Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Meaning of Education

"If you educate a man you educate an individual, however, if you educate a woman you educate a whole family. Women empowered means mother India empowered".

– Pt. Jawaharlal Nehru

Etymological meaning of education, education is a combination of towards one is 'E' and another one 'DUCO'. E means out of and "DUCO" means to lead. Thus education means to draw out rather than put in. The term "education" is derived from the Latin term " Educatum," which meaning "to teach" or "to train." According to a group of educators, it comes from the Latin term "Educare," which meaning "to bring up" or "to raise." Others claim that the word "education" comes from another Latin verb "educare," which means "to lead forth" or "to come out." All of these interpretations imply that education aims to nurture man's good characteristics and bring out the best in each individual. Education is to help people develop their inner abilities. We try to provide a person desirable knowledge, understanding, skills, interest, attitudes, and critical thinking by educating him. That is, he learns history, geography, mathematics, languages, and sciences. He gains a better knowledge of the deeper aspects of life, such as intricate interpersonal relationships and cause–and–effect relationships, and so on. He learns to write, speak, calculate, draw, and operate equipment, among other things. He develops an interest in, as well as attitudes toward, social work, democratic living, cooperative management, and other related topics. As a member of society, he is required to think critically about a variety of subjects and make decisions devoid of bias, prejudice, superstitions, and blind beliefs. As a result, he must master all of these mental qualities.

According to Walton James, Education is an endeavour by older members of society to shape the next generation in conformity with their own ideals of life. According to the Indian education commission (1964–66), the education of girls is

more important than that of boys in shaping the character of children during their most formative year of childhood.

Education has long been recognized as a critical tool for the development and transformation of a society. As a result, education has been assigned a crucial role by a nation in achieving its Constitutional objectives and carrying out its responsibilities. It goes without saying that education has an impact on a person's personality from the moment he or she is born. In reality, it continues to have an impact up to the individual's death, and it continues to have an impact until the individual's death. If this is the case, those in charge of the nation's administration and who are passionate about its development – economic, social, emotional, moral, political, technological, scientific, and other relevant life areas – will need to devise a blueprint that will facilitate the achievement of this important goal.

Education has an impact on both formal and informal levels. Education's formal effects are manifested through educational institutions, while its informal effects are manifested through family, society, the physico–psycho–biological environment, and the state. Pre–elementary, elementary, secondary, and higher education are the four stages of formal education. Although each level of education has its own existence and purpose in moulding an individual learner's personality, the secondary level of education has been acknowledged as the backbone of the overall educational system. The rationale for this is that this stage allows the developing individual learner to enter an arena that is appropriate for his inherited potentials and acquired talents. This observation implies that the secondary learner has the option of pursuing a professional/vocational career, an academic career through higher education, a technical career through a technical institution, or a fine arts career through the skills acquired through continuous exposure to music, fine arts, painting, drawing, and other life experiences.

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attitudes, and critical thinking by educating him. That is, he learns history, geography, mathematics, languages, and sciences. He gains a better knowledge of the deeper aspects of life, such as intricate interpersonal relationships and cause–and–effect relationships, and so on. He learns to write, speak, calculate, draw, and operate equipment, among other things. He develops an interest in, as well as attitudes toward, social work, democratic living, cooperative management, and other related topics. As a member of society, he is required to think critically about a variety of subjects and make decisions, devoid of bias, prejudice, superstitions, and blind beliefs. As a result, he must master all of these mental qualities

The word 'education' comes from the Latin word educatum, which means "to educate." The Latin words educere and educare, which mean "to educate" and "to bring up," are the origins of the term education. Education is essential at all stages of human growth. Individuals are empowered to become self–sufficient, and they are able to participate in the National development process. Education is widely acknowledged as playing a critical role in long–term social and economic development. It is also a powerful tool for social and economic mobility, as well as a crucial tool for creating a more egalitarian society. Education, according to Walton James, is an endeavour by older members of society to shape the next generation in conformity with their own ideals of life. According to the Indian education commission (1964–66), the education of girls is more important than that of boys in shaping the character of children during their most formative year of childhood.

The importance of education in the development paradigm is widely acknowledged, and in most developing countries, education is seen as an article of religion and modernisation. Education is a great tool for bringing about quick societal transformation. It is not only a basic necessity for everybody with reading and writing skills, but it also instils in them the values of humanism, democracy, and National integration. It is the key to all human development processes. Individuals are empowered to become self–sufficient, and they are able to participate in the National development process.

Despite the difficult economic settings in which many developing countries must provide for education, the education of girls and women is seen as a crucial investment. Given the duty of women for socializing the next generation, education not only has a significant multiplier effect, but it also increases the potential of girls to contribute to the social, economic, and political aspects of National development.

When it comes to tackling International problems, Kofi Annan (United Nations Secretary General, 15 January 2004) states, "I believe in the potential of girls." When women are fully involved, the benefits are immediately apparent: families are healthier, better fed, and their income, savings, and investments increase. And what applies to families also applies to communities, and finally the entire planet. In underdeveloped countries, investing in girls' education can yield greater returns than any other investment. Mahatma Gandhi once stated, "Educate one man, and you've educated one individual; educate a woman, and you've educated a society."

Education for girls is one of the most effective expenditures for achieving poverty eradication, population control, and improved living standards. There are various social benefits, including marriages at the appropriate age, lower fertility rates, and healthier and better–nourished families. It has an impact on citizens' participation in the country's political and economic life, as well as generating significant economic benefits for society as whole and individual families in particular. Despite the difficult economic settings in which many developing countries must provide for education, the education of girls and women is seen as a crucial investment. Given women's duty for socializing the next generation, education not only has a significant multiplier effect, but it also increases women's potential to contribute to the social, economic, and political aspects of National development.

This articulates the condition of girls and women in the education sector and discusses variables that impact them, in accordance with the National Education Policy, Gender in Education, for example, cultural and social elements such as socialization, the girl in a family who is perceived as a submissive person with no voice, provides a model of a caring mother. This unfavorable factor contributes to her bad academic achievement. UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, 1964) Gender discrimination is the single most critical issue prohibiting girls from attending and succeeding in school. Both the girls and the lads have obstacles to overcome. For the most part, girls face greater and more frequent challenges just because they are female. 2007 (UNICEF, p.1). In this regard, India established a National commitment under Article 45 of the Indian constitution to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14. Education was recognized as a concurrent subject in the mid–1970s, implying a serious partnership between the federal and state Governments.

1.1.1 Order of Education in the System

In the preamble to the Education System Order, also known as the Oseidasaresho, the underlying concept of the Education System Order was made public.

The preface made it clear that the new education system would be significantly different from the Confucian system of the past. The emphasis on individualism and the practical usefulness of education and research were among the unique Western ideals emphasized in the preamble. The prologue emphasized the importance of individual self–improvement as well as the benefits of regular school attendance. It was stated that a lack of formal education was frequently the cause of personal failure. Only the well–to–do had previously been educated, and the importance of learning had simply not been recognized. Only a hazy understanding of what education was for, and why it should be pursued existed. The Government formed the Education System Order and overhauled its approach to education in order to rectify this predicament. All people may have a chance to rise up the social ladder if more schools are built and educational opportunities are expanded. Everyone involved, from the Department of Education on down, was expected to work together to ensure the success of education. Parents were held accountable for their children's school attendance and were expected to make every effort to promote their children's education. This prologue to the Education System Order contains a very clear method of thought. The purpose of schools was to provide practical information and help students improve their abilities. As a result, those who received this instruction were expected to be diligent. Education was seen as a valuable resource for achieving success in life, and everyone was expected to use it. The philosophy represented a significant divergence from traditional educational thinking. Another significant aspect of this text was its suggestion for the formation of public education. The various prefectures were supposed to explain the new concept of education as well as the role of parents in sending their children to school in order to ensure public approval of the reforms.

Some prefectural administrations sent instructional literature to their citizens in an eager effort to support the Order's educational goals. At the time of the implementation of the Education System Order, official notices of school attendance requirements were published in various prefectures, and information on the concept of modern schools was made available to education.

1.1.2 Purpose of Education

The goal of education is not to create a particular virtue, but to build healthy, normal human beings who grasp what life is all about and what it requires of them. From birth until adolescence, educators and psychologists must constantly remind pupils that cooperation, not self–aggrandizement, dominance, or conflict, is the fundamental law of life. If we could put a stop to our problems, life would be far healthier, richer, and nobler than it has ever been.

