<sup>16</sup> The Human Development Index (HDI) developed by United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), which is regarded as an alternative to income based measures of welfare, is based on three indicators, longevity, literacy and standard of living.<sup>17</sup> Literacy denotes the most basic and essential educational criterion. Since lack of education is major factor in multiple disabilities, unawareness and inaccessibility, focus on literacy as a key input in development is universally recognised. Literacy is a value term and it can mean different things to different people. Literacy can be taken to be a person’s capability to read and write. At a higher level, literacy can also be taken to be a person’s capability to read and understand newspaper, ability to fill up official forms on his own and so on. In India, our efforts are still to achieve universal literacy of the lower order. The objective of universal literacy has already been achieved by many

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<sup>16</sup> Tarujyoti, Buragohain. “Differential in Literacy Rate by Social Groups – An Analysis of Census Data Across States, *Margin*, April-June, July-September, 1997, Vol. 29, No. 364, p. 267.

<sup>17</sup> Joshi, Hemlata. “Changing Literacy levels in Rajasthan: A geographical analysis”, *Geographical Review of India*, Vol. 62(2), Institute for Development Studies, Jaipur, June 2000, p. 151.

developed countries. Now, these countries are trying to achieve higher order literacy. India is still lagging behind in both the fields of literacy and school education.<sup>18</sup>

### ***3.7.2 Pattern of Literacy in Haryana***

In Haryana, literacy rate is increasing gradually in the last four decades. In 1971 census, Haryana's literacy was 26.89 percent (51 percent in urban, 21.72 percent in rural areas). In 2001, literacy was recorded 57.20 percent (68.11 percent for urban, 52.75 percent for rural areas) which is quite a notable achievement. But still the state is lagging behind as far as universal literacy is concerned. There exists a gap in male female literacy. In 1971 when male literacy was 37.29 percent (59.12 percent in urban areas, 32.57 percent in rural areas), female literacy was only 14.89 percent (41.48 percent urban, 9.24 percent in rural). Male had an advantage over education and other socio- economic attainments. In 2001, census shows an improvement in the female literacy rate but still difference existed between male and female ratio and a gap of almost 18 percent subsisted.

Literacy gap in rural-urban area was also a point of great concern. Literacy rate was higher in the urban areas because of better educational facilities. Other factor is that for getting employment in urban areas, it is necessary to be educated. The immigration of rural literates in urban areas in search of employment and the greater functional necessity of literacy for employment in urban areas are other factors responsible for higher urban-rural literacy gap.

### ***3.7.3 Pattern of Literacy in District***

Literacy patterns in district Jind were improving gradually. If one looks at the inter district variation, in 1971 Jind was at the 3rd number form the bottom after Fatehbad and Kaithal with 18.50 percent literacy.(Refer Appendix Table no.1) Panchkula was at the first number with 36.04 percent literates. Jind's literacy improved but Jind's inter district has fallen down awarding it the last position with a literacy rate of 25.99 percent. Still Jind was lagging behind the state literacy of 36.14 percent in 1991; but

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<sup>18</sup>Rajeev, P.V. "Towards Universal Literacy", *Third Concept*, January 1999, p. 47.



now Jind had improved its ranking and became 3<sup>rd</sup> among district with the lowest literacy rate (but now Kaithal and Hisar were below Jind).

Literacy rate in urban and rural areas were more glaring. In 1971 when urban literacy was 42.44 percent in Jind, rural literates were only 14.85 percent. If one observes inter district pattern, in rural literacy Jind held the last number. There persisted a gap of 28 percent as a difference between rural and urban literacy rate. In 1981 census, difference between rural and urban decreased slightly but still rural area literacy rate was 24 point lesser than urban areas. Jind held second last position amongst all districts. In 1991, no great difference was recorded. According to 2001 census, Jind had improved quite a lot in rural areas although rural urban difference was alarmingly high. There were 59.13 percent and 76.86 percent literates in rural and urban respectively. Jind still held 3<sup>rd</sup> position from the last.

Gender gap was very high in literacy. In both rural and urban areas female literacy was quite low compared to male literacy. But females in rural areas were more backward. In 1971, when there were 31.78 percent female literates in urban areas, only 3.88 percent females were recorded as literates in rural areas. In 2001 female literacy had improved a lot in rural areas and reached up to 44.26 percent (male literacy 71.87 percent) and in urban areas 66.85 percent (male literacy 85.57 percent).

The wide gap existing between the rural urban female literacy rates reflects the socio economics condition prevailing in district Jind. Females in the backward areas required utmost attention of government. There prevails a need of development of infrastructural facilities. It requires the identification and strengthening of the growth centres for over all improvement of socio-economics condition of the society. There is a need to bring rural masses especially females into the fold of literacy. Females living in the rural areas are engaged in agricultural activities and are not encouraged to read and write. They remain conservative and orthodox. Low degree of urbanisation and poverty and early marriages are major hindrances in the way of

literacy for females.<sup>19</sup> As it is generally accepted that social phenomena like birth rate, death rate, infant mortality rate, and population growth rate decelerate with improvements in literacy level, so government should try to evolve new strategies to enhance literacy of females and rural areas.

### 3.7.4 Compound Literacy Growth Rate (CLGR)

Before analysing the Compound Literacy Growth Rate, it is important to mention that there was a change of definition of literacy in 1971, 1981 and 1991, 2001. In the census of 1971 and 1981, 0-5 age group was considered illiterate and in census of 1991, 0-6 and 2001, 0-7 age group came under the illiterate category. So CLGR of 1971-1981, is not comparable with CLGR of 1991-2001.

**Table no. 3.7 Compound Literacy Growth Rate**

HARYANA	total	male	female	JIND	total	male	female
RURAL							
1971-1981	5.49	4.97	7.38	1971-1981	8.20	7.65	11.62
1991-2001	4.77	3.80	6.75	1991-2001	5.53	4.24	8.56
URBAN							
1971-1981	5.92	5.79	6.15	1971-1981	5.97	5.74	6.42
1991-2001	5.35	5.14	5.64	1991-2001	5.28	4.85	5.94
TOTAL							
1971-1981	5.63	5.20	6.80	1971-1981	7.57	7.21	9.02
1991-2001	4.97	4.21	6.32	1991-2001	5.46	4.38	7.75

Calculated from Census of India, 1971,1981,1991,2001, Jind.

In 1971-1981, rural area's CLGR was greater than urban area. Rural areas had witnessed 8.20 percent CLGR (for male 7.65 percent, female 11.62 percent). In urban areas it remained 5.97 percent (5.74 percent male, 6.42 percent for female). Female CLGR was more than male's. Jind's all over performance was better than state average. Jind had recorded, 5.46 percent CLGR (male 4.38 percent, female 7.75 percent), while state average remained 4.97 percent (male 4.21 percent, female 6.32 percent). It can be concluded that rural female CLGR has remained high in both the spell of time. But as we have already seen that female rural literacy rate is quite low than female and much work needs to be done in this field.

<sup>19</sup> Mangat, H.S. and Harbhupinder Kaur. "Planning of female literacy in Haryana", *JEPA*, Vol. X, No. 4, October 1996, pp. 224-225.

### 3.7.5 Educational level

Table no. 3.8 presents the growth of level of education from 1971-2001. Jind had initially a very poor primary educational level which was 6.45 percent. It was severely lower than the state average which was 9.48 percent. However it gradually started progressing with a rapid rise in primary education during 1991-2001, when it

**Table no. 3.8 Educational Level at Different Stages**

HARYANA												
Area/year	Primary			U. Primary			Matric/Sec.			H.Sec.		
ALL AREA	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
1971	9.48	12.88	5.55	5.28	7.58	2.63	3.08	4.72	1.18			
1981	10.46	13.36	7.11	6.01	8.70	2.91	4.64	6.82	2.14	1.35	1.89	0.74
1991	12.74	14.78	10.38	7.69	10.18	4.80	7.54	10.66	3.93	2.43	3.25	1.48
2001	15.26	16.32	14.03	9.55	11.22	7.60	10.59	13.72	6.95	3.93	4.89	2.82
URBAN												
1971	10.32	10.41	10.21	15.49	19.11	11.23	7.91	10.62	4.74			
1981	13.36	14.13	12.45	9.88	11.66	7.78	10.13	12.75	7.04	3.94	4.83	2.89
1991	13.41	13.79	12.98	10.32	11.67	8.77	12.01	14.54	9.11	5.29	6.01	4.45
2001	13.96	14.17	13.72	10.75	11.66	9.68	14.34	16.56	11.73	6.68	7.27	5.97
RURAL												
1971	9.30	13.41	4.56	3.09	5.08	0.80	2.04	3.44	0.42			
1981	9.64	13.15	5.64	4.93	7.86	1.57	3.11	5.13	0.79	0.63	1.05	0.14
1991	12.52	15.10	9.53	6.82	9.70	3.49	6.07	9.40	2.23	1.49	2.35	0.50
2001	15.79	17.20	14.15	9.06	11.04	6.76	9.07	12.56	5.03	2.82	3.91	1.55
JIND												
1971	6.45	9.87	2.48	3.34	5.10	1.29	1.67	2.79	0.36			
1981	7.85	11.06	4.10	4.14	6.48	1.40	3.03	4.80	0.95	0.67	1.04	0.24
1991	11.34	13.98	8.20	6.02	8.41	3.16	6.02	8.94	2.53	1.61	2.36	0.71
2001	15.28	17.17	13.08	8.31	10.20	6.10	8.88	12.00	5.23	2.89	3.78	1.85
URBAN												
1971	9.05	9.74	8.24	13.57	17.87	8.49	4.52	6.65	2.01			
1981	12.77	13.70	11.69	8.40	10.30	6.17	8.60	11.45	5.27	2.63	3.54	1.58
1991	13.89	14.36	13.34	9.59	11.09	7.85	11.19	13.94	7.99	4.33	5.28	3.22
2001	14.84	15.33	14.28	10.47	11.43	9.36	13.92	16.33	11.12	5.84	6.43	5.14
RURAL												
1971	6.06	9.89	1.61	30.24	56.10	0.20	1.23	2.20	0.11			
1981	7.07	10.64	2.88	3.46	5.87	0.64	2.14	3.74	0.26	0.36	0.65	0.03
1991	10.81	13.90	7.12	5.27	7.87	2.17	4.95	7.92	1.38	1.04	1.77	0.18
2001	15.40	17.63	12.77	7.76	9.89	5.27	7.60	10.90	3.72	2.14	3.10	1.01

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001, District Census Handbook, Jind, T= total, M= male, F= female, Sec= secondary, H. sec. = Higher secondary.

was 15.28 percent, this was higher than the state average of 15.26 percent. Urban areas always showed a better picture in respect to primary education. Jind was marginally behind the state average in 1971; it kept on gradually progressing and reached its peak of 14.84 percent which was above the state average. The rural areas always had a tendency to lag behind the urban areas due to lack of infrastructure and other facilities. Moreover in the initial phase Jind had a very poor level of primary education (6.06 percent) in rural areas and lagged far behind from the state average, however, education kept progressing at a slow pace but eventually succeeded in

reaching 15.40 percent which was near to the state average of 15.79 percent. The position of female in primary education was very poor in Haryana as well as Jind. Primary education which was one of the basic requirements of human development was at a critical state in Jind; only 2 percent of female had received primary education in 1971 which was far below than the state average of 5.55, though the state average is not very encouraging. The male primary education of Jind in the same period was far better than the female. This gender gap which existed in the initial phase of 1991 it had bridged considerably and in 2001, female literacy rate reached up to 13.08 percent which was very close to the state average of 14.03 percent.

The urban areas in Jind show very little gender gap. During the initial phase primary education amongst females was below the state average, but in the later phase of 1991 and 2001 it went ahead the state average to 14.28 percent respectively. Similar was the case with male primary education of 14.36 and 15.33 in 1991 and 2001. The rural areas had suffered the greatest in terms of female education, only 1.61 percent of females were educated in 1971, the male-female gap was huge, this trend persisted in 1981 also, which improved slightly in 1991 to 7.12 percent though it was still below the state average. This male- female gap had reduced greatly in 2001, female education improved to 12.77 percent against male 17.63 percent; but this was still below the state average.

In the case of upper primary, situation was even worse. In Jind only 3.14 percent people had attained upper primary education which was lower than the state average of 5.28 percent in 1971. It kept increasing slightly and in 2001 it reached up to 8.31 percent which remained lower than the state average of 9.55 percent. In urban areas, the pattern is even poorer. In 1971, Jind started with 13.57 percent, again lower than the state average of 15.49 percent. It decreased severely in 1981, and then increased a little in 1991 and in 2001 reached to 10.47 percent. It almost followed the trend followed by state average. In rural areas condition was even worse. Though Jind was slightly better than the state average i.e. 3.24 percent (state average 3.09 percent) but the over all picture was not satisfactory. Slow progress persisted through out the period. In 2001 it reached up to 7.76 percent still lagging behind the state average of 9.06 percent.

In case of female education at upper primary level the situation was really critical. In 1971 only 1.29 percent females acquired upper primary level education which was lower than the state average of 2.63 percent. With gradual progress, it reached up to 6.10 percent in 2001 but still lagged behind the state average of 7.60 percent. In urban areas, female education was much better, though gender gap was very high. In 1971, with 8.49 percent, Jind's performance was worse than the state average of 11.23 percent. Male education was in better position than females. After slight downfall in 1981, 1991, there was little improvement in 2001 and female education level reached up to 9.36 percent which is very close to state average of 9.68 percent. But gender gap still persisted. In rural areas, female education was in very critical state. During the initial phase only 0.20 percent females acquired upper primary education and state average was equally poor (0.80 percent). With gradual progress it had reached up to 5.27 percent in 2001, which was lower than the state average of 6.70 percent.

The figures of 1971 for secondary and higher secondary are not comparable with other census as the data for secondary and higher secondary were not given separately. In 1981, only 3.03 percent people had secondary educational levels in Jind, while the state average was 4.64 percent. In 2001 it had remarkably improved with 8.88 percent but remained slightly behind the state average of 10.59 percent. In urban areas again picture was quite dismal. In 1981, Jind recorded 8.60 percent person with secondary educational level which was quite behind the state average of 10.13 percent. With remarkable improvement throughout the period it reached up to 13.92 percent in 2001 but was still poor than the state average of 16.56 percent.

Rural area also suffered even in this case. Only 2.14 percent people had secondary education in Jind which was poor than the state average of 3.11 percent. In case of male female gap, female's education was again in poor condition. In 1981 only 0.95 percent females were recorded to have acquired secondary education level and remained very behind their male counterparts. In 2001, secondary education level had improved a lot with 5.23 percent but gender gap still remained very high.

Urban area presented a better picture, but still gender gap remained very high. In 1981, Jind's condition was poor than the state average with 11.19 percent, but still

gender gap remained high. Rural areas were again the sufferer. Female education level has witnessed minimal increase of 0.26 percent to 3.72 percent from 1981 to 2001 and still behind the state average of 5.03 percent. In rural areas gender gap remained the highest.

