

*Strategy for Girl Child Education
for
The State of Andhra Pradesh*



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Chapter- I

- UEE – A Constitutional obligation
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1. Right to Education a Constitutional Obligation and an International Commitment

Education is the basic requirement for human development and right to education is a fundamental human right. This fact has been recognized by our Constitution, various international conventions, and declarations. Every person irrespective of their sex, caste, creed religion should be provided with opportunities to avail education to attain complete human development. Education is a concurrent subject and the Constitution of India contains the following provisions concerning it.

1.1 Directive Principles of State Policy

The Directive principles of state policy contained in the Part-IV of the Constitution are the directives for the State to follow in the manner of administration as well as in making laws. They embody the aims and objectives of the State and act as guidelines in the day to day functioning of the State but do not confer legally enforceable right. In recent years the importance of Directive principles has been raised by the judiciary, frequently as they are vital and are contained in the Fundamental Law of the land i.e., the Constitution, the magna carta of our country. The Directive principles concerned with education are:

Article 45

The Article 45 of the Constitution states that “The State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of fourteen years.

This Article lays down State’s goal of providing free and compulsory universal education to all the children until the age of fourteen. This Article in essence promotes UEE which is evident from the age group mentioned.

Article 46

Article 46 of the Constitution states that “The State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people, and, in particular, of the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes, and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation”. This Article speaks about the educational interests of the weaker sections of the society through affirmative action

These Articles have provided the justification for various judicial pronouncements in favor of right to education as a fundamental right. These have provided the platform for the UEE as basic human right. The Courts have gone a long way in promoting the right to education and making State responsible for the same which has led to the inclusion of right to education as the fundamental right in the long run.

1.2 Right to Education as a Fundamental Right

The question arose for the first time before the Supreme Court in *Mohini Jain v. State of Karnataka*¹. The main issue before the Bench was whether it would be permissible for private but government recognized educational institutions to charge capitation fees for admission of the students. The Court while striking down the notification allowing such a differential treatment observed that:

“The Constitution does not expressly guarantee the right to education as such as a fundamental right but reading cumulatively Article 21 along with the Directive principles of state policy contained in Articles 38, 39(a), 41 and 45 the Court opined that “it becomes clear that the framers of Constitution made it obligatory for the State to provide education for its citizens”.

The Court argued that without making the right to education under Article 41 a reality, the Fundamental rights would remain beyond the reach of a large majority which is illiterate; the Fundamental rights including the freedom of speech and expression and other rights guaranteed under article 19 cannot be fully appreciated and fully enjoyed unless a citizen is educated and is conscious of his individualistic dignity. Right to life is the compendious expression for all those rights which are basic to the dignified enjoyment of life. The Court then went on to hold that right to education being concomitant to the fundamental rights the state is under a constitutional mandate to provide educational institutions at all levels for the benefit of the citizens.

In this case the Court took an expansive view of State obligation to provide education to everyone at all levels. This case can be considered as a prologue to inclusion of right to education as a fundamental right in the constitution, but it placed an impossible financial burden on the State by making right to education an absolute right. As per this case the State is under obligation to provide education to all and have adequate number of institutions of higher and professional education as there may be need for. This case though expanded the ambit of right to life was not practical in its approach as it laid down a theoretical and idealistic duty on the State.

¹ AIR 1992 SC 1858

The above issue came to be reconsidered in *Unni Krishnan vs. State of Andhra Pradesh*² wherein a more realistic view was propounded by the Supreme Court. This is a landmark judgement as it lays forth a practical approach balancing the right to education as a fundamental right on one side and the burden on the State on the other.

The Court had reiterated in this case that having regard to fundamental significance of education to the life of an individual and the nation, the right to education is implicit in and flows from the right to life guaranteed by Article 21. But the Court interestingly carved parameters within which the right is operational. The Court held that this right has to be determined in the light of Directive of Principles of State policy contained in Articles 41, 45, and 46. An important extract from the Supreme Court Judgement in the landmark this case is as follows

1. *The citizens of this country have a fundamental right to education. The said right flows from Article 21. This right is, however, not an absolute right. Its content and parameters have to be determined in the light of Articles 45 and 41. In other words, every child/citizen of this country has a right to free education until he completes the age of fourteen years. Thereafter his right to education is subject to the limit of economic capacity and development of the State.*
2. *The obligations created by Article 41, 45 and 46 of the Constitution can be discharged by the State either by establishing institutions on its own or by aiding, recognising, and/or by granting affiliation to private educational institutions. Where aid is not granted to private educational institutions, and merely recognition or affiliation is granted, it may not be insisted that the private education institution shall only charge that fee as is charged for similar courses in governmental institutions. The private educational institutions have to and are entitled to charge a higher fee, not exceeding the ceiling fixed in that behalf.*

Therefore while granting right to education the status of a fundamental right the Court explicitly pronounced the limitations within which the right is operational. It clearly limited the state obligation to provide educational facilities as follows:

- Every citizen has a right to free education until he or she completes the age of 14 years
- Beyond that stage the State obligation to provide education is subject to the limits of the economic capacity and development of the State.

Thus Supreme Court has interpreted and expanded the ambit of right to life to include right to education as in the words of the same Supreme Court Right to life does not mean mere animal existence but living with dignity. Education is an important facet in everybody's life and Supreme Court has realized its role in shaping an human being from all angles to make it a fundamental right. It is true that most of the citizens in India are illiterates and not aware of their basic human survival rights, leave apart fundamental rights, educating them will change the scenario and make them ascertain their rights. The Supreme Court has rightly

² 1993 AIR SC 217

elevated the status of right to education to fundamental right to make the realization of achievement of Universalisation of elementary education.

The above efforts of Supreme Court have been translated in to explicit inclusion of Right to education as a fundamental right by the Parliament in the Constitution of India.

1.3 Right to Education (Article 21 A) 93rd Amendment

The founding fathers of the Constitution of India had not included Right to education in part – III of the Constitution as the situation of the country after independence was not conducive to grant such a right to its citizens. Making right to education a fundamental right meant a huge responsibility on the state as it did not have the sufficient resources at that time. Considering the economic status of the country at the time of its independence granting a fundamental right to education also meant that the state had to battle a large chunk of litigation against it filed for enforcing the fundamental right guaranteed under the Constitution.

But times have changed and India has progressed economically and is a sustainable situation than what it was at the time of independence. The government cannot still get away of its duty to provide education to its citizens because the quality of development of the country depends on the quality of its human resources. Educated citizens really shape the country's future and it is one of the priorities of the State to ensure education to all its citizens'. Moreover the preamble to the constitution of India claims India to be Socialist and Secular republic, more so reason to take up the responsibility of creating avenues for resulting in an educated India.

The Supreme Court of India considering all the above developments, had embarked on making education a fundamental right. The parliament following the foot steps of Supreme Court and considering all the above factors has provided a fundamental right to education to its citizens within the parameters of the limitations set forth in the Unni Krishna case.

The Parliament has introduced Article 21 A which reads as follows:

"The state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of six to fourteen years in such manner as the State may, by law, determine."

This Article clearly spells out the responsibility of the State to extent of providing free and compulsory education to all the children from the age of six to fourteen years. It vests the discretion with the state to decide the manner and means of achieving the same.

The key words in this article are

- Free and compulsory education;
- Age of six to fourteen;
- In manner as the state may determine;

“Free and compulsory education”

The article lays a duty on state to provide free and compulsory education. The word ‘free’ is very subjective and whether it covers only fees payable or includes also other incentives like uniforms, stationery, etc is not clear. The law should spell out in clear terms the ambit of the provision of free education.

“Age of six to fourteen”

Considering that early childhood care and development is an integral part of the overall education and well being of a child the age limit chosen is crucial as it determines the level of education in normal circumstances till the completion of class ten. In sense the State has taken up the responsibility of free and compulsory education in terms of levels of education till class X. It is well known that in order to pursue any further academic/vocational education a minimum level of 10th standard (SSC / SSLC) is expected in most institutions across the country. Further, there is no formal certification of schooling until 10th standard, in the current situation. The Convention on the Rights of the Child has been ratified by India, which obligates the country to provide education to all children up to the age of 18 years. In light of the above facts, it is strongly recommended that the upper age limit of the fundamental right be revised as follows: "...up to the age of 18 years or completion of 10th standard, whichever is earlier.

“In manner as the state may determine”

The manner in which State performs its duty under this new 21-A vests with the State. The quality of education promised by the State as a part of Article 21 A should be on par with education provided in private schools. The quality of education should not be compromised and should match with present day challenges. The students availing the free state sponsored education should be equally competent as private school students and should not be deprived of any amenities by virtue of availing state sponsored education. The State should prepare a proper scheme and impart high standards of education.

Right to education has been incorporated as a fundamental right in the Constitution with a limited scope. Thus above is the constitutional position of right to education in our country.

In addition to the constitutional mandate there exist various international conventions, declarations laying down the importance of education and the role of state in guaranteeing the same. The various international conventions, declarations mandating education are:

1.4 International Commitments

Universal declaration of Human Rights (UDHR, 1948)

UDHR of 1948 the basis for international human rights law recognizing the right of every child to have a healthy childhood with special care and assistance has laid down in Article 26 that

“(1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.”

UDHR has declared education as a basic human right and therefore all human beings have a natural right to education. The United Nations declaration had only moral binding on its parties and therefore to have an enforceable character UDHR has been translated into two Conventions ICCPR and ICSEER.

ICCPR and ICSEER

While ICCPR deals with civil and political rights the latter deals with social economic and cultural rights. Both these conventions take after the UDHR and have mentioned in clear terms the right to education and the role of the state in guarantying the same. Article 13 of International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights contains the right to education as basic human right. It recognizes the role of education in the full development of the human personality and the sense of its dignity, and that it should strengthen the respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. There is a mandatory duty on the State to have formal education systems in place and to promote access to the same.

UN Declaration of the Rights of the Child (UNDRC1959)

The UNDRC entitles every child to” affection, love and understanding, adequate nutrition and medical care, free education, free opportunity for play and recreation, a name and nationality, special care if handicapped, be among the first to obtain relief in times of disaster, learn to be a useful member of society and to develop individual abilities, be

brought up in spirit of peace and universal brotherhood, enjoy their rights regardless of race, colour, sex and national origin.”. The declaration is on the overall development of child into a complete human being in which education form major role.

Convention on Child Rights, 1989(CCR)

The CCR incorporates the full range of human rights—civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights. The convention sets out the rights of children in 54 articles and 2 protocols. This convention gives out a broader definition of child as one who has not completed 18 years of age³, The core principles of this convention are:

- non-discrimination;
- devotion to the best interests of the child;
- the right to life, survival and development; and
- respect for the views of the child

The Convention protects children's rights by setting standards in health care; education; and legal, civil and social services. The convention lays down an obligation on the parties to provide for all kinds of infrastructure for the development of children including administrative, legislative measures⁴.

The convention rests a duty on the state to provide for educational facilities, social security and other benefits to the children. The CRC focuses on the healthy growing atmosphere for the children. It stresses on the right to education of the children as the basic human right and primary duty of the children. Articles 28 and 29 of the convention relate to child education and the obligation of the states in fulfilling it.

The CRC deals with the child rights comprehensively and has laid a great importance on the right to education.

Dakar Goals (2000)

At the World Education Forum in Dakar (Senegal), the Dakar Forum agreed on six goals which were considered to be essential, attainable and affordable, given strong international commitment and resolve. Those goals were: to ensure, by 2015, that all children of primary school age would have more access to and complete free schooling of acceptable quality; that gender disparities in schooling would be eliminated; levels of adult illiteracy would be halved; early childhood care and education would be expanded; learning opportunities for youth and adults would be greatly increased; and all aspects of education quality would be

³ Article 1 of the Convention on child rights, 1989

⁴ Ibid Article 3

improved. The forum adopted the 'World Declaration on Education for All' and a 'Framework for Action' which described in phased manner the commitments of the States towards the achievement of the above goals which are:

- By end 2002, governments to prepare national action plans, with participation of civil society, for achieving the EFA goals
- 'Increased space' for civil society in policy formulation, implementation and monitoring
- "No countries seriously committed to education for all will be thwarted in their achievement of this goal by lack of resources".
- A Global Initiative to be established immediately to mobilise the additional resources needed to achieve EFA
- An authoritative annual monitoring report to assess progress

The Dakar forum considered education as a development issue apart from considering it as a fundamental human right.

Millennium Development Goals

At the Millennium Summit in September 2000, 147 world leaders agreed to a global compact known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). These consisted of eight goals and were backed by an action plan with 18 quantifiable targets combating poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation and discrimination against women. The MDGS consisted of the following

- Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
- Achieve universal primary education
- Promote gender equality and empower women
- Reduce child mortality
- Improve maternal health
- Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
- Ensure environmental sustainability
- Develop a global partnership for development

The MDG consisted of basic human rights-the rights of each person on the planet to health, education, shelter, and security. These goals have set target for the achievement of the above basic rights which are fundamental to all human beings irrespective of their nationality.

MDG's and Education

Achieving universal primary education is one of the important MDGs. The MDG's have set a universal target that by 2015 all children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling. All the States have been urged to take steps in this direction to achieve the above target.

The MDG's has also set the promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women as one of the important goals. In most of the countries there exists blatant gender inequality leading to women deprived of most of their rights including their right to education. Considering this MDG's have set the following target for the achievement of goal of gender equality in education:

- Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015.

In most of the developing countries children are unable to avail education due to poverty, which has been major or in fact the factor depriving children from their right to education. MDG's have set eradication of extreme poverty and hunger as the primary goal. Towards the achievement of the said goal the targets set are:

- Reduce by half the proportion of people living on less than a dollar a day
- Reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger

This will go a great way in improving the living standards of people across the globe thereby improving their quality of life by making them avail basic necessities in life. The eradication of poverty will lead to fulfilment of most of the other basic human rights including education, as poverty is one of the key hurdles in the achievement of the same.

Most of the MDG's are interconnected goals and cannot be held in isolation. They are basic human rights which every human being is entitled to and achievement of each goal is essential for the overall well being. The achievement of each goal will provide the basis for the achievement of the other.

Education is essential for the development of any state and this is evident from the above. Right to education has been considered as a human right which naturally accrues to any person by virtue of being born as a human. It is therefore the fundamental duty of all states to ensure this right to its people indiscriminately. In India women were deprived of basic education owing to various social, economic, political factors. So while creating measures for spreading education for all care has to be taken to evolve special procedure to solve the problem of girl child illiteracy and steps to be taken to bring them to the main stream. In this direction SAARC has declared the Year 1990 as the SAARC Year of the Girl Child and the decade of 1991-2000 was designated as the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child to sensitize the world governments towards girl child issues including education. All the efforts should converge at ensuring education for both genders equally.

Chapter-II

Major policies and schemes paving way for girl child education

Policies

- Education in the Concurrent List
- National Policy on Education, 1986 and Program of Action
- National policy on Women 2001
- Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-2007)
- A.P. Community Participation Act, 1998

Schemes

- Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project (APPEP)
- Operation Blackboard (OBB)
- District Institutes of Educational Training (DIET)
- District Primary Education Programme(DPEP)
- National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education (School Meal Programme)(NPNSPE)
- Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA)
- The National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary (NPEGEL)
- Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV)

2. Major Policies and Schemes paving way for Girl Child Education

2.1 Key policies of the State

The key policies formulated by Government of India for the development of school education in the last two decades and the schemes launched by the state to implement these policies are briefly discussed in this chapter.

2.1.1 Education in the Concurrent List - A Meaningful Partnership

The Constitutional Amendment of 1976, which includes Education in the Concurrent List, was a far-reaching step whose implications-substantive, financial and administrative-require a new sharing of responsibility between the Union Government and the States. While the role and responsibility of the States in regard to education will remain essentially unchanged, the Union Government would accept a larger responsibility to reinforce the national and integrative character of education, to maintain quality and standards, to study and monitor the educational requirements of the country as a whole in regard to manpower for development, to cater to the needs of research and advanced study, to look after the international aspects of education, culture and Human Resource Development and, in general, to promote excellence at all levels of the education throughout the country.

2.1.2 National Policy on Education, 1986 & Program of Action (PoA), 1992

The National Policy on Education (NPE) gave prominence to both enrolment and retention of children. As the POA put it crisply “enrolment by itself is of little importance if children do not continue beyond one year, many of them not seeing the school for more than a few days.” The highlight of the NPE was that it sought to address the most difficult aspect of access, viz., access to education of millions of girls and working children who, because of socio-economic compulsions, cannot participate in school system. The National Policy on Education (1986) provides a broad policy framework for total eradication of illiteracy and a commitment to make primary education free and compulsory up to fifth standard, besides ensuring higher government and non government expenditure on education that should constitute 6 per cent of GDP. Several schemes were launched by the Central Government to meet the needs of not only the educationally disadvantaged but also for the overall strengthening of the social infrastructure for education.

NPE also stressed that the recruitment of at least 50 per cent of the teachers should be women to create conducive atmosphere for girl children in schools. This program also had laid down the concept of Minimum levels of learning according to which irrespective of caste, creed, location or sex, all children must be given access to education of a comparable standard. This strategy for improving the quality of elementary education is an attempt to combine quality with equity. It lays down learning outcomes in the form of competencies or levels of learning for each stage of elementary education. The strategy also prescribes the adoption of measures that will ensure achievement of these levels by children both in the formal schools as well as NFE centers. The NPE also introduced the scheme Operation Black Board in 1987 to provide minimum essential facilities to all primary schools in the country.

Elementary Education

NPE proposed to set up new primary schools according to the norms in unserved habitations⁵. These schools were supposed to be opened by the State Governments following the norms specified under Operation Blackboard. The norms of OBB specified that there should be atleast two teachers in a primary school and one of them should be a woman teacher and each primary school should have at least two pucca classrooms. NPE also recommended the expansion of infrastructure at the upper primary level to increase enrolment at this stage. The norm of providing an upper primary school within 3 km walking distance has been relaxed to benefit the girl child.

Secondary Education

Access to secondary education was proposed to be widened with emphasis on enrolment of girls, SCs and STs, particularly in science, commerce and vocational streams. Boards of Secondary Education were also proposed to be reorganised and vested with autonomy so that their ability to improve the quality of secondary education is enhanced⁶. A program of computer literacy (CLASS) was implemented in secondary level institutions to ensure that the children are equipped with necessary computer skills to be effective in the emerging technological world.

Children with special talent or aptitude were provided opportunities to proceed at a faster pace, by making good quality education available to them, irrespective of their capacity to

⁵ “Report on Task Force on Education for Women’s Equality”; www.education.nic.in/cd50years/s

⁶ A Task Force was constituted by Gol under the chairmanship of Dr. Amrik Singh to study the Role and Status of Boards of Secondary Education (1997)

pay for it through the Pace-setting residential schools, Navodaya Vidyalayas⁷. Their broad aim was to serve the objective of excellence coupled with equity and social justice (with reservation for the rural areas, SCs and STs), to promote national integration by providing opportunities to talented children from different parts of the country, to live and learn together, to develop their full potential, and, most importantly, to become catalysts of a nation-wide programme of school improvement.

Curriculum Framework

NPE also undertook the updation and raising the standard of the text book syllabi to incorporate the contemporary trends. The positive approach of the total literacy campaigns of NPE resulted in raise in demand for primary education. The awareness generated among the parents had led to better participation of the children in primary schools, which benefited especially the disadvantaged groups- the girls of SC and ST by attending the schools. The states were advised to take up curriculum revision to incorporate proper understanding of the work ethos and of the values of a humane and composite culture.

Teachers⁸

The policy paper envisages reorganisation of the methods of recruiting teachers to ensure merit, objectivity and conformity with spatial and functional requirements. The pay and service conditions of teachers were proposed to be commensurate with their social and professional responsibilities and with the need to attract talent to the profession. A system of teachers' evaluation ~ open, participative and data-based – was contemplated and reasonable opportunities of promotion to higher grades were provided. Norms of accountability were proposed to be laid down with incentives for good performance and disincentives for non-performance. A larger role for teachers was visualised in the formulation and implementation of educational programmes.

The NPE, 1986 calls for a substantial improvement in the conditions of work of teachers and the quality of teacher education. The policy also emphasized Teachers accountability to the Pupils, their parents, the community and to their own profession. POA, 1992 also envisaged among other measures, "Laying down of norms for accountability of teachers" to achieve the broad policy objectives of NPE.

Policy Parameters

The policy parameters and the strategies of the NPE to promote girls' education were aimed:

⁷ Supra Note 5

⁸ See generally NPE, 1986

- ⇒ To get the entire education system to play positive interventionist role in the empowerment of women.
- ⇒ To encourage educational institutions to take up active programs to enhance women status and further women development in all sectors.
- ⇒ To widen women access to vocational technical and professional education at all levels breaking gender stereotypes; and
- ⇒ To create dynamic management structure that will be able to respond to the challenge posed by the mandate.

The plan of action of NPE primarily dealt with the inclusion of the institutions to develop concrete actions plans. It also suggested the setting up of monitoring unit to ensure integration of gender issues into policies, programs and actions. The annual plan of the institutions and departments were required to spell out clearly the steps taken by them to enhance women and girls access to education. It also provided for research and women studies to promote better understanding of women contribution to social process within social, technological environmental change and their struggles. The program aimed to investigate and remove structural cultural or attitudinal causes of gender discrimination. It provided for gender sensitization programs for the school teachers.

The NPE and its plan of action have brought out the close relationship between the education and the status of women in the society. It has rightly established the fact that the first step towards the strengthening the position of women is to provide for proper educational facilities to empower them. The NPE can be called as a beneficial program to the extent that it has even recognized alternative forms of training to facilitate easy access to women.

2.1.3 THE NATIONAL POLICY ON EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN, 2001

The national policy on empowerment of women, 2001 is aimed at women's advancement in different spheres. This policy is the output of various international obligations along with internal interventions. The policy states that Gender disparity manifests itself in various forms, the most obvious being the trend of continuously declining female ratio in the population in the last few decades. Social stereotyping and violence at the domestic and societal levels are some of the other manifestations. Discrimination against girl children, adolescent girls and women persists in parts of the country. Therefore this policy is aimed at improving the status of women in the society by empowering them especially those belonging to weaker sections including Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes/ Other

backward Classes and minorities, majority of whom are in the rural areas and in the informal, unorganized sector, by providing them with educational and health benefits.

2.1.4 Tenth five year plan (2002-2007)

The tenth five year plan⁹ covering the period 2002-2007 has recognized that the human development is an integral part of economic growth and accordingly has been set targets to achieve the same. It is clearly stated in the tenth five year plan that “*The development process must be viewed in terms of the efficiency with which it uses an economy’s productive capacities, involving both physical and human resources, to attain the desired economic and social ends (and not just material attainment).*” Therefore it has laid a lot of emphasis on human development wherein elementary education forms an integral part. The targets set forth for the Tenth Five Year plan to monitor the growth of education are as follows:

MONITORABLE TARGETS FOR THE TENTH PLAN AND BEYOND

- All children in school by 2003; all children to complete 5 years of schooling by 2007;
- Reduction in gender gaps in literacy and wage rates by at least 50 per cent by 2007;
- Increase in Literacy rates to 75 per cent within the Plan period;

It has been observed by the tenth five year plan that the growth rate of the economy, birth rate, death rate, infant mortality rate (IMR) and literacy rate, are all interconnected, and that the literacy rate has been the major determinant of the rise or fall in the other indicators. The tenth five year plan has conceded that the high literacy rate among women has paved way for low mortality rate and low birth rate and increase in the rate of life expectancy. This has been the fundamental point for the focus upon literacy and elementary education programmes, not simply as a matter of social justice but more to foster economic growth, social well-being and social stability.