Basic Education

Education is seen as a man's third eye, and primary education is regarded as one of his most basic needs, because the intellectual aptitude of people is critical to the prosperity of any nation, universal elementary education has become a requirement.

Equalizing educational possibilities entails providing all school–aged children with a reasonably good quality education without prejudice. Since the declaration of the right to education, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has hosted numerous conferences of education ministers to promote universal primary education around the world. Secondary Schooling:

In the Hyderabad Karnataka region, there are numerous high schools. Government Schools account for 61.04% of the total schools. Unaided Schools account for 25.31% of all schools. In the remaining sectors, 11.70% are aided schools. 71% of those schools are located in rural areas. This implies that there has been a greater distribution of schools in rural areas in the Hyderabad Karnataka Region, and that there is a universal distribution of high schools in the Hyderabad Karnataka Region. With an increase in elementary school attendance in Karnataka, the private sector is playing an increasingly important role in providing schooling facilities at higher levels of education. Secondary education is in high demand, but not in a big way.

Secondary Education

In Hyderabad, it is estimated that 03.10% of the population attends secondary school. In Karnataka, an overall, 30.45% have completed PU Education and 02.43% have graduated, indicating that the lyre of education attachment is lower among Science and Commerce, which has a substantial impact on the house holder's future earnings. At the higher secondary school level, there should be proper teaching, practical, and field work. Many developing countries, such as India, confront challenges with a shortage of resource materials, foundations, and skilled instructors and teachers.

College Education

At this level, the picture would be practically the inverse of that of the primary level, with the greatest focus on knowledge of sustainable development based on conservation experience, followed in descending order by conservation, real–life scenario, and awareness. The content must be based on science and technology and be appropriate for a college or university setting. There will be teaching, as well as practical and action–oriented field work.

In school education, the NCERT has played an important role in developing curriculum, textbooks, guidebooks, charts, and kits, as well as teaching material and aids for both students and teachers.

University Education

The University Grants Commission is in charge of environmental education at this level. A high–powered group has been formed to identify areas of E.E at the postgraduate level. There are approximately ten universities that provide female education programmes. There are also research institutes and professional institutions that offer engineering courses, such as the Indian Institute of Technology (IIT), Engineering colleges, and Schools of Planning and Architecture. University education has three major components: teaching, research, and extension at the postgraduate level.

Educational Background

As education is an important tool for marginalized groups' empowerment, I should devote the necessary attention in the multi–sector development plan (MSDP) for the Hyderabad Karnataka Region, which is the most backward area in the state and ranks low in both economic and human development. The district is also flood–prone, adding to the vulnerability of the poor. The binding indicates that higher schools for females with hostel facilities are crucial to achieve female literacy empowerment since the household lacks higher level abilities. Scholarships and school loans should be granted with more flexibility to allow children from low–income families to pursue higher education. Free books in primary schools residential amenities, as well as sports and recreation facilities, should be established to encourage children, particularly girls, to pursue education. To ensure that children receive an education, schools should begin with Urdu as the language of instruction with gradual transition to Kannada as the medium of instruction at the secondary level.

1.2 Girls Education in India

Education ensures the complete development of one's personality and, as a result, the nation's long–term growth. As a result, in India, elementary education is the bedrock upon which each citizen's and the nation's progress is built. However, making basic education accessible to all in India has been one of the Government's greatest concerns. Furthermore, the Government has expressed concern about the quality of primary education in India. In India, elementary education entails eight years of schooling, beginning at the age of six. Elementary education has been made compulsory and free by the Government. However, achieving the goal of universal primary education in India has proven to be a difficult task. As a result, the country has pioneered new approaches to universalizing primary education. Over the last two decades, a concentrated effort has been made through a variety of official and non–Governmental plans and programs.

The Indian Government has made female education a top priority. Both men and women must work together to achieve true societal growth. In every way, one should be empowered. After the adoption of the Constitution (86th Amendment) Act in December 2002, the National promise to provide free and compulsory education to all children aged 6–14 years is now a Fundamental Right of every child in India. However, it is clear that, in our society, girls' education has suffered for a variety of reasons. In addition, the proportion of girls in the total enrolment has risen. In primary schools, girls' enrolment rose from 28.1% in 1950–51–46.7% in 2004–05. Girls' enrolment in upper primary schools increased from 16.1% in 1950–51 to 44.4% in 2004–05. The overall improvement in girls' enrolment compared to the total population of girls clearly demonstrates that primary school enrolment is nearly universal. At the upper elementary level, there is still a gap and a challenge, but it is narrowing steadily. The enrolment of girls from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes is a significant issue for India's education administration. According to the survey results, these poor girls' engagement in basic education has consistently increased over time. The gross enrolment rate (GER) for Scheduled Caste girls has increased from 64.8% in 1986–87 to 106.6% in 2004–05, and from 26.6% in 1986–87 to 61.5% in 2004–05 at the upper primary level. In the instance of Schedule tribe females, the GER at primary level increased from 68% in 1986–87 to 115.5% in 2004–05, and at upper primary level, it increased from 21.9% in 1986–87 to 59.5% in 2004–05. Girls have a twice–as–high rate of dropping out of school as boys. In terms of enrolment and retention, gender discrepancies are obvious.

In 2005, the overall gender disparity in primary school enrolment was 4.6% points, and the gap in upper primary school enrolment was 8.0 percentage points. The disparity between male and female literacy rates at the state and National level is 19.89% and 21.59%, respectively, according to census statistics from 2001. This suggests that girls' education is severely neglected, and society must respond immediately.

1.2.1 India's Girl Education: A Socio–Historical Analysis

It is not an exaggeration to say that "when you educate a man, you teach an individual; when you educate a woman, you educate a family and a nation." Women's education is more vital today than it has ever been. Despite a steady increase in women's education over the last four decades, there is still much to be done in this area. All of the Government's programs for the advancement of women's education since independence have merely scratched the surface of the problem, which is massive. This is due to the fact that women account for roughly half of the country's population, with the majority of them being illiterate, backward, and exploited. For them, the only way out is through solid education. These issues have their origins in our country's socio–historical processes. As a result, it is critical to research those socio–historical developments that have contributed to women's poor social position, even in today's world.

1.2.1.1 In Ancient India, During the Early Vedic Period

Men were allowed to read the Vedas and conduct sacrifices. Upanayana, female Vedic initiation was as common as male Vedic initiation. There were women scholars who remained unmarried for a long time in order to devote their time to furthering their education. The Rigvedic collection is claimed to comprise hymns written by many poetesses. Gargi was a famous dialectician and philosopher of religion and philosophy, while Maitreyi was greatly interested in the pebbles of philosophy. Many of the ladies chose to teach as a career. There were possibly boarding houses for female pupils under the supervision of female teachers. Several Buddhist women's families used to live celibate lives in order to study religion and philosophy.

Ladies who had achieved knowledge of Brama, the Supreme Being, were known as Brahmavadini women. They were also known as Mantranids who knew the Mantras, i.e. the Vedas, and Panditas who were scholarly. For example, Kausalya, Rama's mother, and Tara, Bali's wife, are depicted as Mantranids in the Ramayana, and Draupadi as a Pandita in the Mahabharata.

Girls were allowed to participate in the Upanayana rite, wear sacred thread, and live celibate lives. During those days, they were free to study the Veda, Vedangas, and other subjects with their brother pupils.

Not only were Gargi, Maitreye, Atreyi, Kaushalya, Tara, and Draupadi examples of highly educated ancient women, but several more have been immortalized in Sanskrit literature.

1.2.1.2 At the End of the Vedic Period

Women's education, on the other hand, continued in rich, sophisticated, and aristocratic families. True, they did not have a Vedic education, but they did receive a solid foundation in domestic and fine arts such as singing, dancing, painting, garland making, and home decorating. They knew Sanskrit and Prakrit and could read and write in both languages. Rich families hired tutors to teach their daughters about their talents and successes. However, the collapse of women's education in ordinary families who could not afford to hire special teachers to school their daughters at home was swift.