At the higher secondary level, in comparison to other level of education, condition was very poor. From 1981 to 2001 there was very small improvement, i.e. 0.67 percent to 2.89 percent and Jind was also behind the state average. Urban areas again performed better than the rural areas. In 1981, Jind was marginally behind the state average and it kept on progressing and reached up to 5.84 percent, which was slightly behind the state average. Rural areas again followed the pattern of lagging behind than the urban areas. Initially Jind was behind the state average minimally. In 2001, it recorded 2.14 percent person with higher secondary education level which was very marginally behind the state average of 2.82 percent.

In case of female education, there was no change even in higher secondary education. Only 0.24 percent females had been recorded possessing higher secondary level education which was marginally behind the state. Urban areas in Jind reflected female education again lagging behind than state average. In 2001 female education reached up to 5.14 percent which was very close to state average of 5.97 percent. The female education in rural area was alarmingly in a bad state. During the initial phase, Jind had a very poor level of higher secondary education. It progressed eventually with slow pace and reached only up to 1.01 percent which was close to state average.

Thus, it can be concluded that Jind had a poor education of level in upper primary, secondary, higher secondary and it mostly remained behind the state average. There was a lot of gap in education level between urban and rural areas. It is right to say that education gap that divides the forward and the backward communities is enormous, creating images of two alternative realities existing within the same physical boundaries, yet in two different planets in educational terms.<sup>20</sup> Gender gap was also high. But female education in rural area was a great matter of concern. Notwithstanding the general economics prosperity of the state, government incentive

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<sup>20</sup> Majumadar, Manabi. "Exclusion in Education: Evidence from Indian States", *JEPA*, Vol. X, No. 2, April 1996, p. 126.

scheme for girls' education right from school to college level and good infrastructure for higher education in Haryana for girls remained largely an unachieved target. But in the present scenario, it is more than evident that the girls and their mothers have a very strong desire to study. One mother's rationale was that "if our daughters are educated, then they would not need to work as domestic servants in the homes of rich people" proves their increasing concern.<sup>21</sup>

### 3.7.6 Child labour and Education

Table no. 3.9 Percentage of Students Attending School, Working as Labourer and 'No Where Children'

	STUDENTS			Labourer attending school			Labourer with out school			No where children		
	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G
TOTAL	1981											
HR	46.91	58.43	33.66	0.22	0.34	0.09	5.05	6.20	3.72	47.82	35.03	62.53
JIND	35.79	48.97	20.17	0.40	0.60	0.16	8.22	9.45	6.77	55.58	40.98	72.90
URBAN	1981											
HR	68.38	71.92	64.40	0.03	0.05	0.00	1.59	2.67	0.38	30.00	25.36	35.22
JIND	60.95	66.81	54.42	0.01	0.03	0.00	2.15	3.51	0.63	36.90	29.66	44.96
RURAL	1981											
HR	41.82	55.28	26.26	0.27	0.41	0.11	5.86	7.03	4.52	52.04	37.29	69.10
JIND	54.36	46.43	15.01	0.77	0.68	0.18	9.14	10.30	7.75	58.47	42.59	77.60
TOTAL	1991											
HR	59.71	65.73	52.74	0.12	0.16	0.08	2.43	3.02	1.73	37.74	31.09	45.44
JIND	54.06	61.97	44.58	0.06	0.09	0.03	3.10	3.66	2.42	42.78	34.28	53.00
URBAN	1991											
HR	71.29	73.48	68.77	0.05	0.07	0.03	1.09	1.72	0.37	27.57	24.72	30.84
JIND	68.84	71.72	65.51	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.11	1.63	0.51	30.05	26.21	34.49
RURAL	1991											
HR	56.24	63.42	47.90	0.14	0.18	0.09	2.83	3.41	2.15	40.79	32.99	49.86
JIND	51.10	60.05	40.27	0.08	0.11	0.03	3.50	4.06	2.82	45.33	35.77	56.88

Source: Calculated from Census of India, 1981, 1991, T-total, G-girls, and B-boys.

Table no. 3.9 presents the scenario of child labour in the district. Age group wise data from 1971 was not available and in case of the 2001 census, the district census hand book had not been released. So data only from 1981 and 1991 is being used and 6-14 age groups had been used for this table. In 1981, only 35.79 percent children came under the student category against the state average of 46.9 percent. In 1991, it improved remarkably up to 54.06 percent but still lagging behind the state average of 59.71 percent. Urban areas in Jind had better record with 60.95 percent of student but quite low against the state average of 68.38 percent. In 1991, it had achieved 8 percent

<sup>21</sup> Mahajan, Vandana. "The hidden picture: A Case Study from District Hisar; Haryana, in Vimala ramachandran's (ed.) *Gender and Social Equity in Primary Education : Hierarchies of Access*, Sage Publication, 2004, p. 276.

increase which was quite noteworthy. Rural area's performance was quite backward. Initially 54.36 percent of children were enrolled as students and it was higher than the state average. But surprisingly it fell down to 51.10 percent in 1991.

Gender gap amongst student category was alarmingly very high. In 1981, Jind had only 20.17 percent female's as students which were quite lower than male percentage and state average both. In 1991, it had improved a lot with 24 percent of increase, but still gender gap was alarmingly high and the state average was quite higher than the district. Jind's performance was far away from satisfaction. In urban areas, none of the female students had improved from 54.42 percent to 65.51 percent but still quite low than state average of 68.77 percent. In rural areas, only 15.01 percent females (46.43 percent) were students while state average showed a figure of 26.26 percent. Jind has made remarkable progress and had reached up to 40.27 percent in 1991 census. But still 20 percent gender gap persisted and state average remained 7 percent higher. In category of labourer attending school, Jind had 0.40 percent children in 1981 which was 21 percent higher than state average. But in 1991 only 0.06 percent children remained under this category which was 0.06 percent lower than the state average. In urban areas figures were more satisfactory as in 1991 no children is doing labour with studies. But in rural areas 0.77 percent children came under this category at initial stage which was 50 percent more than the state. But in 1991, it had remained only 0.08 percent which was better than the state average of 0.14 percent. In respect of gender gap, figures were quite satisfactory in favour of female child. In rural and urban both the areas less girls were there than boys as child labourer. In respect of gender gap, Jind's performance was better than state in both rural and urban areas.

In the third category of 'labourer with out school', in 1981 Jind recorded 8.22 percent children which was quite high than the state's average of 5.05 percent. But it was satisfactory that, it had reduced up to 3.10 percent, though still 1.1 percent more than the state average. In 1991 urban areas had reduced from 2.15 percent to 1.11 percent which was close to the state's average. In 1981, rural areas recorded 9.14 percent children as labourer with out school which was a great matter to worry but in 1991 it had declined up to 3.50 percent which is slightly higher than the state. Gender gap was quite satisfactory in favour of females. Number of females' labourers had



reduced from 6.77 percent to 2.42 percent, though little higher than state average of 1.73 percent. In urban area again figures improved with decrease of 0.12 percent in 1991 under this category. Rural areas had also progressively declined the number of full time child labourer from 7.75 to 2.82 percent in 1991 which was almost close to state average of 2.15 percent.

Fourth category is the most important. This category of 'nowhere children' is primarily a residual category of children who too account for that sub-set of child population which does not fall under the category of main workers, marginal child labourers and children going to school.<sup>22</sup> This category becomes most important because government keep framing policies for child labourers but there is no such planning for the "no where children". High figure under this category also shows that all the efforts made by government like Universalization of Elementary Education, Education for All, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan were futile. Jind had recorded 55.88 percent children as no where children which had reduced up to 42.78 percent in 1991 but remained 5 percent higher than the state average. Though picture was worse in rural areas but rural areas improved than the urban areas. In both the cases figures were higher than the state average.

The girl child required special attention. In 1981, 72.90 percent girls were under the 'no where children category' which had reduced up to 53 percent in 1991. Though reduction was quite noteworthy but it was higher than state average and needed some special strategy to solve the problem immediately. In both urban and rural areas, percentage of girls in 'no where children' category have reduced from 1981 to 1991. But still 34.49 percent in urban areas and 56.88 percent in rural came under 'no where children'. All 'no where children' should also be considered as child labourers. In rural areas, the concept of an 'idle' child simply does not exist. Any child not in school was immediately drawn into supplementing family labour on a full time basis, either assisting in the family occupation or managing family assets or simply engaged in a wide variety of domestic 'adult releasing' activities.<sup>23</sup>

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<sup>22</sup> Vasavi, A.R. and Archana Mahendal. "Out of School Children: Contexts and Experiences of Education Deprivation", *JEPA*, Vol. XVII, No. 1, January 2003, pp. 69-84.

<sup>23</sup> Sinha, Shantha. *Child Labour and Education*, M.V. foundation, Azad Reading Room Publication, 2004, p. 21.

The child labour prohibition and regulation act of 1986 unfortunately emphasised regulation rather than prohibition of child labour.<sup>24</sup> Rather than attempting to artificially classify the various forms of work done by a child, it must be simply treated as a single category of child labour. Since any work done by any single child was child labour and in the Indian context no child is really idle, one arrives at the logical conclusion that all children out of school are child labourer. The most important thing is that any problem seeking to deal with the problem of child labour has to address all children out of school irrespective of the nature work. The significant aspect of this is that the task of eliminating child labour and that of universalising education become synonymous. Only form of school that does not explicitly support the concept of a child working is the formal day school, Enrolment should automatically imply enrolment into the formal school system.<sup>25</sup>

### ***3.7.7 Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)***

An analysis of statistic related to GER revealed that total GER at primary level is 90.69 percent (89.01 percent for boys, 92.99 percent for girls), which was quite high than the state average of 78.7 percent (78.6 percent for boys, 78.7 percent for girls). But figures were exceptionally low at the upper primary level as it remained only 66.44 percent (70 percent for boys, 61.60 percent for girls). In rural areas, GER was 92.69 percent and it was better than urban areas surprisingly. It was also more than the state average. But at the upper primary level, rural areas lagged behind the urban areas. But they were more than the state average.

In the rural areas of Jind, percentage of girls was higher than the urban areas at the primary stage which was quite opposite to the trend generally followed by the rural areas and it was also far more satisfactory than the state average (82.4 percent for rural, 68.7 percent for urban). But at upper primary level girls GER was quite poor in the rural areas (57.18 percent) than the urban areas (79.52 percent). As the educational level moved upwards the GER started to decline. So GER at secondary and higher secondary level is quite low than primary and upper primary level. At

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<sup>24</sup> Weiner, Myron. "Child Labour in India: Putting Compulsory Primary Education on the Political Agenda", *EPW*, November 9-16, 1996.

<sup>25</sup> Sinha, Shantha. *Child Labour and Education*, M.V. Foundation, Azad Reading Room Publication, 2004, p. 12.

secondary level GER was reduced up to 50.57 percent (55.85 percent for boys, 44.29 percent for girls) and 31.28 percent (34.34 percent for girls, 27.8 percent for boys) at higher secondary level.

**Table no. 3.10 Gross Enrolment Ratio**

ALL COM	JIND			HARYANA		
PRIMARY	T	B	G	T	B	G
RURAL	92.69	90.04	95.81	82.4	82.4	82.4
URBAN	83.17	84.89	81.01	68.6	68.5	68.7
TOTAL	90.82	89.01	92.99	78.7	78.6	78.7
U.PRIMARY						
RURAL	60.65	63.70	57.18	61.4	64.6	57.9
URBAN	89.34	97.55	79.52	71.5	73.7	69.0
TOTAL	66.44	70.66	61.60	64.2	67.1	60.9
SECONDARY						
RURAL	39.06	43.35	33.66	45.9	49.9	41.1
URBAN	92.70	100.00	82.69	72.7	74.2	70.8
TOTAL	50.57	55.58	44.29	53.7	57.0	49.6
H.SECONDARY						
RURAL	14.51	15.79	12.72	24.8	27.8	20.8
URBAN	44.26	63.45	58.58	73.6	76.9	69.5
TOTAL	31.28	34.34	27.08	39.4	42.4	35.5

Source: Calculated from 7<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey 2002, T =total, G =girls, B =boys.

Difference between rural and urban area was quite high. At secondary level, rural areas were behind with 67 points and 30 points at higher secondary level. It was also very lower than the state average in both the areas. Girls GER was also followed the same trend. At secondary level, it was only 33.66 percent in rural and 82.69 percent in urban areas. Jind's performance was better than the state average in both areas. This trend followed even at the higher secondary level. Only 12.72 percent girls were enrolled in secondary classes and 58.58 percent for higher secondary. Rural-urban gap is very high. State average was very high than district's average.

It can be concluded that except primary classes, female GER was very poor at all the three level of school education in rural areas. At the secondary and the higher secondary level, district Jind was far behind than the state average. The education level for girls suffered in the rural areas because of the distant location where the schools were situated. Availability of highest level of school within the village most often determines the maximum level of girl's education.<sup>26</sup> The government needs to develop strategies which enable establishing more and more school with in easy access of girls.

<sup>26</sup> Kulkarni, Veena. "Why They Dropout? Reason for Low Literacy among Girls?" *Manushi*, November-December, 1996, New Delhi, p. 37.

### 3.7.8 Drop Out

Drop out is considered as the educational wastage. In others words, if a student drop out after 4<sup>th</sup> class, i.e. without completing minimum level of education (primary or elementary), then money spent on the student till that time goes waste. Drop out has also proved to be hurdle in realising the goal of UEE, EFA.

According to 7<sup>th</sup> AIES, at the primary level, Jind had 4.35 percent drop out rate which was 2 percent low than state average. But it increased at the upper primary level up to 10.42 percent which was quite high than the state average of 2.14 percent. At secondary level, it decreased a little i.e. 6.28 percent but at higher secondary level again it rose up to 13.44 percent. At both the level, it was higher than the state average. Urban areas depicted negative drop out rate which was very significant.

**Table no. 3.11 Drop out Rate in District and State**

LEVEL	JIND			HARYANA		
	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL	BOYS	GIRLS
PRIMARY	8.39	6.83	10.11	7.95	7.57	8.41
RURAL	8.39	6.83	10.11	7.95	7.57	8.41
URBAN	-0.15	0.65	-1.20	0.06	-0.40	0.62
TOTAL	4.35	2.10	6.93	6.12	5.69	6.64
U.PRIMARY						
RURAL	18.55	13.06	25.01	8.33	4.93	12.43
URBAN	-15.19	-18.61	-10.29	-13.38	-13.67	-13.02
TOTAL	10.42	4.93	17.20	2.14	-0.44	5.27
SECONDARY						
RURAL	13.02	12.20	14.35	-2.36	-6.42	3.30
URBAN	-5.13	-8.81	0.13	-2.40	-2.58	-2.16
TOTAL	6.28	4.61	8.85	-2.38	-4.95	1.09
H.SECONDARY						
RURAL	18.45	14.38	25.14	8.50	4.35	15.35
URBAN	10.50	8.50	13.87	5.36	3.64	7.75
TOTAL	13.44	10.66	18.08	6.76	3.97	10.93

Source: Calculated from 7<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey, 2002.