Targets under the tenth five year plan

The tenth five year plan has laid down the following targets in elementary education under the various heads:

⁹ <http://planningcommission.nic.in/plans>

Universal access

- ⇒ All children in the 6-14 age group should have access to primary schools, upper primary schools or their alternatives within a walking distance of one km and three km respectively.
- ⇒ All children in the 3-6 age groups must have universal access to early childhood care and education centres.
- ⇒ Need-based expansion of upper primary education facilities, particularly for the disadvantaged sections. There should be one upper primary school for every two primary schools.
- ⇒ All schools should have buildings, toilets, drinking water, electricity, playgrounds, blackboards and other basic facilities. There must be provision of one classroom for every teacher at the elementary stage.

Universal Enrolment

- ⇒ Enrolment of all children in schools or alternative arrangements by 2003.
- ⇒ All children to complete five years of primary schooling by 2007.

Universal Retention

- ⇒ Universal retention in the primary stage by 2007.
- ⇒ Dropout rate to be reduced to less than 10 per cent for grades VI-VIII by 2007.

Universal Achievement

- ⇒ Improve the quality of education in all respects (content and process) to ensure reasonable learning outcomes at the elementary level, especially in literacy, numeric and in life skills.

Equity

- ⇒ Bridge all gender and social gaps in enrolment, retention and learning achievement in the primary stage by 2007 and reduce the gap to 5 per cent in the upper primary stage by 2007.
- ⇒ Special interventions and strategies to include girls, SC/ST children, working children, children with special needs, urban deprived children, children from minority groups, children below the poverty line, migratory children and children in the hardest-to-reach groups.

2.1.5 Decentralisation - A .P. Community Participation Act, 1998

Decentralised planning and management of elementary education is a goal set by the National Policy on Education, 1986. The Policy visualises direct community involvement in

the form of Village Education Committees (VECs) for management of elementary education. The POA, 1992, emphasised micro planning as a process of designing a family-wise and child-wise plan of action by which every child regularly attends school, continues his or her education at the place suitable to him/her and completes at least eight years of schooling or its equivalent at the NFE centre.

The 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments provide for decentralisation of the activities and facilitate transfer of power and participation of the local self-government institutions or the Panchayati Raj Institutions.

As a sequel to the constitutional amendments, the government of Andhra Pradesh enacted the A.P. Community Participation Act in 1998 and formed committees for the improvement of education at various levels—School Committees at the habitation level, Panchayat Education Committees at the panchayat level, Mandal Education Committees at the mandal level, Municipal Education Committees at the municipal level and District Committees at the district level. The School Committees are empowered to involve in the micro planning exercise and the development of habitation education plans. The School Committees have the power to monitor the functioning of schools and also procure TLM, etc., in partnership with the government.

School Committees have created a congenial atmosphere for the people to play a more dynamic and proactive role. They have been providing voice to women, Scheduled Castes and Tribes, minorities, parents and educational functionaries to invoke greater participation. They have also been delegated with responsibilities with regard to location of primary and upper schools on the basis of micro planning and school mapping. In this regard, decentralisation of school management to grassroots level bodies is an important policy initiative. Financial assistance is also being provided to school committees to engage local qualified persons as vidya volunteers to augment the strength of teachers.

2.2 Schemes

2.2.1 Introduction

Since independence, expansion of primary formal and non-formal education has been the focus point of the central and state governments. Great deal of efforts were put in to achieve the goal of Universalisation of Elementary education and the need of the hour is sustaining

these efforts and make them more fruitful. Decentralised planning and management strategies have to be introduced towards improving primary education in the country.

Several central and state level initiatives have been in vogue from the early 1980s. While the designs of these projects vary substantially, all of them address the objectives and strategies of the National Policy on Education 1986. They pay special attention to increasing girls' enrolment, improving educational outcomes, strengthening community involvement, improving teaching and learning materials and providing in-service teacher training. The status of some of these initiatives is discussed below.

2.2.2 Major central interventions

There have been several innovative schemes in the sector of elementary education following the National Policy on Education in 1986 such as Operation Blackboard, Teacher Education, Non Formal Education, National Programme for Nutritional Support for Primary Education, State Specific Education Projects in Andhra Pradesh and also in major states like Bihar, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh¹⁰ and DPEP in 248 districts of 18 States.

2.2.3 Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project

The Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project (APPEP) was implemented in primary schools of state, with financial assistance of ODA of the United Kingdom in two phases between 1984 and 1996. The APPEP adopted a two-pronged strategy of improving classroom transaction by training teachers and giving a fillip to school construction activities. The project has trained an estimated 80,000 teachers in 23 districts and more than 3,000 teachers' centres have become operational for the professional growth of teachers. The project was assisted by the ODA with an estimated outlay of Rs. 1,000 million in the 8th Plan.

2.2.4 Operation Blackboard

Operation Blackboard, a centrally sponsored scheme launched in 1987, aimed at improving the school environment and enhancing retention and learning achievement of children by providing minimum essential facilities in all primary schools. This scheme aimed to improve physical infrastructure of education whereby school space was expanded and more teachers provided. The scheme has brought about a remarkable quantitative and qualitative improvement in primary education. In all, 42,310 primary schools have been covered.

¹⁰ Andhra Pradesh Primary education Program (APPEP), Lokjumbish Project and Shiksha Karmi project, of Rajasthan, Basic education Program of Uttar Pradesh.

Operation Black Board sought to provide a second teacher to all one-teacher primary schools. The government of India sanctioned 20286 teacher posts. It is also proposed that at least three teachers should work in every school, the number increasing, as early as possible, to one teacher per class.

Since 1993-94, the scheme has been expanded to cover upper primary schools. More than 10000 upper primary schools have been granted central assistance of Rs. 40,000 each for purchase of teaching- learning materials. Also, primary schools with enrolment exceeding 100 have been augmented with a third teacher.

A Special Orientation Programme for Primary Teachers (SOPT) to facilitate optimum utilisation of materials supplied has also been launched to cover all primary school teachers in the state.

2.2.5 Strengthening of Teacher Education: DIETs

The centrally sponsored scheme of District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) was launched by Government of India in 1988 to provide academic and resource support at the grass-roots level for the success of the various strategies and programmes being undertaken in the areas of elementary and adult education, with the following purposes:

Elementary Education: Universalisation of Primary/ Elementary Education.

Adult Education: NLM targets in regard to functional literacy in the 15-35 age group.

The three main functions of DIETs are:

- Training teachers of primary and upper primary schools (both at induction level and continuing training)
- Resource support (extension /guidance, development of materials, aids, evaluation tools, etc.) and
- Action research

DIETs in Andhra Pradesh

In Andhra Pradesh, 23 DIETs are functioning with two tribal sub- DIETs at Utnoor in Adilabad district and Paderu in Visakapatnam catering to the in-service tribal teachers in the nine tribal districts of the state. During 1999- 2000, the syllabus of DIETs was revised and a two year Diploma in Education (D.Ed.) was implemented. The intake capacity in Telugu medium is 80 in each year with Urdu medium available in nine DIETs located in West Godavari, Guntur, Cuddapah, Kurnool, Mahabubnagar, Ranga Reddy, Hyderabad, Nizamabad and Warangal districts.

Secondary level Teacher Training

The secondary level teacher training is by and large through the private sector. Three Colleges of Education (CTE) and four Institutes of Advanced Studies (IASE) are in the government sector, six IASEs are run by the universities and one College of Teacher Education is under private aided management (Andhra Mahila Sabha), while the bulk of the colleges are under the private sector. At present about 300 private unaided colleges of Education are functioning in the state.

2.2.6 District Primary Education Programme

The DPEP was launched in 1994 aimed at revamping primary education system in India. The programme aimed at operationalising the strategies for achieving UEE through district specific planning and disaggregated target setting. This program takes a holistic view of primary education with emphasis on decentralised management, community mobilisation and district specific planning based on contextually and research based inputs.

The basic objectives of DPEP are:

- To provide all children with access to primary education either in the formal system or through the non-formal education (NFE) programme.
- To reduce differences in enrolment, dropout rates and learning achievement among gender and social groups to less than 5%.
- To reduce overall primary dropout rates for all students to less than 10%.
- To raise average achievement levels by at least 25% over measured base line levels and ensuring achievements of basic literacy and numeric competencies and a minimum of 40% achievement levels in other competencies by all primary school children.

The Government of India financed 85 % of the project cost as a grant to the DPEP State Implementation Society while the rest is provided by the state government. The central government's share is resourced by external funding. The DPEP was implemented in the backward districts with female literacy below the national average. DPEP has been implemented in the state in two phases, Phase I (1996-2003) in five districts and Phase II (1998-2004) in 14 districts.

DPEP has been able to set up project management structures at district, state and national levels, create the environment and capacity for micro planning, take up the challenge of pedagogical innovation, create a responsive institutional base which includes both

government and non-government institutions, enhance community participation and strengthen the process of catering to special focus groups such as tribals, scheduled castes, women and other marginalised sections.

DPEP focussed on specific interventions like early childhood education, out-of-school children, with special emphasis on Girls education and teacher training. The program provided much need assistance in terms of enhancement of infrastructural facilities like construction of classrooms etc.

2.2.7 National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education (NPNSPE) - School Meal Programme

The Mid day meals program draws a parallel between the malnutrition of children and child education. The Mid day meal program aims at bringing the children to school by assuring them food one time everyday they attend the school thereby ensuring their prolonged attendance in schools. The programme launched in August 1995 envisaged provision of nutritious and wholesome cooked meal of 100 gms of food grains per school day, free of cost, to all children in classes I-V by 1997-98. As an interim arrangement raw food grains were given to the children till institutional arrangements were made for cooked food.

The scheme was revised in 2004 and the revamped scheme mandated the State Governments to provide a cooked mid day meal with minimum 300 calories and 8-12 grams of protein content to all the children studying in classes I-V in Government and Government aided schools and the EGS and AIE centres.¹¹ This Scheme rests with the State Governments and the UT administration the overall responsibility of:

- i. providing necessary infrastructure
- ii. making all logistic/administrative arrangements necessary for regular serving of wholesome, cooked mid day meal of satisfactory quality, and nutritive value in every eligible school/EGS-AIE Centre, and
- iii. providing financial and other inputs, over and above those to be provided by way of Central assistance, to the extent necessary for the programme.

Status of Implementation in Andhra Pradesh

The Government of Andhra Pradesh started implementing the mid day meal program in twenty two districts of the state from 2nd January 2003 and from February 1st 2003 in

¹¹ The Central Government defined Government aided School and EGS/AIE centre as: "Government-aided School" means a school in receipt of regular annual recurring aid from the Central or State Government, or a competent Local Body, and recognized/categorized by it as an "aided school".

Hyderabad district. Andhra Pradesh is not limiting the scheme to only primary schools but has extended it to upper primary schools too. The scheme is also extended to children enrolled in ECE centres, RBCs, NRBCs, NCLP centres. The State is providing sambar with rice every day and a boiled egg or a banana once a week to the children. The scheme is implemented in a public – private partnership model in the urban district of Hyderabad and in Vishakapatnam city. Naandi is providing cooked food in Hyderabad and Vishakapatnam cities. TTD is providing cooked food in Tirupathi rural mandal. In the rest of the state cooked food is provided by self help groups / Mother’s committees / School Education Committees.

2.2.8 The Tenth Five Year Plan - Programs for Achieving the UEE

The tenth five year plan has planned the following programs for UEE. These programs are more oriented to reduce the gender disparity and bring in the drop out children especially girls back to the education system to achieve the goal of UEE. It can be rightfully asserted that the achievement of UEE is impossible without the inclusion of schemes for the promotion of girl child education which fact has been recognized by the tenth five year plan and has formed the basis for the same.

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan

Under the tenth five year plan the SSA has to provide access and motivation to those outside the school system who are mostly girls, SCs/STs children, working children, urban deprived children, disabled children and children in difficult circumstances, without compromising on the quality of education.

Tenth Five Year Plan - Gender specific programs

The tenth five year plan¹² has also recommended gender specific programs to reduce gender disparity in education. To achieve the above, the plan has emphasized on the existing women centric programs such as Mahila Samakhya, and two new schemes, the Kasturba Gandhi Swantantra Vidyalaya (KGSV) and the National Programme for the Education of Girls at the Elementary Level (NPEGEL). The KGSV and NPEGEL were proposed to take the following features during the plan period:

- ⇒ focus on educationally backward areas in girls’ education;
- ⇒ focus on girls from the disadvantaged sections like those belonging to SC/ST, minorities, etc;

¹² Supra Note 9

- ⇒ tackling gender-specific issues that prevent girls and women from having access to education;
- ⇒ providing women and adolescent girls with the necessary support structure, and an
- ⇒ informal learning environment to create opportunities for education;
- ⇒ creating circumstances for larger participation of women and girls in formal and non-formal education programmes; and
- ⇒ helping girls to overcome socio-cultural and economic factors inhibiting their access to elementary education.

The tenth five year plan has laid down strategies for improvement of quality as the achievement of UEE will be hollow without ensuring quality education. In this regard the plan has stressed on:

- ⇒ Improving the quality of textbooks
- ⇒ Improving the quality of infrastructural facilities like toilets for girls, equipment and support services, playgrounds, classrooms. The main thrust of the tenth five year plan is to ascertain that all primary level schools have pucca buildings with all supporting infrastructural facilities.

The tenth five year plan has provisions for the improving the quality and performance of teachers education also. It has an elaborate strategy addressing the drop-outs too. The plan has identified that girls form the major chunk of the drop outs owing to various factors and has entrusted the duty of bringing them back while retaining the existing ones to various departments involved.

The tenth five year plan has laid immense importance on the UEE in general and girl child education in particular. The plan has clearly laid down strategies towards UEE. While there are general provisions applicable to both boys and girls towards UEE there are special provisions for girl child treating them as a special category.

2.2.9 Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is an effort to universalise elementary education by community-ownership of the school system. It is a response to the demand for quality basic education all over the country. The SSA programme is also an attempt to provide an opportunity for improving human capabilities to all children, through provision of community-owned quality education in a mission mode.

Objectives of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan

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

Main Strategies of SSA

- Community ownership of school based interventions through effective decentralisation and involvement of various institutions at all levels
- Priority to girls – especially those belonging to SC/ ST
- Focus on special groups – inclusion and participation of children from SC/ST, Minority groups, urban deprived children and children with special needs
- Emphasis on quality – education at this level should be made useful and relevant by improving the curriculum, including child centered activities, effective and innovative teaching aids and teacher training
- Community based monitoring with full transparency – the educational MIS will correlate school level data with community based information from micro planning and surveys

SSA in Andhra Pradesh:

The state has made concerted efforts to improve access and enrolment. 366 new Primary Schools were opened and 253 primary schools were upgraded to Upper Primary Schools (UPS) under SSA during 2005-06¹³. As a drive towards increasing enrolment, a large number of class rooms were constructed. Almost 97% of habitations now have a school within one kilometre of the habitation. In the age group of 6 - 14 years, out of the total population of 117.59 lakhs currently around 113.35 lakh children are enrolled in schools (almost 96.4% of the total children in this age group). The state has achieved altogether 96.4% of enrolment.

An initiative called **Badi Bata**¹⁴ has been started under SSA, to address the problem of drop outs and out of school children. As part of the programme volunteers take up house to house

¹³ Performance Budget 2006-07, Department of School Education, Government of Andhra Pradesh

¹⁴ <http://ssa.ap.nic.in/>

survey to identify the dropouts. The consolidated list is discussed by the *Gram Sabha*, rallies and processions are also taken out as part of this programme in habitations to create awareness. People having child labour in their houses are identified and targeted activities are also undertaken to sensitize them. Children freed from these places are sent to RBC or mainstreamed directly depending on their levels of learning.

The State has launched a rigorous training programme for all primary, upper primary teachers to make teaching-learning more effective and joyful, giving emphasis on classroom transaction, evaluation process, importance of remedial teaching and value education.

2.2.10. The 'National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL)

Introduction

NPEGEL has been formulated for education of under privileged/disadvantaged girls from class I to VIII as a separate and distinct gender component plan of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA). This was started as an amendment to the scheme of SSA for providing additional components for education of girls at elementary level.

This scheme lays down a community based approach i.e. it involves actors at all levels following a participatory approach in its implementation. This scheme targets the out of school girls, drop outs, over aged girls who have not completed elementary education, working girls, girls from marginalised social groups, girls with low attendance and girls with low levels of achievement

Objective

The primary objective of the NPEGEL is to reduce the gender gap in enrolment at elementary level especially among the SC/STs. The objectives of this scheme include:

- To develop and promote facilities to provide access and to facilitate retention of girls and
- To ensure greater participation of women and girls in the field of education
- To improve the quality of education through various interventions and to stress upon the relevance and quality of girls' education for their empowerment.

Components of Scheme

Model cluster Schools

Model Cluster Schools for Girls were opened in all selected districts/blocks where the scheme was operational. These were aimed at improving the achievement of girls, fostering

an interest in education among them, and raising the importance of girls' education in the community. Existing schools having density of SC/ST/OBC/Minority girls were identified as model cluster schools.

Model cluster schools for girls have the provision of an additional classroom, supply of drinking water, electrification, and toilet for which one time grant upto a maximum of Rs.2.00 lakhs was provided. Construction of additional classrooms, residential facilities, girl's toilets, water supply, electrification and barrier free features are the components of this scheme. The scheme provides a one time grant of Rs. 30,000 for teaching learning equipment, library, sports, vocational training, etc.

The schools will consist of facilities in terms of teaching learning equipment, books, equipment, games, and facilities for learning through computers, film shows, reading material, self defence, life skills, riding bicycles, and reading. This girl child friendly infrastructure will be used by all the schools in that cluster, by rotation. The scheme also has provision for hiring instructors for the day or on contract for imparting vocational and other training.

NPEGEL in Andhra Pradesh

The State is implementing NPEGEL programme in selected educationally backward mandals of all the districts to promote the difficult to reach and over-aged girl children. Under this scheme 1,295 model cluster schools¹⁵ have been established. The activities also included giving work books to 74,000 slow learning girls, organizing 290 motivational camps covering 11,750 girls, mainstreaming nearly 8,000 girls from RBCs and giving vocational skills, amongst other things. Further, construction of 969 additional classrooms was taken up in the model cluster schools. Model cluster centres are also supplied with library books, music equipment and uniform for girls. Two cycles were supplied to each model cluster centre to train all girls in cycling.

2.2.11 Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV)

Introduction

Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV) is being implemented by the Government of India by setting up upto 750 residential schools¹⁶ with boarding facilities at elementary level for girls belonging predominantly to the SC, ST, BC and minorities in difficult areas. The scheme will be coordinated with the existing schemes of Department of Elementary

¹⁵ See generally Performance Budget 2006-07, Department of School Education, Government of Andhra Pradesh

¹⁶ <http://www.education.nic.in/>

Education & Literacy viz. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL) and Mahila Samakhya (MS).

Objective

The primary objective of the KGBV is to reduce the gender gap in enrolment at elementary level especially at the upper primary level in the rural areas and among disadvantaged communities. The objective of this scheme is to ensure access and quality education to the girls of disadvantaged groups of society by setting up residential schools with boarding facilities at elementary level.

Strategies

Between 500 to 750 residential schools will be opened in the country, in a phased manner over the 10th Plan period at an estimated cost of Rs. 19.05 lakh as recurring cost and Rs. 26.25 lakh as non-recurring cost, per school. Initially, the proposed schools shall be opened in rented or other available Government buildings after deciding the location. The district administration has to ensure that the residential schools are set up only in those backward blocks that do not have residential schools for elementary education of girls under any other scheme of Ministry of Social Justice & Empowerment and Ministry of Tribal Affairs.

Components of the scheme

- i) Setting up of residential schools where there are a minimum of 50 girls predominantly from the SC, ST and minority communities available to study in the school at the elementary level. The number can be more than 50 depending on the number of eligible girls.
- ii) To provide necessary infrastructure for these schools
- iii) To prepare and procure necessary teaching learning material and aids for the schools
- iv) To put in place appropriate systems to provide necessary academic support and for evaluation and monitoring
- v) To motivate and prepare the girls and their families to send them to residential school
- vi) At the primary level the emphasis will be on the slightly older girls who are out of school and were unable to complete primary schools (10+). However, in difficult areas (migratory populations, scattered habitations that do not qualify for primary/ upper primary schools) younger girls can also be targeted
- vii) At the upper primary level, emphasis will be on girls, especially, adolescent girls who are unable to go to regular schools

- viii) In view of the targeted nature of the scheme, 75% girls from SC, ST, OBC or minority communities would be accorded priority for enrolment in such residential schools and only thereafter, 25% girls from families below poverty line.
- ix) Established NGOs and other non-profit making bodies will be involved in the running of the schools, wherever possible. These residential schools can also be adopted by the corporate groups.

KGBV in Andhra Pradesh

94 KGBV schools¹⁷ have been started in the state in August, 2005. The responsibility of running these KGBV residential schools is interested to the AP State Residential Educational Institutions Society (APREIS). In all the 94 KGBV schools, Principals, teaching staff and other staff are appointed and posted by APREI Society, AP, Hyderabad. 7,818 girls are enrolled in the KGBV Schools. The construction of school buildings of KGBV is proposed to be completed before the 10th Plan period. The District Collectors have been assigned the task of identifying suitable sites for construction of school buildings for KGBV schools. By March, 2006, as against 94 sites to be made available, Collectors have allotted 44 sites in 14 districts.

¹⁷ Supra note 15

Chapter III

Demographic trends in Andhra Pradesh- Focus on Girl Child

- Population
- Literacy

3. Demographic trends in Andhra Pradesh- Focus on Girl Child

3.1 Population Trends

India accounts for 2.4 percent of the world surface area and have 16.7% of the world population. According to 2001 census, it has 531 million males and 496 million females and is the second populous country next to China in the world. Though, there is an increase in absolute terms of 180.6 million population in the last decade, the net growth rate of the country has declined for the first time after 1961 and has witnessed an average decline of 1.93 percent per annum. In 1991 – 2001, the decadal growth of population in the country is 21.34 percent¹⁸.

According to 2001 Census of India, Andhra Pradesh is the fifth populous state with 7.37% of the Indian population living within its boundaries. In the last decade, demographically it has recorded many significant changes. It has recorded a decline in the decadal growth rate for the first time after six decades from 24.20% in 1981 - 91 to 13.86% in 1991 - 2001. As per the National Family Health Survey –1 (NFHS-1, 1989-91) in Andhra Pradesh, the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) (the average number of children born per woman) is 2.59 and as per NFHS –2 (1996-98) it is 2.25 which is nearer to the desired TFR i.e., 2.1¹⁹. Infant Mortality Rate has declined from 86/1000 in 1981 to 66/1000 in 1999 (1999 SRS estimates) and 59 in 2003²⁰. There is an increase in literacy rates from 44.08 in 1991 to 61.11 in 2001. The general population trends in Andhra Pradesh over the last one decade (1991- 2001) is shown in the following table.

Population Variations in Andhra Pradesh (1991- 2001 Census)

Census	Population			Sex ratio
	Male	Female	Total	
1991	33724581	32783427	66508008	972
2001	38527413	37682594	76210007	978
% of inc/dec	14.24	14.94	14.59	

Source: Table 1.1 Statistical Abstract Andhra Pradesh 2005

3.1.1 Rural - Urban Population

The total population of Andhra Pradesh is 762.10 lakhs of which 554.01 lakhs reside in rural areas and 208.09 lakhs reside in urban areas. The urban population of Andhra Pradesh

¹⁸ Source - <http://indiabudget.nic.in/es2001-02/chapt2002/chap107.pdf>

¹⁹ Source - <http://www.aponline.gov.in/quick%20links/Economic%20Survey/social4.pdf>

²⁰ Source: Statistical Abstract Andhra Pradesh 2005

works out to be 27.08 % and is almost on par with urbanization in India (27.78 %). It happens to be the second least urbanized state in South India.

Rural - Urban Population - Andhra Pradesh (1991 – 2001 Census)

Category	1991			2001		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Rural	24591875	24029007	48620882	27937204	27463863	55401067
Urban	9132706	8754420	17887126	10590209	10218731	20808940
Total	33724581	32783427	66508008	38527413	37682594	76210007

Source: Statistical Abstract Andhra Pradesh 2005

The three most urbanized districts in Andhra Pradesh are Hyderabad (100%), Ranga Reddi (53.27%) and Visakhapatnam (39.89 %) and the least urbanized districts are Mahabubnagar (10.59%), Srikakulam (11.00%) and Nalgonda (13.26 %) in that order²¹.