Several poetesses flourished in Prakrit during the period from 200 B.C. to 1200 A.D., despite a dramatic deterioration in the overall standard of women's education. Of them, seven were particularly notable. Rawa, Roha, Madhabi, Anulakshmi, Pahali, Vaddavali, and Sasiprava were their names. Literary and philosophical criticism piqued the curiosity of certain female scholars of the time. They had a solid understanding of the Mimamsa, Vedanta and Sanskrit literature. Some of the female scholars pursued medicine as well, with the majority focusing in gynaecology. A handful of them even contributed to authoritative books in the field of medicine.

1.2.1.3 During the Muslim Era

Normally, Muslim education in India began to be given mostly through fold agendas from the eleventh and twelfth centuries A.D.

1. Madarasas or Colleges
2. Maktab
3. Mosques and Khankhas

During the Muslim period, Muslim women, particularly those from the upper and well–to–do classes, achieved significant progress in their education. Women from royal families were given private instruction within the palace under the Turkish–Afghan era.

During the Sultanate period, various Muslim kings established Madarasas to teach women arts and crafts. Razia Sultana appears to be well–known among Muslim ladies around this time.

The princesses were also given a liberal education by the Mughal rulers. Gul Badan Begum, Babur's daughter and author of Humayan Namah, Nur Jahan, Jahangeer's famed wife, Mumtaz Mahal, Shah Jahan's wife, Jahanara Begum, Shah Jahan's eldest daughter, Zebunissa Begum, Aurangzeb's eldest daughter were all learned ladies of the Royal household. In Bengal, Akbar designated particular chambers for Zamindars who could read and write.

During this time, there were various prejudices against women receiving education through schools.

As a result, we can conclude that Muslim women from the upper classes of society were generally educated and accomplished. Given the limits of the time, particularly those imposed by the Purdhah System, it's difficult to believe that girls' education was ubiquitous on a large scale.

However, Hindu women, particularly those from the upper and middle classes, did not lag behind their Muslim counterparts in terms of education and cultural achievements. In recent literatures, there are numerous references in this regard. However, there are examples that suggest that boys and girls could read in the same school, at least in the primary and lower secondary levels of schooling. Women's possibilities for getting education may have been severely limited as a result of their seclusion within the four walls of their homes, and most brilliant ladies, particularly those from the upper classes, may have acquired their education from private tutors. As a result, women's education has suffered a significant drop. Only a small percentage of the overall female population was educated, and those who did were mostly from the families of Rajaput leaders and Bengal Zamindars. There were no schools dedicated solely to Hindu girls. They were taught in some of the same settings as the boys, but only up to primary school. Women's education became a source of discrimination in Hindu society as a whole. During this time, the loss in literacy among women was so rapid that by the beginning of the nineteenth century, only one woman in a hundred could read and write. The percentage of women who were literate was substantially higher in certain Hindu communities, such as the Nayars of the south, but these groups were few. More than 90% of Hindu women were uneducated at the time.

It is clear from all of this that girls and ladies from Muslim royal and noble households in Medieval India received religious and literary education. However, the mentality of Indian society in general, and parents in particular, remained unchanged; women were still barred from traditional education, and it was widely believed that investing in women's education was a waste of money.

1.2.1.4 During the Modern Era

After the death of Aurangzeb, the last of the Mughal emperors, in 1707 A.D., a decline in moral discipline accompanied the fall of Muslim rule. According to Rama Sharma both Hindu and Mohammedan science and learning had devolved into a dreadful state of ruin. Women's education was no exception, and the situation persisted until 1854, even under British authority.

Over three lakh girls were enrolled in primary and secondary schools in 1918–22, but only 2% of them were receiving secondary education; once girls hit puberty, they were quickly removed from the formal schooling sector, which meant exposure to the outside world, among other things. The Zenana system's privacy was suggested as being ideal for people whose primary goal in life was to be a stay–at–home mom. "At large encouragement or toleration of the education of their girls only up to the standards at which it can do little benefit or, depending to the point of view, little harm," wrote the 1886 assessment of education. Even now, the nation's belief that education might be damaging to girls is widely held. While recent numbers show that 75% of girls in the relevant age range are enrolled in the country's 5 lakh primary schools, and that girls' school enrolment has expanded significantly over the last century, these figures only tell part of the picture. The relevance of women was emphasized by the education commission in 1882. In a culture where women's isolation was still prominent, education was important.

While some more radical social reformers claimed that girls, like boys, required education to develop their personalities, western education has produced a new generation of young men who anticipated more from their respective marriages. In the nineteenth century, Hindu women still had a low standing. Emancipation was hampered by early marriage and sati. Raja Ram Mohan Roy and William Bentinck were instrumental in the emancipation of Hindu women. The practice of compulsory window hooding and the restriction of divorce harmed upper–class women. The Devadaasi custom was followed by the lowest classes.

Despite their socioeconomic impoverishment, a few women were able to rise to positions of prominence. Toru Datta, Pandita Ramabai, Swarn Kumari Devi, Kamini Roy, and Sorojini Naidu were among them. In the nineteenth century, a number of reformers established institutions dedicated to the advancement of women. Poona Sevasadan by Gopal Krishna Gokhale and Widow Homes and Women University of Poona by D.K. Karve deserve special recognition.

Despite these efforts, women did have access to Western education, which eventually led to the awakening of social and political consciousness in India. Women's education was met with opposition, and the Government was hesitant to support the initiative.

During the first quarter of the twentieth century, there was rapid progress in overcoming prejudice against women's education. Women's emancipation from oppression and suffering become an increasingly popular mission. The goal of the Bharat Stri Maha mandal, which was established in the United Province and Bengal, was to create a centre where women of all races, creeds, and political colours could work together for emancipation. The Gujarat Stri Mandal in Bombay worked hard to abolish Purdha so that women may socialize with one another, and it also devised a comprehensive educational program. The Seva Sadan Society, founded in 1909 in Bombay, was a humanitarian and educational organization.

The supposed goals of education, which include the development of a certain degree of thinking independence, a spirit of inquiry, and objectivity, could jeopardize the two sets of values that were formed in British India with the idea of different curricula and courses for boys and girls. A quick glance through the relevant sections of post–Independence education commissions and committees reveals that the concept of difference is rigorously nurtured.

1.2.2 The Beginnings of Girls' Education

The American Missionary Association, which established the first local girls' education society in Bombay in 1824, is credited with making the first organized effort to educate Indian girls. By the year 1829, the school had a total of 400 female students. The Scottish Missionary Society followed suit, and in 1829, R. R. Wilson, one of India's most well–known figures, built six schools for native girls in Bombay on its behalf. In the year 1840, this association established five schools for upper–class Hindu girls in the Poona area. In 1851, the students' literary and scientific association was founded, by early workers like Dadabhai Naoroji and

Mr. Manidik among its founders. This organization began with nine vernacular free schools that served over 650 females. The renowned dispatch on education, which laid out the lines on which the Government's job of educating the Indian people was to be done, was sent to the Government of India by the Court of directors in 1854. The urgency and importance of female education in India were emphasized in this message. There were 65 girls' schools in 1854, with 3,500 students. In the Bombay Presidency, the number of schools had increased to 209 by 1869, and the number of students had increased to almost 3500. The Missionaries of the Scottish Church made the first attempt to provide schools for native females in Madras Presidency in 1841. The first girls' school under partial native direction was established in 1845. There were 256 girls' schools in Madras Presidency when the dispatch of 1854 arrived in India, with 8000 girls enrolled. In 1881, the number of students had risen to nearly 3,5000, while the number of teachers had increased to 557.

In Bengal, the Dispatch of 1854 discovered 288 girls' schools with over 7000 students. In 1881, there were over 1,000 girls' schools, with over 41000 students enrolled. As a result, the missionaries' and British's work in educating women in other parts of the country gained traction.

From 1882–1947, improvement in girls' education was said to be slow but steady, with the effluent portions of society or those families who favored foreign rulers confirming this. Nonetheless, women's enrolment rose from 0% of total enrollment in educational institutions under formal systems at the beginning of British rule to approximately 25% of total enrolment by the end of the British administration (1947), which is no minor feat. At the very least, foreign rulers should be credited with commencing the process of women's educational development as part of India's formal education system.

1.2.2.1 The Reasons Behind India's Poor Growth in Girls' Education

There are a variety of factors that hinder girls from attending school. One of the most important of them is the high expense of education, which is followed by social problems and a discriminatory work environment inside the school system. We'll go over each of these reasons in further detail.