Negative drop out rate means instead of dropping out, number of students had increased in the upper classes. Only reason which can be held responsible for this is the migration from the rural to the urban areas. But in rural areas, drop out rate was very high at the primary level. It was 8.39 percent while the state average was 7.95 percent. It increased up to 18.55 percent which was again high as compared to the state average of 8.33 percent at upper primary level. Jind's performance was again very poor in comparison to state average at secondary and higher secondary level. At secondary level and higher secondary level 13.02 percent and 18.45 percent students dropped out respectively. Drop out was very high among girls than boys at all levels

of education. At the primary level, girls drop out rate was 6.93 percent which had increased up to 17.20 percent at the upper primary level. At both levels, district's performance was quite low as compared to state. At secondary level, drop out was 8.85 percent for females and at higher secondary it was 18.8 percent and if compared to state average, we find that same pattern persisted. Even in case of female drop out, urban area's condition was quite satisfactory except in the case of higher secondary level. At higher secondary level 13.87 percent girl's drop out had been recorded. But in rural areas, girl's drop out was alarmingly high at all the four levels. At primary level 10.11 percent, at upper primary level 25.01 percent, at secondary level 14.35 percent, at higher secondary level 25.14 percent girls dropped out.

If we look at the figures at the block level, we find that Narwana block had the lowest drop out rate -0.18 percent (6.70 percent for girls, -6.47 percent for boys) and Alewa had the highest drop out rate 22.80 percent (20.05 percent for boys, 25.89 percent for girls).

**Table no. 3.12 Drop out Rate at Block Level**

Block	PRIMARY			U.PRIMARY			SEC			H.SEC		
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
Alewa	20.05	25.89	22.80	14.56	25.22	19.32	2.76	5.43	3.81	-44.71	10.81	-18.87
Jind	12.43	14.19	13.27	17.37	20.87	19.00	11.34	17.23	13.69	15.09	6.98	12.24
Julana	3.44	-7.10	-1.65	15.05	27.86	21.58	13.08	12.07	12.61	6.98	34.16	22.07
Narwana	-6.47	6.70	-0.18	15.01	32.59	23.10	9.75	14.09	11.54	20.92	29.36	25.06
Pillukhera	12.93	11.52	12.28	-10.53	10.70	-1.29	13.10	-8.79	6.06	23.56	11.69	19.92
Safidon	7.33	3.92	5.83	16.77	17.77	17.21	11.91	20.87	15.12	-1.90	31.78	10.88
Uchana	5.01	14.27	9.57	18.33	38.50	27.58	14.69	17.32	15.60	22.10	38.69	25.53
Jind	6.61	9.79	8.11	13.67	26.20	19.46	11.46	12.74	11.96	14.82	24.88	18.62

Source: Calculated from 7<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey, 2002, T = total, B = boys, G = girls.

percent for girls) at primary level. Jind (13.27 percent) and Pillukhera (12.28 percent) also had very high dropout. At upper primary level, Uchana had recorded the highest drop out of 27.58 percent (18.33 percent for boys, 38.50 percent for girls); followed by Narwana with 23.10 percent (15.01 percent for boys, 32.59 percent for girls) and Julana with 21.58 percent (15.05 percent for boys, 27.86 percent for girls). Pillukhera had the lowest drop out which was -1.29 percent i.e. no drop out. At secondary level, Uchana was again at first number with 15.60 percent drop out (14.69 percent girls, 17.32 percent boys), followed by Safidon and Jind. Alewa was again having the lowest drop out rate i.e. 3.81 percent (2.76 percent boys, 5.43 percent girls). Figure at higher secondary level shows that Uchana had again the highest drop out rate 25.53 percent (22.10 percent for boys, 38.69 percent for girls) followed by Narwana 25.06

percent (20.92 percent for boys, 29.36 percent for girls. Julana and Pillukhera also possessed high drop out rates. Alewa had become the block with the lowest drop out rate at higher secondary as depicted in the table 13, the drop out rate in negative i.e. - 18.87 percent. But in Alewa boys had no drop out and girls had 10.81 percent. It can be concluded that Uchana had the highest drop out rate except at primary level. It also had the high difference between girls and boys drop out rate. While analysing the lowest drop out, figures kept on changing and no special trend could be traced out.

In most of the areas, girls drop out is higher than the boys. Reason for the high drop out amongst girls' lies in the socio economic condition of Haryana. Equality among males and females was questionable in these areas. Girl's education is not considered as important as boy's education. Daughters are still considered as burden – sooner you get rid of them, the better it will be. Mothers have no say in household decisions. They have no idea about cost of schooling, leave it on their husband. Maternal literacy is also very low as we have already seen.<sup>27</sup> Early marriage is another reason responsible for the high girls drop out rate. Parents in rural areas feel comfortable to educate their girls up to whatever level the village school provides education. Parents feel highly insecure to send their daughters to school which are situated in isolation. This factor becomes more and more visible once girls attain puberty. Reason for boy's drop out are little different than girl's in rural areas. A complete lack of synchronization between agricultural season ability and the school timing has led to sharp fall in attendance in agricultural peak times.<sup>28</sup> It has also been noticed that some times parents do not have much faith in schooling systems ability to educate the child. Sometimes this disappointment acts as a catalyst in increasing drop out rates.

As we have discussed earlier also, availability of schooling facility within habitation is one of the major factor responsible for the girls drop out. It played an important role in retention of child especially girl child. According to the norms set in area of school education, primary school should be available within a walking

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<sup>27</sup>Bondroit, Marie Eve. "Gender Relations and Schooling: Himachal Pradesh vs. Haryana", in Public Report on Basic Education in India (PROBE), Oxford University Press, 1999, p. 56.

<sup>28</sup>Acharya Promesh. "Problem of Universal Elementary Education", *EPW*, 3rd December, 1994, p. 3102.

distance of 1 k.m. from residence and for upper primary; the school should be made available with in walking distance of 3 k.m. from the residence.

### 3.7.9 School According to Type of Building

Table no. 3.13 reveals the data for the infrastructure of schooling facilities. Jind ensures that a very good infrastructure in respect of school building at all the four level of schooling exists. At primary, upper primary, secondary level, all schools had either a pucca or partly pucca building. There was no school with kaccha building, tents or open space. At higher secondary level, all schools had full pucca building. Rural and urban areas both were providing equally good facilities in this area. Jind provided better infrastructure when it was compared with the state average.

**Table no. 3.13 School according to the Type of Building**

Level/area	JIND		HARYANA	
	Pucca	Partly Pucca	Pucca	Partly Pucca
PRIMARY				
Rural	97.83	2.17	97.74	1.01
Urban	97.44	1.71	95.79	2.24
Total	97.48	1.75	97.51	1.15
U.PRIMARY				
Rural	97.98	1.01	97.71	1.75
Urban	91.67	8.33	97.73	1.77
Total	97.30	1.80	97.71	1.75
SECONDARY				
Rural	98.31	1.69	98.43	1.02
Urban	98.48	1.52	98.42	1.24
Total	98.36	1.64	98.43	1.08
H.SECONDARY				
Rural	100.00	0.00	98.33	1.00
Urban	100.00	0.00	98.65	0.54
Total	100.00	0.00	98.48	0.79

Source: Calculated from 7<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey, 2002.

According to table no 3.14, within the Jind district only, Safidon and Pillukhera were backward in this regard. In Safidon block, 87.69 percent primary school possessed pucca and 6.05 percent schools were made of partly pucca building. In Pillukhera, 90.70 percent primary schools had pucca and 9.30 percent primary schools had partly pucca building. Rest of the blocks have 100 percent schools were made of pucca building. At upper primary level, Safidon had 92.31 percent pucca school building and 7.69 percent partly pucca school building, even though Safidon recorded the lowest place among all the blocks. Jind with 95.45 percent schools

**Table no. 3.14 School according to the Type Building at Block Level**

BLOCK	Pucca		Partly Pucca	
	PRIMARY		UPPER PRIMARY	
Alewa	100	0	100	0
Jind	100	0	95.45	0.00
Julana	100	0	100	0.00
Narwana	100	0	100	0.00
Pillukhera	90.70	9.30	100	0.00
Safidon	87.69	6.15	92.31	7.69
Uchana	100	0	100	0
BLOCK	SECONDARY		H.SECONDARY	
	SECONDARY		H.SECONDARY	
Alewa	100	0	100	0
Jind	100	0	100	0
Julana	100	0	100	0
Narwana	100	0	100	0
Pillukhera	90	10	100	0
Safidon	95.65	4.35	100	0
Uchana	100.00	0.00	100	0

Source: Calculated from 7<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey, 2002.

followed the Safidon. At secondary level, Pillukhera (90 percent schools with pucca building, 10 percent with partly pucca building) is at the lowest rank followed by Safidon (95.65 percent schools with pucca building, 4.35 percent partly pucca building). The higher secondary schools are made of pucca building in all the blocks of Jind district.

### 3.7.10 Ancillary facilities in schools

Availability of ancillary facilities in school is one of the major factors responsible for regulating the attendance and decreasing drop out, especially in case of girls.

**Table no. 3.15 Number of School Having Ancillary Facilities**

Area/Level	JIND				HARYANA			
	Schools Having		Schools Having Separate Facility for Girls		Schools Having		Schools Having Separate Facility for Girls	
	Urinal Facility	Lavatory Facility	Urinal Facility	Lavatory Facility	Urinal Facility	Lavatory Facility	Urinal Facility	Lavatory Facility
PRIMARY								
Rural	100	97.45	100.00	97.04	85.73	91.93	85.79	92.10
Urban	97.78	100.00	100.00	100.00	93.28	93.99	93.44	93.81
Total	99.81	97.67	100.00	97.33	86.60	92.17	86.72	92.31
U.PRIMARY								
Rural	97.96	94.90	97.94	94.85	94.15	89.78	94.23	89.83
Urban	100.00	92.31	100.00	92.31	98.99	97.72	98.98	97.72
Total	98.20	94.59	98.18	94.55	95.01	91.19	95.07	91.23
SECONDARY								
Rural	100.00	97.18	100.00	96.91	97.92	94.30	97.93	94.44
Urban	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	98.53	98.19	98.97	98.62
Total	100.00	97.94	100.00	97.81	98.07	95.31	98.20	95.55
H.SECONDARY								
Rural	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	99.55	96.99	99.53	96.82
Urban	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	98.92	99.05	98.82	99.12
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	99.26	97.92	99.21	97.84

Source: Calculated from 7<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey, 2002.



From table no. 3.15, it is observed that district Jind had performed quite well in respect to the state average. Urinal and lavatory facilities in both combined and separate girls' school are better than the state average at primary school. The urinal facility has received special attention under several governmental schemes therefore 100 percent school have separate urinal facilities in rural areas. In urban areas, combined schools need attention but separate girls' school have sufficient urinal facilities. However, the numbers of school having lavatory facilities in rural areas are lower than that of urban areas in both combined and girls' school. At upper primary level, Jind's infrastructure is better than the state average. Again the same trend is followed i.e. rural areas are backward than the urban areas in case of urinal facility. But in case if lavatory facility, rural areas are having better facility in both combined as well as separate girls' school. It is slightly better than the state average. Except lavatory facility at secondary level, all the areas have 100 percent ancillary facilities at secondary and higher secondary level. Thus it can be said that in respect to ancillary facility Jind is providing quite good facilities.

### **3.8 Conclusion**

The main findings of this chapter indicate that district Jind has remained very backward in the field of education. In case of literacy, Jind is still very far behind than the other districts. It comes 3<sup>rd</sup> in the lower order of ranking in literacy. Difference in literacy rate in rural and urban area is still alarmingly high. Male literacy rate is very high than female literacy rate. But it is a matter of satisfaction that CLGR in rural areas is very high than urban areas. In the same way female CLGR is more than male. It is a better indication for the future. In the case of education level, Jind has a very poor performance at upper primary, secondary and higher secondary level. Difference between rural and urban areas remained very high. The area which need urgent attention is "no where child" which should be considered domestic child labour. In this area also, number of females is very high and rural area are lagging behind. The district is in quite a critical condition in comparison to state average.

But when we look at the 7<sup>th</sup> All India Educational Survey, the Jind's position seems quite improved. Though it did not achieve universal elementary education, but still at primary level, GER was 90 percent. At upper primary, secondary, higher

secondary level, it was lagging behind the state average. Gender gap and rural urban gap still persists. In case of drop out also, same trend is seen, i.e. district remained behind the state average, gender gap is high and rural areas recorded high drop out rate than urban areas. At block level no special trend is followed.

Thus it can be said that Jind has improved a lot but still it has a long way to go. The areas which need immediate attention are rural areas and females. The poor condition in this field can be attributed to lack of enough education programmes especially meant for rural areas and females, lack of universal primary education and poverty. Though government has already planned many strategies, but problem lies in the implementation of the schemes at ground level. The proper planning has to be carved out to implement the schemes. Community has to come forward for this. The dream of Universalization of Elementary Education and Education for All can be achieved only if both the government and community joined hands.

## CHAPTER 4

### ROLE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION: A CASE STUDY OF TWO VILLAGES

“So long as we do not discover or create a representative and democratic institution which will supply the local interest, supervision and care necessary to ensure that expenditure of money upon local object conforms with the need and wishes of the locality, invest it with adequate powers and assign to it appropriate finances, we will never be able to evoke local interest and excite local initiative in the field of development...development can not progress without responsibility and power. Community development can be real only when the community understands its problems, realises its responsibilities, exercises the necessary powers through its chosen representatives and maintains a constant and intelligent vigilance on local administration. With this objective, we recommend an early establishment of statutory elective local bodies and devolution on them the necessary resources, power and authority.”<sup>1</sup>

The concept of decentralisation of education has gained lots of importance among the educationist. The advantages and disadvantages of decentralisation have been the subject of several debates and discussions. In the Indian context, the concept of decentralisation essentially grew out of the failure of community development programme which was introduced in 1952. The objective of community development programme was to bring about socio-economic changes in rural areas and act as a catalytic agent to stimulate local participation and effort in development.<sup>2</sup>

The need for decentralisation of educational management system in the country has been highlighted in several policies e.g. in national policy on education 1986, it was recommended to bring extensive structural reforms to bring about decentralisation in education planning and management process. At present a new enthusiasm has been witnessed to change the existing management framework and to

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<sup>1</sup> Planning Commission. Report of the study team for the Study of Community Projects and National Extension Services, Chairman: Balwant G. Mehta, Vol. 1, New Delhi, 1957.