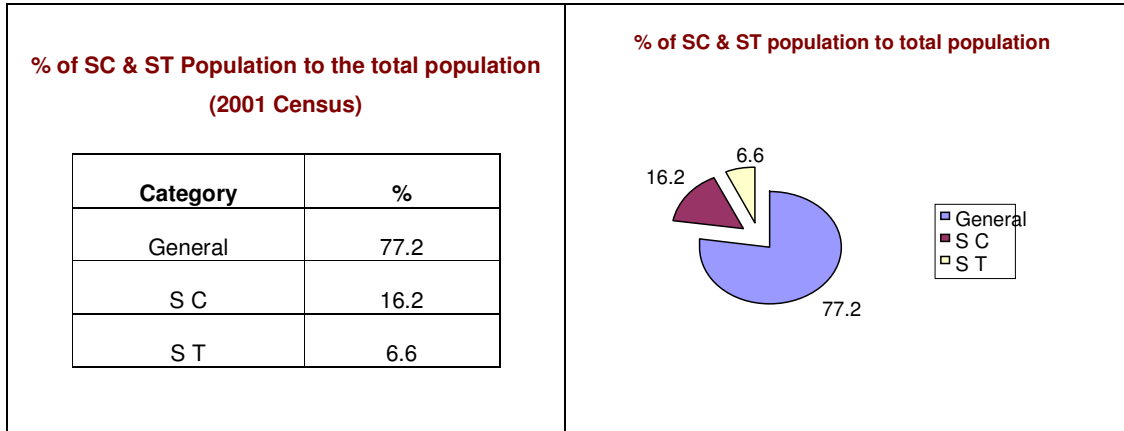
The percentage of rural population in 2001 is 72.92% as compared to 73.11 in 1991. In terms of percentage of rural population to total population, Mahabubnagar ranks first with a rural population of 89.41% followed by Srikakulam (89%) and Nalgonda (86.74 %) districts. Ranga Reddi district has the least rural population of 46.73% and the district of Hyderabad does not have any villages. In absolute numbers, the largest rural population is in East Godavari (37.49 lakhs) district followed by Guntur (31.79 lakhs) and Mahabubnagar (31.42 lakhs) districts²².

3.1.2 SC & ST Population

As disadvantaged groups in our society, the scheduled castes (SC) and scheduled tribes (ST) population deserves specific mention. The percentage of SC & ST population in the state is presented below. In 2001, there is a slight increase in both SC& ST population as compared to the 1991 census. Among the South Indian states, Andhra Pradesh ranks highest in ST population to the total population (6.6%) followed by Karnataka with the same percentage (6.6%). Next to Tamil Nadu (19.0%), Andhra Pradesh has the second largest SC population to the total population (16.2%) in South India.

²¹ Source - Census of India 2001, provisional population totals paper – 2 of 2001 series -29

²² Ibid



Source: Series 29, Primary Census Abstract, Census of India

In absolute terms, the SC population comprises of 123 lakhs and ST population 50 lakhs as against the total population of 762.10 lakhs. Among the districts in Andhra Pradesh, Nellore (22%) has the highest SC population followed by Prakasam (21.3%) and West Godavari (19.2%). In case of ST population, Khammam (26.5%) followed by Adilabad (16.7%) and Visakapatnam (14.5%) has reported the highest. Hyderabad being the capital city with no rural population has reported the lowest concentration of ST population and second lowest in SC population. Visakapatnam (7.6%) has the lowest SC population followed by Srikakulam (9%) and Vizianagaram (10.6%). Kurnool (2%), Cuddapah (2.4%) and West Godavari (2.5%) reported the lowest ST population.

3.1.3 Sex Ratio

Sex ratio is one of the simple most indicators of overall status of women. It is an accepted fact that female species is stronger in survival instinct among the two human species and outnumber men in most countries. Nonetheless, the pathetic status of women in India is reflected in its low sex ratio. Since 1901, it was not only low at 972 but has declined drastically to 927 by 1991. Applauds to the conscious effort, by 2001 it was raised marginally to 933 per 1000 males. Concurrently, in Andhra Pradesh also, since 1951 for the first time in 2001, sex ratio showed an increase. It has increased from 972 in 1991 to 978 in 2001 which is remarkably higher than the all India rate of 933 per 1000 males. However, amid the Indian states, in sex ratio, Andhra Pradesh is ranked sixth among the Indian states and among the four south Indian states it stands third in sex ratio with Karnataka tailing it.

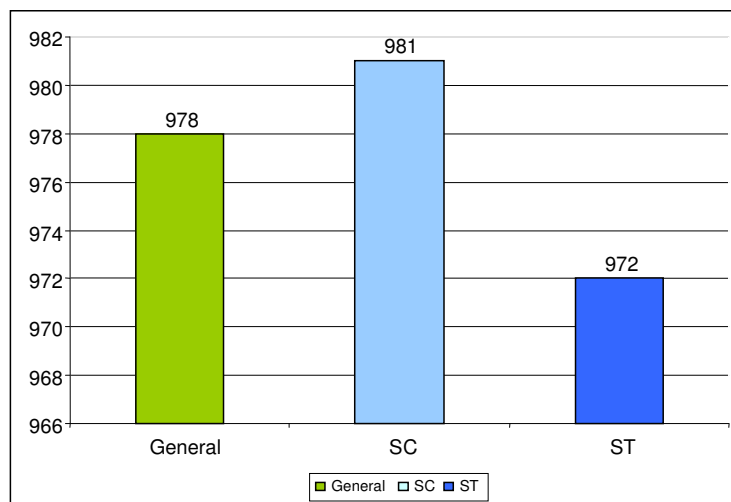
In Andhra Pradesh, the highest sex ratio is reported in Nizamabad (1017) followed by Srikakulam (1014) and Vizianagaram (1009) and the lowest in Hyderabad (933), followed by Rangareddi (944) and Anantapur (958). Though the sex ratio ranges from 1017 in

Nizamabad to 933 in the urban district of Hyderabad, among the 23 districts in the state, eleven districts including Khammam, Kadapa, Medak, Warangal, Mahbubnagar, Prakasam, Nalgonda, Kurnool, Anantapur, Ranga Reddy and Hyderabad form a continuous belt of sex ratio below 978. It is quite remarkable to note that Hyderabad and Ranga Reddi are the most urbanized districts in the state and Srikakulam, Nizamabad falls under the category with largest rural population.

Sex Ratio among different Population Groups

The state average sex ratio among general, SC & ST population is 978, 981 and 972 respectively. While in case of general population, 10 districts record sex ratio above the state average, among SC & ST population, 11 and 14 districts recorded sex ratio above respective state average.

Sex Ratio among different Population Groups



3.1.4 Declining Girl Child Sex Ratio in Andhra Pradesh

More alarming than the overall situation is the fact that while the sex ratio for overall population has increased by six points during 1991-2001, in the age group 0 - 4 years, this has declined sharply from 983 to 967 i.e. by 16 points in rural areas. In the urban areas the sex ratio has reduced by 7 points from 965 to 958 per 1000 boys in the same period.

Census Years	Girls per 1000 boys in different age groups					
	RURAL		URBAN		COMBINED	
	0-4 Years	5-14 Years	0-4 Years	5-14 Years	0-4 Years	5-14 Years
1991	983	948	965	959	978	951
2001	967	947	958	962	965	951

Primary Source: Census Abstract Andhra Pradesh, Series – 29, Vol.1

Similarly, in our country the chances of girl children losing their life before reaching the age of 14 years is higher than for boys. Various socio economic factors contribute to the loss of her life. Sex ratio in the age group of 0 - 4 years and 5 - 14 years has always been skewed negatively towards girls. In 1991, sex ratio in the age group of 0 – 4 years was 978 and in 2001 it has decreased to 965 per 1000 boys. In the age group of 5 – 14 years, over the years sex ratio has remained stable at 951 per 1000 boys.

More girls are born in rural than in urban areas of Andhra Pradesh and many more lose their life in rural areas. In 1991, the sex ratio in rural areas was 983 and that of in urban areas was 965 indicating that more girls are born in rural areas. By the time they reach the age of 14 years, the sex ratio in rural areas has declined to 948 compared to 959 in urban areas, indicating high loss of life in rural areas.

Over the decade, 1991 - 2001, the decline in sex ratio among 0 - 4 years has increased in rural areas (980 to 967) by 16 points while the decline was not so steep in urban areas and was by 7 points (965 to 958). Contrary, the sex ratio among 5 - 14 years is more or less stable in the rural areas (948 in 1991 to 947 in 2001) and has increased in urban areas (959 in 1991 to 962 in 2001).

3.1.5 Status of Women

Status of Indian women is highly disadvantageous compared to their counterparts in most countries in the world. It begins from womb and follows her till the tomb - female foeticide, female infanticide and low nutritional level because of sheer neglect of a female from birth, through adolescence to youth and poor health arising out of it, early marriage and unsafe motherhood, lack of medical attendance of childbirth and poor health, low level of illiteracy, discriminatory socio-cultural values and attitudes, beliefs and practices towards female which compound the already precarious condition of females especially in large parts of rural India where three quarters of our population live.

Though there is a clear preference for sons, the data from NFHS - 2 conducted in 1998 - 99 in Andhra Pradesh, shows some favorable trends for girls. NFHS – 2 states that despite the existence of certain amount of son preference, there is an increasing tendency to limit the family size with two children even when they are daughters. It also states that son preference is relatively weak in urban areas, among literate women, and among women whose husbands have at least completed high school. Son preference does not vary much by religion, but scheduled caste and scheduled tribe women show more son preference than women from other backward classes.(ref: NFHS – 2 at pg no.79). Strong son preference combined with female foeticide and infanticide can lead to demographic imbalances. Even otherwise, due to poor nutritional care, low resistance to disease, subsequent ill health and lack of proper medical attention is also a major cause of loss of girl's life. It is an accepted finding that majority of the women seek medical care only when they are critically ill to carry out their regular work.

High Female Mortality

Females suffer greater loss of life in all age groups from birth to the age of 34 years, with the trend reversing after that. The Infant Mortality rate is 62 for the year 2002 and 59 for the year 2003 per 1000 live births²³. The Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) in Andhra Pradesh is at high end among Indian states at 130 per one lakh live births in 2001. Similarly, only 68.3% of the deliveries are attended by skilled health care personnel, depicts the plight of the women²⁴. In Andhra Pradesh, the male Crude Death Rate (CDR) is higher than the female CDR according to the NFHS – 2 and SRS surveys, but the age specific death rates in NFHS – 2 is slightly higher for females than for males during early childhood (age 0 -4 years) and the reproductive years (age 15 – 49). The SRS, however, reports higher male than female mortality in every age group.²⁵ The Maternal Mortality Rate in Andhra Pradesh is also one of the highest among the Indian states.

Early Marriage & Child Birth

Early marriage of girls often leads to the beginning of miseries and is a common practice in most of the rural India. According to NFHS - 2, despite a clear cut evidence of rising age at marriage, most women at 20 – 49 ages in Andhra Pradesh were married before they had reached the legal age of 18 years. 83% of the rural women and 58% of urban women and 76% of all women married before 18 years. The median age for urban areas was recorded as 17 years and for rural areas as 15 years and no significant difference was noted for age at first cohabitation.

²³ Source: Statistical Abstract Andhra Pradesh 2005 pg no 67

²⁴ Source: <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTINDIA/Resources/295482-1124149238518/APBriefState.pdf>

²⁵ NFHS – 2, Andhra Pradesh 1998 – 99 pg no 114, 121

Since there is steady increase in the age at marriage, it will be reflected in the age at first child birth also. In Andhra Pradesh, the age at first delivery has been increasing steadily over the last 10 years. The median age at first birth in rural areas has been noted as 17.9 years and in urban areas as 19.5 years. But the remarkable feature is that among women who have completed at least high school the age at first birth is 21 - 22 years while that for illiterate women it is 17 - 18 years²⁶. Amidst the malnutrition and ill-health, when a young girl of 17 – 18 years who has not yet completed her physical growth gets pregnant, her body starts competing with the growing fetus in her womb for nutrition putting her in unsafe high risk motherhood. This sets the long cycle of low birth weight babies, weak babies and malnutrition.

Continuous conscious effort of social activists and policy makers to tackle the above issues has resulted in several legislative measures and actions in favor of her. However, lack of proper implementation has never allowed her to move further from her plight. Several indicators like declining sex ratio, poor literacy rate, early marriage of girls etc proves it.

3.1.6 Increasing Accessibility of Education in India

Development cannot happen without the participation of the people and the fruits of development cannot be enjoyed if people are not educated. Poverty is responsible for all the social evils possible on earth. Poverty induces ill-health and illiteracy. Since India is largely a patriarchal society irrespective of religious backgrounds women suffer the most from all these social evils. To quicken the process of development literacy programmes are essential. Amid literacy rates, female Literacy is considered to be a more sensitive index of social development compared to overall literacy rates. Female literacy is negatively related with fertility rates, population growth rates, infant and child mortality rates, and shows a positive association with female age at marriage, life expectancy, participation in modern sectors of the economy and above all girls' enrolment in schools.

3.2 Trends in Literacy

With majority of the population living in rural area, increasing education accessibility for all had always been a challenge for India. Since independence, the country has put in much of her resources to spread education. In spite of the continuous efforts, the literacy rates in the country have grown slowly. With a national literacy rate of 64.8% in 2001 which is a huge

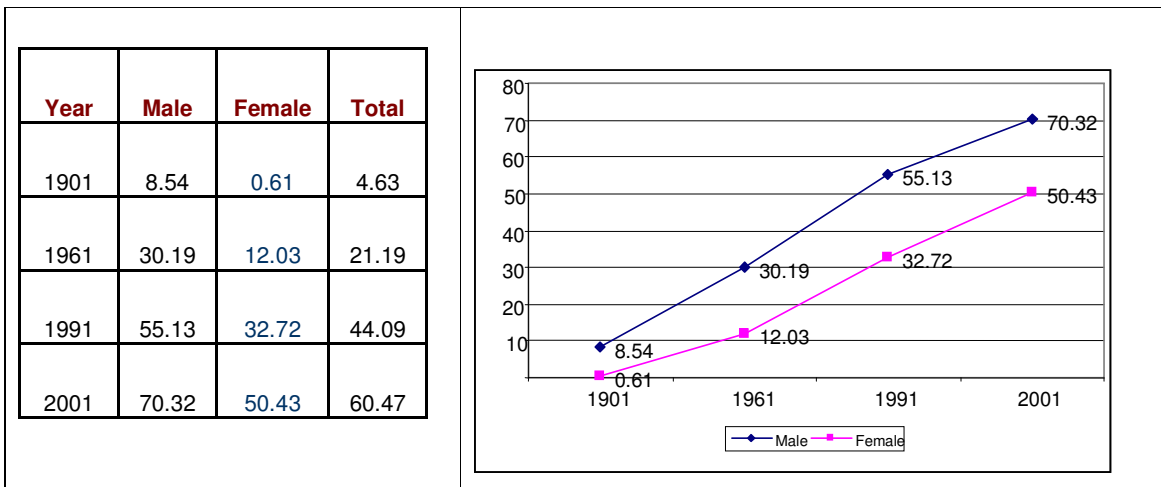
²⁶ Source: NFHS – 2, Report on Andhra Pradesh

leap from 52.2% in 1991, India is moving forward in its mission to provide education for everyone.

Among the states in India, Kerala recorded the highest literacy rate of 90.9% followed by Mizoram at 88.8%. Andhra Pradesh stands 28th among the states with 60.5% literacy rate in 2001. Andhra Pradesh has the lowest literacy rate (60.47) among the four Southern states. Though Andhra Pradesh ranks last in literacy among the Southern states, there is remarkable increase of 17.03% in the state literacy rate, during the decade 1991-01 and this increase is highest when compared with increase in literacy rates of other Southern states²⁷.

If we look at the state of literacy in Andhra Pradesh, we can see that the literacy rate was 44.09% points in the 1991 and 60.47% points in 2001. While by 1991, in three decades it could achieve only an increase of 22.9%, by 2001, the increase in growth percentage is 17.02 over a period of 10 years. The state of literacy is not stagnant in the state and there are positive signs of growth in literacy indeed.

Literacy Rates in Andhra Pradesh



Source: Selected Educational Statistics DSE, AP 2000 - 2001

3.2.1 Literacy Status in Andhra Pradesh

The increase in literacy in Andhra Pradesh, especially in rural areas is quite remarkable. The below table depicts the literacy status among different groups of population in the state during 1991 and 2001. In Andhra Pradesh, literacy level has increased from 44.09 % in 1991 to 60.47% in 2001. With nearly 73% of the population living in rural areas, whose spatial distribution is unequal, the state has recorded a growth of 18.76 points in rural areas which

²⁷ Source: Selected Educational Statistics, DSE, AP 2000 - 2001

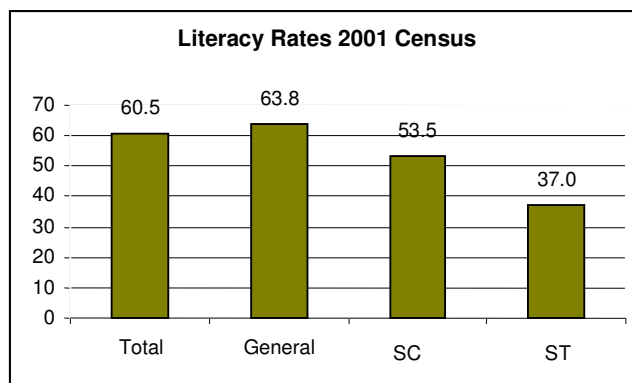
is higher than the urban areas. But even then in 2001, when compared to the literacy rate in urban areas (76.9%), the rural literacy rate (54.5%) lags behind urban areas with a huge gap of 22.4 points. It necessitates us to assess the challenges in spreading education and revisit the efforts which have helped us to come so far and also to make necessary amendments to face the challenge.

Similarly, there is a significant increase in literacy level among SC & ST population in the state. Among SCs, literacy rate has increased from 31.59% in 1991 to 53.52% in 2001 and among STs, it has increased from 17.16% in 1991 to 37.04% in 2001, which is nearly 20 points increase in both groups. Nonetheless, the fact that they are still lagging makes it essential to pay greater attention to bring them on equal status.

3.2.2 Literacy among SC & ST Population

According to 2001 Census, the SC & ST population has reported an average of 53.7 % and 37% literacy level in Andhra Pradesh. Highest literacy level among ST population is reported from Hyderabad (55.4%) and West Godavari (50.9%) following it. Among SC population also, Hyderabad (69.4%) and West Godavari (68.7%) has reported highest literacy level. Among the districts, Nellore which has the highest SC population of 22%, reported 65.1% literacy level which is above state average. Though below state average, Khammam which has 26.5% of the state ST population has reported 57.1% literacy level.

Literacy Rates in different population groups



3.2.3 Inter district disparity in literacy rates in Andhra Pradesh

Except Mahabubnagar which has lowest literacy rate of 44.41%, all other districts in the state have recorded literacy level of more than 50% where as 10 years back, only three districts had more than 50% literacy level. According to 1991 Census data also, Mahabubnagar (29.58%) have the lowest literacy level and Hyderabad (71.52%) have the

highest literacy level. The other districts which have low literacy level in the state are Vizianagaram (51.07%), Medak (51.65%), Nizamabad (52.02%) and Adilabad (52.68%). Hyderabad (78.8%) has the highest literacy followed by West Godavari (73.53%), Krishna (68.85%) and Chittoor (66.77%).

In terms of growth in total literacy rate, West Godavari ranks first among the districts in increase of literacy levels by achieving a growth of 20.16 points compared to 1991 literacy rate. Adilabad, Medak, Nalgonda and Srikakulam follow West Godavari in growth in literacy rate. Least growth in literacy rate is recorded in Hyderabad (7.28), Kurnool and Ananthapur. The average growth among the districts is recorded as 16.50 points.

The highest growth in literacy rate among men is observed in Adilabad which was only 45.04% in 1991 and rose to 64.98% in 2001. West Godavari accounts for the highest growth in literacy rate among women. Srikakulam has shown 20.16% growth that is little less than West Godavari between 1991 and 2001. Hyderabad has the highest literacy rate among both men & women. In spite of it being a capital city and with highest literacy rate in the state it has yet a long way to go to touch the 100% literacy mark.

3.2.4 Female Literacy in Andhra Pradesh - At a Glance

In 2001, the female literacy level in Andhra Pradesh is recorded as 50.43% which is 17.71 points higher than the literacy level of 32.72 % in 1991. The male literacy is 70.32 % in 2001 while it was 55.13 % in 1991. As stated above, the percentage increase of literacy level among male population (15.19 points) is lesser than among the female population (17.71) in the state. Nonetheless, the below table shows that fourteen out of the 23 districts records a variation of more than 20 points between male and female literacy level even in 2001. This shows the urgency to formulate specific strategies to improve female literacy in the state.

Difference in Male/ Female Literacy Levels among Districts

Difference in male/female literacy rate in points	Number of Districts	Districts
0-10 points (range 9.06 - 10.24)	2	East Godavari, West Godavari
10-20 points (range 11.2 - 19.56)	7	Hyderabad, Krishna, Nellore, Guntur, Khammam, Ranga Reddy, Vishakapatnam
Above 20 points (range 21.84 - 26.29)	14	Chittoor, Vizianagaram, Srikakulam, Warangal, Prakasam, Karimnagar, Nalgonda, Adilabad, Mahabubnagar, Ananthapur, Nizamabad, Medak, Kurnool, Cuddapah

3.2.5 Area-wise Variations in Literacy among Population Groups

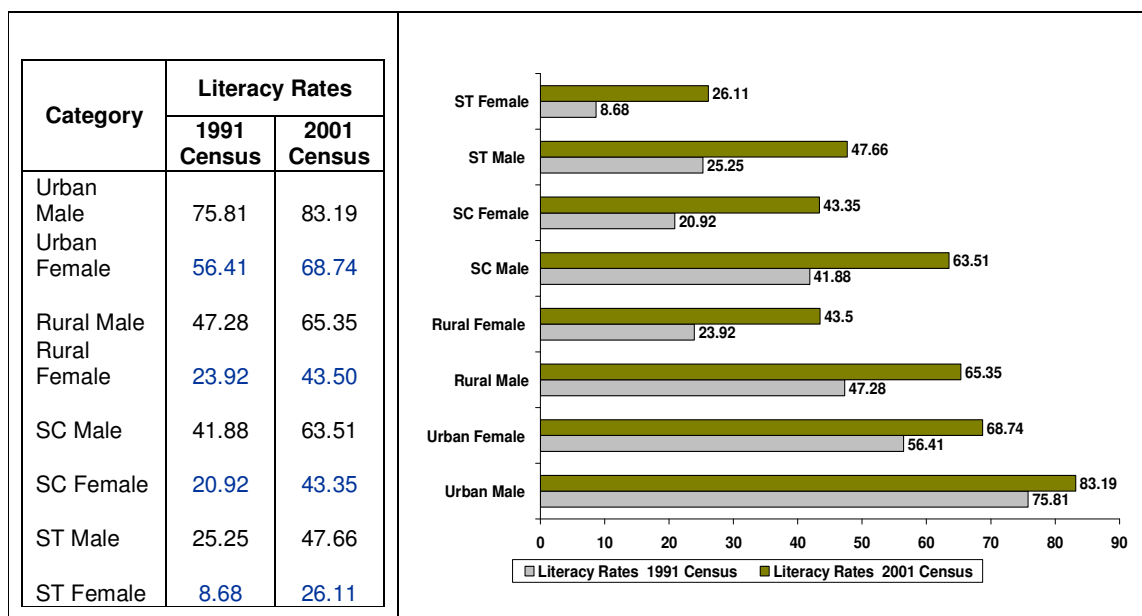
In 2001 census urban male has the highest literacy rates with 83.19% followed by urban female with 68.74%, which is 8.38 and 12.33 points more than what it had been in the 1991 census. Rural male ranks lower than both urban male & female in terms of literacy rates and rural female lagged behind rural male (who already lag behind urban male and female) both in the 1991 & 2001 census by more than 20 percent points.