Education has a High Opportunity Cost

Poor households rely largely on the labor of their children and women; as a result, the returns on education, which usually include only a few years of schooling, are low. Being at school entails foregoing the potential to earn or assist, allowing adults to engage in useful activities. In a poverty environment, the prices are too

expensive in real terms, and learning is considered as a poor investment that does not guarantee improved employment. Furthermore, more females than boys are hired at a young age, while boys are more likely to be given the option of a few years of schooling if given the chance.

Social Aspects

Early marriage is a significant social factor that influences women's educational engagement. Pre–pubertal and child weddings are not rare, despite the fact that girls nowadays marry at an average age of 17 years. In a competitive marriage market, an educated, if not employed, daughter is becoming increasingly valuable among the middle class; yet, there are significant limitations to the sort and quantity of education, as well as the types of employment to which girls can gain access. Parents' willingness to send their daughters to school is contingent on the availability of certain amenities, such as more girls' schools, more female teachers, school proximity to their houses, and improved bathroom facilities, among others. When the latest Government document claims that 95% of the population lives within a kilometer of a primary school and that 80% lives within a kilometer of a middle school, the same document also acknowledges the lack of essential school facilities such as potable water, buildings, and blackboards.

Discriminatory Work Environment in the School System

Clearly, the challenges surrounding girls' education do not end with assuring a higher proportion of enrolment in schools. Certain school practices perpetuate conventional conceptions of what it means to be a girl. When some forms of persuasion are more subtle than others, the result is a continuance of gender disparity. The substance of text books and the access of females to particular types of courses are two distinct aspects of the inner life of schools.

Perceptions of Women's Education

Although the social attitude toward girls' education has improved, there are still some aspects that are hostile to girls' education. Traditional conventions, poor economic conditions of parents, and the dowry system are all key issues in the education of girls and women in India.

Imbalances in Other Areas

Education is a double–edged sword that can reduce socio–economic inequities while also creating new types of inequality between those who have it and

those who do not. Apart from the steep rise in the number of illiterate women and the discrepancy in development between rural and urban areas, there are significant educational disparities between advanced and backward groups, as well as across different regions. Inequalities in women's education and literacy are the result of regional discrepancies, which reflect, to a large part, differences in women's regional attitudes.

1.2.2.2 Education Problems for Girls

Family Issues

Some members of the family are concerned about a girl's education. In general, rural people in rural areas rarely want to send their daughters to school, although some of their relatives do not want to send their daughters to school. They speculate about what the girls will do following the research. After that, they marry without having completed their studies.

Due to a familial issue, girls are not receiving a decent education. One is that some families believe it is unnecessary to spend money on their children's education.

Social Issues

As some members of society have a different mentality toward women, females are excluded from school. They have that worldview, which limits the empowerment of women.

Money Issues

Some parents from lower–income homes do not have the financial means to send their daughters to school. When they don't have the money to invest in their health and aren't getting the necessary nutrition, they don't have a choice.

1.2.2.3 Constitutional and Policy Framework

Article 15(1) of the Indian Constitution, which deals with the right to equality, lays out the essential policy framework for girls' education and the spirit in which it should be delivered. Education was a state subject until 1976. The Central Government has taken a more prominent involvement in the sector since its transfer to the concurrent list by the 42nd Constitutional Amendment in 1976, through numerous officially supported programmes that have a unique influence on boosting education for girls. The National Policy on Education 1986 (as amended in 1992), which established a holistic vision for the education of women and girls

and acknowledged the cross–cutting challenges that hampered the achievement of this aim, gave a new boost to girls' education. Its goal is to use education as a catalyst for fundamental change in women's place in society.

The Indian Constitution's 86th Amendment Act of 2002 declared basic education to be a Fundamental Right for children aged 6–14, stating that "the state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children aged six to fourteen years in such manner as the state may, by law, determine." In India, where there has been such a strong dedication to the cause of basic education, this legislation has united Governments, community–based groups, and civil society to achieve universal primary education. The Government of India, in collaboration with state Governments, has devised many policies, initiatives, programmes, and programs with specific goals affecting girls' education, based on the Constitution and other policy pronouncements stated in the years since.

1.2.2.4 Girls' Education and General Equality

The question of women's status and access to intellectual resources arises as a result of the discussion of social and cultural impediments to girls' education. The issue of girls' education must be considered in the context of women's overall status in our society. At one level, broad regional differences in status have contributed to unequal access, with certain regions experiencing all–round success in higher education. On the other hand, despite geographical variances, women in all parts of the country have not had equal access to education. Girls from higher social and economic strata outperform boys from impoverished communities in terms of academic achievement. Women from landless households, including those from socially and economically disadvantaged areas and even those residing in the country's most backward regions, have been completely excluded from educational and developmental activities.

In India, Promoting Gender Equality Via Education

Protests in India have continued for weeks following the horrible gang–rape of a 23–year–old university student on December 16th 2012 and her subsequent death two weeks later—and rightly so, as the event was beyond control with the dreadful details of this massive demonstration exposing women's vulnerability. Instead, this horrible murder serves as a symbol for India's deep and chronic gender discrimination. Every day, girls and women are assaulted, and Indians, particularly young ones, are fed up with it. They declare "enough is enough."

There are legitimate reasons why half of all Indian girls do not want to be girls, and it is past time for that to change. The fact that the topic of gender equality is on everyone's mind is a silver lining to this tragedy. An alumnus of our Global Scholars Program for girls' education is following this issue from India, writing that the debate on gender equality is "engaging voices from all sectors of society, including students, civil society, academia, political parties, the police, the judiciary, and the Government" for the first time. The question now is what India will do to better the position of women and girls.

Much of the public debate focuses on both short and long–term solutions, such as improving the criminal justice system, updating the legal code, supporting the women's movement, building new accountability systems, and, of course, having "more talk about India's patriarchal standards." All of these considerations are critical, but the last is likely the most difficult for policy makers and bureaucrats to address. Even though it is the most difficult, challenging gender stereotypes is one of the most important aspects of long–term transformation. Without a fundamental shift in how girls and women are valued in India, critical initiatives such as legislation reforms and police training will fall into the problematic category of "necessary but insufficient" for achieving gender equality.

If done correctly, education has the potential to reshape gender norms in India. There have been countless outstanding examples of education influencing people's perspectives in the world and ultimately leading to new forms of behavior, methods of relating to others, and social standards all across the world. Indeed, there has been decades of academic research on this topic, to the point that entire subfields of education theory and practice, such as the field of transformational learning and Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy, have developed.

Gender Equality Background

Literacy levels were extremely low when India gained independence in 1947. According to the 1951 census, only 9% of the female population and 27% of the male population were literate. Some contributions to Indian education were made during the British Rule, but they were mostly for the aim of strengthening elite that could help run the country (Kingdom et al., 2005). Efforts were made after Independence to improve the condition. The Indian Constitution of 1950 said, "Within ten years of the start of this Constitution, the State should endeavour to offer free and compulsory education for all children till they finish the age of fourteen years." Successive federal Governments reaffirmed this goal, and most

state legislatures implemented, obligatory elementary education legislation. Despite significant efforts, however, the population's educational level has only slowly grown, and large disparities between social classes and sexes remain. Children from the wealthiest 20% of the population attend school for an average of 11.1 years, compared to 4.2 years for children from the lowest 20%. Poor rural females fare far worse, with only three years of education on average. The school attendance rates of children from lower castes and tribes are significantly lower than the National average (UNESCO, 2010:172). Several attempts were made to eliminate inequities after independence.

In 1986, the National Policy on Education tried to level the playing field for different social groups in terms of educational possibilities. The equality of Scheduled Castes and Tribes with non–scheduled castes became the fundamental emphasis of their educational growth. Since independence, caste groups have been grouped into broad categories and listed as beneficiaries of affirmative action in a Government Schedule – Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes, Other Backward Castes, and Others. The previous "untouchables" are now known as Scheduled Castes (SC). They have historically been subjected to prejudice and deprivation, and they continue to be among India's poorest populations. Although the Other Backward Castes (OBC) was not designated untouchables, their social and economic status was comparable to that of the "untouchables."