<sup>2</sup> Jain, S. P. “Decentralisation, Panchyati Raj and Education”, in Janadhalya B. G. Tilak’s (ed), *Education, Society and Development; National and International Perspectives*. NIEPA, APH publishing house, 2003.

ensure greater involvement of the community in management of the School education. This is quite evident from developments taking place in different states through the establishment of village education committees as well as the thrust created for local level planning under different programmes of “Education for All”. The new Panchyati Raj act has also added great fillip to this move towards decentralisation in the management of school education.<sup>3</sup>

#### **4.2 Historical Perspective**

After independence, the process of accelerating the development through decentralised administration found expression in article 40 of constitution which states, “State shall take steps to organise village Panchyats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as unit of self government.” The committee on plan project (appointed under the chairmanship of Balwant Rai Mehta) recommended establishment of a three-tier organisational set up having Zila Parishad in each district at the district level and a Panchyats Samiti generally coterminous with a development block below the district level. At the lower level, gram panchyats were to be constituted to secure community action in as large a measure as possible. The pivot of the three-tier organisational was the Panchyats samiti at the block level. The Zila Parishad at the district level was expected to perform the function of coordination only. The function of the Village Panchyats were largely related to agricultural production, cooperation, local community mobilisation, School education, as well as municipal function such as maintenance of roads etc.

The system of Panchyati Raj was initiated in the early sixties with specific purposes of accelerating the process of decentralised development in the rural areas. Panchyati Raj Institutions (PRIs) became instruments of democratic decentralization of administration. The objectives kept in mind while introducing the system were; to promote an institutional framework for popular administration based on the concept of “democratic decentralization”, to promote peoples participation in rural development programmes, to act as a medium of social and political change, to

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<sup>3</sup> Govinda, R. “Dynamics of Decentralised Management in Primary Education: Policy and Practice in Rajasthan and Madhya Pradesh”, in R. Govinda and Rashmi Diwan’s (ed), *Community Participation and Empowerment in Primary Education*, Sage Publication, 2003.

facilitate mobilisation process at local levels, to prepare plans for development and assist in their implementation in the concerned areas.<sup>4</sup>

Though the initial start was quite good, but it soon began to lose its momentum. The failure of Panchyati Raj has been attributed to factors such as lack of finances, lack of cooperation from the government departments, half hearted policies and defective structures created for implementation of the developmental programmes.

In 1978, the Ashok Mehta committee was formed under the chairmanship of Ashok Mehta to review the working of Panchyati Raj institutions in the context of rural development. The committee had found that the PRI system had passed through phases of ascendancy, stagnation and decline in quick succession. To reactivate the PRIs, the Ashok Mehta committee had suggested that the Mandal Panchyats should be the basic units of development administration at the lower level and the Zilla Parishad at the apex level. With this system Panchyati system had deviated from the traditional three tier pattern to two tier pattern. The Mehta committee included social education as one of the functions of the Panchyati Raj and emphasised on some of the selected aspects of social education programme.

In 1986, a major break through came with the formation of National Policy of Education (NPE). Thus the policy assigned a major role to the local committees through appropriate bodies in School education improvement programme. The Programme of Action (POA) 1992 also suggested establishment of VEC in each village. Baldev Mahajan has summarised the advantages seen in the decentralised management of education through Panchyati Raj Institutions as- a) improvement of the level of literacy in general and spread of Primary education in particular, b) enlisting peoples' support in respect of; i) mobilising resources infrastructural development, particularly construction of school building, ii) exercising local supervision and control over the primary school which can not be done effectively by far-off department staff, iii) meeting the day to day needs of the School, and iv) in

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<sup>4</sup> Jain, S. P. "Decentralisation, Panchyati Raj and Education", in Janadhalya B. G. Tilak's (eds), *Education, Society and Development; National and International Perspectives*, NIEPA, APH publishing house, 2003, p. 76.

bringing down the rate of drop outs and increasing enrolments. But at the same time failure of Panchyati Raj at earlier stage had brought the following points which are generally levelled against the decentralisation of educational administration- a) local bodies had inadequate funds at their disposal to manage the educational Institutions, even teacher's salaries fell into arrears at times, b) the local bodies had incompetent and inefficient staff which acted as hindrance in the development programmes c) the involvement of local faction and politics caused harassment to the teachers as the teachers are frequently transferred and posted. d) the local affairs are managed by the politicians who not only lacked calibre but also the intention to run the School effectively.<sup>5</sup>

The 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> constitutional amendment proved a mile stone in the democratic decentralisation in India. The constitution (73rd amendment) Act 1992, envisages states to establish a three-tier system of Panchyats at the village, intermediate and district level. 74<sup>th</sup> amendment recommended for the establishment of municipality in urban areas. These acts placed education including Primary and secondary Schools, technical training and vocational education and adult and non-formal education under the local bodies.

The CAFE committee on decentralised management of education of education had categorically visualized the role of PRIs in the management of education as follows- the Panchyati Raj Bodies have an important role to play in the reconstruction of the education system. It is being realised that there is alienation between the communities and educational system in general and thus, efforts towards ensuring larger enrolment, raising retention rate and improving teaching- learning process, have not succeeded substantially.<sup>6</sup>

Besides these developments at the policy level, the country also witnessed major programmes in this field in the last decade. These programmes are like DPEP, Lok Jumbish in Rajasthan, Janshala in Orissa etc. Community Participation and

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<sup>5</sup> Mahajan, Baldev. "Decentralised Management of School Education and Panchyati Raj Institution" in Yash Aggarwal and Kusum K. Premi, *Reforming School Education: Issues in Policy Planning and Implementation*, National Institute of Educational and Planning and Administration, p. 25.

<sup>6</sup> Biswas, Arbinda and Suren Aggarwal. "Indian Educational Documents since Independence", The Academic Publishers, New Delhi, 1971, p. 66.

empowerment for School education is gradually acquiring a place of importance not only in the education management discourse, but also in political reorganisation measures in the area of public administration.

The term Community Participation has been defined differently by different scholars. According to Vimala Ramachandran, “Community Participation is perhaps the most misused and misunderstood word in development jargon today. Community in itself has no meaning- it is like saying India or Rajasthan. Presumably, we are referring to those who are either left out or are participating from the margins...Community Participation implies the participation of the disempowered. Ideally it would involve people who have little or no access to basic education – as a community, geographical area or gender. However, this is easier said than done because it is these very people who are the most difficult to reach out to.”<sup>7</sup>

In the present chapter, the study has tried to highlight the role of Community Participation by the comprehensive study of two villages. How can community make a difference on the functioning of the government Schools if it is highly encouraged and mobilised? How all the efforts for decentralised administration can prove useless if community is not aware and activated? An effort has been made to find the answers of these questions.

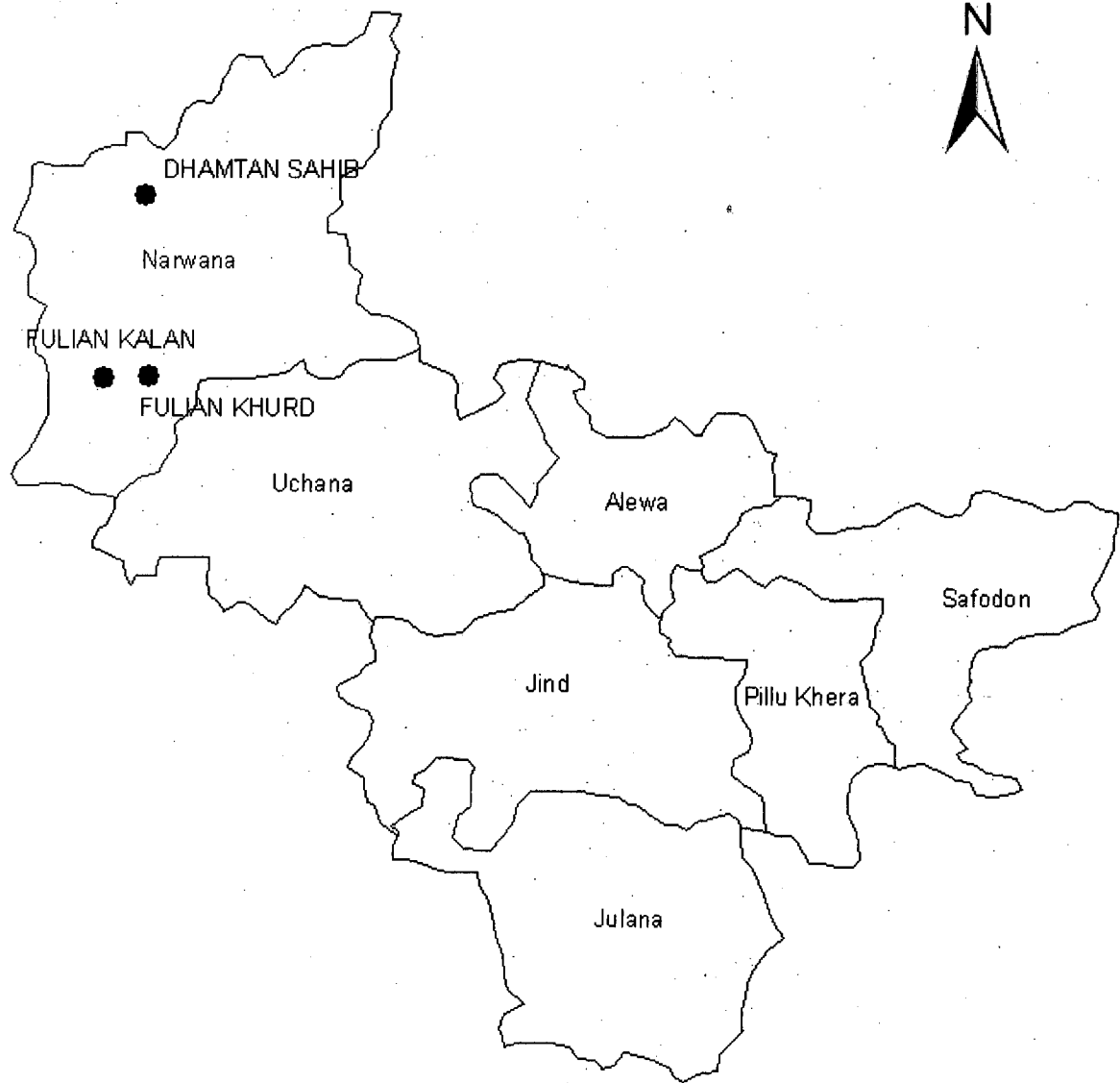
The selection of the village Dhamtan Sahib was done on the basis of the literature survey (newspaper and government report). Keeping the large parameters of the micro studies in mind, only government schools were observed and interviews and discussion with various groups were conducted. It was found that situation is very inspiring and exceptionally good in area of school education in general and in role of Community Participation in particular. It was decided to include another village, Phulian – in study, to ascertain whether the situation of school education, equity issues, vis-à-vis role of Community Participation in Dhamtan Sahib was representative or whether there were differing patterns and situation prevalent in the district. The study attempts to provide with a comparative framework, to highlight the gender, social equity and Community Participation that frame the School education.

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<sup>7</sup>Ramachandran, Vimala. “Community Participation and Empowerment in Primary Education; Discussion of the Experiences form the Rajasthan”, in R. Govinda and Rashmi Diwan’s (eds), *Community participation and empowerment in primary education*. Sage Publication, 2003, pp. 56-57.

# HARYANA JIND DISTRICT

Map: 4.1



● CASE STUDY AREA

*SOURCE: Census of India*

Not to Scale



#### **4.3.1 Village Profile of Dhamtan Sahib**

Dhamtan Sahib is located about 13 k.m. from the nearest town Tohana. The name of the village has its own historical importance. There is a historical *gurudwara*, which is said to be built up on the place where the ninth guru Teg Bahadur ji stayed when he was going to Delhi to meet the Mughal Ruler Aurangzeb. In the *gurudwara*, guru's disciple named Damdama stayed for long time and served local people. Thus the village was named Dhamtan sahib after Damdama. Some say that the village became a *dharmsthan* for Sikhs and that is why it is called Dhamtan sahib.

Agriculture is the mainstay of the villagers who are mostly cultivators or agricultural labour. Cultivation is mainly of wheat and gram and different varieties of the other indigenous coarse grains. The late 1980s and the early 1990s witnessed the advent of well and pump irrigation along with more land being devoted to cash crops. From total 3180 acre irrigated area, 3075 is irrigated by government canal, 10 by tube well without electricity and 95 is being irrigated by tube well.

Like most of the villages in Haryana, All household have electricity connection and safe drinking water. The place is well connected with public transport and telecommunications. According to the census 1991, village has covered 3609 hectare area with 1327 households. Total population of the village was 9598; with 5376 males and 4222 females. Children in the 0-6 year age group numbered 1807, with the male to female ratio being 788:1024. Population figure for the 6-11 and 12-14 years age group were not available from the village census data. The pattern of the sex ratio in village is not different from district and state (discussed in the last chapter) i.e. it also shows the declining graph of female population. Reasons for this alarming trend have to be looked for in the historical, social and cultural contexts of Haryana, where there is clear pattern of deep rooted discrimination against women. "Female foeticide, domestic violence, dowry deaths and harassment, caste based oppressions and cultural restrictions on women's access to educational and health

opportunities are some of the well documented and commented aspects of gender oppression prevalent in all the socio economic sections of Haryana.”<sup>8</sup>

The social profile of the village shows that the Scheduled Caste (SC) community comprises approximately 17 percent of the total village population. Among the SC, Chamars are the most dominant group. Balmiki, Mazhabi Sikhs, Bazigar, Od are other castes which come under SC. Among general category, Jaats, Brahmins, Baniyas, Mehtas, Sikhs are main castes. Jaat comprises the most influential and dominant community of the village. Among the Backward Caste (BC), *Nais*, *Sunar*, *Lohar*, *Kumhar* are the major communities. The clear residential segregation reflects social and economic differentiation that exists in the villages. A walk through the different *mohallas* gives the impression that there is a direct correlation between economics and social status in the village. Outward tapering of the prosperity like pucca house, T.V. antennas, cattle, neighbourhood store and a general air of well being are most evident in the houses of upper caste community. Though Dalit *mohallas* are now having all these facilities, but these are not as much as in the *mohallas* of the upper community. Jaat community being the dominant one, sociologically and population wise both, the real power seems to rest with them. Most of the time, post of the Sarpanch is being held by the candidate of Jaat community. The current Sarpanch is a woman from Jaat community. The representation of women is only on paper, the real power is being used by her husband, which was revealed by the interviews with Sarpanch and other villagers.

If we have a look at the means of livelihood, it was found that communities in general category are having the maximum government jobs and as mentioned earlier, comprises the influential old land owning community of the village. Among the SC, agriculture labour is the main occupation. But within SC, Chamars families are having the government jobs and also own small land holdings. This particular caste has witnessed the social and economics mobility. Male female work participation is one of the good indicators for observing the status of status of female. According to census data, 77.35 percent of the males, 29.28 percent females are working as

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<sup>8</sup> Mahajan, Vandana. “The Hidden Picture: A Case Study from District Hisar, Haryana”, in Vimala Ramachandran’s (ed), *Gender and Social Equity in Primary Education: Hierarchies of Access*, Sage Publication, 2004, p. 263.

labourers. High percentage of female workers has two implications. High females work participation indicates that females go out from the four wall of the house and participate in economics activities. This participation provides them more say in the family matters. This can be seen as a positive effect on the girl's education of the family and it also provide a sense of independence to them. But if we look at the other side, when women will move out for work then girl child has to stay at home for domestic work and to take care of her siblings. This affects the scope of education for girl child.