Area wise Literacy Rates

Area	1991 Census			2001 Census		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Rural	47.28	23.92	35.74	65.35	43.5	54.5
Urban	75.81	56.41	66.32	83.19	68.74	76.09

Literacy rate among SC male is less than rural female and SC female ranks lower than SC male but preceded ST male who in turn is followed by ST female. The literacy rate is highest among urban males and lowest among ST female. These disadvantages children actually constitute the bulk of bonded labor.

Disparities in Literacy Rates among male & female in different population groups 1991 & 2001 Census



Low female literacy rate among these communities is primarily due to poverty compounded by their low caste status. In general, girls in Indian society have less access to every resource that generates income. In the case of SCs & STs the access in mainstream resources are further minimized because of their low social status. This is why the most

disadvantages sections are the SC & ST female while the latter's condition is worst. The scheduled tribes being away from mainstream culture, the learning materials provided make little sense to them as they can hardly relate those in their daily activities and this is one of the reasons being cited for children's learning difficulties.

In the rural areas, especially in case of the dalits and the tribals, NGOs have a significant role to play in the growth and spread of literacy among these communities. The question of reaching all parts of the state is not possible for the state alone. It requires the NGOs in fulfilling the task of spread of literacy, so the question of empowering the good NGOs can be made an issue.

3.2.6 Rural - Urban variation in Male & female literacy level in the districts 1991- 2001

The districts having maximum and minimum literacy rates among males and females in rural and urban areas of the state during 1991 and 2001 are given below for the purpose of comparative analysis on the literacy position. The literacy rates in the table reveal that the rate of literacy for male and female has never gone hand in hand. In the 1991 census, Kadapa accounted for the highest literacy rate among males (58.7%) in the rural areas. While West Godavari accounted for the highest rate of female literacy (43.31%) in the rural areas. The lowest male literacy (36.29%) in the rural areas was witnessed by Mahabubnagar, while lowest female literacy in Adilabad (13.26%). In 1991, the male and female literacy gap in highest literacy rate was 15 points while gap between lowest male and female literacy rate was 23 points.

But by 2001, West Godavari came to the leading position in rural literacy among male and female with 76.33 and 67.29 respectively with a reduced gap of 11 points. However, Mahabubnagar maintained its lowest level in male literacy level and also became lowest in female literacy level with a more or less same gender gap of 22 points.

Comparative Analysis of Male & Female literacy in Rural & Urban areas among Districts in 1991 & 2001

Rural - 1991 census					Urban - 1991 census			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	District	Literacy rate	District	Literacy rate	District	Literacy rate	District	Literacy rate
Maximum literacy rate	Kadapa	58.7	West Godavari	43.31	Nalgonda	81.27	Hyderabad	63.56
Minimum literacy rate	Mahbubnagar	36.29	Adilabad	13.64	Adilabad	68.63	Adilabad	44.12
Rural - 2001 census					Urban - 2001 census			
	District	Literacy rate	District	Literacy rate	District	Literacy rate	District	Literacy rate
	Maximum literacy rate	West Godavari	76.33	West Godavari	67.29	Nalgonda	88.55	West Godavari
Minimum literacy rate	Mahbubnagar	53.28	Mahbubnagar	31.89	Kurnool	76.45	Kurnool	57.37

In 1991, Urban Nalgonda male (81.27%) reported the highest literacy rate while Hyderabad accounted for the highest female literacy rate (63.56%). Adilabad experienced the lowest literacy rate among men (68.63%) and not surprisingly it also accounted for the lowest female literacy rate (44.12%). The gender gap among the maximum and minimum literacy rate was 18 points and 28 points respectively.

Though, in 2001, Nalgonda maintained its highest urban male literacy rate at 88.55%, West Godavari topped female literacy level at 75.71%. The lowest urban male and female literacy level is reported from Kurnool district at 76.45% and 57.37% respectively. The gender gap among the maximum and minimum literacy rate was reduced to 13 points and 19 points respectively.

In general, there is decline in gender gap in literacy levels in rural and urban areas but the decrease is remarkably low in rural areas. It is clear that Adilabad and West Godavari have achieved clear cut edge over other districts in improving their literacy levels. A detailed analysis of Adilabad and West Godavari districts to understand the success in increasing literacy level will be worthwhile.

Chapter IV

Reaching the Girl child

- Access
- Enrolment
- Enrolment Ratios
- Drop Outs

4. Reaching the Girl child

4.1 Access

“The concept of a National System of Education implies that, up to a given level, all students, irrespective of caste, creed, location or sex, have access to education of a comparable quality” says the Nation Policy on Education, 1986. It goes on to say “to promote equality, it will be necessary to provide for equal opportunity to all, not only in access, but also in the condition for success”.

This is quite the essence of the universalisation task, and means that needs of educationally disadvantaged groups would have to be given maximum attention. The largest such groups are: -

- Girls and women
- Scheduled castes and Scheduled tribes
- Minorities
- The handicapped, and
- Other educationally disadvantaged groups i.e. working children, slum-dwellers, inhabitants of hilly, desert and other inaccessible areas, etc.

4.1.1 Villages & Habitations in Rural Areas of Andhra Pradesh

Andhra Pradesh has an area of 2.75 lakhs sq. kms covering 8.37% of the total area of India. It is the largest among the Southern states of India in respect of area, and ranks fifth among the states of India in this regard. The state comprises of three natural regions which can be distinguished with one another from their historical, cultural and economic backgrounds - Coastal Andhra region, Rayalaseema and Telangana region.

Ananthapur district with an area of 19,130 sq.kms has the highest area among the districts. Hyderabad district with 217 sq.kms ranks last in respect of area. The State is divided into 23 districts²⁸ which are subdivided into 1117 panchayat mandals.

²⁸ Source: Census of India, 2001

* A habitation is a distinct cluster of houses existing in a compact manner with a local name. A village may consist of one or more habitations and one of the habitation may bear the name of the village itself. Andhra Pradesh is marked with small habitations which are widely spread across the state.

Among the districts in the state, Vishakapatnam district has highest number of villages (3107) followed by Srikakulam district with 1709 villages. Guntur has least number of villages (696) followed by West Godavari district with 834 villages.

Chittoor district is having highest number of rural habitations (9219) followed by Visakapatnam district with 5282 rural habitations. Nizamabad has least number of rural habitations (1518) followed by Ranga Reddy district with 1529 rural habitations. However the highest rural population (38.31 lakhs) is in East Godavari district and the least rural population (17.30 lakhs) is in Ranga Reddy district²⁹.

As per VII All India School Education Survey (2002), there are 26,646 villages and 66,416 habitations in the rural areas of the State. As on 30.09.2002, there is an estimated population of 7.69 crores in the state. Of this a population of 5.60 crores is in the rural areas constituting 73% of the total population. This indicates that the population of the state is predominantly inhabited in rural areas.

Rural Habitations in various population slabs - 2002

	Population Slabs				Total
	Below 300	300 - 499	Below 500	Above 500	
No. of Habitations	27328	10176	37504	28912	66416
% of habitations	41.15	15.32	56.47	43.53	100.00
Population	4003230	3952647	7955877	48082755	56038632
% of population	7.14	7.05	14.20	85.80	100.00

86% of the rural population resides in 28912 (43.5%) habitations which have more than 500 people living in it. There are 37504 rural habitations (56%) with population less than 500 and having 14 % of the rural population. Out of these 37504 habitations, 41% of the habitations (27328 habitations) have a population of less than 300 and they have only 7% of the total rural population. Considering the geographical terrain and spatial distribution of habitations which are scattered and delinked, providing primary schooling facilities within one kilometre of all such rural habitations is a daunting task before the state.

The challenge for the state is to provide quality education to the fewer number of children in the 41.15% habitations which have population less than 300. The villages are usually scattered and remote with poor all time weather connectivity. Even when we manage to reach the population, added to the above, the question of quality of education arises. On one side, most of the children in these remote regions are first generation learners, poor and

²⁹ Source -7th All India School Education Survey, 2002 – the figures are as on 30th Sept, 2002

have little exposure to the outside world and have low motivation to study. On the other side, poor infrastructure and teaching facilities in the school, non availability of teachers, even when available are less skilled and less qualified and who hardly motivate the children to study.

In the traditional Indian society, according to the scriptures and customs, women are to be always under the protective wings of her father or brother, husband or son depending on her life stage. Even today, they are considered to have special needs for physical protection and the society expects protection in terms of good school buildings, schools served by lady teachers and separate toilet facilities for girls etc. The closer the school is to home the lesser the parents worry about sending them to schools, as girls can be kept under watch. In habitations which are sparsely populated and dispersed, transport facilities are difficult and expensive; there distance is likely to matter more in enrolment and retention of girl child.

4.1.2 Expansion of schooling facilities

The Government of Andhra Pradesh has made tremendous effort to address these issues through state-wide interventions as well as area-specific educational programmes. It has put in concerted efforts in the expansion of schooling facilities. The number of primary schools increased nearly two times, upper primary schools by thirty times and secondary schools by fifteen times between 1956 – 57 and 2004 – 05. This has facilitated spread of both elementary and secondary education to remote areas of the state. There has been substantial expansion of elementary schools in the state in the recent years. The number of primary schools increased from 29000 in 1956-57 to 55900 in 2000-01. The expansion of schooling facilities continued during the current decade. In 2004, primary schools have further increased to 61680, upper primary schools to 16667 and secondary schools increased to 14342 .

4.1.3 Expansion of schooling facilities in Rural & Urban areas

Rural primary schools increased from 44,412 in 1993 to 53,883 in 2002, while urban primary schools increased from 4729 to 7245 during the same period. The growth in upper primary schools is phenomenal during this period. Rural schools increased from 4724 to 11,904 and urban schools increased from 1657 to 3191. The growth in secondary schools is also significant during this period. Rural secondary schools increased from 4762 to 8280 and urban secondary schools increased from 2197 to 4085. Girls' schools have also increased phenomenally in both rural and urban areas.

Area-wise Schooling Facilities (Total & Girl's schools) 1993 – 2002³⁰

Primary schools

Area	1993		2002		Growth % 1993-2002	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
Rural	44412	119	53883	614	21.33	415.97
Urban	4729	93	7245	246	53.2	164.52
Total	49141	212	61128	860	24.39	305.66

Upper primary schools

Area	1993		2002		Growth % 1993-2002	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
Rural	4724	29	11904	149	151.99	413.79
Urban	1657	38	3191	65	92.58	71.05
Total	6381	67	15095	214	136.56	219.4

Secondary schools

Area	1993		2002		Growth % 1993-2002	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
Rural	4762	139	8280	414	73.88	197.84
Urban	2197	347	4085	407	85.94	17.29
Total	6959	486	12365	821	77.68	68.93

4.1.4 Growth of Educational facilities in villages

90's have been watershed decade for expansion of schooling facilities. In 1993, 23535 (88%) villages as against a total of 26650 villages had facility of primary school within the villages. In 2002, 24774 (93%) villages out of 26646 villages had facility of primary school within the village. While the number of villages having the upper primary facility within the village increased from 8111 (30%) in 1993 to 13598 (51%) in 2002, the number of villages having the Secondary schools facility within the village increased from 4317 (16%) to 6447 (24%) in the same period.

³⁰ Source: VI AIES, 1993 Report, VII AISES, 2002, Data Tables

Villages by population slab having facilities for Education³¹

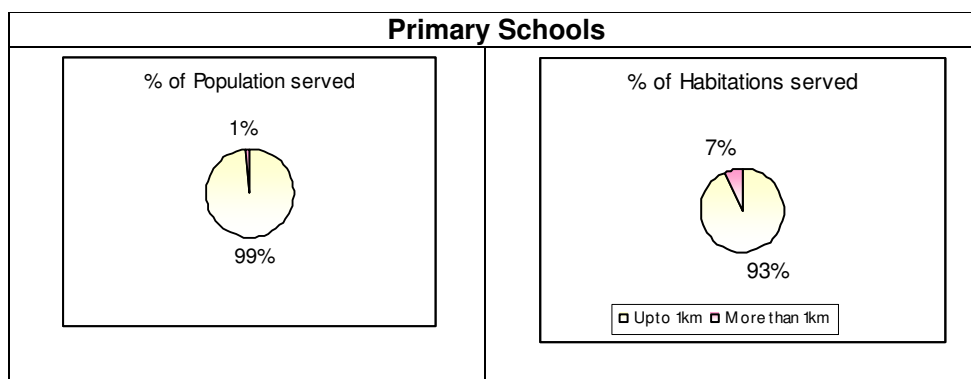
Level	No. of Villages		% inc /dec	No. of villages having facilities		% of villages having facilities	
	1993	2002	1993-2000	1993	2002	1993	2002
Primary	26650	26646	-0.02	23535	24774	88.31	92.97
Upper Primary				8111	13598	30.44	51.03
Secondary				4317	6447	16.20	24.20

4.1.5 Education facilities in Rural Habitations

Providing elementary education to all, with an ever increasing population is not an easy task. The number of rural habitations increased from 62905 in 1993 to 66416 in 2002 (increase of 5.8%). The facility for primary education is available within the habitation in 51482 habitations (77.5%) and within a walking distance of 1.0 km in 61594 (92.7%) habitations. 98.7% of the rural population living in 66,416 habitations has access to primary school within a radius of 1km.

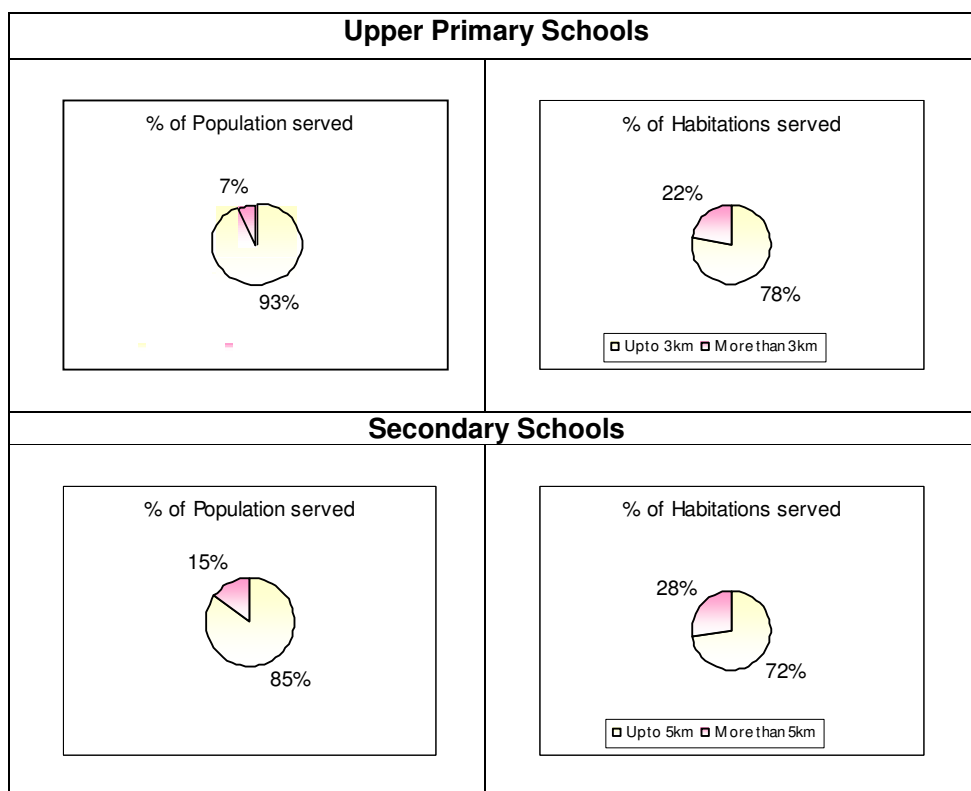
The facility for upper primary education is available within the habitation in 15917 habitations (23.9%) and within a walking distance of 3.0 km in 51605 (77.7%) habitations. 91% of the rural population have access to upper primary school within a radius of 3km. The facility for secondary education is available within the habitation in 6738 habitations (10%) and within a walking distance of 5.0 km in 48148 (72.5%) habitations. 85% of the rural population have access to secondary school within a radius of 5km.

Rural Population / Habitations served by Schools, 2002³²



³¹ Ibid

³² Source: VII AISES, 2002



4.1.6 Education facilities in Rural Habitations in various population slabs

A close look at the habitations in various population slabs shows the expansion of schooling facilities in the densely populated habitations. In 2002³³, 99% of the habitations with population 5000 and above are provided with primary schooling facility within one kilometre. 88% of the habitations with population below 500 and 93% of the population in this population slab have access to primary school within a radius of 1 km.

Primary -2002

Population slab	No of habitations	No of habitations served by primary education facility				% of population served	
		Within the habitation		upto 1.0 km distance		within the habitation	Upto 1.0 km distance
		No.	%	No.	%		
5000 & above	1073	1069	99.63	1072	99.91	99.71	99.92
2000 - 4999	5597	5556	99.27	5582	99.73	99.27	99.75
1000 - 1999	9789	9598	98.05	9729	99.39	98.16	99.43
500 - 999	12453	11923	95.74	12324	98.96	96.01	99.02
Below 500	37504	23336	62.22	32887	87.69	77.53	93.39
Total	66416	51482	77.51	61594	92.74	95.47	98.68

³³ Ibid

99% of the habitations with population 5000 and above are provided with middle level schooling facility within three kilometres. 68.8% of the habitations with population below 500 and 72.8% of the population in this slab have access to upper primary school within a radius of 3km.

Upper Primary-2002

Population slab	No of habitations	No of habitations served by upper primary education facility				% of population served	
		Within		upto 3.0 km distance		within the habitation	Upto 3.0 km distance
		No.	%	No.	%		
5000 & above	1073	1042	97.11	1072	99.91	97.34	99.93
2000 – 4999	5597	5009	89.49	5497	98.21	90.53	98.42
1000 – 1999	9789	5884	60.11	8918	91.10	62.57	91.75
500 – 999	12453	2785	22.36	10300	82.71	23.90	83.02
Below 500	37504	1197	3.19	25818	68.84	48.00	72.85
Total	66416	15917	23.97	51605	77.70	62.10	90.97

99% of the habitations with population 5000 and above are provided with secondary schooling facility within five kilometres. 65% of the habitations with population below 500 and 68.8% of the population have access to Secondary school within a radius of 5km.

Secondary-2002

Population slab	No of habitations	No of habitations served by Secondary education facility				% of population served	
		Within the habitation		upto 5.0 km distance		within the habitation	Upto 5.0 km distance
		No.	%	No.	%		
5000 & above	1073	961	89.56	1067	99.44	91.32	99.62
2000 – 4999	5597	3166	56.57	5100	91.12	59.90	91.94
1000 – 1999	9789	1694	17.31	7949	81.20	18.79	81.51
500 – 999	12453	592	4.75	9493	76.23	5.04	76.40
Below 500	37504	325	0.87	24539	65.43	1.25	68.84
Total	66416	6738	10.15	48148	72.49	37.99	84.91

4.1.7 Education facilities in SC habitations

Establishment of primary schools in smaller habitations had led to phenomenal growth in the primary schools facilities and enrolment of children particularly among girls, Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST).

The number of SC habitations increased from 6985 in 1993 to 7920 in 2002 (increase of 13.4%). 7438 SC habitations (94%) have facility of primary school within 1km. 98% of the population in these habitations have the facility within 1km walking distance. 6,650 SC

habitations (84%) and 90% of the population are served by upper primary school within 3km distance. 6275 SC habitations (79%) and 85% of the population are served by secondary school within 5km distance.

4.1.8 Education facilities in ST habitations

The number of ST habitations increased from 13171 in 1993 to 16,317 in 2002 (increase of 24%). 13,736 ST habitations (84%) and 94% of the population have facility of primary school within 1km walking distance. 8,673 ST habitations (53%) and 66% of the population are served by upper primary school within 3km distance. 8270 ST habitations (51%) and 61% of the population are served by secondary school within 5km distance. Girijan Vidya Vikas Kendras at primary level and Ashram schools at middle and secondary levels are provided in the 11 districts which have predominant tribal population.

4.1.9 Ratio among various stages

DPEP and SSA have facilitated establishment of primary schools in the un-served habitations, especially through alternative schools in habitations with low population. This has helped in raising the ratio between upper primary and primary schools to 1:2 which is one of the mandates of SSA.

Expansion in schooling facilities under the two programmes of DPEP and SSA and also the initiatives of the state government has helped to reduce the ratio between primary and upper primary schools from 1:4 in 1993 to 1:2 in 2002. State government have opened 7351 new Primary schools in school-less habitations and upgraded 4352 primary schools to upper primary schools. The ratio between upper primary and secondary schools is also 1:2 which indicates phenomenal expansion at all levels.

Ratio of Primary - Upper Primary Schools Upper Primary Schools - Secondary Schools³⁴

Year	Schools with		Ratio	Schools with		Ratio
	Primary Stage	Upper Primary Stage		Upper Primary Stage	Secondary Stage	
1993	49141	13340	4:1	13340	6959	2:1
2000	55901	20081	3:1	20081	10277	2:1
2002	61128	27460	2:1	27460	12365	2:1
2004	61680	31009	2:1	31009	14342	2:1

³⁴ Selected Education Statistics (of the respective years), Director of School Education, AP, Hyderabad

4.1.10 Management - wise Distribution of Schools

The 1990's in India have witnessed increase in private participation in many fields ranging from manufacturing goods, power generation, to service sectors like hospitals and schools. Private sector has made its presence felt in the field of education both in rural and urban areas. In the same period, State Government initiatives coupled with the centrally sponsored programmes of DPEP and SSA have facilitated expansion of schools in the government sector. The massive holistic programmes of DPEP and SSA have made heavy investments in terms of providing infrastructure and teachers in the elementary schools.

Private schools have a right to exist under the Constitution. In the high literacy districts of East Godavari, West Godavari, Krishna and Hyderabad districts, the participation of private sector dates back to the early 1950s and 60s.

Educational institutions established by individuals, groups and various religious institutions continue to provide education under the private sector. However, in recent years private education institutions have gained new prominence and meaning. Increased demand for private education by parents and decline in quality of education in government schools with its massive expansion in the same period are causes of concern.

Management – wise Schools 1993 -2002

Category:		Primary Schools				
		Management				
		G	LB	PA	PU	Total
1993	No.	3,486	42,174	1,997	1,484	49,141
	%	7.09	85.82	4.06	3.02	100
2002	No.	5,486	49,773	2,282	3,587	61,128
	%	8.97	81.42	3.73	5.87	100
Category:		Upper Primary Schools				
		Management				
		G	LB	PA	PU	Total
1993	No.	365	4,734	441	841	6,381
	%	5.72	74.19	6.91	13.18	100
2002	No.	544	10,244	520	3,787	15,095
	%	3.6	67.86	3.44	25.09	100
Category:		Secondary Schools				
		Management				
		G	LB	PA	PU	Total
1993	No.	656	4,636	735	932	6,959
	%	9.43	66.62	10.56	13.39	100
2002	No.	1,134	6,807	873	3,551	12,365
	%	9.17	55.05	7.06	28.72	100

G- Government, LB - Local Body, PA - Pvt. Aided, PU - Pvt. Unaided

Source: Report of VI AIES, 1993 and Tables of VII All India Educational Survey, 2002 in Andhra Pradesh

The VI and VII AISES conducted in the state in 1993 and 2002 throw light on the trends in the percentage share of schools under various managements. The share of private schools in rural areas is not that significant. The rural areas in the state still depend upon government and local body schools. At primary level, government/local body schools, together form 90% of the total schools. In urban areas, however, the size of the private sector, particularly unaided schools, has increased tremendously. In urban areas, 32% of the primary, 62% of the upper primary and 58% of the secondary schools are under private unaided sector.