Even during the British period, there was much dispute about whether OBCs should be given special treatment because they have not been stigmatized as "untouchables." Apart from the caste system, India has a number of tribes that have been classified as Scheduled Tribes (ST).

The term "equity" has entered the lexicon of educational policy, where the topic is no longer just about giving equal opportunity in education but also about taking affirmative action. To this purpose, the National Government has launched a number of educational initiatives with the goal of enabling SCs and STs to improve their educational levels, enhance their income, and improve their quality of life.

1.2.2.5 GPE'S Gender Equality Policy and Strategy 2016–2020

Reflection on a change away from a narrow focus on girls' education to a broader focus on gender equality, which covers areas where boys are underserved as well as gender concerns involving teachers, administrators, and systems. GPE's support for gender equality is manifested in the following ways. Gender–responsive

education sector plans: GPE supports nations in their efforts to establish, finance, and execute gender–responsive education sector plans. Specific initiatives to decrease gender gaps and improve teaching are included in these plans. GPE's Gender Equality Policy and Strategy 2016–2020 indicates a transition away from a narrow focus on girls' education to a more wide focus on gender equality, which encompasses areas where boys are disadvantaged, as well as gender concerns involving teachers, administrators, and systems. GPE is committed to gender equality in the following ways. GPE assists countries' development efforts by developing gender–responsive education sector plans. Engagement in gender–responsive education sector planning and implementation. Specific methods to decrease gender inequities and make teaching and learning more sensitive to the needs of both girls and boys are included in these programs. Separate restrooms for girls and access to menstrual hygiene supplies are among the physical school environment improvements. GPE has created guidelines to enable gender–responsive education sector analysis and planning in collaboration with the United Nations Girl's Education Initiative. Grants to partner nations for the implementation of gender–equality–promoting education sector plans: At least 33 GPE program implementation grants worth a total of $1.5 billion boost domestic gender equality initiatives. To establish strong mutual responsibility, National Governments are leading a policy discussion on gender equality that includes civil society and other stakeholders. SRGBV (school–related gender–based violence) must be addressed. Recognizing SRGBV's prevalence and impact on girls' schooling GPE has financed a global literature study to better understand the nature and prevalence of SRGBV, as well as to examine successful measures to combat it and to assist Governments in developing strategies and interventions. The objective and movement of Education for All must become a social goal and movement. Wherever education has established a social standard, gains have been both faster and more evenly dispersed, as evidenced by the Indian experience.

1.3 Status of Girls' Education in Andhra Pradesh

During the decade 1991–2001, Andhra Pradesh was one of India's most educationally backward states. According to the 2001 census, the literacy rate of Andhra Pradesh was 61.11%. Male literacy accounted for 70.85%, while female literacy accounted for 51.17%. In Andhra Pradesh, there was also a noticeable increase in enrolment among the weaker groups in 2000–01. In terms of percentage of girls enrolled, primary school enrolment increased from 36.2% in 1970–71 to 44.1% in 2001–

02. Elementary school enrolment increased from 26.7% in 1970–71 to 41.8% in 2001–02. Secondary school enrolment increased from 22% in 1970–71 to 39.5% in 2001–02. Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe enrolment rates in I–V were 93.75% and 84.43%, respectively. In both Scheduled caste and Scheduled tribe populations, however, girls enrolled at a lower rate than boys. Despite a rise in enrolment rates in classes I–V, dropout rates were still significant.

The male and female literacy rates in Andhra Pradesh were 55.13% and 32.29%, respectively. Girls' literacy rates in scheduled castes and scheduled tribes were exceptionally low, at 15.93% and 6.31%, respectively. The literacy rate in Andhra Pradesh is 61.11%, according to census data from 2001. The male literacy rate was 70.85%, while the female literacy rate was 51.17%. At the state level, the gender difference was 19.68%, while at the National level, it was 21.27%. The National and state literacy gaps are 2.11%. In 2000–01, there was also a noticeable increase in enrolment among the weaker sections. According to census data from 2011, the state's literacy rate is 67.66%. Male literacy accounts for 75.56%, while female literacy accounts for 59.74%. At the state level, the gender difference was 15.82%, while at the National level, it was 16.68%. The disparity in literacy between the National and state levels is 0.86%. When comparing census data from 2001 and 2011, the gender gap at the National and state level has shrunk from 2.11–0.86%. This shows that society understood the value of a girl's education. Girls' enrolment in primary school has increased as a result of a gender focus.

1.3.1 Enrolment of Girls

In the previous four decades, enrolment at various levels of schooling has increased dramatically. In comparison, primary enrolment for girls has increased by nearly fourfold, while subsequent levels of enrolment have risen significantly more from 1956–57 to 2004–05. Due to a prolonged official commitment to promote girls' education, the growth rate of girl enrolment is larger than that of males. At the upper elementary level, the rise is from 0.48–12.27 lakhs. At the secondary level, the increase is from 0.33–13.09 lakh. During this time, the number of girls enrolled in school has risen dramatically at all levels, particularly at the primary level.

Table 1.1: Details of girl's enrolment in Andhra Pradesh State From 1970–71 to 2013–14.

Year	Primary School	Upper Primary School	High school
	Class: I–V	Class: VI and VII	Class: VIII–X
1970–71	40.12	30.71	26.29
1980–81	41.27	34.23	30.90
1990–91	42.97	37.38	35.53
2000–01	48.88	44.74	42.85
2010–11	82.03	77.02	61.12
2011–12	88.33	79.39	67.32
2012–13	95.56	82.05	76.39
2013–14	98.38	86.35	81.36

From 1970–71 to 2013–14, the preceding table 1.1 shows the details of girl enrolment in Andhra Pradesh. In the previous five decades, the number of girls enrolled in school has gradually increased. In 1956–57, elementary school enrolment was 37.08%, upper primary enrolment was 20.71%, and high school enrolment was 15.67%. Up until 2004–05, the percentage of students enrolled in all classes was steadily increasing. The percentage of students enrolled in elementary, upper primary, and high school has been declining. Between 1993 and 2009, the number of students enrolled in both rural and urban locations grew. In rural areas, enrolment has risen by 37.5%, whereas in urban areas, enrolment has increased by 25.7%. Rural enrolment is increasing at a rapid rate in upper elementary (84.6%) and secondary (84.7%) levels. At the primary level, rural girls made up 75% of all female students. At the middle and secondary levels, rural girls' enrolment drops to 67% and 59%, respectively.

At the primary school level, girls outnumber boys by a small margin. This is a positive sign, indicating that parents are aware of the benefits of girls attending

elementary schools. The rise has been aided by the rapid expansion of elementary school facilities, particularly between 2000 and 2009. The enrolment gap between upper primary and secondary schools continues to widen, but it is steadily closing. However, there are significant intra–female inequalities between rural and urban areas, as well as among the general population, Scheduled castes, and Scheduled tribes. In 2000–01, the primary enrolment ratio was 111% for males and 109% for girls, whereas the upper primary enrolment ratio was only 48.62% for girls and 58.71% for boys. The variations in the enrolment ratio of girls between districts are significant. At both the elementary and upper primary levels, all districts in the Telangana region have enrolment ratios that are greater than the state average. Girls are enrolled in elementary schools in all districts with high female literacy rates (over 50%). However, in the primary and higher primary levels, these districts' enrolment rates are lower than the state average.

In addition, the proportion of girls in the total enrolment has risen. The percentage of girls enrolled in elementary schools rose from 28.1% in 1950–51 to 56.71% in 2013–14. Girls' enrolment in upper primary schools increased from 16.1% in 1950–51 to 54.4% in 2013–14. The overall increase in girl enrolment in comparison to the entire population of girls clearly demonstrates that there is near universal coverage at the elementary level. Enrolment of girls from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes presents a greater challenge to India's education administration. The enrolment statistics from the Survey demonstrated that disadvantaged girls' engagement in basic education has gradually increased over time. The gross enrolment ratio at primary level has increased from 64.8% in 1986–87 to 96.6% in 2013–14, and at upper primary level it has increased from 26.6% in 1986–87 to 61.5% in 2013–14. For Scheduled tribe girls, the GER at primary level has increased from 68% in 1986–87 to 99.5% in 2013–14, and at upper primary level has increased from 21.9% in 1986–87 to 59.5% in 2013–14. In 2014, the total gender disparity in primary school enrolment fell to 4.6% points, and the gap in upper primary school enrolment fell to 8.0% points. Policymakers are paying close attention to girls' education in order to address the special hurdles that they face.