#### ***4.3.2 Village Profile of Phulian***

Village Phulian is divided between two village Panchyats with the name Phulian Kalan and Phulian Khurd. Kalan and Khurd are words of local dialects with meaning small and big respectively. Because both of the villages are small in area, so one village has only primary and upper primary school for girls and Khurd have primary and senior secondary school for boys. So keeping the research goals in mind, it was decided to study both the villages. Phullian Khurd has occupied the total area of 5556 hectare. Agriculture is main source of the livelihood in both the villages. Wheat and bajra are the main crops. In Phulian Khurd out of total 209 hectare, 191 are irrigated by canal water and rest with tube well with electricity. In Phulian Kalan, the canal is the only source of the irrigation. Use of canal water has been started after 1990. Both the villages are well connected with pucca roads, bus transportation and telecommunications. Water supply is provided by tap water, tube well and wells. There is Primary health centre at the distance of 5 k.m. Phulian Kalan has Primary health centre but Phullian Khurd have to cross five k.m. of distances to access it. Total population of the village Phulian Khurd is 836, with 459 males and 377 females and in Phulian Kalan total population is 2246, with 1223 males and 1023 females. Children in 0-6 years age group number 170 (95 males, 75 females) in Phulian Khurd, and 440 (249 males 191 females) in Phullian Kalan. Both the villages follow the state and district sex ratio trends as prevalent in Dhamtan sahib.

A look at the social profile reveals that 16.27 percent of population comprises of SC community (18.30 percent males, 13.79 percent females) in Phulian Khurd. In Phullian Kalan, percentage of SC population is much higher than Dhamtan sahib and

Khurd. Among SC, Chamars is the most dominant caste group. Jaats are again the most dominant community in general category in both the villages. But discussions with Panchyat members reveal that most of the time Sarpanch is selected from the *Chamar* community. Condition of SC community is better in Kalan as compared with Dhamtan Sahib and Phulian Khurd. Though the agriculture is main source of earning but big land holding does not exist. Castes under general category are having the possession of the land holding and government jobs. Members of SC community are very little in government jobs and generally work as agriculture labourers. Only Chamars from SC had little approach to government jobs.

#### ***4.4.1 Education Profile of Dhamtan Sahib***

In village Dhamtan sahib, 31.38 percent literates were recorded, 43.75 percent male and 15.78 percent females. Gender gap in literacy is very high which directly has correlation with girls' school education. As far as educational facilities are concerned, village have sufficient facilities for school education. For high education, young students have to move to nearest town Tohana or Narwana. The area is well connected by bus. Transport in state buses is free for girls along with free education and other incentives in Haryana. Interview with college going girls and parents showed that parents hesitate to send their girls to town after completing senior secondary school. Girls' senior secondary school has just been upgraded. But because of lack of staff for eleventh and twelfth class's girls were still attending board classes in boys' senior secondary level.<sup>9</sup> Dhamtan Sahib has one government primary school (GPS) for girls, one GPS for boys, 2 senior secondary schools for boys and girls separately. First government school was established in 1956. In group discussion, it was found that efforts were made by some youngsters to set up a school but the school was destroyed by the some influential people of upper caste in 1948. There was such a great celebration for it that 51 k.g. halwa (sweet dish) was distributed. At that time there was a general view that education will spoil their children. That incident is still considered responsible for the educational backwardness of the village.<sup>10</sup> Jind is phase

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<sup>9</sup> Interviews with Smt. Sheela Devi (Parent, age 43) and Kavita (Student, age 20), Dhamtan Sahib, 7th September, 2007.

<sup>10</sup> Interviews with Shri Ram Swarup (Parent, age 85), Dhamtan sahib, 12th September, 2007.

**Table: 4.1** Profile of Educational facilities in Dhamtan Sahib

Name of educational facility	Number/Location	Year of establishment
Anganwadi centre	4(all are situated within the easy approach in village)	running for over 22 to 15 years
government Primary School	2 (as per government norms with in 1 to 3 k.m.)	boys in 1956, girls in 1976
government secondary School	2 (one with in 3 km, but one in outskirts of village)	boys in 1995, girls in 2007
private, unaided and unrecognised School	4 (located in different corners of the village)	One is more than 22 years old; others are opened in the last 12 to 9 years.

Source: Data collected during the study, 2007.

one district selected under DPEP. One of the areas of selection of DPEP district was high gender gap in literacy. The high gap in literacy of male and female in the village shows that village is following the pattern of state and district. Village have very good educational infrastructure in the village, but still there is tilt against literacy for women and school education for girls. Reasons for such variation need to be searched within the social, economical and political contexts of the local condition.

#### **4.4.2 Education Profile of Phulian**

In Phulian Khurd total literacy rate is 38.14 percent, (male literacy 56.53 percent and female literacy 16.92 percent). Gender gap in literacy in Khurd is high than Dhamtan sahib. In Phulian Kalan total literacy rate was recorded 32.61 percent (male literacy 47.73 percent, female literates 15.26 percent). This is also following the same trend which is followed by district and state. In both Phulian Kalan and Khurd, educational facilities are not as good as Dhamtan sahib. In Phulian Khurd there is only one middle school for girls. In Phulian Kalan, there is only one boys' primary school and one co-ed senior secondary school. Distance between both the village is only of crossing the one road, both can be conceived one village by any new comer. Though girls' school has been upgraded from primary to upper primary in 2002, but still girls are being enrolled in co-ed school because there is shortage of staff in girls'

primary school. In Phulian Kalan, a new school has been started in 2007 by the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan.

**Table: 4.2** Profile of Educational facilities in Phulian (Kalan and Khurd both)

Name of educational facility	Number/Location	Year of establishment
Anganwadi centre	3(all are situated within the easy approach in village)	running for over 12 to 10 years
government Primary School	2 (as per government norms within 1 to 3 k.m.)	1989 (for girls), 1954 (for boys)
government secondary School	1 (located on the main approach road to village)	2007 (secondary for co ed), 2002 (middle for girls)
private, unaided and unrecognised School	5 (located in different corners of the village)	Since 1995 private Schools started emerging.

Source: Data collected during the study, 2008.

Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya is opened only in those areas which are quite backward in field of girls School education. Only the girls from the family which falls under below poverty line are eligible for it. In Phulian, though girls from all categories are being enrolled but SC girls are being preferred. These are residential schools. Girls from all nearby villages found to attend it. Girls have started staying in hostel though hostel is still under construction. Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya is situated within the premises of government middle school for girls. But it has its separate administration, separate staff. It is only sharing the building with government school middle school for girls as its building is under construction. This was started mainly for drop out from SC and BC community. This school comes under the direct control of DC.

#### **4.5 Functioning of Schools**

In Dhamtan Sahib, all the four government schools in the villages seem to be functioning well. However interviews with Village Education Committee and Panchyat members, parents and group discussion with students reveal that situation has changed from what it was earlier. Earlier only children from SC and economically backward family used to go to the government school. This was a matter of great

anxiety, “what bring the revolutionary changes which makes the government school function in real sense?”

Discussion with parents and teacher brought two causes to light. The causes can be divided into two categories 1) independent and 2) dependent. Under the independent causes, first is the appointment of a very sincere and efficient principle and the second is the role of Community Participation. The role played by independent causes will be discussed in other part of the study. Under dependent causes, DPEP intervention on in service training inputs to all the teachers, improved teacher pupil ratio with appointment of guest and contract teachers, improvement in school building with help of VEC have improved the functioning and efficiency of government school.

Government primary girl’s school was founded in 1976. It has covered total area of 3 acre. It was upgraded to middle school in 1983 and up to higher school in 1988-1987. It became a senior secondary school in 2007. Like all other government school of the village, this school had also witnessed an increase in the strength of students. But it can not be denied that both dependent and independent causes which have effected the functioning of government school have showed positive influence on this also. The strength has jumped from 264 in 1999 to 392 in 2007.<sup>11</sup> Besides increase in population, the improved number of staff was found the major reason behind it. In 1999 out of total 7 posts, 4 were vacant and now total 9 posts are sanctioned, on 4 posts permanent teacher are appointed and 5 posts are filled with guest teachers. Parents expressed satisfaction with the functioning of the school and the results of their children. Satellite education programme “DTH (Direct to Home)” has been functioning since July 2007. SSA has sufficient water supply toilet facility (both for student and staff), proper electricity. But it was complained by the head teacher that building of the school is quite insufficient and school needed three more room to run the classes well. Short boundary wall was another problem. It was found that though mid day meal was being run but proper kitchen and utensils for cooking and eating were missing. Food was being cooked in open. During rainy season, mid day meal was not provided due to this problem. It was also complained that VEC member did not pay much attention to the needs of this school. One fact was also surprising, when all other school witnessed the declining graph of student

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<sup>11</sup> Data collected form School Register during field survey, Government Primary School for girls, Dhamtan sahib, 26<sup>th</sup> September, 2007.

**Table: 4.3** Over view of Schooling facilities in Dhamtan Sahib

Facilities	Government School	Private School
Building	Pucca	One has fully Pucca and rest partly pucca. In spite of being partly pucaa, it was in bad condition
Co-educational	Till higher secondary, these are nuclear, but at secondary level 12th class is co-ed because of lack of staff	Yes
Multi Grade Teaching	Only at Primary level in both boys and girls.	No
Basic TLM (black board, chalk, mats)	Yes	Yes
Mid day meal	Yes	No
Library	No	No
Drinking water	Yes, sufficient	Yes but it was not hygienic in two School.
Toilets	Yes, sufficient	Yes, but inadequate

Source: Data collected during the study, 2007.

strength, this school was never such a bad state in spite of shortage of staff and all other problems. When it was discussed with teachers, only reason which came to the light was gender bias. Parents usually preferred to send their boys to good private school but girls are being sent to government school. The education was not considered important for girls as for boys.

It has already been mentioned that the school was upgraded to senior secondary in 2007, so it had its separate functioning, separate building. This is the school which has witnessed the impact of revolutionary changes the most. This impact is evident from increased enrolment and improved result of the classes. In 2001, there were only 162 students which had increased up to 431 in 2007. The school records were not well maintained, so the result of only board classes was available. In 2000-2001 only 29 percent students in 8<sup>th</sup> class and 28 percent of the students in 10<sup>th</sup> has passed their respective exams. But in 2004-05, result has improved up to 93 percent and 82 percent for 8<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> class respectively.<sup>12</sup> For its 8<sup>th</sup> class result in 2004-05, school was declared on 3<sup>rd</sup> position in state in both quality and quantity by Haryana board of school education. This School was also struggling with problem of lack of adequate staff. It was found that the computer education has been started in paper but teachers complained that only computers had been provided.

<sup>12</sup> Data collected form School Register during field survey, Government Senior Secondary School for girls, Dhamtan sahib, 13th September, 2007.



There was lack of adequate arrangements for electricity, teacher and curriculum. Supply of electricity was always a problem for the school. Eduset (Educational Satellite) has been set up for 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> classes. But there existed sufficient toilet and drinking water supply.

Government primary school for boys' was founded in 1956. In 1995, when the Primary School was upgraded to senior school; it possessed a separate building and functioning unit from that of the present senior secondary school. The functioning of the school has also witnessed impact of the independent and dependent reasons which we have discussed earlier. It can be judged from the strength of school which had increased from 91 in 2001 to 342 in 2007.<sup>13</sup> It was noticed that school always has suffered from the shortage of teaching staff. There was a time when school was being run by one teacher for one year. The teacher complained that he used to manage class, clerical duties, mid day meal and DTH all by himself.<sup>14</sup> The quality of teaching can be imagined if one person performs all these duties. But in 2006, three teachers were appointed. These teachers were 12<sup>th</sup> pass-out youngsters who does not possess any formal training. The salaries of these teachers' was collected form the students with the consent of their parents. The decision of appointing these teachers was made by VEC and teachers. Except teaching staff, if we look at the other facilities, we find the school was in a better condition. There was adequate drinking water supply, toilet, playground, electricity supply. Thorough medical check up of all the students is done by Primary health centre's doctors time by time.

Government senior secondary school was upgraded in 1995. This school has also witnessed many up and down like other school, but its graph improved slowly. In 2000-01, the school was almost at the verge of getting shut down; its total strength was only 104. In 2006-07, school has total strength of 430 students.<sup>15</sup> Due to its decreased strength, 3 posts of different teachers were dissolved. Vacant posts have always remained a problem. It was reported that post of Science teacher was hardly

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<sup>13</sup> Data collected form School Register during field survey, Government Primary School for boys, Dhamtan sahib, 18th September, 2007.

<sup>14</sup> Interview with Gulshan Kumar (age 38), Junior Based Teacher, Government Primary School for boys, Dhamtan sahib, 18th September, 2007.

<sup>15</sup> Data collected form School Register during field survey, Government Senior Secondary School for boys, Dhamtan sahib, 22nd September, 2007.

filled any time. The school is situated at the extreme end of the village. Its distance always acted as a hindrance while accessing the school as pointed out many teachers. The school is of a pucca building. The building is quite insufficient. Supply of electricity is another problem. Toilet and drinking facilities are quite sufficient.

In Phulian Khurd, government middle school for girls was established in 1989 as primary school which is promoted to middle school in 2002. It covered 5 acre of area. The school is housed in a pucca building and is fairly in a good condition. The school had good toilet and drinking facilities. In Primary section, 5 posts are sanctioned and these are filled with 4 permanent teachers and one guest teacher. In upper primary section, post of Hindi, Sanskrit, Social Science and English teacher were vacant i.e. only Math, Science and P.T.I. teachers post are filled. But the ground reality of the school disclosed that only 2 Primary and 1 Upper Primary teacher were present. School record was very badly maintained and no concrete information was provided. It was reported that teacher has been provided with Teaching Learning Material (TLM) but unable to use it, as there is no convenient place to store the material. There is not even proper place to keep the black board in the class room. Discussion with students in absence of teachers confirmed that the teachers usually came late to School and were irregular also<sup>16</sup>. On the other hand, teachers were very vocal of their high work load and clerical duties they had to perform. The teachers also spoke of getting little or no support from the parents. Parents also did not seem satisfied with the working of this School.

In Phullian Kalan, government primary school for boys was established in 1954. The total of School is 2 and half acre. In comparison to Girls' school, this school was in better condition. The school had pucca building. It had two newly constructed rooms; one by DPEP and other by SSA. The School had 5 rooms and seems sufficient according to the strength of the school. Though there was proper toilet facility for students but there was no toilet for female staff. There was proper arrangement for drinking water. Supply of electricity was satisfactory. Arrangement for inverter was also made. DTH was not working when School was visited. The teacher told that in spite of many complaints, no attention was paid by the

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<sup>16</sup> Group Discussion with Students, Government Middle School for Girls, Phulian Khurd, 9th January, 2008.