In terms of absolute expansion, government and local body primary schools increased from forty five thousand in 1993 to fifty five thousand in 2002 (ie, 21% increase). Similarly, upper primary schools in government and local bodies has increased from five thousands in 1993 to eleven thousand in 2002 (112% increase) and for secondary schools from five thousand to eight thousands (50% increase). In spite of the phenomenal increase in numbers, the percentage share of government/local body upper primary schools has declined from 80% in 1993 to 71% in 2002. Similarly, in secondary schools category the share has declined from 76% in 1993 to 64% in 2002. On the other hand, private unaided primary schools increased from 1484 in 1993 to 3587 in 2002 (140 % increase). The expansion in upper primary and secondary schools was also rapid in the period with an increase from 841 to 3787 (350% increase) and 932 to 3551 (280% increase) in 2002 respectively. With a declining population trend, the above said two competing bodies have increased tremendously in infrastructure. But, a brief view at the enrolment in these schools in the next session shows that the private schools are bagging away the children from government sector, both in rural and urban areas.

4.1.11 District – wise schooling facilities:

93 % of the rural habitations in the state have primary school facility within a walking distance of 1 km. In fifteen districts of the state more than 93% of the rural habitations have the facility within 1 km. While 77.7% of the rural habitations in the state have upper primary school facility within a walking distance of 3 km, 72.5% of the habitations have secondary school facility within 5 km. In case of upper primary stage, fourteen districts and twelve districts in case of secondary have recorded more than their respective state average in having the educational facility as for the norms.

Chittoor(9218), Visakapatnam(5282), Cuddapah(3999), Srikakulam(3867), Adilabad(3378), Mahaboobnagar(3247) districts have high number of rural habitations. Whereas

Nizamabad(1517), Kurnool(1528), Rangareddi(1529), Guntur(1738) and Krishna(1761) have less than two thousand rural habitations. Krishna, Rangareddi, Nizamabad and West Godavari districts which have fewer habitations have almost universalised access at elementary level and to a great extent at secondary level. In districts of Visakapatnam(5282), Adilabad(3378) and Khammam(2911) which have of high number of rural habitations and which are predominantly inhabited by tribals, access to schools, particularly upper primary and secondary levels is a matter of concern.

4.2 Enrolment

4.2.1 Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE)

In the last decade, there is a phenomenal expansion of schooling facilities and enrolment at all levels of education in Andhra Pradesh. However, retention of children has not shown concomitant growth with enrolment. The Constitutional commitment to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen years, within ten years of its promulgation remains unfulfilled. This is largely on account of the inability of the system to retain children. Mere expansion of schooling facilities will not result in enrolment and retention of the children. Issues like infrastructure facilities, quality of teaching, relevance of curriculum also play a major role in universalisation of enrolment and retention. A strong gender focus has shown positive results in enrolment of girls at elementary level.

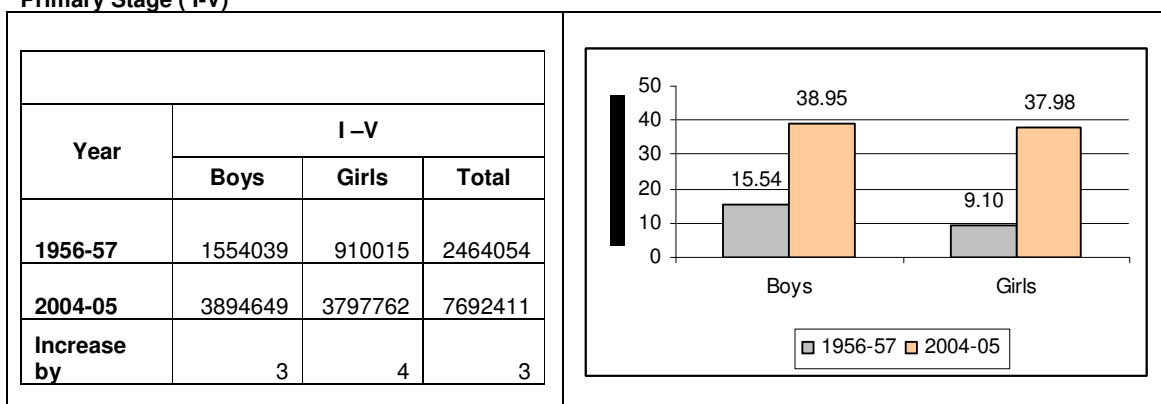
4.2.2 Growth in Enrolment at Various Stages of Education

There has been a phenomenal increase in enrolments at all levels of education in the last four decades. In comparative terms, primary enrolment for girls has increased about four fold, whereas the increase at subsequent levels is far higher, i.e., twenty five times for middle, forty times for secondary in the period 1956-57 to 2004-05. The growth rate of girls' enrolment is higher than that of boys on account of starting from a much lower base and also on the account of sustained state effort to promote education of girls.

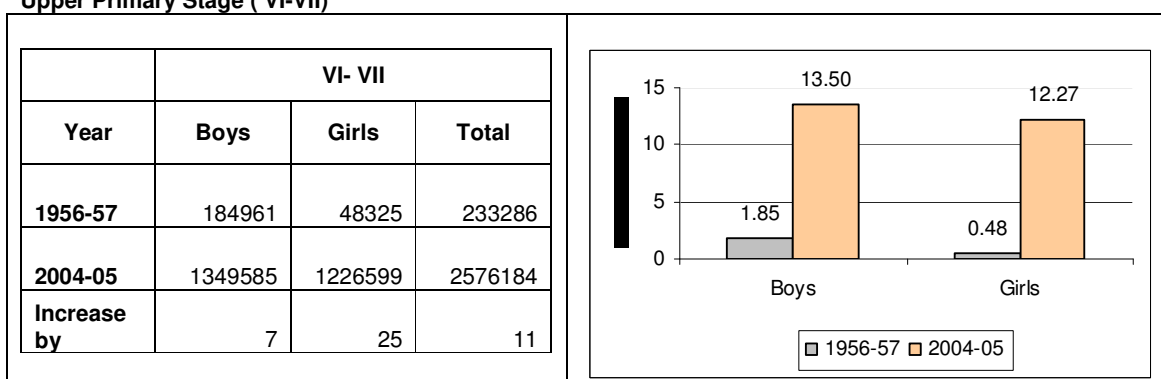
The enrolment of girls has grown steadily in the last five decades. The number of girls at primary stage has gone up from 9.1 lakhs in 1956-57 to 37.98 lakhs in 2004-05. The corresponding increase at upper primary level is from 0.48 lakhs to 12.27 lakhs. The increase at secondary level is from 0.33 lakhs to 13.09 lakhs. The enrolment of girls has increased significantly at all levels of education in this period particularly at primary level.

Enrolment by stages 1956-57 to 2000-01

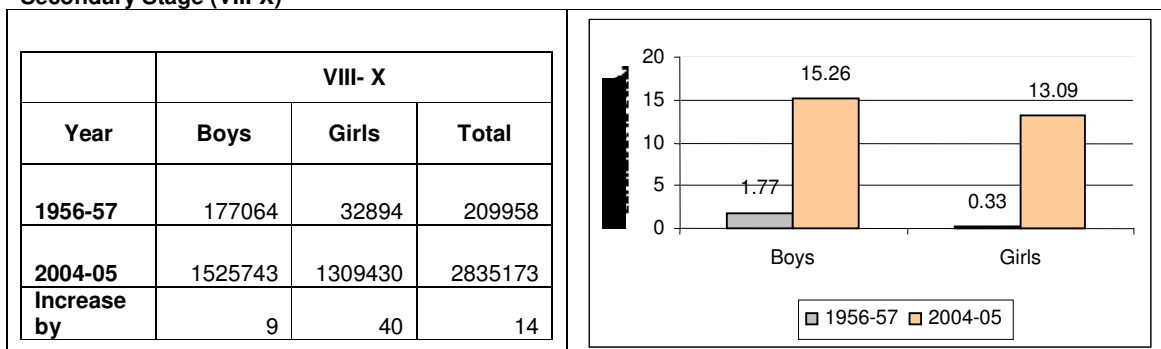
Primary Stage (I-V)



Upper Primary Stage (VI-VII)



Secondary Stage (VIII-X)



Source: Selected Educational Statistics, 2000-01, and 2004-05 C&DSE.

4.2.3 Millennium Development Goals (MDG) – Achieving Gender Parity in Primary and Secondary Levels of Education

The millennium development goal sets a target of achieving gender parity in primary and secondary levels by 2005. In terms of enrolment at primary level, Andhra Pradesh has achieved the target by 2004 itself. The growth rate of enrolment of girls at Upper primary and secondary levels is rapid and the current boy-girl ratios are 52: 47 and 54: 46 respectively. However, attaining gender parity at upper primary and secondary levels remain to be achieved. If the current trend of growth in girls' enrolment is maintained, particularly at upper

primary (8% per annum) and secondary levels (13% per annum), gender parity can be achieved by 2008 positively.

Gender Parity in Enrolment

Year	Percentage of Enrolment to Total Enrolment					
	Primary Stage		Upper Primary Stage		Secondary Stage	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1956	63.07	36.93	79.29	20.71	84.33	15.67
2000	51.12	48.88	55.26	44.74	57.15	42.85
2004	50.63	49.37	52.39	47.61	53.81	46.19
Target Year 2006	51	49	51	49	52	48
Target Year 2008	51	49	51	49	51	49

4.2.4 Stage -wise Enrolment in rural-urban areas

The enrolment has increased in both rural and urban areas in the period 1993 to 2002. The enrolment in all stages (classes I – X) has increased from 100.39 lakhs to 134.45 lakhs in this period. The enrolment has increased by 37.5% in rural areas and 25.7% in urban areas. However the growth in rural enrolment is significantly high in upper primary (84.6%) and secondary (84.7%) levels.

Considering that 73% of the state population lives in rural areas, educational opportunities after the primary level are disproportionately bagged by urban girls. Rural girls constitute 75% of all girl students at the primary level. This drops to 67% at middle level and 59% at secondary level.

Stage- wise, Area- wise Enrolment of Girls

Sl. No.	Stage	1993		2002	
		Girls	% of Girls to total girls	Girls	% of Girls to total girls
1	Primary Stage (I-V)				
	i) Rural	2354032	72.88	3184521	74.90
	ii) Urban	875917	27.12	1066909	25.10
2	Upper Primary Stage (VI-VII)				
	i) Rural	333225	55.11	776733	67.19
	ii) Urban	271414	44.89	379236	32.81

3	Secondary Stage (VIII- X)				
	i) Rural	254394	46.07	620432	59.04
	ii) Urban	297845	53.93	430446	40.96
4	All Stages (I- X)				
	i) Rural	2941651	67.06	4581686	70.94
	ii) Urban	1445176	32.94	1876591	29.06

Source: Tables of Seventh All India Education Survey, 2002

4.2.5 Growth Rate in Enrolment

The growth rate of girls enrolment at primary stage between 1993(VI AIES) and 2002(VII AIES) is 32% as compared to 13% for boys. The growth rate of girls enrolment at both upper primary and secondary levels has crossed 90% while the boys growth rate is 47% and 44% respectively. The growth in enrolment of rural girls in upper primary and secondary stages is phenomenal in this period, with growth rates of 133 and 144 percent respectively.

Area wise Growth rate in Enrolment 1993 - 2002³⁵

Primary Stage (I-V)

Area	Boys	Girls	Total
Rural	11.37	35.28	22.02
Urban	20.09	21.80	20.93
Total	13.44	31.63	21.74

Gender	Rural	Urban
Boys	11	20
Girls	35	22

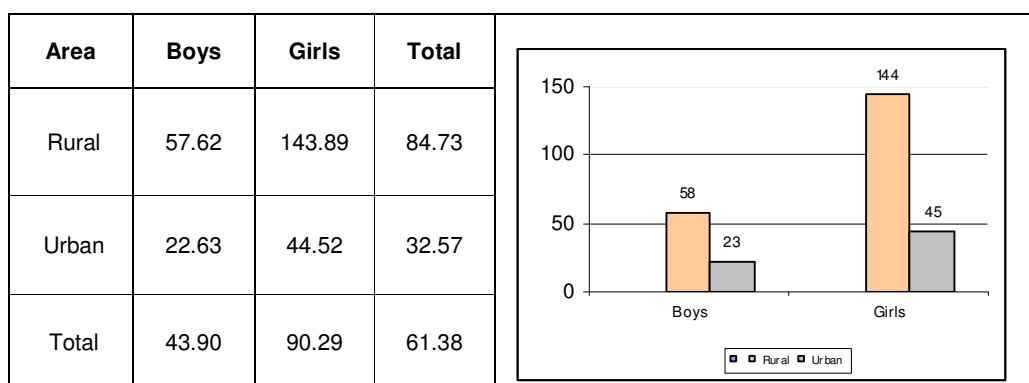
Upper Primary Stage (VI-VII)

Area	Boys	Girls	Total
Rural	57.05	133.10	84.59
Urban	26.74	39.73	32.84
Total	46.66	91.18	64.64

Gender	Rural	Urban
Boys	57	27
Girls	133	40

³⁵ Supra Note 30

Secondary Stage (VIII-X)



4.2.6 Percentage share of girl's enrolment to total

The percentage share of girls has shown a steady increase at all levels. During 1956-57 to 2000-01, the share of girls in primary stage went up from 37 to 48 percent. At upper primary stage, the percentage share of girls went up from 20.7 to 44.7%, in this period and has further increased to 47.6 in 2004 -05. Similarly, at secondary stage their share has risen from 15.6 in 1956-57 to 42.8 in 2000-01 and further to 46.1 in 2004 - 05. A close look at the data shows that, girls lag behind boys at all levels. The proportion of girls declines with every successive higher level. Although girls' enrolment has grown at a faster rate than that of boys, they continue to lag behind, with their proportion to the total enrolment going down with every successive higher level.

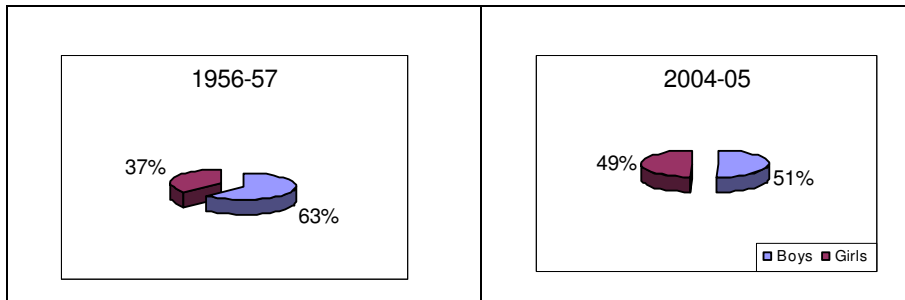
Percentage of girls in school enrolment 1956-57 to 2004-05³⁶

Year	Primary (I-V)	Upper Primary (VI-VII)	Secondary (VIII-X)	Total (I-X)
1956-57	37.08	20.71	15.67	34.22
2000-01	48.88	44.74	42.85	47.29
2004-05	49.37	47.61	46.19	48.34

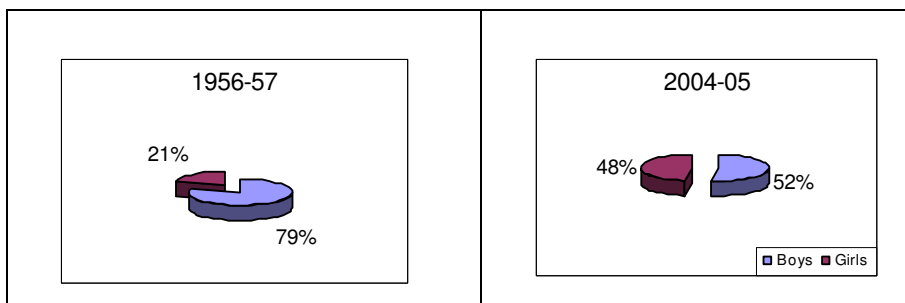
³⁶ Supra Note 34

Percentage of girls in school enrolment 1956-57 to 2004-05

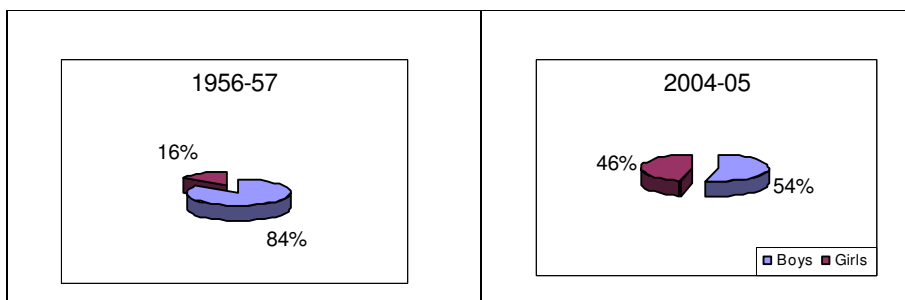
Primary Stage (I-V)



Upper Primary Stage (VI-VII)



Secondary Stage (VIII-X)



4.2.7 Area - wise Percentage share of girl's enrolment to total

A close look at rural-urban growth between 1993(VI AIES) and 2002(VII AIES) clearly shows a marked improvement in girls enrolment and their percentage share in all stages of education. At primary level, percentage of rural girls is on par with urban girls. However, percentage of rural girls at upper primary and secondary levels remain at 45.7 and 41.5 respectively, while the percentage share of girls at all levels in urban areas has crossed 49 percent. Male-female gaps are closing in urban areas but continue to be wide in rural areas.

Strategies are to be focussed on enrolment and retention of rural girls at upper primary and secondary levels.

Area - wise Percentage of Girls Enrolment 1993-2002

Stage	1993			2002		
	Rural	Urban	Total	Rural	Urban	Total
Primary Stage	44.54	48.89	45.64	49.38	49.25	49.35
Upper Primary Stage	36.22	47.00	40.38	45.74	49.44	46.89
Secondary Stage	31.43	45.40	37.68	41.49	49.49	44.43

Source: Report of VI AIES, 1993 and Tables of VII All India Educational Survey, 2002 in Andhra Pradesh

4.2.8 Management - wise Enrolment

Private unaided schools, which by and large run from classes I to X make their presence felt in upper primary and secondary schools, with percentage share of 24% and 26% respectively. Nearly one fourth of the total enrolment in these two types of schools is in private unaided sector. In rural areas, their share in enrolment is 5.5%, 15.3% and 11.9% in primary, upper primary and secondary schools respectively. However, in urban areas, their share is 42, 51.9 and 51.4% respectively. In urban areas of the state, more than 51% of the children in upper primary and high schools are captured by the fee- charging private unaided schools.

4.2.9 Participation of Girls in Higher levels of Education:

There is a tremendous increase in the participation of girls at all levels of education. The participation of girls in diploma level technical education is 31% in technical, industrial, arts and crafts courses and in polytechnics. Girls form nearly half of those receiving primary teacher training in DIETs. In higher education, women form about 40% of the Arts and Science students. Commerce education is emerging as another strong area with women forming 40% of the graduate level and more than half of the post graduate students. In the three major professional courses at the first degree level, women form 44% of the B. Ed. students, 35% in MBBS and 31% in B.E./ B.Sc. (Engg.)/ B.Arch).

4.2.10 Declining Enrolment in Schools – A cause of concern:

Reaching the children in the remote rural areas is no more a challenge for the state. According to the norms, primary schools are provided in almost all the habitations and villages in the state. But the problem lies in isolation of schools, irregularity in teacher attendance, lack of teaching facilities and retention of children from far off and remote villages. This scenario is aggravated by the increase in private schools even in villages and

decrease in population since last decade. The percentage of primary schools without even fifty school children enrolled has increased from 26 % in 1993 to 49 % in 2004. Similar is the case of upper primary schools, the percentage has increased from 2.55 % in 1993 to 15% in 2004. However, the secondary schools are showing stability in enrolment throughout the decade. As seen in the earlier sections, lack of suitable access for schooling of rural girls at secondary level of education and lack of proper access for schooling of S.T. girls at Upper Primary and Secondary levels are also issues to be addressed.

In this scenario, increasing the number of primary schools may not be an answer to address the issue of increasing literacy level and girl's education, in fact what we may have to address is to increase the monitoring and quality of education. Efforts should be raised to ensure that the children in these primary schools are not dropped out and are enrolled at higher levels. Special attention needs to be given to upgrade primary schools into upper primary and secondary levels in areas with predominantly SC and ST population. Further in other rural and urban areas, residential schools and enhancement of bus facilities can provide a viable alternative to the smaller schools catering to the rural remote habitations at Upper Primary and Secondary levels.

Category: Primary Schools

Area		Schools With Size Of Enrolment					Total
		Upto 50	51-100	101-200	201-400	Above 400	
1993	No	12782	17304	13422	4859	774	49141
	%	26.01	35.21	27.31	9.89	1.58	100
2002	No	25183	16397	14280	6123	1379	63362
	%	39.74	25.88	22.54	9.66	2.18	100
2004	No	30011	13706	12143	4608	1212	61680
	%	48.66	22.22	19.69	7.47	1.96	100

Category: Upper Primary Schools

Area		Schools With Size Of Enrolment					Total
		Upto 50	51-100	101-200	201-400	Above 400	
1993	No	10	163	2001	3443	764	6381
	%	0.16	2.55	31.36	53.96	11.97	100
2002	No	158	1172	6062	6674	1044	15110
	%	1	7.8	40.1	44.2	6.9	100
2004	No	271	2445	7835	5447	669	16667
	%	1.6	14.7	47	32.7	4	100

Category: Secondary Schools

Area		Schools With Size Of Enrolment					Total
		Upto 50	51-100	101-200	201-400	Above 400	
1993	No	10	163	2001	3443	764	6381
	%	0.16	2.55	31.36	53.96	11.97	100
2002	No	135	824	3251	5194	3166	12570
	%	1.07	6.56	25.86	41.32	25.19	100
2004	No	169	962	3760	5747	3704	14342
	%	1.18	6.71	26.22	40.07	25.83	100

Source: Report of VI AIES, 1993 and Tables of VII All India Educational Survey, 2002 in Andhra Pradesh & Selected Educational Statistics -2004, Director of School Education, AP, Hyderabad

4.3 Enrolment Ratios

At primary level, the enrolment ratio of girls is marginally above boys. This is a good indication and reflects the high awareness of parents about advantages of elementary schooling for girls. Rapid expansion of schooling facilities at primary level particularly between 2000 and 2005 has facilitated this growth.

The gap in enrolment ratios at upper primary and secondary levels continue to remain but are gradually narrowing down. However, intra female disparities between rural-urban areas and among general population - scheduled castes and scheduled tribes are sharp.

4.3.1 Enrolment ratios at Elementary level

Enrolment ratios (percentage of children to an age group) moved up constantly up to 2000-01. In 2000-01, the enrolment ratio at primary level was 111% for boys and 109% for girls, At the upper primary level girls' enrolment ratio was only 48.62% compared to 58.71% for boys (2000-01). Rural urban divide is the sharpest among girls at secondary stage and higher education is a predominantly urban phenomenon. Few rural girls make it to the secondary and higher education.

Enrolment Ratios 1956-57 to 2000-01

Stage	1956-57			2000-01		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Primary Classes (I-V)	72.38	43.28	57.94	111.59	109.09	110.35
Upper Primary Classes (VI-VII)	21.82	5.55	13.77	58.71	48.62	53.72

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, 2000-01, C&DSE and previous volumes.

As per sixth All India Educational survey, 1993 the gross enrolment ratio at primary level was 77 and 71 percent for total children and girls respectively. In 2002, this has increased to 95 and 96 percent respectively. At upper primary level there is substantial increase from 42 and 34.7 percent to 62 and 59 percent respectively. Enrolment and retention of girls at upper primary and secondary levels continue to be issues of concern.