1.3.2 Wastage and Dropout Rates of Girls

Girls make up the majority of those who drop out of school before completing primary school in Andhra Pradesh. At all levels, the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes have considerably higher dropout rates among girls. Primary

school dropouts are decreasing in the SC girls' category and among the Scheduled Castes. Dropout rates among boys and girls from Scheduled Tribes continue to be high, with more than half of those enrolled in class I dropping out before finishing class V. At the upper elementary level, more than half of the students drop out before completing class VII. Upper primary dropout rates are similar to primary dropout rates, with Scheduled tribe girls accounting for 78% and boys accounting for 72.6%. Girls and boys from Scheduled Castes have high dropout rates, with 61% and 56%, respectively.

There are significant differences in the dropout rates of girls in primary and upper elementary schools among districts. Despite having high enrolment ratios, Mahabubnagar (54.90 and 73.20), Warangal (52.54 and 65.63), Medak (52.67 and 66.33), Nizamabad (48.26 and 58.54), and Adilabad (37.39 and 67.58) have significant dropout rates at both primary and upper primary levels. At the upper primary level, the dropout rate was higher than at the primary level. However, there was a smaller difference in dropout rates between males and girls.

At the elementary and upper primary levels, the state average dropout rate for Scheduled Caste girls is 34.4% and 61.65%, respectively. In Medak 56.21%, Mahaboobnagar 55.83%, Warangal 53%, and Nizamabad 51.48%. SC females drop out at the primary and higher primary levels. Girls from Scheduled Tribes drop out rates were alarmingly in primary and upper primary school. Despite the fact that the state average dropout rate is 56.94, Mahabubnagar (76.08), Medak (74.32), Nizamabad (74.11), Warangal (72.52), and Nalgonda (71.12) have significant dropout rates of ST girls in elementary school.

The percentage of dropouts has steadily dropped over the last four decades, with no major exceptions in any tribes. Girls drop out at a far higher rate in the Scheduled Tribe than in other tribes. The Government has established many programmes to provide much–needed inputs to all of Andhra Pradesh's schools. These programs, however, were unable to reduce the number of dropouts. Girls from Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes continue to have significant dropout rates, notably in upper primary and secondary schools.

1.4 Major Policies and Schemes of Girls' Education in Andhra Pradesh

The Indian Government, in collaboration with state Governments, has devised a variety of methods, intervention schemes, and programs with specific goals

that affect girls' education. For the past two decades, all of these programs and initiatives have been designed to fulfil the demands of not only the educationally disadvantaged, but also the overall building of the social infrastructure for girls' education. The 1976 Indian Constitutional Amendment, which included education in the concurrent list, was a significant step whose implications—substantive, budgetary, and administrative—require a new division of responsibilities between the Union and the states. While the role and responsibilities of the states in education will largely stay unaltered. The Union Government accepted a larger responsibility to strengthen education's National and integrative character, to maintain quality and standards, to research and monitor the country's educational needs in terms of manpower for development, and to promote excellence at all levels of education throughout the country.

Both enrolment and retention of children were prioritized in the National Policy on Education of 1986. The National Policy on Education (NPE) of 1986 was notable for attempting to solve the most challenging element of 'access' to education for millions of females and working children who are unable to attend school due to socio–economic constraints. The NPE–1986 establishes a broad policy framework for total illiteracy eradication, as well as a promise to make primary education free and compulsory until the 5th grade.

According to the NPE, at least half of all teachers should be women in order to establish a welcoming environment for female students in schools.

This program established the concept of Minimum Levels of Learning, according to which all children, regardless of caste, creed, locality, or sex, must have equal access to a comparable education.

In 1987, the NPE launched Operation Black Board, a program to provide basic facilities to all primary schools in the country.

The policy proposed that new primary schools be built in deserving areas in accordance with National standards. A primary school should have at least two instructors, one of whom should be a woman, and each primary school should have at least two pucca classrooms, according to the policy.

The policy also advised expanding infrastructure at the upper primary level to promote enrolment at this level.

The policy also aimed to modernize and raise the standard of text book syllabi in order to reflect current developments. States were recommended to

revise their curricula to include a better knowledge of the work ethos as well as human values and culture.

The National Policy on Women's Empowerment, adopted in 2001, aims to improve the position of women in society by empowering them, particularly those from the weakest parts of society, the majority of those, who live in rural areas, by giving educational and health advantages.

The Andhra Pradesh Community Participation Act of 1998 was enacted by the Andhra Pradesh Government in response to the National Policy on Education of 1986. The Andhra Pradesh Community Participation Act, enacted in 1998, created education committees for the advancement of education at all levels, and the 73rd and 74th constitutional amendments provide for decentralization of activities and facilitate power transfer. The policy envisions direct community involvement in the management of schools in the form of School Education Committees. The committees have the authority to participate in the micro planning process as well as the formulation of habitation education programs. The School Committees have established an environment that encourages people to be more active and engaged. Women, Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe, and Minorities, as well as parents and educators, have been given a voice to encourage increased engagement. Management tasks have also been distributed by the committees, with Gender–specific programs in the 10th Five–Year Plan.

The Universalisation of Elementary Education in general, and girls' education in particular, has received a lot of attention in the 10th Five Year Plan (2002–2007). The strategy has discovered that girls account for the majority of dropouts due to a variety of causes, and has handed the task of reuniting them with their classmates to various departments involved. To decrease gender disparities in education, it has suggested gender–specific educational initiatives. The Indian Government has introduced two new initiatives aimed at improving females' education.

1. The National Program for the Elementary Education of Girls
2. Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools

The NPEGEL and KGBV programs were designed to reach out to girls from underserved social groups in educationally backward areas of the country, where female rural literacy is below the National average and the gender gap in literacy is higher than the National average. These programmes address gender–specific issues that prevent girls from receiving an education, such as the informal learning

environment, increased participation in formal and non–formal educational programs, and assisting girls in overcoming socio–cultural and economic barriers in receiving an elementary education.

1.5 Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya

The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV) scheme was introduced by the Indian Government in August 2004 with the goal of establishing residential schools for girls in tough locations, where they are largely from the SC, ST, OBC, and minorities. The program is being implemented in educationally underserved areas of the country, where female rural literacy is lower than the National average and the gender gap in literacy is higher than the National average. The policy provides for a minimum reservation of 75% of seats for girls from SC, ST, OBC, or minority communities, with priority given to girls from low–income households for the remaining 25%.

For the first two years, the KGBV initiative operated independently but in tandem with the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL), and Mahila Samakhya (MS). Since April 1, 2007, the KGBV has been combined into the SSA program as a separate component of that program under the XI Five Year Plan.

Since the last few decades, the Indian Government has prioritized females' education. It is critical to empower both men and women in all parts of society in order to achieve true growth. After the Constitution (86th Amendment) Act was passed in December 2002, it became a Fundamental Right of every child in India to receive free and compulsory education for all children aged 6–14. However, despite all of the Government's efforts, girls' education in our culture has suffered for a variety of reasons. Efforts to universalize elementary education must include reaching out to every single girl kid. Programs such as Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, or "Education for All," have shown that securing girls' education requires changes not only in the educational system, but also in societal norms and attitudes. The National Program for Education of Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL) and the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya are two intervening initiatives developed by the Government of India to improve girls' education, which had fallen behind (KGBV) for quire some time.

In approximately 3282 educationally backward blocks in India, these programs assisted in reaching out to girls from marginalized social groups where

female rural literacy is below the National average and the gender gap in terms of literacy is above the National average.

Since its start, the scheme has been implemented in Educationally Backward Blocks (EBBs), where rural female literacy is lower than the National norm (46.13% according to Census 2001) and the gender literacy gap is greater than the National average (21.59%: Census 2001). Schools may be built in areas with a high concentration of tribal population, low female literacy, and/or a large number of girls out of school; a high concentration of SC, OBC, and minority populations, low female literacy, and/or a large number of girls out of school; or areas with low female literacy.

With effect from April 1, 2008, the criteria for eligible blocks have been revised to include an additional 316 EBBs with rural female literacy below 30% and 94 towns/cities with minority concentration (as identified by the Ministry of Minority Affairs) with female literacy rates below the National average (53.67%: Census 2001).