**Table: 4.4** Over view of Schooling facilities in Phulian (Kalan and Khurd both)

Facilities	Government School	Private School
Building	Pucca	Pucca
Co-educational	One is co-ed after 7th class because of lack of staff in girls School.	Yes
Multi Grade Teaching	Only at Primary level in both boys and girls.	No
Basic TLM (black board, chalk, mats)	Yes	Yes
Mid day meal	Yes	No
Library	No	No
Drinking water	Yes, sufficient	Yes, sufficient
Toilets	Yes, sufficient	Yes, but inadequate

Source: Data collected during the study, 2008.

administration and VEC. There were many posts of teachers which were vacant, out of total 6 posts, 3 posts are vacant and post of head teacher was not filled.

Senior secondary school had covered the total area of 3 and half acre. The school was having a pucca building with 16 rooms. But still the building was not sufficient according to the strength of the students. It was also found that students from surrounding villages' like- Julhera, Sulhera, Lochab, Rajgarh, Harnampura, Kanhakhera, Khanpur also came to the School but transportation facilities were not available. There is also problem of no boundary wall. In spite of repeated complaints neither VEC, neither VCC nor block level administration paid any attention.

#### **4.6.1 Village Education Committee (VEC) and Community Participation**

The national policy on education (1986) and programme of action (1992) assigned an important role to VEC for implementation of programme related to school education, non formal education and early childhood care and education. The constitution (73rd amendment) acts, 1992 envisages establishing Panchyati Raj Bodies at village, intermediated and district level where each Panchyats at village level would constitute a VEC for the administration of educational programmes. The major responsibility of the VEC would be to mobilise the community to ensure participation of every child in every family in elementary education.<sup>17</sup> The education committee would also be responsible for operationalising the micro level planning

<sup>17</sup>Tayagi, R. S. "Role of Village Education Committee in Improvement of Community Participation in Education", *JFPA*, Vol. XIII, No. 3, July 1999, p. 345.

and school mapping in the village through systematic house to house survey and periodic discussion with general public and parents. Village education committees have been formed in Haryana under of guidelines DPEP.

Under the 73<sup>rd</sup> and 74<sup>th</sup> Constitutional Amendment Bill, Panchyats will be formed and besides it, each Panchyats may constitute a Village Education Committee, which would be responsible for administration of the delegated programme in the field of education at village level. The state government can give the following functions to the VEC, a) generation and sustenance of awareness among the village community, ensuring participation of all segments of population, b) developing teacher/instructor and community partner to oversee and manage the effective and regular functioning of the School and centres. It was also proposed to provide Village Education Committee necessary financial and administrative authority.

#### ***4.6.2 Composition***

The VEC comprises of 12 members (6 males, 6 females) normally, Haryana state government in its guidelines for setting up VEC suggested that-

- a) Three people from the members of the Gram Sabha on the recommendation of the Gram Panchyats.
- b) Head of the School in the village will act as member secretary of the committee. If there are more than one school, the senior Headmaster, Principal will be the member secretary.
- c) One lady teacher nominated by the head teacher.
- d) One representative of the Mahila Mandal as recommended by the Mandal.
- e) multipurpose health workers (female).
- f) Anganwadi workers ( Bal Sevika).
- g) Two parents of children to be nominated by PTA.
- h) One person from voluntary organisation or a social worker, Gram Sanchira.
- i) It also has provision for representation of backward classes. Recently parents also has provision for 50 percent representation to women in comparison with others state which provide for only an average of 30 percent reservation of women. There is no prescribed age limit for the members.

#### ***4.6.3 Function of VEC***

The following functions were expected from the VEC to perform-

- 1) To help in bringing about an all around educational development of the village.
- 2) To help in providing infrastructural facilities including building, equipment, furniture, teaching learning materials, drinking water, sanitary facilities, play ground etc.
- 3) To help in retaining out of school children in the age group 6-11 years by establishing contact with the parents, particularly of the non attending children for regularly sending their wards to school.
- 4) To conduct the survey of the educational needs of the village with a view to providing schooling facilities where needed.
- 5) To bring the notice of educational authorities the problem being faced by the school and to suggest ways and means to improve the situation.
- 6) To assist and co-operate in any other educational activities/ school building activities.

#### ***4.6.4 Functioning of the VEC in Village Dhamtan Sahib***

VEC was formed when DPEP programme was started in Dhamtan sahib. When the village was visited during field work, Sarpanch was the chairman of the VEC, Junior Lecturer of senior secondary school was the Secretary of the VEC. Rest of the VEC consists of, one Ex.-S.D.O., 1 Ex.-Sarpanch, 1 Panch from the Panchyats as SC representative, 1 female high school teacher, one female Panch from Panchyats, one teacher from girl high school, and one teacher from Primary boys' school. It shows that 20 percent female representative, 10 percent SC representatives, 40 percent teacher, 20 percent female panch, 10 percent Social Worker/ parents, got the representation. It almost fulfilled the criteria laid down by the government rules. The members were not elected by any general body meeting of the village or by meeting of Panchyats. They were elected with the general consensus of the villagers. Some came as volunteers, with high level of enthusiasm. Some were nominated on the basis of their active role in social activities. There were many other factors which affected VEC formation. For instance, the village level politics played its role and influential

persons wanted their own representative to be elected in the VEC. The presence of different castes and section of society some times created problems since all these may not be given representation in the VEC at a time since the members of VEC should not exceed more than 15.

When It was formed for the first time, it was not active at all, the members nominated were not aware that they were a part of any committee related to school education. The appointment of a female Headmistress in the government senior secondary school for boys' was the turning point in the working of the all government school. The role of Community Participation became visible after her efforts. The VEC which was working in papers only became active in real sense. How did she intervene? How things started changing? will be discussed later. Now VEC is very active and playing a very important role. VEC does not possess any administrative and financial power. An account had been opened in a bank by Secretary and Chairperson to deposit the money received form the government. The money grant was so small that it was sufficed only for minor repair and maintenance of the school buildings and furniture. A resolution was passed in this regard, whenever need is felt for the same. There was a proper monitoring mechanism and account was properly maintained. In every month or whenever need was felt, a meeting of Panchyats and villagers was called where VEC and Principal of the all government school remained present. All the details of expenditure and income were presented and different resolutions were being passed in that meeting. Village education committee seeked the support to get the demands sanctioned. VEC passed resolution and sent these to the Block Education Officer. If it was felt necessary the demands for teacher and grants for construction of school building were made with the deputy commissioner or district magistrate for scholarships and incentives.

For the meetings of VEC, no proper circular was circulated. Only a verbal message was sent through any school children by Secretary. It generally happened that all members do not attend the meetings. Some times it led to the postponing of meetings. Though non-teaching members also paid attention, but generally it was found that meeting were held at the instance of teachers. All decisions in VEC helped in construction maintenance and repairing of school building, furniture and hand pump.

For example, the boundary wall of the senior secondary school (boys) was very short and boys used to jump the wall and run away. At the instance of the Headmistress of School, meeting of VEC was called and problem was placed before the committee. VEC placed the demand for financial help for the purpose before the Block Education Officer (BEO). The grant was sanctioned. But that was not sufficient. The money was sanctioned only for 21 feet of height. But VEC meeting was again called and the Headmistress said that since the existing boundary wall is itself in bad condition, it is necessary to repair it first and then increase its height, otherwise all the sanctioned money will also go waste. VEC members accepted the suggestion, then the money was collected from the villagers and work was finished in the planned way.<sup>18</sup> Village community provided the labour and the whole work was inspected by the community itself. When the construction of the wall was completed, VEC member called the Panchyat meeting, all account of the total salary and expenditure were presented before the community. In another case, girl's primary school did not have proper arrangement for drinking water and toilet facility. The head teacher approached the VEC and raised the issues in the VEC meeting. The VEC forwarded the demand to Block Education Officer and he sent it to DC. The grant

**Table: 4.5** Resolutions Passed by the VEC in Dhamtan Sahib

1.	Constitution of VEC
2.	Demand for appointment of teachers
3.	Construction of School Office
4.	Repairing of school Boundary wall
5.	Supervision in Construction of School building
6.	To stop drop out
7.	Scholarship for students
8.	Construction of toilet
9.	Construction of pucca road
10.	Arrangement of hand pump
11.	Appointment of Chowkidar for Girls School
12.	Interact with villagers
13.	Care of school plants
14.	Appointment of teachers on vacant posts

Source: Data collected during the study, 2007.

<sup>18</sup> Interview with Smt. Jyoti (age 39), Head mistress of the Government Senior Secondary School for Girls, Dhamtan Sahib, 20 September, 2007.

sanctioned was not sufficient and whatever money was sanctioned, was not sufficient and it had taken too much of time. But VEC started the work even before getting any money from the administration. The arrangement for two hand pumps was made.<sup>19</sup>

In girls senior secondary school, there was no chowkidar and this caused a serious problem in the rural areas, parent hesitate to send their send their girls to school once they reached the age of puberty. VEC with the help of Panchyats, appointed a part time chowkidar. The salary was paid by the Panchyats.

The function of the VEC also included participation in the house to house survey; in enrolment campaign, persuading parents and general public to regularly send their children to School and to make efforts to reduce students to drop-out from school, to look over all developments of school, involvement in cultural functions and national and other festivals organised in school. The VEC, in association with School administration, also helped in building up environment to encourage community to participate in a big way in school activities, and by organising a general meeting of parents and public from time to time.

VEC members also spoke of monitoring the punctuality and regularity of teachers and students. Headmistress said that even teachers who were notorious for being irregular became regular. Some of VEC members reported about the training provided by DPEP. These trained VEC members reported that the training made them aware about the responsibilities and role of VEC, which is to identify drop outs and encourage them to come to school, to take care of the health of children; to take care of the village sanitation and environment and to ensure the functioning of the Anganwadi centre.<sup>20</sup>

The social composition and internal dynamics of the VEC also affected the functioning of the VEC. There were two women members in the VEC. One was the SC representative and one a high school teacher. Women teacher representative had little say in the decisions but women SC representative hardly attended the meeting, even if she attended, she would hardly speak. The members candidly said that the

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<sup>19</sup> Interview with Raghuveer Singh (age 43), Ex. S.D.O. VEC member, Dhamtan sahib, 23 September, 2007.

<sup>20</sup> Interview with Krishan Kumar (age 45), Ex. Sarpanch of the village, VEC member, Dhamtan Sahib, 20<sup>th</sup> September, 2007.



women were there only because of the legal requirements. Similarly the representation of SC male member was also symbolic. They were there because representation of these communities is required by the structural guidelines of the VEC. When SC representative was contacted, he said that caste differences prevailed every where. Whenever he tried to give any advice, either he was silent or no attention was paid to his suggestion. So, slowly he had started withdrawing from the meeting. He said most of the discussion in the VEC meetings centred around five vocal members, the others remained passive listeners.<sup>21</sup> The reason behind it was said that they were in that position because they have the capacity to make donation to school and VEC. But when Headmistress (who had made the VEC active in real sense) was asked about this, she said that though caste differences prevailed but some reasons were exaggerated. She always remained present in the meeting and make it sure that no partiality being done in favour of upper caste.<sup>22</sup> Various resolutions passed in the meetings of VEC also favoured her statement.

Before the appointment of this Headmistress, the functioning of the government school was very bad. Except girl's Primary School, all government school were at the verge of closing down. At that time, there were 5 private schools in the village which were functioning quite well. Every family which could afford the fees used to prefer to send their child to private school. These private schools used to give attractive offers to parents to get their children enrolled in their school. They remitted the full fees to get intelligent students enrolled in their school.<sup>23</sup> These schools provided very poor facilities in comparison to government school. Good results, discipline, English medium are the main attractions for the parents for sending their children to private school. Lack of teachers and irregularity of government teachers were another reasons mentioned by the parents for sending their children to private school. Moreover it was also found that it had become a status symbol to send their children to private school.

When we looked at the attendance register of that time, it was concluded that schooling of the child was determined by socio economic status of that family.

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<sup>21</sup> Interview with Mani Ram (age 32), SC Representative of the VEC, Dhamtan Sahib, 24<sup>th</sup> September, 2007.

<sup>22</sup> Interview with Smt. Jyoti (age 39), Head mistress of the government senior secondary school for girls, Dhamtan Sahib, 20 September, 2007, 12.30 p.m.

<sup>23</sup> Interview with Dilawar Singh Maan (age 33), Private School Teacher, D. S. Public School, Dhamtan Sahib, 5<sup>th</sup> September, 2007.

Children from the elite background (generally Jaat, Bania and Brahmin community) attended convent school in the nearest town, in these schools all subjects were taught in English medium. Most of the members of these families were literate and working in government or private sectors. One more factor which emerges here is that parents give more preference to boy education than girls. They prefer to send their boys to private School and girls to government school. Only children from SC community used to go the government school in spite of bad condition of the school.

#### ***4.6.4.1 Introduction of Agency and its Implication***

For initiating the process of community participation, there is always a need of some agency or mechanism which will help to mobilize the community. In Dhamtan Sahib, the headmistress of the school played the role of this community. After the introduction of this agency, i.e. after the efforts of headmistress, the VEC was activated, the community became mobilised and the scenario was totally changed. The Headmistress started “Back to government school campaign”. First of all, she analysed the socio-political condition of the village. She tried to understand how caste factor were working in the village. She used to look at the political affiliations and their influence on the working the working of VEC etc. Then she reconstructed the VEC and tried to get nominated those members who actually want to work. With the help of some teachers, she started a door to door campaign.<sup>24</sup> During this survey, she found out those factors which made people unsatisfied with the working of the government school. First factor which was pointed out was insufficient teachers. She tried to solve the problem by again and again getting the resolution passed by the VEC. Then demand was forward by VEC to BEO. By these efforts sanctioned posts were got increased and guest teachers were appointed. Some posts in primary school were filled by appointing local youngsters. Student contribution was the source of their salary. Parent’s consent was taken for it. During house survey, she found that parents were angry with irregularity of teachers. It was also complained that one teacher used to come to school in intoxicated condition. She took the responsibility for making the teacher punctual.

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<sup>24</sup> Interview with Smt. Jyoti (age 39), head mistress of the government senior secondary school for girls, Dhamtan Sahib, 28 September, 2007.

Another problem was the poor quality of education and bad results in board exams. She ensured the parents for this also. She called a meeting of VEC in which she asked to call meeting of whole Panchyats. She told the VEC that she wanted to put forward all the issues before the Panchyats. The meeting was called. She promised to improve the condition of school if the whole village was ready to extend their support to her and VEC. She ensured them for quality education and good results. Various resolutions were passed in the Panchyat meeting with vocal votes. Then she asked the villagers to perform a local rite of "Putting salt in a utensil called *lota*". This was a kind of pledge taken, in which villagers said that they would not send their children to private school. If any one found breaking the rules, he would be excommunicated (*us ka huka pani bad kar diya jayega*). This Panchyat meeting proved a turning point in the history of school education of Dhamtan sahib.