Gross Enrolment Ratio³⁷

Classes	1993		2002	
	Total	Girls	Total	Girls
I- V	77.20	71.40	95.00	96.00
VI- VII	42.00	34.70	62.00	59.00

In 2004-05, enrolment ratios have gone up substantially at upper primary level. 110% girls are enrolled in primary classes (6-11 year age group) compared to 109% boys. At the upper primary level 76% girls and 82% boys (11-13 years age group) have been enrolled. At secondary level though there is a steady increase the ratios are still below 60% with girls enrolment ratio at 50%.

Enrolment Ratios 2004-05³⁸

Stage	2004-05		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Primary Classes (I-V)	109.26	110.52	109.88
Upper Primary Classes (VI-VII)	82.27	76.07	79.20
Secondary Classes (VIII-X)	57.13	50.25	53.73

As gross enrolment ratio includes an estimated 25 to 30% over age and under age children, it would take considerable time to reach net enrolment ratio of 100 in age group 6-14 years.

4.3.2 Inter District Disparities in Enrolment Ratio of Girls

The inter-district disparities in enrolment ratios are wide. All the telangana districts have enrolment ratios higher than the state average (110%) at both primary and upper primary levels. As gross enrolment ratio includes an estimated 25 to 30% over age and under age children, it would take considerable time to reach net enrolment ratio of 100 in age group 6-14 years.

The inter district disparities are wide. High female literacy districts (above 50%) have universalised primary enrolments among girls. However enrolment ratios in these districts are below the state average both at primary and upper primary levels. The child population estimates of these districts may not be close to the actual figures.

4.4 Drop outs

In the earlier sections the progress in enrolment at all levels is discussed. But many children who are enrolled in the first class dropout and lapse into illiterates. In Andhra Pradesh, as in

³⁷ Supra Note 30

³⁸ Supra Note 34

several other states in the country, the majority of children who leave school without completing the primary cycle are girls. Among girls, drop out rates are much higher among the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes who are economically and educationally the most disadvantaged in our population.

4.4.1 Dropout Rate at Elementary Stage

In the last four decades, dropouts at primary stage have declined substantially. The decline is sharp between 2000-01 and 2004-05. However, the dropouts at upper primary stage continue to be high with more than 50% of the children enrolled in class I dropping out of the system before completing elementary education.

**Dropout Rate at Elementary Stage in Andhra Pradesh
1970 - 71 to 2004 - 05**

Year	Primary stage (classes I-V)			Elementary stage (classes I-VII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1970-71	69.34	72.53	70.65	77.8	86.91	81.59
1980-81	58.48	62.87	60.31	64.4	73.19	67.98
1990-91	52.64	57.47	54.74	61.62	69.56	65.07
2000-01	37.15	37.12	37.14	54.34	58.79	56.43
2004-05	31.77	32.14	31.95	51.96	54.46	53.17

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, AP, 2000-01 & 2004-05

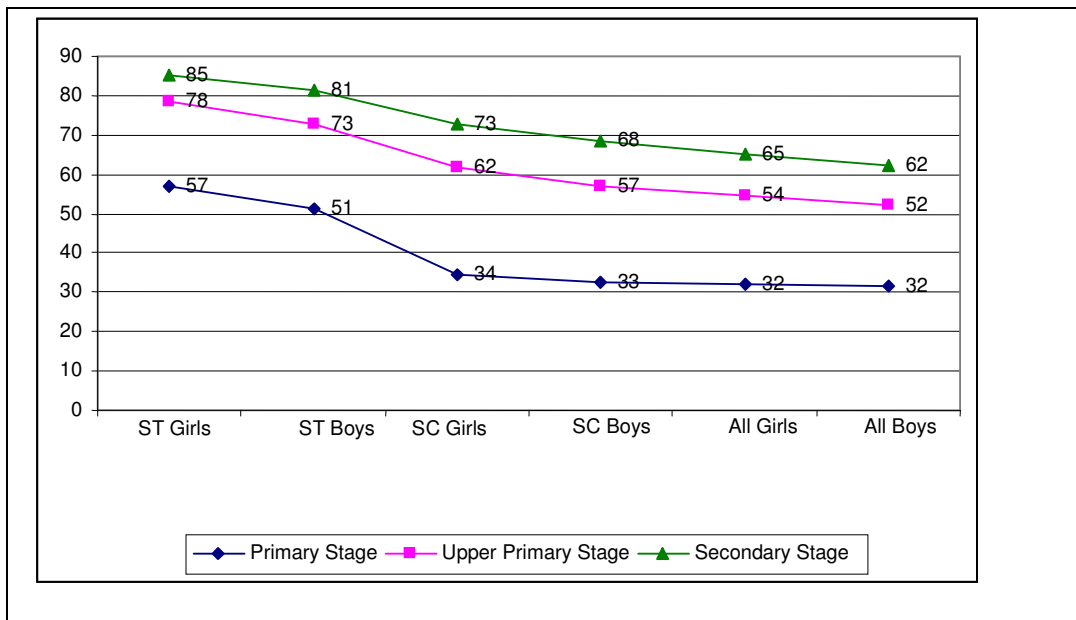
The Government has implemented several schemes and projects between 1996 and 2005. District Primary Education Programme (DPEP), and Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) are the major programmes funded by Government of India which focused on the elementary education. Joint UN programme, Janashala provided support in the backward mandals of four high literacy districts of East Godavari, West Godavari, Krishna and Hyderabad. These schemes have provided the much required inputs in terms of new schools, buildings, equipment, TLM and the much required recurring grant in the shape of school grant and teacher grant. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan is being continued during the tenth plan period. Midday meal programme of the state government provided the much needed nutritional support to primary school children. However, these programmes could not bring down the dropouts as planned and envisioned. Dropout rates of girls, SCs and STs are still high particularly at upper primary and secondary levels.

4.4.2 Enrolment and Wastage at various levels

The enrolment ratios in the state have increased over a period of time and are above 100% at primary level. However the retention rates are low and out of every 100 children in Class I only 69 reach Class V and 48 reach class VII and only 38 reach class X. These figures suggest the enormous problem of wastage despite considerable increase in enrolment.

Dropout Rates – 2004-05

Category	Primary Stage (%)	Upper Primary Stage (%)	Secondary Stage (%)
ST Girls	56.94	78.37	85.11
ST Boys	51.27	72.69	81.16
SC Girls	34.4	61.65	72.59
SC Boys	32.77	56.92	68.42
All Girls	32.14	54.46	65.24
All Boys	31.77	51.96	62.30



Source: Selected Educational Statistics, 2004-05, Director of School Education, AP

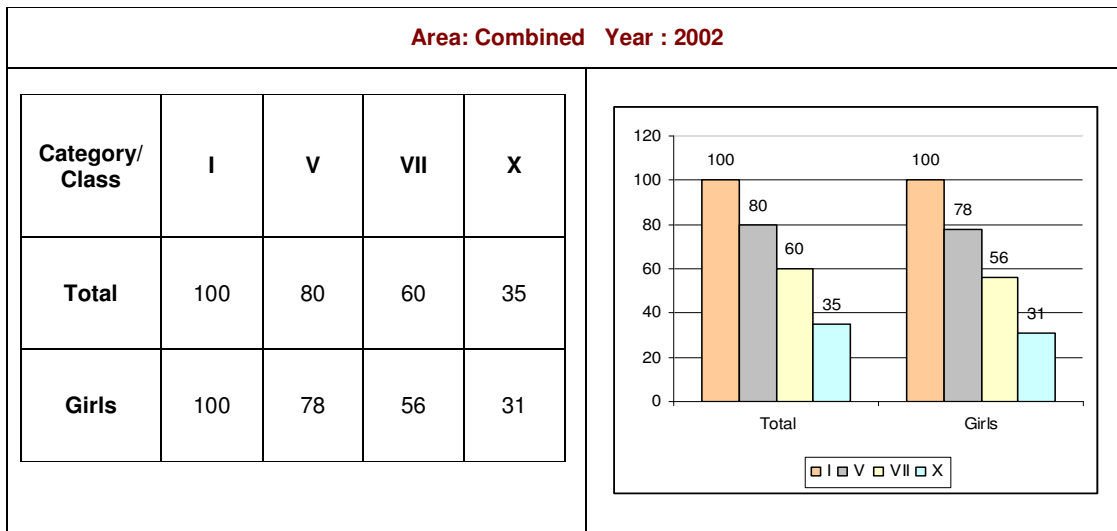
The dropouts at primary stage are declining in the general category and among Scheduled castes. However, the dropouts among Scheduled Tribes, both, boys and girls continue to be high with more than 50% of the children enrolled in class I dropping out of the system before completing Class V.

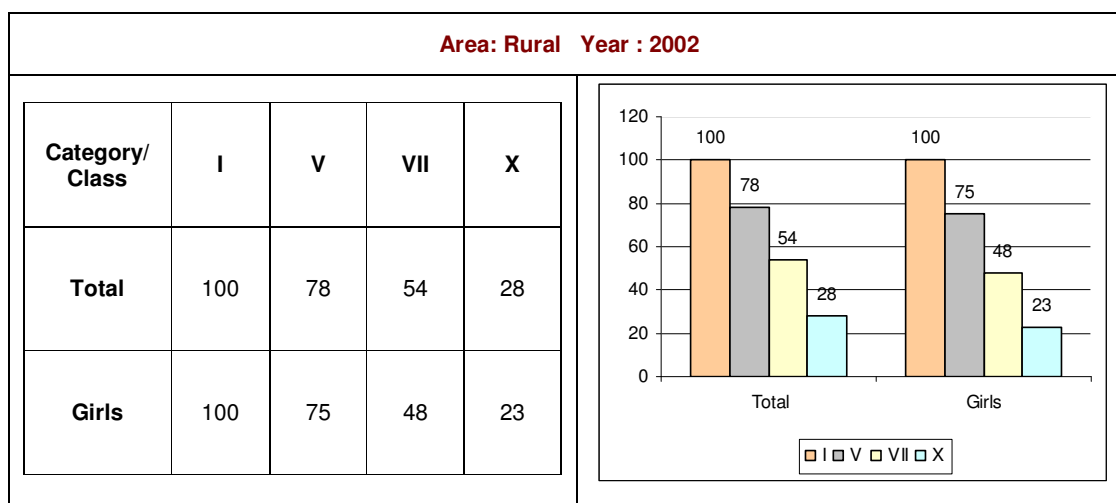
At upper primary stage, more than 50% of the children drop out of the system before completing Class VII. The trend in upper primary dropouts is similar to the primary stage, with Scheduled Tribes girls at 78% and boys at 72.6%. The dropout rates of Scheduled castes girls and boys are also high with 61% & 56% respectively.

The dropouts at secondary level are more than 60% in general category and among SCs & STs the rates are above 70 and 80 percent respectively.

4.4.3 Area- wise Dropouts of Girls

A rough measure of retention is enrolment in Classes V, VII, X and XII as percentage of Class I enrolment at any given point of time. As shown in the following Table, among rural girls out of 100 children enrolled in Class I, barely 57 make it to Class V, 37 to Class VII, 17 to Class X and only six to Class XII, the entry point for general and technical higher education including teacher training, hence the perennial shortage of rural women teachers.





Source: Seventh All India Education Survey, 2002

4.4.4 Inter District Variations in dropout rates, of girls at Primary & Upper Primary levels

The districts of Mahaboobnagar, Warangal, Medak, Nizamabad, and Adilabad have high dropout rates at both primary and upper primary levels, even though these districts have high enrolment ratios, at these stages of education. The districts of Kurnool and Ranga Reddy are having both high enrolment ratios as well as high dropout rates at primary level.

Districts of Hyderabad (3.9% and 12.6%), Cuddapah (15.8% and 42%) & Chittoor (15.8% and 31.4%) have low dropout rates at both primary and upper primary levels. The dropout rates at primary and upper primary stages of education in Guntur district (32 and 60.5%) and dropout rates at upper primary stage in West Godavari, East Godavari and Krishna districts (more than 45%) is a cause of concern as these are socially and economically developed districts.

Inter District Disparities in Dropout rates of Girls 2004-05

A) Primary Stage (I- V)

Districts above State Average			Districts below State Average		
Sl.No.	District	Dropout rates	Sl.No.	District	Dropout rates
1	Mahabubnagar	54.90	1	Visakhapatnam	27.76
2	Medak	52.67	2	Karimnagar	25.19
3	Warangal	52.54	3	East Godavari	22.49
4	Nizamabad	48.26	4	Srikakulam	21.14
5	Nalgonda	43.16	5	Nellore	20.9
6	Kurnool	39.68	6	Vizianagaram	19.39
7	Adilabad	37.39	7	Krishna	19.24
8	Prakasam	36.49	8	Ananthapur	19.12

9	Ranga Reddy	32.47	9	Khammam	19.01
10	Guntur	32.26	10	West Godavari	17.63
			11	Chittoor	10.46
			12	Cuddapah	9.66
			13	Hyderabad	4.97
	State Average	32.14		State Average	32.14

B) Upper Primary Stage (I- VII)

Districts above State Average			Districts below State Average		
Sl.No.	District	Dropout rates	Sl.No.	District	Dropout rates
1	Mahabubnagar	73.20	1	Vizianagaram	53.88
2	Prakasam	69.23	2	Nellore	51.62
3	Adilabad	67.58	3	Karimnagar	50.93
4	Medak	66.33	4	Visakhapatnam	49.59
5	Warangal	65.63	5	Krishna	47.97
6	Kurnool	63.67	6	Ranga Reddy	47.49
7	Nalgonda	62.52	7	Srikakulam	45.89
8	Guntur	60.50	8	West Godavari	45.39
9	Nizamabad	58.54	9	East Godavari	45.36
10	Khammam	57.61	10	Cuddapah	45.23
			11	Ananthapur	42.07
			12	Chittoor	34.66
			13	Hyderabad	7.42
	State Average	54.46		State Average	54.46

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, 2004-05, Director of School Education, AP

The retention rates of girls at both primary and upper primary levels are fairly good in all Rayalaseema districts except Kurnool. Similarly, all coastal districts barring Guntur, Prakasham and Vizianagaram show higher retention rates.

4.4.5 Dropout rates among SC girls at primary and upper primary levels.

The state average dropout rate of SC girls is 34.4% at primary level (Table). However the dropout rates of SC girls exceed 50% in the districts of Medak (56.21%), Mahaboobnagar (55.83%), Warangal (53%) and Nizamabad (51.48%) districts.

The retention rates of SC girls at primary level are significantly higher in districts of Chittoor (90.38%) and Srikakulam (87.4%), while it is fairly high in the districts ranging from 80.32% in Nellore to 85.06% in Vizianagaram.

The state average dropout rate of SC girls is 61.65% at the upper primary level. The dropout rate is less than 50 % only in the five districts of Anantapur, Srikakulam, Visakhapatnam, Chittoor and Hyderabad ranging from 48.59% in Anantapur to 25.62% in Hyderabad which indicate moderate retention rate of SC girls in these districts at upper primary level.

4.4.6 Dropout rates among ST girls at primary and upper primary levels.

Mahabubnagar (76.8%), Medak (74.32), Nizamabad (74.11), Warangal (72.52) and Nalgonda (71.12) have high dropout rates of ST girls at Primary level even though State average dropout rate is 56.94. The retention rates of ST girls at primary level is notably high in the Districts of Vizianagaram, Cuddappah, Ananthapur and Hyderabad, ranging from 79.88% in Vizianagaram to 70.22 in Hyderabad.

At the upper primary level the State Average drop out rate of ST girls is 78.37 and the drop out rate is more than 70% in most of the district except Khammam, Chittoor, Cuddappah, West Godavari, East Godavari, Ananthapur and Hyderabad ranging from 68.45 in Khammam to 26.57 in Hyderabad. The retention rate is noteworthy only in Hyderabad District (73.43).

Chapter- V

Girl Child Labor- Forced Illiterates

- Forms of Child Labor
- Factors responsible for Child Labor
- Magnitude of Child Labour
- International efforts
- National Interventions
- State Interventions curbing Child Labour

5. Girl Child Labour - Forced Illiterates

5.1 Child Labour

The practice of child labour is a prominent feature in India. It is a major hurdle in the development of the child at the micro level and development of the country at the macro level. "Child labor" is, generally speaking, children made to work hard at their early ages of growth that harms them or exploits them in some way (physically, mentally, morally, or by blocking access to education).

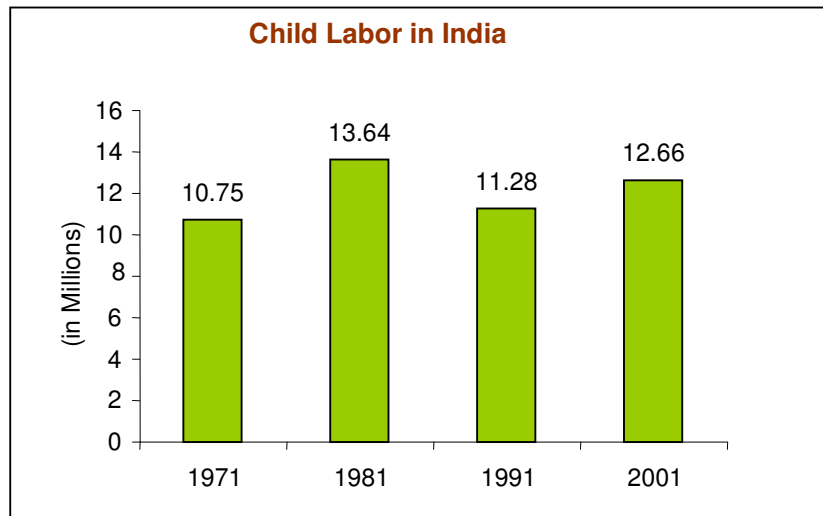
There is no universally accepted definition of "child labor". Varying definitions of the term are used by international organizations, non-governmental organizations, trade unions and other interest groups. The child labour Act in India does not define what child labour is. It just gives the definition of a child and the lists of activities prohibiting appointment of child labour in them. Writers and speakers don't always specify what definition they are using, and that often leads to confusion³⁹. In general we can explain child labour as a practice which forces child to engage in activities which include manual labor or work for wages which recedes their development and harm their growth. It is a practice which deprives them of childhood and subjects them to unusual exploitative way of life.

It deprives them of education and human development. Right to education is a universal right and every child should have access to it. The spread of formal education among children may prevent the occurrence of child labour and potential child labourers from accepting the practice.

Working children are the objects of extreme exploitation in terms of toiling for long hours for minimal pay. Their work conditions are especially severe, often not providing the stimulation for proper physical and mental development. Many of these children endure lives of pure deprivation. There must be an economic change in the condition of a struggling family to free a child from the responsibility of working. Family subsidies can help provide this support⁴⁰.

³⁹ <http://www.childlaborphotoproject.org/childlabor.html>

⁴⁰ "CHILD LABOR: ISSUES, CAUSES AND INTERVENTIONS"; Faraaz Siddiqi, Harry Anthony Patrinos; http://www.worldbank.org/html/extdr/hnp/hddflash/workp/wp_00056.html



Source: Census of India of relevant years

5.2 Forms of Child Labour

Child labour can be classified into main workers and marginal workers. In India out of the 12.66 million working children in 2001 about 5.77 million children were classified as main workers and rest 6.88 million children were as marginal workers⁴¹. Most of the workers were engaged in agricultural activities as wage labourers or cultivators. Manufacturing, processing, servicing and repairs in the household industries engaged 3% child workers, while 3% child workers were engaged in factory work and the other 15% working children were engaged in service sector, mostly as domestic workers, and in small trade activities⁴². Working children are usually classified in terms of work situations in domestic work, non-domestic and non-monetary work, bonded labour work, wage work in hazardous and non-hazardous occupations and commercial sexual exploitation work. Each work situation has deep-rooted consequences on their human rights, healthcare and future economic production processes. Some of the hazardous processes and occupations, where child labourers are found in large numbers are:

- Agriculture hybrid cotton seed production
- Agricultural allied processes
- Bidi making, making thread from silk cocoon Mining Mica and slate Manufacturing processes
- carpet weaving, silk and other cotton weaving,
- leather, electric bulb making,
- glass and bangle making ,
- sports especially ball stitching,
- Gem and diamond cutting and polishing, lock making
- Construction- manual labour, brick making and chipping, stone breaking

⁴¹ "Review of Child Labour, Education and Poverty Agenda, India Country Report, 2006"; ICCLC; Washington

⁴² Ibid

- Service industries domestic services, transport and garages, hotels and restaurants, sexual abuse and exploitation⁴³

5.3 Factors responsible

Children work for a variety of reasons the most pressing being poverty. Children work to ensure the survival of their family and themselves. Though children are not well paid, they still serve as major contributors to family income.⁴⁴ Children are often prompted to work by their parents owing to their poor economic positions. Education deprivation among the parents and children, food deficit at home, unemployment status of any family member for more than 6 months and families with no or less land are the

contributing factors for child labour⁴⁵. Lack of proper education system is also an important factor promoting child labour.

5.4 Highest Concentration of Child Labour

In India 11.2 million working children were recorded by the 1991 census of India which figure has risen to 12.66 million in the 2001 census.

Child Labour Population, 1991-2001

State	Child Workers 1991	Child Workers 2001	% Workers 1991	% Workers 2001	Change 1991-2001
Andhra Pradesh	1661940	1363339	9.98	7.7	-2.28
Arunachal Pradesh	12,395	18482	5.65	6.06	0.41
Assam	327598	351416	5.46	5.07	-0.39
Bihar	942,245	1117500	3.99	4.68	0.69
Chattisgarh		364572		6.96	6.96
Delhi	27351	41899	1.27	1.35	0.08
Goa	4656	4138	1.95	1.82	-0.13
Gujarat	523585	485530	5.26	4.28	-0.98
Haryana	109,691	253491	2.55	4.78	2.23
Himachal Pradesh	56438	107774	4.55	8.14	3.59
Jammu & Kashmir		175630		6.62	6.62
Jharkhand		407200		5.47	5.47
Karnataka	976247	822665	8.81	6.91	-1.90
Kerela	34800	26156	0.58	0.47	-0.11
Madhya Pradesh	1352563	1065259	8.08	6.71	-1.37
Maharashtra	1068418	764075	5.73	3.54	-2.19
Orissa	452394	377594	5.87	4.37	-1.50
Punjab	142,868	177268	3.04	3.23	0.19

⁴³ **Ibid**

⁴⁴ Supra note 2

⁴⁵ Supra Note 6

Rajasthan	774199	1262570	6.46	8.25	1.79
Sikkim	5598	16457	5.18	12.04	6.86
Tamilnadu	578,889	418801	4.83	3.61	-1.22
Tripura	16478	21756	2.29	2.79	0.50
Uttar Pradesh	1410086	1927997	3.81	4.04	0.23
Uttanchal		70183		3.24	3.24
West Bengal	711691	857087	4.16	4.5	0.34
INDIA	11285349	12666377	5.37	5	-0.37

Source: Census of India, 1991 and 2001

The above table reveals the child labour population in India. Most of the children fall between the age group of 5-14 years. Andhra Pradesh is one of the States with largest child labour. The state of Andhra Pradesh state witnessed synergy of efforts between government, ILO, trade unions and NGOs during 1991-2001 in scaling up education initiatives for out-of-school children, but the strategy was not effective enough as the children dropped-out without completing the full cycle of elementary education and joined back in the workforce⁴⁶. The 2001 census reported marginal decline in the magnitude of child labour during 1991-2001, but it still recorded the second highest magnitude of child workers after Uttar Pradesh. A significant proportion of children who have dropped out from schools without completing full cycle of elementary education were from extreme poverty families and preferred children to work for family sustenance.⁴⁷

Among the larger states the proportion of working children in the age group of 5-14 years was high in Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Karnataka. This increase was inspite of tremendous efforts by government, United Nations and other international agencies and NGOs for universalizing primary and elementary education and removing children from work through education and other rehabilitative interventions. The results depict that only education interventions without integrating poverty alleviation programmes in the policy may not yield desired results of reducing child labour⁴⁸.