A total of 2180 residential schools were sanctioned, with 500–750 schools to be opened in stages over the X Plan period at a cost of Rs. 19.05 lakh per school in recurring costs and Rs. 26.25 lakh per school in non–recurring costs. After deciding on a location, the proposed schools were to be opened in rented or other suitable Government buildings. Such residential schools could only be built in backward blocks where there were no residential schools for girls' elementary education under any other Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment or Ministry of Tribal Affairs scheme, which had to be ensured by the SSA district level authority at the time of actual district level planning of KGBV initiatives by coordinating with the other ministries.

The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV) scheme was introduced by the Indian Government in August 2004 with the goal of establishing residential schools for girls in tough locations where girls are largely from the SC, ST, OBC, and minorities. It started out as a separate program, but on April 1, 2007, it was combined with the SSA program. The KGBV component of SSA will be implemented in the general context of child rights and entitlements, and in accordance with the spirit and specifications of the RTE Act, which came into force on April 1, 2010, and the SSA Framework of implementation was changed to adapt to the RTE Act.

The scheme's scope and coverage are as follows: KGBVs can be opened in Educationally Backward Blocks (E BBs), which were previously defined as blocks having a rural female literacy rate below the National average (46.13%: Census 2001) and a literacy gender gap greater than the National average (21.59%: Census 2001). Within these blocks, areas with a high concentration of tribal population and/or a large number of girls out of school were given priority; areas with a high concentration of SC, ST, OBC, and minority populations, and/or a large number of girls out of school; areas with low female literacy; or areas with a large number of small, scattered habitations that do not qualify for a school were given priority.

With effect from April 1, 2008, the requirements for qualifying blocks were changed to include the following:

1. EBBs with female literacy rates below 30% in rural areas; and towns/ cities with a high minority population (as defined by the Ministry of Minority Affairs) and female literacy rates below the National average (53.67% from Census 2001 and 68.34% from Census 2011).
2. KGBVs were opened to all EBBs with rural female literacy below the National average in 2010–11, according to Census 2001.

1.5.1 Objective

The goal of KGBV is to provide girls from disadvantaged groups with access to quality education by establishing residential schools at the upper elementary level.

Strategies: KGBVs will be set up in rented or other readily available Government premises at first. After the land has been located, suitable structures must be built. Since October 2010, the unit cost of new KGBV hostel structures has been changed to adhere to the State PWD Schedule of Rates (SOR). The minimal area for KGBV hostel structures will be determined based on the following basic amenities and requirements:

1. The carpet space of the building for 50 youngsters would be around 80 square feet per child.
2. The carpet space of the building for 100 youngsters would be around 60 square feet per child.

Such residential schools will be established exclusively in EBBs where there are no residential schools for females at the upper primary level under any other Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment or Ministry of Tribal Affairs scheme.

This will be ensured by the SSA district level authority during real district level planning of KGBV projects, in collaboration with other Departments/Ministries.

The scheme's components will be as follows:

The establishment of residential schools with a minimum of 50 girls, primarily from the SC, ST, and minority populations, available to attend elementary school. Depending on the number of eligible girls, the number could be more than 50. Three prospective models for such a school, as well as changed financial criteria, have been identified:

Model I: Schools with 100–Girl Hostels

Cost each year: Rs 32.07 lakh

Cost of additional girls on a recurring basis: To be calculated proportionately based on the number of additional girls enrolled.

1. If the enrolment surpasses 100 children, a head teacher will be given at a unit cost of Rs 20000/– per month, in accordance with RTE guidelines.
2. When the enrolment exceeds 105 children, an additional teacher with a monthly pay of Rs 15000/– shall be hired based on the RTE Act's 1:35 ratio.
3. For every additional 50 girls enrolled, an additional assistant cook with a monthly pay of Rs 4500/– will be supplied.

Other than building, boundary wall, drinking water and sanitation, and electric installation, non–recurring costs: Rs7.25 lakh.

Non–recurring (other than building, boundary wall drinking water and sanitation, and electric installation) costs for additional female intake: To be calculated proportionately based on the number of additional girls to be enrolled.

Model II: Schools with 50–Girl Hostels

Rs 23.95 lakh recurring cost

Recurring cost for increased girl intake: To be calculated proportionately based on the number of additional girl intakes.

Other than building, boundary wall, drinking water and sanitation, and electric installation, non–recurring: Rs 5.375 lakh

Non–recurring (other than building, boundary wall, drinking water and sanitation, and electric installation) costs for increasing girl intake: To be calculated proportionately based on the number of additional girls to be enrolled.

Model III: 50–Girl Hostels in Existing Schools

Rs 17.95 lakh recurring cost

Recurring cost of increased girl intake: To be calculated proportionally based on the number of additional girl intakes.

Other than building, boundary wall, drinking water and sanitation, and electric installation, non–recurring: Rs 5.375 lakh Non–recurring (other than building, boundary wall, drinking water and sanitation, and electric installation) costs for increasing girl intake: To be calculated proportionately based on the number of additional girls to be enrolled.

Additional Salary of Rs 3 lakh per annum for additional enrollment of more than 50 girls but up to 100 girls for the purpose of providing part–time instructors, assistant cooks, and other services.

Note: Bedding replacement (once every three years, at a cost of Rs 750/– per child).

In blocks with a high number of out of school/dropout girls, the intake of girls might be increased from 50–100, with recurring and non–recurring grants increasing in proportion to the additional enrolment of girls.

Appendices A, B, and C provide item–by–item information.

1. Provide necessary infrastructure for these schools.
2. Prepare and procure necessary teaching/learning material and aids for the schools.
3. Establish adequate mechanisms for academic support, evaluation, and monitoring.
4. Encourage and prepare the girls and their families for the residential school experience.

The KGBV will be implemented at the state level by the SSA State Implementation Society. As a result, monies for this initiative will be channeled through the state's SSA society. A 'Gender Coordinator' will be chosen at the state level to oversee the KGBV. In states where the Ma hila Samakhya (MS) program is in place, the SSA society may provide precedence to the MS Society for implementing KGBV in the blocks of MS activities, if the MS Society in the state is prepared to take on the task. In such cases, the SSA society will transmit the approved monies to the MS Society for program implementation. The State

SSA Society will be in charge of the component's monitoring and evaluation. This component will be implemented through the SSA in blocks where MS has not provided its consent to implement KGBV or in blocks where MS has not given its consent to implement KGBV.

The District Institutes of Educational Training, Block Resource Centres, and Mahila Samakhya Resource Groups will coordinate teacher and staff training at the residential schools.

State Support Group: The program will be guided and supported by an advisory state level coordination committee/SRG approved under the NPEGEL scheme. Nominees from relevant State Government Departments, the Government of India, experts in the subject of girls' education, educationists, and others will make up this panel. This Committee would choose an acceptable school model and location based on the recommendations of the district committee implementing the NPEGEL and the new suggested scheme district level implementing agency for the KGBV.

National Support Group: The National Resource Group (NRG) established at the National level under the Mahila Samakhya program will provide input on conceptual issues and concerns raised by the program, as well as advise the Government of India on policy topics relating to girls' education. This group will serve as a liaison with research and training institutes, the women's movement, educators, and non–Governmental organizations, as well as bring in other educational opportunities for girls.

As the NRG is small and only meets two to three times a year, smaller sub committees of the NRG will be formed for specific inputs such as gender training for teachers, development of gender–based teaching/learning material, development of audio–visual programs, and so on. These sub committees will co–opt additional persons from relevant institutions or experts for the purpose.

A State Level Committee, based on the proposal of the District Committee for the purpose, would determine the model of the school to be offered, based on the number of girls and the type of residential school to be provided. The idea will be forwarded to a National cell, which will assess it with the assistance of external agencies/consultants as needed. Finally, these plans will be approved by the SSA Project Approval Board.

Funding Pattern or Funds Release: Since the KGBV scheme is a component of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, the funding structure for the Central Government and States/UTs will be the same as for the SSA with effect from April 1, 2007.

The KGBV provisions will be in addition to those already in place under other SSA components and for NPEGEL. The SSA Society will guarantee that KGBV and the NPEGEL and Mahila Samakhya programs are aligned. It will also guarantee that monies granted are used wisely and that no activities are duplicated.