Headmistress rejuvenated all her energy to improve the functioning of the school. She told that when she was new, she was the only one who used to come to school in the time and open the school. She faced a lot of problems and disrespect from the fellow teachers. The situation was so bad that even the peon of the school used to disobey her and bang every thing on her table. Most of the people were very suspicious of any success. But she slowly won the confidence of the village community. Some teachers saw the actual advantages that resulted from her effort. Though it was not possible to convince every one but some colleagues too got motivated for the cause. The teacher who used to drink started treating her as his elder sister and left the habit.<sup>25</sup> Lots of the problems were also created by the attitude of private school teachers. They created problem for schooling leaving certificate to the students who want to join government school.

It was reported that physical environment of the school was also in bad shape. She opined that such environment need to be transformed and it could not take place with out local support. She cited the example of kuccha road in front of School. The road used to flood in rainy season. It was almost impossible for small children to access the School. With the help of Panchyat, road was changed into a pucca road. Villagers extended their help for this purpose. One day was fixed for every class for

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<sup>25</sup> Interview with Kuldeep Singh (age 37), Junior Lecturer in Government Senior Secondary School for Boys, Dhamtan Sahib, 6<sup>th</sup> September, 2007.

maintenance the school campus. Concept of “*Shram Daan*” was used. Trees and flowers were planted by children themselves. Playground was maintained and inter school competitions were held. Headmistress herself used to work in the garden. She mentioned that once when she was working in the garden, parents of one student came to meet her. They asked her for Headmistress thinking of her a worker. When they were told that she is the Principal, they did not believe her.

To improve the quality of the education was a real challenge in itself for her. The biggest problem was that post of Science and Math were vacant and the English teacher was not cooperating with her. She and two of her colleagues used to take extra classes after school. In summer and winter holidays, they started bridge classes. In spite of being a history teacher she had to take classes for English. The very foundation of the students was weak, so for board classes, lots of extra effort was put in. Many a times, she used to get late for home and missed the bus and stayed in village with students. The results displayed dramatically improvement.

Earlier most of the parents never used to attend the function of the school. Hardly any parent used to visit the school. They never even saw or signed any progress reports. But now situation was changing. Now parents paid attention to the complaints of the teachers. Teachers were often being stopped on the way and were asked about their wards and functioning of the school by the villagers. Parents showed their satisfaction with the performance of the teachers and working of the school. It was reported that discipline among both parents and students had increased. Headmistress was given credit for changes in the school. VEC members also showed great respect for the Headmistress. Her attendance record is near perfect. But Headmistress said that nothing was possible with out the community support. She told that once some local private teacher got her transferred with their political approach. When the villagers came to know about it, VEC members, Panchs and many influential elder person of the village met the MLA of that local area and her transfer was got cancelled. It was found that level of Community Participation was very high. Though VEC is activated by the head of the School, but when once it was activated, it started realising its responsibilities.

#### 4.6.5 Functioning of VEC in Village Phullian

In village Phullian (Kalan and Khurd both), role of VEC and Community Participation was quite disappointing. The composition of VEC was according to the rules laid down by the government. The Principal of government Senior Secondary school (boys) was appointed the Secretary of the VEC. Sarpanch was the president of the VEC. There were total 15 members in the VEC. There were female members who consisted of one SC, one teacher and one Anganwadi worker. SC, social worker and Panch were also given representation. The VEC was elected by the block officer of

**Table: 4.6** Resolutions passed by the VEC in Phullian

1.	Demand for equipments
2.	Invite Parents on national festivals
3.	Distribution of prizes
4.	Election of VEC members
5.	Planting of trees in the school

Source: Data collected during the study, 2008.

education department. The VEC worked only on the paper. Teachers accepted that VEC seemed primarily a rubber stamping authority. The meeting of VEC had not been convened since more than 8 months. The only occasion when VEC meet convened was the celebration of Republic Day.<sup>26</sup> When VEC members were interviewed, they said that they are ready to involve with school issues, if the head teacher took the initiative to call the meeting regularly. But the head teacher complained that he had tried many times, but VEC members did not pay any attention and never come to attend the meeting. Head master reported that being the Secretary of the VEC, it becomes compulsory for the Sarpanch to attend the meeting and show some enthusiasm. But most of the times, he remained disappeared from the meetings. Some time he sent his son to attend the meeting on his behalf. Participation of the women member was almost nil. When women members were asked about it, they said that it was true, they had hardly attended any meeting, they are overworked and don't have any time for all these things. Most of the VEC members were not aware of their role and responsibilities. They did not find any importance of VEC in addressing the issues related to children's education. When the members were interviewed, it was

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<sup>26</sup> Interview with Sewa Singh (age 33), Junior lecturer, Government Senior secondary School, 7 January, 2008.

surprised to find that some members were not even aware that they are member of any committee.

It seems that head teacher did not share a good rapport with the VEC. Head teacher said that Panchyat ignores the government school. VEC did not pay any attention to the problems raised by the School authorities. Head master cited one example that one of the VEC members had grown wheat on school playground field. Head master had asked VEC and Panchyats to instruct him to vacate the land. School authorities were even ready to pay the compensation. But no attention was paid to the problem.

When VEC members were asked about the functioning of the School, they said that they were not satisfied at all with the performance of the School. It was revealed that School timing was 8.30 a.m. to 2.30 p.m. But for their own convenience teachers have changed the timing from 9.30 a.m. to 3.30 p.m. Because of this, the telecast of the DTH and Eduset programmes was not being attended by the students. Besides it, it was also said that teachers were very irregular and not punctual.

No records were maintained properly. School did not keep the record of the VEC meetings. Head teacher was not able to give the name of all the VEC members. Whatever incomplete records existed showed that only three members were regular for the meetings.<sup>27</sup> These members belonged to the elite class of the village. It was reported that most of the VEC decisions were also dominated by all these 3 members. It was also noticed that the functioning of the VEC and its role was immensely limited by local level politics of using these bodies to exert influence and extract benefits.

Most of the parents and members of general public were not aware that there existed any committee which solved the school related problems. They also said that they did not witness any improvement made by any committee. Majority of the community members were of the opinion that villagers should also be invited to the meetings and their suggestions should also be sought for.

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<sup>27</sup> Data form VEC meeting Register during Field Survey, Phulian village,

Under the DPEP programme, few members were given 5 days training. But this had little impact as far as the motivation of members to take interest in VEC activities was concerned. Except teachers, members were not able to recall what they had learnt during the training. The VEC members from anganwadi, adult education centre were not aware why they were given representation in VEC. Three members of VEC (which belonged to elite class, and were little more active than other member) complained that main difficulty in performing was that they do not have any financial or administrative power. They could not take any action against the irregular teachers. Some time irregular teachers from the village school were not transferred even after the complaints made by the VEC. On the other hand, some times the devoted teachers were transferred without the consent of VEC. This situation even created problem among the VEC members since their views were not taken into consideration. The VEC also did not receive any proper grants from any agency or the government for even minor activities like maintenance and repair work in the school building. So they have to depend on the local resources, particularly on donation. It was also found that the person who gave donation always tried to influence the decision and the working of the VEC and school management.

On the other hand almost, all the teachers thought that the VEC should not be equipped with any administrative as well as financial power. They argued that most of the VEC members were not educated and have no idea of educational management. VEC members were very irregular and irresponsible, than how they could be given the control over the teachers. Administrative powers would cause unnecessary transfer of teachers and interference in the working of the school. Financial power would bring more corruption. Teachers like community members also opined that only those persons should be given place in VEC who had interest in educational development of the village. Those who can understand the problem of the community should be elected to the VEC.

Many parents expressed their desire to appoint a person who is devoted for the cause of educational development rather than Sarpanch and Panchyat. It was also argued that Sarpanch was so much occupied with other responsibilities of development work of the village, that he was not able to devote much time for the

VEC activities.<sup>28</sup> Therefore even if any Sarpanch was devoted to the cause of the education, he could not be able to do justice to his duties vis-à-vis VEC.

Other problem raised by the teacher as well as parents was that there should be some minimum educational qualification required for becoming the member of the VEC. Only educated and literate members can contribute well in the functioning and management of the school education.

#### **4.7 Conclusion**

Study of both the villages has brought various issues to light. In village Dhamtan Sahib, Community Participation had changed the picture of school education, in the other village; decentralised management is working only on paper. It is hard core reality that government has adopted different strategies for enhancing the role of Community Participation in the management of School education. Formation of VEC was one of those strategies. But it is very difficult to predict up to what extent these strategies would be helpful. Will the community member be able to understand their responsibilities? What really need to make the community active to participate on the school management at grass root level? Why VEC has failed at some places while at some places it has been working well.

It has become apparent that there is a need of some medium, agency or organisation to make the community aware of their rights and responsibilities. In villages more than half the population is not literate. Either the villagers do not understand the importance of the education or even if they do understand, they do not have faith in the education provided in the government school. Instead of trying to find any solution of this problem they approach to the other alternative i.e. private school. What really needed is the regulatory mechanism or an agency. In first village Dhamtan, this agency was found in the efforts made by the Headmistress. She was the one who played the role of this regulatory mechanism. But in second village Phulian (Kalan and Khurd), this agency was missing. What is also lacking is an effective outreach campaign to motivate community elders and parents regarding the benefit of Community Participation and also the advantage of educating their child.

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<sup>28</sup> Interview with Ram Niwas (age 45) and Kamla Devi (age 42), Parents, Village Phulian Kalan, 10<sup>th</sup> January, 2008, 2.30 p.m.



One more point which came to the light with the study of Dhamtan sahib, Community Participation did not mean only to involve the local community, but the involvement of the teaching community was also necessary. Respecting the teacher, encouraging and supporting her/him through motivation and encouragement was also very important. Community Participation does not only mean to question the teacher and supervise him. But it means to cooperate with teacher and solve the problems. Vinod Raina has rightly said that Community Participation should never be treated as a concept that “Community must pressurise the happen and generally overburdened teacher to perform and check their absenteeism.”<sup>29</sup>

The functioning and effectiveness of VEC depends on the local political and social factors. Composition of the VEC gives representation to different elements of the society. But in spite of this, it is very difficult to give them voice in decision making. Local level politicians also try to manipulate and control the working of VEC. The presence of all these factors makes the VEC to work as a neutral organisation. The issue rose by the villagers and teachers in Phulian that consideration for the representation of VEC should be given to that person who is motivated towards the working of the development of education. It directly questions the involvement of Sarpanch in the VEC as head. Inadequate funds and powers in the hands of VEC also limit the functioning of the VEC.

Thus it can be concluded that the decentralisation of the educational administration is very effective to solve the problems of School at ground root level, only if implemented properly. There is a need to develop a regulatory mechanism which can keep the community highly motivated and aware. This mechanism can be structured in the form of VEC or some time it can emerge as an effort made by head teacher or NGO. But there is another possibility that before structuring the VEC the government should launch a campaign at village level. All the elected VEC members should be given training time by time. Community should be made aware about their rights and the role which they are expected to play in the new set up for the development of School education.

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<sup>29</sup> Riana, Vinod. “Making Sense of Participation”, in Govinda, R and Rashmi Diwan (eds), *Community Participation and empowerment in primary education*, Sage publication, 2003, p.18.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 Summary of Conclusion**

The role of education in economic development, social transformation and in over all development of the country is very crucial one. Education inculcates rationality in the human personality and makes him responsible. For the importance of basic education Kothari Commission observed that the provision of free and universal education of every child is an objective of highest priority, not only on the ground of social justice and democracy, but also for raising the competence of the average worker and for increasing national productivity.

#### **5.2 What is Community Participation?**

The phrase “community participation” is open to several interpretations, so it is very difficult to give a generalised definition to this term. With the change of context and circumstances the meaning of community participation also keeps changing. In the context of school education, the community is expected to include parents, elected representatives of different committees, representatives of different sections of society and teaching community. Community participation should also be considered a platform for empowerment of marginalised section of the society. The involvement of the teaching community is another important component of the community participation whose importance should not be undermined. Without the cooperation and motivation of the teachers, the aim of making the school education more meaningful would not be achieved. The community is expected to allocate resources, appoint Shiksha karmis, spread awareness for the value of education, to initiate enrolment campaign and supervise the administration of school etc. The present work has tried to locate the meaning of community participation and its implication with the study of Dhamtan Sahib and Phulian villages.

This study was undertaken with the objective of making a comprehensive analysis of role of the community participation in school education in the area of study. An additional aim was to trace out the development of the school education in district Jind. The work was divided into five chapters.

The first chapter contains the historical growth of the school education, objectives, hypotheses and outline of the methodology adopted in the work. The historical growth of the school education facilities and gender disparity in enrolment in Haryana has been analysed. The second chapter deals with the problem and prospects of school education. Wherein review of the existing literature was attempted.

In the third chapter, educational development of district Jind has been carved out since 1971. Jind is one of the most backward districts of Haryana in the field of education. Jind comes 3<sup>rd</sup> in the lower order of the ranking in literacy. However Jind has shown over all growth over the four decades of the study. The study shows that difference in literacy rate in rural and urban is still alarmingly high. Gender gap in literacy rate is very high. But the matter of satisfaction is that compound literacy growth rate (CLGR) is very high in rural areas in comparison to urban areas. Rural areas have recorded 8.20% CLGR, while in urban areas, it is 5.97%. In the same trend, female CGLR is more than male in both rural urban areas (in rural, male 7.65%, and female 11.26%; in urban areas, male, 5.74%, and female 6.42%). Thus it clearly shows that though rural areas are backward but they are showing steady improvement. In the same way, females are lagging behind than males but the situation is improving rapidly. In future, it can be hoped that Jind will improve in both these areas. In case of educational level, Jind is lagging behind in upper primary, secondary, higher secondary level. But again rural-urban gap and gender gap is alarmingly high.

Another problem which emerges from the study is the issue of 'no where children' and 'child labour'. The presence of 'no where children' makes the dream of Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE) a big failure. In rural areas, number of 'no where children' is recorded 45.33%, and the urban areas witnessed 30.05% of children under this category. This category is the most complicated one. The children under this category neither falls under the child labourer nor do they come under enrolled children in school. They work in family fields, perform family chores and take care of their siblings. They also do not come under the purview of any policy. Government have to give urgent attention to these children and come out with some strong policy. This can be done only if the Government accepts the MVF definition that all children out of school are 'child labour'.

According to the analytical study of 7<sup>th</sup> AIES, Jind has improved a lot in school education. Though the districts position is not very good at upper primary, secondary and higher secondary level, but primary classes has recorded 90 % of Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER). Again the rural areas are lagging behind the urban areas and gender gap persists in the same manner. However, these high figures of enrolment at primary level hide the enormous drop out rate. This is reflected in the progressively sharp drop in enrolment rates at the upper primary, secondary and higher secondary levels. In upper primary, secondary and higher secondary classes, students' drop out rate is very high. The block level analyses shows that Uchana has recorded highest drop out rate. Children at this age are more vulnerable to child labour market. In case of girls, after reaching the age of puberty, parents hesitate to send them to schools if school is located at distant place.