5.5 Interventions curbing child labour:

There have been lot of initiatives existing at national and state level to prohibit child labour.

⁴⁶ Ibid p-12

⁴⁷ Ibid

⁴⁸ Ibid

5.5.1 National Interventions

India has all along followed a proactive policy in the matter of tackling the problem of child labor. India has always stood for constitutional, statutory and development measures required to eliminate child labor. The Indian Constitution has consciously incorporated provisions to secure compulsory universal elementary education as well as labor protection for children. Labor Commissions in India have gone into the problems of child labor and have made extensive recommendations.

In India, the post-independence era has seen an unequivocal commitment of the government to the cause of children through constitutional provisions, legislation, policies and programs. The Constitution of India in Article 39 of the Directive Principles of State Policy pledges that "the State shall, in particular, direct its policy towards securing ... that the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused, and that citizens are not forced by economic necessity to enter avocations unsuited to their age or strength, that children are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner, and in conditions of freedom and dignity, and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation, and against moral and material abandonment."

As a follow-up of this commitment, and being a party to the UN Declaration on the Rights of the Child 1959, India adopted the National Policy on Children in 1974. The policy reaffirmed the constitutional provisions and stated that "it shall be the policy of the State to provide adequate services to children, both before and after birth and through the period of growth to ensure their full physical, mental and social development. The State shall progressively increase the scope of such services so that within a reasonable time all children in the country enjoy optimum conditions for their balanced growth."

India has also ratified on December 2, 1992, the Convention on the Rights of the Child which came into force in 1990. This ratification implies that India will ensure wide awareness about issues relating to children among government agencies, implementing agencies, the media, the judiciary, the public and children themselves. The Government's endeavor is to meet the goals of the Convention and to amend all legislation, policies and schemes to meet the standards set in the Convention.

India is also a signatory to the World Declaration on the Survival, Protection and Development of Children. In pursuance of the commitment made at the World Summit, the Department of Women and Child Development under the Ministry of Human Resource

Development has formulated a National Plan of Action for Children. Most of the recommendations of the World Summit Action Plan are reflected in India's National Plan of Action.

Legislations

India's first act on the subject of Child labour was the enactment of the Children (Pledging of Labor) Act of February 1933. This was followed by the Employment of Children Act in 1938. Subsequently, twelve additional legislations were passed that progressively extended legal protection to children. Provisions relating to child labor under various enactments such as the Factories Act, the Mines Act, the Plantation Labor Act etc. have concentrated on aspects such as reducing working hours, increasing minimum wage and prohibiting employment of children in occupations and processes detrimental to their health and development.

The Child Labor (Prohibition & Regulation) Act 1986

The Act as the name suggests prohibits and regulates child labour in the country but does not abolish. The Act in particular:

- bans the employment of children, i.e. those who have not completed their 14th year, in specified occupations and processes
- lays down a procedure to make additions to the schedule of banned occupations or processes;
- regulates the working conditions of children in occupations where they are not prohibited from working;
- lays down penalties for employment of children in violation of the provisions of this Act,, and other Acts which forbid the employment of children;
- brings uniformity in the definition of the "Child" in related laws.

Ironically this Act does not define Child labour but gives the definition of a child.

Policies

National Policy on Child Labour

The Government of India adopted a National Child Labor policy in 1987, in accordance with the constitutional provisions and various legislation on child labor. The idea of adopting a separate policy on child labor was not only to place the issue on the nation's agenda, but also to formulate a specific program of action to initiate the process of progressive elimination of child labor. The policy consists of three complementary measures:

- Legal action plan: This policy envisages strict enforcement of the provisions of the Child Labor (Prohibition & Regulation) Act, 1986 and other child-related legislation.

- Focus on general development programs benefiting children wherever possible: The policy envisages the development of an extensive system of non-formal education for working children withdrawn from work and increasing the provision for employment and income generating schemes meant for their parents. A special cell - Child Labour Cell - was constituted to encourage voluntary organizations to take up activities like non-formal education,- vocational training, provisions of health care, nutrition and education for working children.
- Area specific projects: To focus on areas known to have high concentration of child labour and to adopt a project approach for identification, withdrawal and rehabilitation of working children

Authorities

National Authority for the Elimination of Child Labour (NAECL)

India has established the NAECL under the Chairmanship of the Labor Minister, Government of India. The NAECL, comprising representatives from the Central Ministries, meets the need for an umbrella organization to coordinate the efforts of the different arms of the Government for the progressive elimination of child labor.

Central Advisory Board on Child Labor

The Central Advisory Board on Child Labor was constituted on March 4, 1981. The following are the terms of reference of the Board:

- Review the implementation of the existing legislation administered by the Central Government.
- Suggest legislative measures as well as welfare measures for the welfare of working children.
- Review the progress of welfare measures for working children.
- Recommend the industries and areas where there must be a progressive elimination of child labor.

Child Labor Technical Advisory Committee:

Under Section 5 of the Child Labor (P&R) Act 1986, the Government of India is empowered to constitute a Child Labor Technical Advisory Committee for the purpose of addition of occupation and processes in the Schedule to the Act. The Committee consists of a Chairman and members not exceeding ten.

National Child Labor Projects (NCLP)

Under the action plan of the National Policy on Child Labor, there have been National Child Labor Projects (NCLP) set up in different areas to rehabilitate child labor. A major activity undertaken under the NCLP is the establishment of special schools to provide non-formal education, vocational training, supplementary nutrition etc. to children withdrawn from employment. Under the project based action plan of the policy, 12 NCLPs were started in the States of Andhra Pradesh (Jaggampet and Markapur), Bihar (Garwah), Madhya Pradesh (Mandsaur), Maharashtra (Thane), Orissa (Sambalpur), Rajasthan (Jaipur), Tamil Nadu (Sivakasi) and Uttar Pradesh (Varanasi-Mirzapur-Bhadohi,, Moradabad, Aligarh and Ferozabad).

5.5.2 Andhra Pradesh Efforts towards Curbing Child Labour

The Government of Andhra Pradesh realizing the magnitude of child labour problem passed a Legislative assembly resolution condemning child labour and reaffirming commitment to eliminate child labour by 2005.

The government has worked towards convergence by involving the education department, labour department, social welfare department, BC welfare department, ITDA/ST welfare department, Minority welfare department, Women and Child welfare department, Velugu, NCLP, SHG's to handle the problem of child labour. Programs were devised to sensitize the community and to advocate protection of child rights making school as the right place for all children as a social norm.

The government of Andhra Pradesh has taken several innovative measures for elimination of child labour in the State. The subject of child labour is transferred from Labor department to school education department and officers of education department are appointed as inspectors for the purpose of implementation of child labour Acts.

Measures like relaxation of minimum attendance criterion, exemption of examination fee and attendance exemption fee for VII and X Public Exams and VI, VII and IX common exams have facilitated easy entry for non starters and dropouts. Prohibition of Corporal Punishment in schools has resulted in making the school environment conducive for these children.

The centralized scheme of SSA extends support to the state through various interventions to release child from work and mainstream the. NRBS, PBC and campaign for the release of child labour are some of the initiatives in this direction. Every year before the reopening of schools the state government is taking up a massive community mobilizing program to release the child labour employed in the factories, dhabhas, hotels. These Employers are

fined and the money collected is deposited in a vidya nidhi and used for rehabilitation of the children employed as child labour.

The government of Andhra Pradesh worked out a strategy towards bringing back to school out of school children. It initially focused on the following issues to work out the strategy: Prioritizing and focusing on areas of high number of out of school children.

- Regulation of child labour- Levy of fine up to Rs. 20,000 from employers.
- Care for the children- Immediate rehabilitation.
- Coordinated efforts- welfare and enforcement departments.
- Admission in to hostels, residential schools, bridge courses.
- Involving Ngo's wherever possible.

Case study of Velpur

The Velpur mandal in Nizamabad district has been declared as 100% child labour free mandal in 2001, and has achieved 100% enrolment thanks to the efforts of DPEP and NCLP. The drive for enrolment started in June 2001. The team stayed in the mandal for 69 days and devised a working plan to eliminate child labour there. The team followed mass awareness programs spreading their cause. It held frequent meetings with parents, village head and teachers, sensitizing them about the problem of child labour. It followed an individual child wise action plan and they used to visit the villages in the early mornings and late nights to counsel the children, parents, employers. VDC passed resolutions and oaths taken by village elders to eliminate child labour. The out of school children were adopted by VDC and village elders and were sent to school. The child employers were warned and frequent raids were conducted. Employers allowing children to go to school were felicitated. The MoU's were entered into with sarpanchs of gram sabha to involve their participation which has resulted in the elimination of child labour in the mandal.

Strategies for bringing out of school children/ child labour into schools:

Availability of database for out of school children/ child labour.

- Conduct of intensive community mobilization programs.
- Direct enrolment of children in 5-8 years in to regular schools.
- Running of Bridge courses
- Enrolling all out of school children in bridge courses.
- Running of NRBC for 6-10 months in school premises.
- Running of RBC camp for 6-10 months.
- Unit cost for running of NRBC Rs. 1200/- per child per annum.
- Unit cost for running of RBC Rs. 4800/- per child per annum.
- Mainstreaming all out of school children in regular schools from bridge courses.

MV Foundation

MV Foundation in Andhra Pradesh made efforts to bring over 15,000 out of school children in 300 villages of Rangareddy district to main stream into schools. The main thrust of this program is to reach out to the children who are either in bonded labor or used by their parents in helping out with the family; children who had hitherto no childhood and had to work for their food and board. Through active recruiting of young teenagers and school teachers in the government schools around the area, the program gathered enough volunteers who worked in different villages and convinced parents and caretakers through one-on-one meetings and street plays to release the children to go to school. The foundation started the concept of bridge courses to facilitate these kids to join the mainstream schooling. The program in this direction operates special summer camps in different parts of the district. Children are grouped and housed, fed and educated according to their age and abilities. The camps prepared them to pass a government-qualifying exam for entry into regular government run schools. As no privately run school can absorb all the students, the foundation has worked successfully with the Andhra Pradesh government to beef up the government run schools by training and supplying additional teachers. Over the last seventeen years over 15,000 children in 300 villages have benefited from the M.V.F program of withdrawing children from work and enrolling them in schools. Over the years the program has been supported by the Government of India, CRY, IPEC-ILO, UNICEF, and HIVOS among others.

The government of Andhra Pradesh followed a strict implementation of the Child Labour Act:

- It released hardcore child labour from employers
- Booked cases against employers and collected penalty amounts which was used towards the creation of Child labour welfare fund.
- It worked towards the rehabilitation of child labour by joining them in schools and bridge courses.

Child and Police (CAP)

Child And Police (CAP) is a DRFHSD programme of Dr. Reddys lab conducted in partnership with the police. The CAP project is a community-based program that aims to rehabilitate children-at-risk with the support of the state police and education departments. Members of the CAP conduct street-by-street surveys to identify and rehabilitate economically disadvantaged children. Families are then convinced to send their children to the Foundation's bridge school where they are put through child-friendly syllabi. 4-8 months later, depending on the age and prior literacy level, they are integrated into the mainstream public education system.

- During 1998, the CAP Project was initiated with 300 former child workers.
- In 2003-04, CAP commissioned residential and non-residential bridge schools, benefiting over 3000 children.
- The programme now covers over 7000 children removed from working conditions, 130 urban poor communities, 115 schools, 600 teachers, and over 25,000 students.
- The programme directly mobilized and mainstreamed 6234 children - 62% girls - through a bridge school leading to a formal government school.
- The project reaches out to over 20,000 children in 120 government schools and 150 slum communities in Hyderabad and Urban Ranga Reddy districts with a quality education programme.

In addition to the efforts of the government of Andhra Pradesh, 915 (471 RBCs and 444 NRBCs) bridge course centers are functioning in the 23 districts under NCLP with an enrolment of 51,094 out of school children including 27,140 girls for the purpose of mainstreaming them in schools.

Besides, NCLP identified 2,24,222 children in employed in hazardous occupations in the state and made efforts to main stream them through 1708 NCLP centers(see table below).

Children Employed in Hazardous Occupations

S. No.	District	No. of Children	S. No.	District	No. of Children
1	Mahabubnagar	82313	13	Nellore	3912
2	Guntur	25521	14	Ranga Reddy	3722
3	Prakasam	19858	15	East Godavari	3645
4	Vizianagaram	13262	16	Khammam	3011
5	Kurnool	12150	17	Hyderabad	2363
6	Chittoor	9126	18	Medak	2354
7	West Godavari	8261	19	Visakhapatnam	2282
8	Cuddapah	6731	20	Adilabad	1699
9	Krishna	6628	21	Karimnagar	1520
10	Warangal	4810	22	Srikakulam	1361
11	Nalgonda	4500	23	Ananthapur	993
12	Nizamabad	4200		Total	224222

Child Labor covered through NCLP centers

S.No.	District	Children Employed in Hazardous Occupations	No.Of Centers	No. of children covered	No. of children main streamed
1	Srikakulam	1361	31	1376	5746
2	Vizianagaram	13262	239	11900	10359
3	Visakhapatnam	2282	70	3500	13764
4	East Godavari	3645	26	3958	2300
5	West Godavari	8261	154	8613	6200
6	Krishna	6628	68	3400	6
7	Guntur	25521	30	7300	4646
8	Prakasam	19858	20	12864	6778
9	Nellore	3912	30	4738	3238
10	Chittoor	9126	260	12909	6883
11	Cuddapah	6731	77	9951	6520
12	Ananthapur	993	14	14562	11210
13	Kurnool	12150	93	29372	16679
14	Mahabubnagar	82313	40	9517	4957
15	Ranga Reddy	3722	60	37840	24091
16	Hyderabad	2363	103	175086	88550
17	Medak	2354	50	7793	3602
18	Nizamabad	4200	34	8602	4662
19	Adilabad	1699	60	3174	1213
20	Karimnagar	1520	50	6481	4024
21	Warangal	4810	60	3312	9215
22	Khammam	3011	116	9730	4644
23	Nalgonda	4500	23	8850	3760
	Total	224222	1708	394828	243047

Chapter- VI

Quality

- Availability of teachers
- Teacher pupil ratio
- Instructional facilities/ class rooms
- Other Physical Amenities for girls
- Incentives & Concessions
- Enhancing the achievements – learning of the children

6. Quality

6.1 Quality - The Invisible Component in Education

Efforts for providing elementary education since independence have been steady and gaining momentum particularly after 1986. The National Policy on Education 1986, reiterated the need for Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE) and several national and state level programmes have been launched to augment the facilities at elementary level. Since then, though there is an increased presence of private players, elementary education in the state is still dominated by government schools. Under the Operation Blackboard project in early 90's, the minimum requirement for a primary school was specified for the first time in the country. However, very often establishing a school meant no more than posting a teacher to work in the school.

The National Educational Policy of 1986 took specific note of the conditions related to basic facilities and other support systems in schools which will provide basic education of comparable quality. These include four basic dimensions that relate to the learning environment and learning from the school namely (i) teachers in primary schools, (ii) school building and other physical facilities, (iii) teaching-learning material and (iv) learner achievements. In reality, existence of these facilities need not necessary mean that children are learning, it is also dependent on many other factors outside the purview of government like supportive family atmosphere, learning capacity of the child etc which will also contribute to the scope of learning.

The education policies, can flower only through the teachers whose actions shape the learning environment in the institutions, thereby influencing the teaching –learning processes and the learning outcomes. To facilitate the above, two pronged approach has been initiated, one in the formal and the other in the non formal sector to reach the never unenrolled and dropouts. Under the Operation Black Board (1988 - 1994) project, a tremendous impetus was endowed by providing a second teacher preferably a female teacher in all the single teacher primary schools. There has been a substantial increase in the number of teachers during the last one and half decade.

6.2 Teachers in Schools

The number of teachers in primary schools increased from 77025 in 1956 to 166935 in 2004. The years between 1988 and 1994 are the years of rapid expansion, wherein all single teacher primary schools were supported with provision of second teacher under the centrally sponsored scheme of OBB. The growth in teachers at primary level in a span of about thirty five years since 1956 to 1990 is 1.4 times where as the growth in number of teachers in the last decade and half was 1.5 times. In upper primary level there is a tremendous growth in schools and teachers and the increase between 1956 and 1990 was 9.5 times and thereafter 2.5 times. In the secondary level also there is increase in number of teachers, with a sharp increase of 4.6 times and 1.9 times respectively.

Number of Teachers in Primary Schools - 1956-57 to 2004-05

Year	Primary		Upper Primary		Secondary	
	Teachers	Increase by no. of times	Teachers	Increase by no. of times	Teachers	Increase by no. of times
1956-57	77025		4421		16166	
1990-91	110857	1.4	41837	9.5	74751	4.6
2004-05	166935	1.5	103985	2.5	140399	1.9

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, Director of School Education, 2000-01 and 2004-05

6.2.1 Availability of Teachers in Schools

As stated earlier, there has been a tremendous increase in the number of schools during the last decade and half. By 2002, the number of schools was increased by 1.2 times. Concurrently there was an increase in the number of teachers also.

In 1993, maximum primary schools were managed by local bodies (86%) at both rural and urban areas followed by government schools (7.09%). The private aided schools (4.9%) and private unaided schools (3.8%) were minimal. Similarly, in 1993, maximum number of schools in the rural schools (45%) and the urban schools (23%) reported to have two teachers. 3% of the rural schools and 0.74% of the urban schools reported to have no teachers and nearly 3% of the rural schools and 22% of the urban schools have more than five teachers.

Though, even now, maximum schools are managed by local bodies (81.4%), followed by government schools (8.9%), there was an increase in private unaided schools (5.8%) compared to private aided schools (3.7%). Likewise, in the rural areas maximum number of schools (44.38%) reported to have two teachers followed by one teacher schools (19.58%).

The percentage of schools without teachers was reduced to 0.92% while schools with more than five teachers were increased to 6% from 3% in 1993.

Contrary to this, in the urban areas there is an increase in the percentage of schools with more than five teachers from 22% in 1993 to 37.29%. In the urban schools, 10% increase is reported in the number of schools (51%) having five or more than five teachers in position. Meanwhile, the schools with out even one teacher have also increased to 1.49% from 0.74% in 1993.

Area- wise Schools with number of teachers in position in 1993 & 2002

Area	Year	Number & percentage of schools with teachers in position					
			0	1	2	2 & more	Total
Rural	1993	No	1341	15932	19888	7251	44412
		%	3.02	35.87	44.78	16.33	100
	2002	No	35	523	1078	3093	4729
		%	0.74	11.06	22.8	65.4	100
Urban	1993	No	494	10548	23912	18929	53882
		%	0.92	19.58	44.38	35.13	100
	2002	No	108	575	1325	5237	7245
		%	1.49	7.94	18.29	72.28	100

Source: Report of VI AIES, 1993 and Tables of VII All India Educational Survey, 2002 in Andhra Pradesh

6.2.2 Gender Composition of teachers

The state policy of reserving 33 ¹/₃ % of vacancies for women has brought out a phenomenal change in the gender composition of teachers. The percentage of female teachers at primary level increased from 17 % in 1956 to 35% in 2000 and further to 45% in 2004. Women teachers constitute more than 40% at upper primary and secondary levels also.

Percentage of Female Teachers to Total Teachers 1956-57 to 2000-01

Year	Primary Schools	Upper Primary Schools	High Schools
1956-57	17.58	22.91	13.65
1990-91	28.54	32.43	30.76
2000-01	35.31	43.32	43.01
2004-05	45.02	41.43	40.10

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, Director of School Education, 2000-01 and 2004-05

6.2.3 Female Teachers at different stages of education in different areas

From 1993 to 2002, the composition of female teachers in the service has increased tremendously at all stage of education. In the rural areas, primary (34.11%) and upper primary schools (34.34%) have reported 10% increase in female teachers services while at

the secondary school level it has increased nearly 15% (15.85% to 29.19%). In the urban areas, though the increase has not been that significant, women constitute 68% of the total urban teachers at primary level and more than 55% both at upper primary and secondary levels.

However, the noticeable factor is the huge gap between the rural and urban areas in its percentage share of female teachers. In total, urban areas have nearly two times more female teachers than rural areas in 2002. In 1993, rural urban gap in female teachers in the secondary levels is nearly four times, upper primary level is nearly two times, primary level is three times. By 2002, substantial number of female teachers has been added to the rural areas and in the primary and secondary levels the gap has been reduced to two times.

Percentage share of Female Teachers to Total Teachers - 1993 & 2002

Area	Primary		Upper Primary		Secondary		Total	
	1993	2002	1993	2002	1993	2002	1993	2002
Rural	24.65	34.11	23.4	34.34	15.85	29.19	21.58	32.80
Urban	60.95	67.77	56.91	59.25	55.91	57.55	54.61	61.22
Total	31.38	41.81	36.76	41.03	34.87	40.67	33.39	41.24

Source: Report of VI AIES, 1993 and Tables of VII All India Educational Survey, 2002 in Andhra Pradesh

6.2.4 Female teachers in position in different Types of Schools

Female teachers have been allocated to most schools especially in government (education dept), Mandal Parishad and Zilla Parishad Schools in the state. Even after all the efforts, it is quite interesting to note that 51 % of the total primary schools do not have female teachers. 28% of the schools have one female teacher in the school. In the case of upper primary schools, 25% schools do not have female teacher and 24% have only one female teacher. In case of high schools 16% of the schools have no female teachers and 23 % have one female teacher. This analysis is based on the data from 2003 computerised employee database maintained by the education department

Schools with female teachers in position – 2003 Government, Mandal Parishad, Zilla Parishad Schools

Type of School		0	1	2 & more	Total
Primary Schools	No	24413	13561	9870	47844
	%	51.03	28.34	20.63	100
Upper Primary Schools	No	2578	2487	5070	10135
	%	25.44	24.54	50.02	100
High Schools	No	1174	1641	4397	7212
	%	16.28	22.75	60.97	100

Source: Computerised Employee Database, 2003, Education Department, AP

6.2.5 Women in Administrative Posts in Department of Education

Sensitiveness to women's issue is easier to be identified and rectified if women are involved in the decision making. It is clear from the table given below that role of women in most of the decision making levels in the department of education is limited. The position of District Education Officer which is the key post at the district level has hardly any woman in position. Similar is the position of availability of Mandal Education Officer and Head Mistress at primary and secondary school levels.

Representation of women in Administrative posts at various levels in the Education Department – 2003

Post	Total	Female	% of Female
District Educational Officer / Deputy Director	30	3	0.1
Deputy Educational Officer	84	18	21.43
Mandal Education Officer	892	22	2.47
Head Master, Primary Schools*	7547	900	11.92
Head Master, High Schools*	4018	673	16.75

* Data consists of teachers in Government, Mandal Parishad and Zilla Parishad Schools only and the data source is Computerised Employee Data base, 2003 of Education Department, AP

6.3 Teacher-Pupil Ratios

The state is committed to provide teachers at a ratio of 1:45. The transparent recruitment policy and the regularity in which teachers are recruited has facilitated in recruitment of teachers as per the growing requirement. Apart from the posts sanctioned under OBB by GOI, Government of Andhra Pradesh has sanctioned nearly 30,000 posts in the last decade.

Though, the teacher pupil ratios in total is favourable at the primary level, the size of villages and habitations in A.P. are very small and many schools in the state are so small that it is difficult to get a minimum enrolment of 50 students in classes I to V. This leads to inevitable multi grade teaching at the primary level reducing the scope for individual attention and quality instruction. This is one of the major hurdles which the state should address to increase the quality of education.

Over the last thirty five years, though the teacher pupil ratio has varied slightly here and there, but the ratio is always around 30. This was initially due to low enrolment, then due to increase in the number of teachers and enrolment and later due to decrease in enrolment.

Teacher Pupil Ratios from 1956-57 to 2004-05

Year	Primary Schools	Upper Primary Schools	High Schools
1956-57	31	34	23
1990-91	53	47	37
2004-05	33	31	33

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, Director of School Education, 2000-01 and 2004-05

6.3.1 Teacher-Pupil Ratios in different Management Schools

Compared to 1993 where the teacher pupil ratio was quite unfavourable in local bodies and private aided schools, but by 2002 a favourable or optimum teacher-pupil ratio was attained in all management schools.

6.3.2 Inter-district Comparison of Teacher Pupil Ratio at the Primary & Upper Primary School Level in 2002 -03

For the primary schools the minimum Teacher Pupil Ratio (TPR) recommended is 1: 45. In Andhra Pradesh, the state average in 2004 -05 is 33 for primary schools and 30 for upper primary schools.

Average Teacher Pupil Ratio in different types of schools in 2002-03⁴⁹

Type of school	Area	Teacher Pupil Ratio
Primary	Rural	33
	Urban	36
	Total	33
Upper primary	Rural	31
	Urban	28
	Total	30

All districts have achieved a TP ratio of below forty five, except rural Kurnool. Thirteen districts (50%) in the state have better than the state average TPR of thirty three. But its range varies from twenty four in Nellore to forty seven in Kurnool which is almost double.

For the primary schools in the rural areas, the teacher pupil ratio for the state is thirty three and thirteen districts reported the average TP ratio of thirty three or less. However, the ratio

⁴⁹ VII AISES, 2002

varies from twenty three in Nellore to forty nine in Kurnool which is double. In the urban scenario, average ratio is thirty six for the state with the range of twenty five in Warangal to forty five in Viskhapatanam. Here, ten districts have TP ratio better than the state average of 36.

In the Upper Primary schools in the state, the average TP ratio is reported as thirty. Sixteen districts reports below the state average and the range starts from twenty one in Chittoor to forty one in Kurnool. In the rural upper primary schools, the state average is reported as thirty one and fifteen districts have a favorable TP ratio of better to state average. In the urban upper primary schools, the average TPR at the state level is twenty eight and the range varies from nineteen in Chittoor to thirty nine in Prakasam. Twelve districts have reported an urban TP ratio better than state average of twenty eight.

Districts with Better & Poor TPR in Rural & Urban Areas in different types of schools - 2002-03⁵⁰

Area	Types of School	Better TP Ratio		Poor TP Ratio ⁵¹	
		District	Ratio	District	Ratio
Rural	Primary	Nellore	23	Kurnool	49
		Chittoor	25		
		Srikakulam	27		
	Upper Primary	Chittoor	22	Kurnool	46
		Nellore	25		
		Cuddapah	27		
Urban	Primary	Warangal	25	Prakasam	41
		Karimnagar	28	Krishna	42
		Mahbubnagar	30	Visakhapatnam	45
	Upper Primary	Chittoor	19	Prakasam	39
		Ranga Reddy	21		
		Warangal	21		
Total	Primary	Nellore	24	Kurnool	47
		Chittoor	26		
		Srikakulam	28		
	Upper Primary	Nizamabad	21	Krishna	41
		Nalgonda	25		
		Khammam	26		

⁵⁰ Source: Tables of VII AISES, 2002

⁵¹ (Districts with TPR above 1:40 are indicated)

Though, no direct relation can be established between female literacy level and teacher pupil ratio, it is quite worthy to notice that the districts of Nellore, Chittoor, Cuddaph and Krishna which shows remarkable TPR at the primary school level, also have female literacy level above the state average. Similarly, all districts which have reported female literacy better than the state average in the urban areas also have a TPR below the state average.

6.4 Instructional Facilities/ Class Rooms

The infrastructure of the school and other facilities like playground, availability of sports and teaching materials etc are also factors which attract and retain the children at school and lead to overall qualitative development. The classrooms and instructional facilities available in the school is an indicator of the quality of the education system. Over the decade from 1993 to 2002, the changes in the rural and urban areas regarding the availability of classrooms are quite interesting. The percentage of schools without any instructional facilities or class room in rural areas has increased from 6.58% to 8.6% and has also increased in urban areas from 2.78% to 4.17%.

Availability of Classroom Facilities in Rural & Urban Primary schools 1993 & 2002⁵²

Year	Area		Number & percentage of schools with Classrooms				
			No classroom	One classroom	Two classrooms	2 & More classrooms	Total
1993	Rural	No	2924	23530	12575	5383	44412
		%	6.58	52.98	28.32	12.12	100
	Urban	No	131	812	1069	2717	4729
		%	2.78	17.17	22.6	57.45	100
	Total	No	3055	24342	13644	8100	49141
		%	6.21	49.54	27.77	16.48	100
2002	Rural	No	4674	19828	13707	15674	53883
		%	8.67	36.8	25.44	29.09	100
	Urban	No	302	817	879	5247	7245
		%	4.17	11.28	12.13	72.43	100
	Total	No	4976	20645	14586	20921	61128
		%	8.14	33.77	23.86	34.22	100

In 1993, maximum number of schools in rural areas has one room (53%) followed by two rooms (28%). In 2002, though the one room (37%) and two room schools (25.4%) are leading major increase has come in three room schools (6 % to 16%). The percentage of schools having more than five rooms has also increased from 1.35% to 5.31%. In the urban

⁵² Report of VI AIES, 1993 and Tables of VII AISES, 2002

areas, in 1993, 22.6% schools had two rooms for instruction facilities and were closely followed by five room schools (20%) and more than five room schools (19%). By 2002, the number of two room schools and five room schools has declined to 12.13% and 7.07%. More remarkable the percentage of schools having more than five rooms has increased from 18.93 to 46.49%.

In general even though, the problem of schools having no classrooms still persist, the percentage of schools having two or more rooms has more than doubled during this period which is a noteworthy effort of the government.

6.5 Gender Sensitivity in Schools

One of the reasons for not sending young girls to schools by the parents is the apprehension about the safety and security of them. This includes long distance, sanitation facilities, the absence of female teachers in the school etc. Provision of sanitary facilities in the school has been identified as one factor to increase the girl's enrolment and funds for construction of sanitation facilities in schools comes through different schemes of other departments like Rural Development, Panchayat Raj and Irrigation etc.

6.5.1 Sanitation Facilities for girls in schools

At the primary stage level, between 1993 and 2002, the sanitation facilities, in general and for girls in specific, have increased only marginally from 7.3% and 5% to 17.02% and 11.22% respectively. Similarly, the difference between the schools with sanitation facilities in rural and urban areas is also very wide. In 1993, 3.7% and 41.5% of the schools in rural and urban areas had reported sanitation facilities in the school. Of the above schools, only 2.2% in rural and 31.5% in urban areas provide separate facilities to girls.

Ten years later, in 2002, the percentage of schools providing sanitation facilities has increased to 13.10% and 54.48% in rural and urban areas respectively. However, of the above only 6.67% of rural and 45.09% of urban area schools have separate sanitation facilities for girls. The increase in the sanitation facilities is minimal in general and only 11% of the primary schools have separate sanitation facilities for girls. The schools which provide separate sanitation facilities for girls have also not increased significantly.

The upper primary schools report a better picture in the provision of sanitation facilities than primary levels. There is an increase to 48.2% from 33% in 1993. Even in 1993, 17.6%

schools in rural areas and 76.5% schools in urban areas had sanitation facilities. Separate sanitation facilities for girls are available in 12% rural schools and 65% of urban schools. By 2002, the number of schools providing this particular facility has increased to 41% and 80% in rural and urban areas respectively. Though, it presents a better picture than primary schools, the gap between rural - urban and separate facilities for girls has not shown much improvement. In general 37.6% of the Upper primary schools in the state are having separate sanitation facilities for girls by 2002.

The secondary schools in the state reported to have a healthier picture than other schools. Though by 2002, the number of schools in rural and urban areas has almost doubled, the increase in sanitation facilities has increased only marginally from 65.2% in 1993 to 69.6%. Similar is the case of separate facilities for girls (57.7% to 59.5%). In 1993, 55% of schools in rural areas and 89% schools in urban areas have sanitation facilities. Of the above, 44.5% schools in rural areas and 88.5% in urban areas have separate facilities for girls.

In 2002, it is reported that 59.5% and 90% secondary schools in rural and urban areas have sanitation facilities. 46.3% and 86.5% of the above schools in rural and urban areas provides separate facilities for girls. However, it could be interpreted that very few new schools added over the decade (1993-2002) provides separate sanitation facilities for girls as the percentage figure has decreased by two points (from 88.5% to 86.5%). This indicates that about 60% of secondary schools have sanitation facilities by 2002 which is an essential facility required for the girls at this stage of education.

Availability of Sanitation Facilities in different Types of Schools -1993 & 2002⁵³

Type of school	Year	Total No. of Schools	Schools Having Facility for		No. of Schools With Girls Enrolment	Schools Having Separate Facility for Girls	
			Urinal	% of Schools with Facility		Urinals	% of Girls Schools with Facility
Primary Schools	1993	49141	3609	7.3	48749	2429	5.0
	2002	61128	10402	17.02	60817	6824	11.22
Upper Primary schools	1993	6381	2100	32.9	6305	1602	25.4
	2002	15096	7272	48.2	15061	5663	37.6
Secondary Schools	1993	6959	4540	65.2	6519	3759	57.7
	2002	12365	8604	69.6	11911	7089	59.5

⁵³ Report of VI AIES, 1993 and Data Tables of VII AIES, 2002

It is a common practice in the rural areas that once a girl attains puberty she is forbidden to go outside the house. As already seen in the earlier chapters the marriage age of girls in rural Andhra Pradesh is 15 years and the age at which first birth is given is 17.9 years. This social issue can be addressed only if the parents are ensured with minimum facilities and safety of their daughters in the school.

If we read the drop out rates and availability of sanitation facilities together, it is quite clear that the drop out rates are higher particularly for girls in secondary and higher secondary schools especially in rural areas and among SC & ST population groups. Providing basic separate sanitation facilities will go a long way in reducing drop out rates among girls. Under Indiramma Scheme of the state government, sanitation facilities are now being improved at all levels.

6.5.2 Drinking Water Facility in Schools

Similar to sanitation facilities one of the equally important issues is availability of drinking water facility in the school. Over the decade(1993-2002), in general, there is an increase in the facility for drinking water in schools. In 2002, 58% of the primary schools and 79% of the upper primary schools in rural areas have drinking water facilities compared to 29% primary and 55% of upper primary schools in 1993. Similarly, by 2002, 78% of the primary schools and 93% of the upper primary schools in urban areas have drinking water facilities compared to 56% primary and 81% of the upper primary schools in 1993.

The secondary schools have fared better than elementary schools in the matter of drinking water. But the increase in facilities over the decade is lower than compared to the increase in the elementary level. In 1993, 77% of the rural schools and 92% of the urban schools recorded drinking water facility. Compared to the above, in 2002, the secondary schools in the rural areas have recorded drinking facilities in 83% of the schools while it is 95% in urban schools.

Availability of drinking water facility in different types of schools - 1993 & 2002⁵⁴

Type of school	Year	Total No. of Schools	Schools Having Drinking Facility	% of Schools with Facility
Primary School	1993	49141	15439	31.42
	2002	61128	36931	60.42
Upper Primary school	1993	6381	3917	61.39
	2002	15096	12307	81.52
Secondary School	1993	6959	5720	82.2
	2002	12365	10730	86.78

On the whole the above scenario reveals that about 60% of primary schools, 81% of upper primary schools and 86% of secondary schools are having drinking water facilities in the schools.

6.6 Incentives & Concessions

One of the major limitations for poor people to send their children to school is to provide adequate educational support which includes text books, uniforms, school fees, travel cost etc.

6.6.1 Text Books

Government of Andhra Pradesh has the policy of providing free text books to the school children. All children of classes I to V studying in government and local body schools are provided with free text books. SC, ST, BC and Physically Handicapped children of classes VI to X studying in government and local body schools are also provided with free text books. The benefit is extended to the SC/ST/BC/PH children studying in Classes I to X in the Private Aided Schools.

SSA has provision for providing free text books to all girls of classes I to VIII provided the state governments have not extended such benefit to the classes. As part of this scheme, free text books are given to girls of classes VI- VIII also.

Priced Text Books, which are highly subsidised by the state, are supplied to the children other than reserved categories studying in Classes VI – X in all the schools (Government/

⁵⁴ Ibid

Local Body/Private Aided) and to the Private Unaided Schools/Recognised Schools/Social Welfare Hostels and also to the general public throughout the year.

6.6.2 Scholarships

The National Scholarship Scheme (1961-62) is implemented with the objective of providing scholarships for post matric studies to the brilliant but poor students. The Scholarship Scheme for Talented Children from Rural Areas at the Secondary Stage (1971 -72) is introduced with the objective to achieve equalisation of educational opportunities and to provide fillip to the development of talent from rural areas by educating talented rural children in good schools. These two schemes are merged during the Tenth Five Year Plan and are implemented through state governments with financial support from central government. In Andhra Pradesh, under the scheme nearly 28,000 children are benefited every year. Currently, scholarship is provided to rural children in Classes IX & X, children in Classes XI & XII and Graduate courses at the rate of scholarship amount of Rs.250/-, Rs.300/-, Rs. 500/-, Rs. 750/- respectively.

The state government is also awarding Pratibha scholarships @10 under each examination for every district to the toppers of VII, X, Intermediate and for the toppers of all state level entrance tests in various categories viz, Girls(2), SC(one),ST(one), BC(2),.Minorities (one), PH(1) and OC(2).

6.6.3 Transport Facility for Girls

As a social obligation on part of the Andhra Pradesh State Government, APSRTC, is extending various types of free/confessional bus passes facility to different categories of students in general and girls in particular, to travel by its buses operating both in cities / towns and mofussil areas. Free bus passes are issued by APSRTC to all girls of classes I to X and boys of classes I-VIII. It is also implementing free travel facility to all girl students upto an upper age limit of 18 years, studying Class X and below from August, 2000. This facility is extended for travel between the residence and school by ordinary services upto a maximum distance of 20 Kms. in rural areas and 22 Kms. in cities / towns.

'Free passes – Ticket to Success for School kids' – A success story⁵⁵

The APSRTC's scheme of providing free bus passes to children studying in State government schools has come as a boon to many. This scheme has not only reduced the number of dropouts and child labourers in rural areas, but has also led to an increase in the number of children attending school regularly. This facility has encouraged the poor to send their children to upper primary and high schools outside their village. Girl students too have benefited from the free bus passes allowing them to continue their education instead of looking after domestic work or agriculture operations. The 'punch passes' with nominal charges are being issued to boys above 12. Punch passes enable the poor to send their children outside the village for high school education. In all, 7,220 free bus passes were issued to boys while 9,122 were given to girls. The bus fare amount would be between per one student depending on the distance from 5 km to 20 kms. District education officer said the free bus passes are helping the poor parents to send their children to the schools at nearby towns.

6.7 Enhancing Quality – Performance of Students

6.7.1 Children Language Improvement Programme (CLIP)

The state has started a very innovative programme in the name of CLIP. Based on their knowledge of Telugu (ability to read and write) and basic mathematical skills (add, subtract, multiply and divide) the students are graded as A,B,C or D. On the basis of performance of pupils, classes and schools are also graded as A, B, C and D. Special programme and learning materials have been developed for remedial teaching and special attention is being given to slow learners.

Monitoring is done on regular basis by MEOs and MRPs and progress is very closely followed. All the class rooms display grade and record of every student to track progress. Performance of the districts is monitored at the state level on regular basis.

6.7.2 Teaching and Learning

The State is focusing on quality aspects of teaching, learning and school environment. The teacher grant (sanctioned under SSA) is being effectively utilised for the preparation of teaching- learning material keeping in view the needs of children including the disabled.

As part of the SSA programme, the State has launched a rigorous training programme for all primary, upper primary teachers and Head Teachers to make teaching-learning more effective and joyful, giving emphasis on classroom transaction, evaluation process and importance of remedial teaching.

⁵⁵ News item in Deccan Chronicle, dated 27-03-2006 Utnoor (Adilabad), March 26:

Chapter-VII

Issues in Perspective

7. Issues in Perspective

The issues and the concerns which emanate from the overall scenario presented in the strategy paper for Girl Child Education are mentioned hereunder:

7.1 Demographic

- Declining girl child sex ratio
- Low Female literacy rates particularly among rural female, S.C. female and S.T. Female.
- Parental apathy towards girls' education.
- Dowry system, a social evil forcing parents for the early marriage of school age girls in rural areas and socially and economically down trodden communities.

7.2 Access

- Parental fear of insecurity for out-station schooling of girls.
- Lack of suitable access for schooling of rural girls at secondary level of education.
- Lack of proper access for schooling of S.T. girls at Upper Primary and Secondary levels.
- Lack of proper access for schooling of out of school girls in work situations.

7.3 Enrolment and Retention

- Low Enrolment Ratios of girls in general and S.C. and S.T. girls in particular at Upper primary and Secondary levels.
- High dropout rates among ST girls at Primary level.
- High Dropout rate among girls at Upper primary level.
- Very High dropout rate among S.C. and S.T girls at Upper primary level.

7.4 Child Labour

- Lack of adequate machinery for the effective implementation of prevention of child labour Act and their schooling.
- The subject of child labour is transferred from Labour Department to the School Education Department. Officers of the Education department are designated as enforcement officers however their capacity building towards this new role is not taken care of.
- Inadequate follow up of mainstreaming of the children attending RBCs and NRBCs.
- Lack of needed attention in the effective organisation of alternative schooling system for mainstreaming of out of school children.

7.5 Quality

- Increase in cadre strength of teachers due to provincialisation of services of teachers and increased administrative work load of the District Education Officers and Mandal Education Officers leaving little scope for academic supervision of schools and monitoring of school programmes.
- Massive educational program being handled by junior level officers who lack adequate managerial capabilities.

- MEO is the nodal officer responsible for monitoring and implementation of various schemes and programs along with regular academic responsibilities. Precedence over the former is leading to low quality of teaching.
- No direct recruitment in the cadre of Mandal Education Officer.
- Low percentage share of female teachers in rural areas at primary, upper primary and secondary stages of education.
- Lack of female teachers' in-position in about 51% of Primary schools 25% of Upper primary schools and 16% of secondary schools.
- Lack of at least 2 classrooms still (2002) in about 40% of primary schools which include 8% of schools with no classrooms.
- Lack of adequate sanitary facilities for girls at Upper primary and secondary levels
- Lack of adequate teacher motivation to provide opportunities for girls in all the programmes related to UEE where more physical strain is not involved
- Lack of proper learning environment in teaching-learning situations due to overcrowded classrooms, lack of proper school buildings etc.
- Lack of adequate infrastructural facilities like teaching aids, furniture, equipment, games and sports material etc.
- Lack of adequate concern for children with special education needs.
- Lack of special attention to the enrolment, retention and learning achievements of children of focused groups like children of S.C., S.T., religious and linguistic minorities, street children etc.
- Inadequate involvement of the community in school programmes like enrolment, attendance, retention and pupil achievement.

Chapter-VIII

Strategies for Girl Child Education

8. Strategies for Girl Child Education

The strategies that address the issues concerning the education of the girls in the State are suggested below:

8.1 Demographic

- Building up public awareness on the threats of declining girl child sex ratio and its impact on the social life.
- Awareness campaigns on educating girls atleast upto class X and the fallout would be increase in the age of marriage and resultant decrease in maternal mortality rate which is a Millennium Development Goal.
- Encouraging competitions among populations of different habitations in achieving total literacy through monetary and other resource incentives.
- Giving boost to the total literacy programs in all areas of the state by involving the entire academic faculty from primary to university level atleast for a period of 2 years in a concerted manner.

8.2 Access

- Providing secondary school facility in each gram Panchayat having high SC population, within a radius of 3 km (in relaxation of the present norm of 5 Km) to enable the enrolment and retention of rural and SC girls in a phased manner.
- Provision of atleast Upper primary facility closer to remote ST habitations through upgradation of GVVKs / Primary schools / Alternative schools for the enrolment and retention of ST girls.
- Providing free bus service to all elementary school children and girls up to higher secondary by improving the bus connectivity and also the frequency.
- Building up public awareness on the need and importance of girls education through community mobilisation, awareness campaigns, media etc.
- Common school system and neighbourhood schools to be introduced.

8.3 Enrolment and retention

- Community mobilisation through awareness campaigns, enrolment drives and gram sabhas for the enrolment of the girls particularly at Upper primary and secondary levels.
- Parent Teacher Associations and School Committees to ensure that all girls in the village attend schools by enlisting the help of Self Help Groups and Mahila Mandals.
- Enrolment drive in June to mobilise enrolment of girls. The program to be repeated every year before reopening of schools.
- Special awards to schools/ School Committees which achieve total enrolment and total retention of girls in the village.
- Preference to habitation/ villages which have achieved 100% enrolment and retention of girls in Schools in sanction of public facilities like post offices/ e-Seva centres/ primary health centre/ cooperative bank etc.
- The current policy of the State is bifurcation of Primary sections from Secondary schools as when they are upgraded in to secondary schools. Clubbing of Primary and Secondary schools which are functioning in the same premises to ensure total retention of girls.

8.4 Child Labour

- Capacity building for the officers of the education department who are designated as enforcement officers
- All incentives provided for girls by different departments like education social welfare, tribal welfare, women and child welfare, projects like SSA, Velugu, NCLP etc to be disbursed to the beneficiaries in the gram sabhas.
- Every Primary school to have a pre- primary section in villages where Anganwadi centres are not available, which will relieve the girl child of the sibling burden.

8.5 Quality

- **Administration**
 - Restructuring of the district administration and upgradation of the post of District Educational Officer into Joint Director cadre who would be assisted by two District Educational Officers one in charge of Primary education (including SSA, Mid day meal programme) and the other for Secondary education.
 - Direct recruitment in the cadre of Mandal Education Officer
 - Capacity building courses to be offered to all officers involved in massive educational programs to ensure efficiency and optimum utilisation of resources.
 - Sensitizing functionaries on girl child education.
- **Teachers**
 - To ensure atleast one female teacher in every Primary, Upper Primary and Secondary School.
 - Sensitizing teachers on gender issues and steps to be taken by the teachers encouraging girls' student participation in the classroom activities, co-curricular activities to ensure equity in participation and attainment.
 - Ensuring the availability of all subject teachers all through out the year.
- **Accountability**
 - Norms of accountability for teachers to be formulated and implemented with incentives for good performance and disincentives for non-performance as laid down in NPE, 1986 and POA 1992.
 - Ensuring women teachers in all schools by Rationalisation and by linking up promotions with placements for all teachers. Promotions once declined cannot be provided again (necessary amendments to the existing rules).
 - Introducing the clause of fixed tenure of 2 to 3 years for all newly recruited teachers in areas of low female literacy
 - Learning guarantee to be provided by the school at large to the children, parents and community.
- **Infrastructure**
 - Infrastructural facilities to be enhanced for schools with high Girls enrolment. Provision of adequate classrooms and sanitation facilities in all secondary schools to facilitate retention of girls.
 - Provision of sanitation facilities in all Primary, Upper Primary and Secondary schools by convergence of various departmental initiatives like SSA, Indiramma, PMGY etc. A need based approach to be followed.
 - Periodic review of the existing facilities in the residential schools and annual replenishment of the facilities

- **Towards better learning leading to empowerment of girls**
 - Teachers to be made responsible to pay special attention for better learning of children particularly girls.
 - Tutorial classes for slow learners including girls of Classes VII and X in Mathematics and Science.
 - School level physical education activities are to be organised and separate events are to be organised for girls.
 - Launching of confidence developing measures through various monetary and material incentives for the continuation of girls education atleast till secondary level.
 - Cash incentives to SC/ST girls with more than 80% aggregate in SSC

- **Social Audit**
 - The school charter to be displayed by all schools at a prominent place in the school.
 - Periodic evaluation of the performance of the school by the community.
 - Participatory appraisal of the performance of all the schools is to be taken up at mandal level involving headmasters, members of School Committees Gram Panchayats and Self Help Groups (SHGs). Mechanisms of grading of schools based on the enrolment and retention of children, performance of students, conducive school environment for girl child etc.

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