Jind is providing very good educational infrastructure. Most of the schools are housed in pucca building and very few are located in the partly pucca building. No school is running in tents and in open place. Ancillary facilities are also sufficient. Sufficient ancillary facilities are is very positive development because availability of ancillary facilities has direct impact on the attendance and drop out of girls. Yet the district is far from achieving the 'universalisation of education'.

The empirical analysis of this chapter indicates that rural areas need urgent attention. Though all policies and programmes like Education for All (EFA), UEE, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan (SSA), and DPEP etc. has laid a lot of emphasis on the educational growth of rural areas but still there are many loopholes. Poor infrastructure, dysfunctional government schools, irresponsible behaviour on the part of teachers, vacant posts, inactive local administration, step mother treatment by bureaucracy all have contributed for the educational backwardness of the rural areas. Though the recommendation of the committees and commissions can be very effective but all the strategies are half heartedly implemented. In case of female backwardness in education, social factors are more responsible than the other factors. The social attitude towards the female education in Haryana is very conservative. Girls are still considered a liability who will go to others family after marriage. Daughters are treated as burden. Females in rural areas are not economically dependent, so they don't have bargaining power. Various incentives and schemes like free books, uniforms, attendance prizes distribution of cycles under Sarva Shiksha

Abhiyaan (SSA), free transport facility in roadways buses, scholarship for single girl child, and introduction of new well equipped residential schools named Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidhyalaya etc are initiated. But these had hardly made any difference in changing the situation and in reforming the social attitude. For any positive results of above discussed scheme, first of all there is need to change the social attitude. Awareness amongst the entire community has to be spread for the value of female education. There is an urgent need of a social movement which will mobilise the community to work at grass root level. Only such a campaign can help to bring about social change and will make the policies and incentives workable and effective. Thus, Jind has improved a lot but being one of backward district, it needs special attention. Proper planning has to be carved out for social change and implementation.

The fourth chapter tries to empirically find out the implication of decentralisation at the village level. The study of Dhamtan Sahib shows that community participation has played a very significant role in the working of schools. VEC has actively participated in spreading the awareness and solving the problems of schools. But in other villages, the decentralised management of educational administration has proved a failure. VEC exists only in the paper. People were hardly aware of existence of any committee constructed for solving the school problem. This raises the question, what is really needed to mobilize the community to participate in the educational affairs at school level? There is a need of some medium, agency or organisation to make the community aware of their rights and responsibilities. While reviewing the work done on the community participation till now, it was found that in every successful experiment, same mechanism was working. Some time it was found in form of NGO, some time, parent teacher association and Village Education Committee (VEC). In the village Dhamtan Sahib, it was visible in the efforts of the headmistress of the school. She was the one who played the role of regulatory mechanism. There is an urgent need of an effective campaign to motivate the community regarding the benefits of community participation and also the advantage of educating their child. Besides this, the study also raised many issues related to community participation.

One of the issues is that community participation does not imply only the involvement of local community. The participation of teaching community is also necessary. Community participation does not mean only to supervise and pressurise

the teachers and check the accountability of teaching community. Motivation and participation of the teachers is also very necessary. The necessity of respecting the teacher, encouraging and supporting her/him should be understood. Parents and community members should share a good rapport with teaching community. Motivation and cooperation of teaching community should be seen as mechanism for increasing the community.

Another issue is related with the working of the VEC. The composition of VEC ensures the presence of all sections of society. But the working and functioning of the VEC is always influenced by social and local political factors. Every caste representative tries to influence the working of VEC in favour of their own community. Besides caste factor, local level politicians also try to draw the benefits from VCE. So administration should try to evolve a strategy to make the VEC a neutral organisation. The state has to commence the process of social mobilization process which could go beyond the existing power structure and create a healthy atmosphere. Where the state fails to do so, a movement has to be generated where the community begins to understand their responsibility for child rights.

Inadequate funds and lack of financial sources has always remained a problem in the working of VEC. One of the reasons behind the initiation of the decentralisation was that state was not able to allocate sufficient funds and was also not able to fulfil its responsibility of UEE. So it was expected that decentralisation would help in the allocation of funds. It was expected from the VEC that it would raise the resources at the local level. But the study reveals that VEC has very insufficient funds at its disposal. So state should keep playing major role and persists in making new policies regarding the financial help.

The absence of women representatives also appeared as a major problem in the course of the study. In both the villages, role of women representatives was nil. They were part of VEC only to fulfil the guidelines laid down by the government for composition of VEC. In the atmosphere of village, women do not have much freedom to speak and express their views. They can not participate effectively in the public platform like VEC, unless they are confident enough to speak out their problem and have information sources. The programme and projects should be started to involve women and to increase their ability to critically analyse their own strengths and rights.

Lastly it was noticed that there should be some mechanism which could guarantee continuous involvement. A high level of commitment is needed for regular vigilance and meaningful participation. The administration and state has to come forward to ensure supportive atmosphere for this.

### **5.3 Future Direction of the Research**

The issue “the role of community participation” has many dimensions. The present study is focused on how the community participation can prove extremely helpful in making the working of the schools more meaningful. VEC has emerged as a very important agency to mobilize the community for improving the school education. But how to make the VEC more active and neutral organisation which can represent the interest of marginalised section of society is an area which needs more attention. Community participation is not a one day programme, but it is a continuous process which needs high level of devotion and commitment. How to evolve a mechanism for the sustainability of community participation is another direction in which research may be undertaken in future.

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Ram Swarup, age 85, Parents, Dhamtan sahib, 12th September, 2007.

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Smt. Jyoti, age 39, Head mistress of the Government Senior Secondary School for Girls, Dhamtan Sahib, 20 September and 28 September, 2007.

Raghuveer Singh, age 43, Ex. S.D.O. VEC member, Dhamtan sahib, 23 September, 2007.

Krishan Kumar, age 45, Ex. Sarpanch of the village, VEC member, Dhamtan Sahib, 20<sup>th</sup> September, 2007, 11.00 a.m.

Mani Ram (age 32), SC Representative of the VEC, Dhamtan Sahib, 24<sup>th</sup> September, 2007.

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## APPENDIX -1.

Percentage of Literacy Rates of Total Population by Residence and Sex, 1971

Districts	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Panchkula	36.04	43.14	27.35	59.84	67.40	51.02	29.68	36.83	20.81
Ambala	33.31	41.61	23.81	52.93	60.14	45.09	26.54	35.59	16.05
Yamunanagar	33.90	41.76	24.55	55.17	60.43	48.82	51.77	32.73	13.07
Kurukshetra	29.11	38.08	18.70	54.49	62.69	44.56	23.33	32.34	12.97
Kaithal	18.10	25.06	9.94	47.56	54.56	39.38	15.31	22.29	7.13
Karnal	27.51	36.00	17.58	54.00	60.57	46.44	20.81	29.85	10.21
Panipat	28.84	38.88	17.06	51.95	59.45	43.40	21.44	32.41	8.45
Sonipat	28.27	40.07	14.60	49.73	58.63	39.52	25.19	37.46	10.96
Jind	18.50	27.91	7.54	42.44	51.45	31.78	14.85	24.29	3.88
Fatehabad	18.96	27.66	8.94	42.66	50.07	34.17	17.29	26.09	7.16
Hisar	23.65	33.60	12.13	34.01	43.47	22.77	32.86	41.84	22.67
Sirsa	22.28	31.14	12.03	46.77	55.19	36.90	17.99	26.90	7.70
Rohtak	35.54	46.67	22.90	56.28	63.75	47.64	28.60	40.89	14.75
Jhajjar	29.39	43.06	14.35	46.76	57.48	34.53	27.27	41.27	11.95
Bhiwani	24.00	37.16	9.09	39.34	50.11	26.86	21.09	34.56	5.91
Mahendargarh	26.14	41.45	9.31	41.45	54.90	26.23	24.05	39.60	7.04
Rewari	31.70	46.77	15.29	48.14	59.31	35.56	28.74	44.48	11.72
Gurgaon	21.53	31.36	10.34	49.20	60.22	36.32	18.63	28.77	7.10
Faridabad	33.40	47.20	18.12	52.30	62.20	41.09	28.53	43.26	12.28

Source: - General Population Tables, Census of India, Haryana, Series-6, 1971.

## APPENDIX -2.

Percentage of Literacy Rates of Total Population by Residence and Sex, 1981

Districts	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Panchkula	45.95	52.90	37.57	62.06	66.22	56.81	38.83	46.84	29.36
Ambala	49.08	57.63	39.64	61.77	68.55	54.47	36.39	46.71	24.82
Yamunanagar	46.56	54.15	37.66	60.94	66.38	54.43	32.18	41.92	20.89
Kurukshetra	44.80	53.05	35.33	57.82	64.92	49.56	31.78	41.18	21.10
Kaithal	37.09	45.55	27.23	51.30	59.12	42.27	22.87	31.98	12.19
Karnal	38.35	46.84	28.57	49.44	56.22	41.73	27.25	37.47	15.41
Panipat	38.32	49.58	25.10	56.63	63.64	49.27	29.92	43.24	14.17
Sonipat	40.64	54.05	25.22	59.25	67.62	49.43	36.55	51.03	19.97
Jind	25.99	37.83	12.19	49.72	59.31	38.54	22.21	34.40	7.98
Fatehabad	35.31	43.49	26.03	48.00	55.18	39.80	22.62	31.80	12.27
Hisar	40.41	51.34	27.78	56.20	64.52	46.45	24.63	38.16	9.12
Sirsa	29.97	39.56	19.04	51.55	59.30	42.34	24.44	34.37	13.24
Rohtak	46.34	58.20	32.98	57.69	67.31	46.86	34.99	49.10	19.10
Jhajjar	47.87	60.93	33.37	56.06	67.34	43.15	39.69	54.53	23.59
Bhiwani	32.84	47.79	16.31	51.58	62.37	38.87	29.25	44.90	12.16
Mahendargarh	42.39	57.87	25.77	52.49	65.83	37.50	32.28	49.92	14.04
Rewari	45.84	60.21	30.23	54.21	65.76	41.23	37.46	54.67	19.23
Gurgaon	34.66	47.72	20.09	59.58	68.79	49.03	28.39	42.33	12.92
Faridabad	39.11	52.34	22.86	55.95	64.92	44.18	27.61	43.31	9.13

Source:- General Population Tables, Census of India, Haryana, Series-6, 1981.

### APPENDIX -3.

Percentage of Literacy Rates of Total Population by Residence and Sex, 1991

Districts	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Panchkula	68.17	76.12	57.40	84.17	89.22	79.13	55.23	67.02	43.45
Ambala	63.31	73.15	52.28	78.66	85.09	71.82	59.04	69.93	46.63
Yamunanagar	60.53	69.76	50.07	75.48	81.48	68.64	52.73	63.62	40.41
Kurukshetra	58.78	69.23	46.94	76.22	83.17	68.21	53.12	64.65	40.11
Kaithal	42.59	54.71	28.37	64.79	73.80	54.60	38.71	51.44	23.68
Karnal	56.15	67.02	43.54	74.42	81.01	67.02	48.98	61.64	34.11
Panipat	55.17	67.04	41.17	71.54	78.13	63.92	48.87	62.82	32.29
Sonipat	59.90	73.95	43.00	72.81	82.38	62.86	57.37	72.40	39.10
Jind	47.00	61.07	30.12	68.98	79.30	56.91	42.35	57.26	24.35
Fatehabad	50.39	60.77	40.01	64.04	72.74	55.33	36.75	48.80	24.70
Hisar	42.13	52.88	29.91	64.58	72.74	54.38	37.52	48.80	24.27
Sirsa	48.66	63.75	30.88	67.15	78.37	55.33	43.60	59.93	24.70
Rohtak	60.40	74.17	43.92	72.16	81.70	61.40	56.30	71.70	37.57
Jhajjar	64.22	78.53	47.39	75.25	85.85	63.15	60.00	77.14	44.08
Bhiwani	54.18	70.93	35.10	67.81	78.98	54.97	51.27	69.20	30.89
Mahendargarh	57.87	77.17	36.75	72.21	85.64	57.32	55.79	75.94	33.79
Rewari	64.77	82.16	46.18	76.45	86.96	64.06	62.61	81.22	43.05
Gurgaon	52.61	67.87	34.94	76.69	85.67	66.56	46.00	63.07	26.12
Faridabad	59.77	74.15	42.12	73.56	82.67	62.12	46.12	65.53	22.79

Source: - General Population Tables, Census of India, Haryana, Series-8, 1991.

### APPENDIX -4

Percentage of Literacy Rates of Total Population by Residence and Sex, 2001

Districts	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
Panchkula	74.00	80.87	65.65	85.70	89.32	81.49	88.95	77.50	58.11
Ambala	75.31	82.31	67.39	85.97	90.17	81.06	70.74	78.92	61.61
Yamunanagar	71.63	78.82	63.39	81.95	86.31	76.89	65.46	74.37	55.32
Kurukshetra	69.88	78.06	60.61	81.19	86.47	75.02	66.00	75.18	55.69
Kaithal	59.02	69.15	47.31	73.07	80.76	64.29	56.40	67.17	43.52
Karnal	67.74	76.29	57.97	80.59	85.93	74.47	63.57	73.30	52.44
Panipat	69.17	78.50	57.97	76.69	82.73	69.38	64.91	76.62	51.00
Sonipat	72.79	83.06	60.68	81.36	88.50	73.07	71.08	82.40	57.69
Jind	62.12	73.82	48.51	76.86	85.57	66.85	59.13	71.87	44.26
Fatehabad	57.98	68.22	46.53	74.28	80.96	66.80	54.65	66.02	41.96
Hisar	64.83	76.57	51.08	79.13	86.44	70.53	61.08	74.44	45.49
Sirsa	60.55	70.05	49.93	74.30	81.07	66.66	56.42	67.21	44.37
Rohtak	73.72	83.23	62.59	82.26	88.27	75.39	70.28	82.11	56.29
Jhajjar	72.38	83.27	59.65	78.90	86.14	70.14	70.66	82.43	57.03
Bhiwani	67.45	80.26	53.00	77.43	85.90	67.62	65.94	80.04	50.17
Mahendargarh	69.89	84.72	54.08	78.69	89.30	66.89	69.13	84.66	52.72
Rewari	75.25	88.45	60.83	82.76	90.62	73.57	74.19	88.67	58.64
Gurgaon	62.91	76.17	47.78	82.42	89.53	74.27	57.79	73.23	40.22
Faridabad	70.03	81.52	56.31	79.52	87.30	70.02	59.19	75.95	39.63

Source: - General Population Tables, Census of India, Haryana, Series-8, 2001.