The SSA State Implementation Society would get funds directly from the Indian Government. The State Implementation Society will get a share of the funds from the State Government. Wherever possible, funds would be distributed to the Mahila Samakhya Society. The SSA Society will establish MS in states where it is not already being implemented.

For the operation of KGBV funds, the State Society shall open a separate Savings Bank Account. The State SSA Society should receive its matching portion from the State Government through a separate budget line item. Separate accounts will need to be kept at the district and sub–district levels, as a result.

At the elementary level, the focus will be on slightly older females who have dropped out of school due to their inability to complete primary school (10+). However, in difficult areas (migratory populations, scattered habitations that do not qualify for primary/upper primary schools), younger girls can be targeted. At the upper primary level, the focus will be on girls, particularly adolescent girls who are unable to attend regular schools. Due to the scheme's targeted nature, 75% of girls from SC, ST, OBC, or minority communities will be targeted.

Wherever possible, established NGOs and other non–profit organizations will be involved in the operation of the schools. Corporate groups might adopt these residential schools as well.

1.5.2 Coverage of the Scheme

The scheme is being implemented in 27 states and union territories, including Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Dadar and Nagar Haveli, Delhi, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu.

As of June 30, 2014, the Government of India had sanctioned 3609 KGBVs in 460 districts. 330 KGBVs have been sanctioned in Scheduled Castes (SC) SFD districts, while 508 have been sanctioned in Scheduled Tribes (SC) SFD districts, with 329 and 508 being operational, respectively. In Muslim Concentration Districts, 544 KGBVs have been approved and are operational. Up until December 31, 2014, 912 of the 913 KGBVs sanctioned were operational in 88 of the 88 districts chosen for the Integrated Action Plan for Selected Tribal and Backward Districts.

1.5.3 Scheme's Components

The establishment of residential schools with a minimum of 50 females, primarily from the SC, ST, and minority populations, who can study at the elementary level Depending on the number of eligible girls, the number could be more than 50. Models I, II, and III have been recognized as possible models for such a school, with descriptions and financial guidelines provided in later chapters.

1.5.4 Monitoring, Evaluation, and Implementation

State Governments operate the scheme through the Mahila Samakhya (MS) Society in MS states and the SSA Society in the rest of the country. The funds are distributed to the State SSA societies in accordance with the SSA pattern. The MS State Resource Centers are in charge of monitoring and evaluation at the state and district levels, while the committee constituted for the National Programme for Education of Girls at the Elementary Level in the SSA. The District Institutes of Educational Training, Block Resource Centres, and Mahila Samakhya Resource Groups coordinate teacher and staff training in the residential schools.

1.5.5 KGBV Financial Standards

1. As the KGBV scheme is a component of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, the funding structure for the Central Government and States/UTs will be the same as for the SSA with effect from April 1, 2007.
2. The KGBV provisions will be in addition to the SSA and NPEGEL provisions already in place. The SSA Society will ensure that KGBV and the NPEGEL and Mahila Samakhya programs are aligned. It must also guarantee that monies supplied are properly invested and that no operations are duplicated.
3. The SSA State Implementation Society will get funds directly from the Indian Government. The State Implementation Society will get a share of the funds from the State Government. Wherever possible, funds would be distributed to

the Mahila Samakhya Society. In states where MS is not being implemented, this scheme will be implemented through the SSA Society's "Gender Unit," and the existing SSA implementation method will be followed.

4. For the operation of KGBV funds, the State Society should open a separate Savings Bank Account. The State SSA Society should receive its matching portion from the State Government through a separate budget line item. Separate accounts will need to be kept at the district and sub–district levels, as a result.

SSA rules were changed in early 2014, with the following changes taking effect on April 1, 2014: Revision of the recurring expenses of the KGBV component of the SSA program, which had not been revised since 2004.

1. The NPEGEL component of the SSA program has been phased out, as the program's interventions have been incorporated into the mainstream SSA components.
2. Section 12(1)(c) of the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education (RTE) Act, 2009, provides for reimbursement of expenses related to 25% admissions to private unaided schools. This is based on per–child cost norms announced by state and union territory (UT) Governments for Classes I to VIII, with a maximum ceiling of 20% of a State's total annual work plan and budget.

1.5.6 Framework of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidhyalays

The Government of India has approved a new program named Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV) for the establishment of 750 residential elementary schools with boarding facilities. This program is for females in challenging locations who are members of the SC, ST, OBC, or minorities. The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya project combines the Department of Elementary Education and Literacy's current schemes, including the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA), National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL), and Mahila Samakhya (MS).

1.5.7 Criteria for Enrolment of Girls in Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidhyalays

1. Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidhyalays are open to girls over the age of ten.
2. Girls who do not have access to a primary school within a one–kilometer radius
3. Girls over the age of eighteen who are enrolled in the Residential Bridge program.

4. Girls who do not have access to upper primary school in their native village for further study.
5. SC/ST/OBC girls shall receive 75% of reserved places, with the remaining 25% going to BPL households and girls with special needs.

The following are the components of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalayas scheme:

1. Creating residential schools in regions where at least 50 girls, primarily from the SC, ST, and minority populations, are accessible to study at the elementary level. It is possible that the number will exceed 50, depending on the number of qualified girls.
2. To provide the infrastructure that these schools require.
3. Obtaining and preparing crucial teaching and learning material and assistance for the school.
4. Set up proper systems to support academics, as well as evaluation and monitoring.
5. Motivate and seek girls and their families to enrol in a residential school.
6. At the primary school level, the focus will be on slightly older females who are out of school and have not completed elementary school (10+). Though in challenging regions (such as those with migratory populations or scattered habitations that may not qualify for primary/upper primary schools), the focus could also be on younger females.
7. The focus is on girls in upper primary school, particularly adolescent girls who are unable to attend regular schools.
8. Wherever practicable, established NGOs and other non–profit making entities shall be enlisted to manage the schools. These residential schools can also be adopted by corporate entities.

1.5.8 Description of KGBV Scheme

The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV) plan began as a distinct program, but it was combined with SSA activities on April 1, 2007. With the RTE Act of 2009 taking effect on April 1, 2010, the SSA Framework of Implementation has been updated to reflect the RTE Act 2009. The Government of India first implemented the KGBV program as residential upper primary schools in 2005,

in a gradual manner. The KGBV schools are located in places with sparse populations, posing a security threat to girls due to the distance between schools. This frequently forces girls to drop out of school. It intends to bridge the literacy gap between boys and girls by increasing girls' involvement in primary school. It was applicable in areas where rural literacy is lower than the National average of 46.13% and the gender gap in literacy is more than the National average of 21.59%, according to the census of 2001.

1.5.9 Need for the KGBV Scheme

The education of girls and the promotion of gender equality in education are critical to the nation's progress. It reduces policy differences between men and women. It recommends that the educational system play a beneficial role in women's empowerment. The strategy stressed the following societal needs: Enrol non–enrolled girl children, including girls in rural areas, in order to provide them with the opportunity to participate in education; and Provide underprivileged rural girls with excellent education on par with urban children.

1. Prepare and equip the girls who have dropped out of school so that they can return to regular classes.
2. Pursue an education free of household responsibilities and sibling care.
3. Provide additional instruction to repeaters and slow learners.
4. Provide all essential residential school facilities to create a favourable setting for the girl child to pursue education without the worry of a home environment,
5. Provide local specific life skills development.

1.5.10 Components of the KGBV Scheme

Establishment of residential schools with a minimum of 50 girls, primarily from Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe, and minority communities, enrolled in KGBV schools at the primary level. Depending on the number of eligible girls, the number could be more than 50.

1. To provide schools with the required infrastructure.
2. To prepare and obtain necessary teaching and learning material for schools.
3. Establishing adequate systems for academic support, as well as evaluation and monitoring.

4. At the primary level, the emphasis will be on the older girls who are out of school and were unable to complete primary schools (10+) in order to send them to residential school. Younger females can be targeted in problematic regions (migratory populations, scattered habitations that do not qualify for primary/upper primary schools).
5. Girls, particularly adolescent girls, who are unable to attend conventional schools, would be the focus at the upper primary level.
6. Due to the scheme's targeted character, 75% of girls from SC, ST, OBC, or minority communities would be given precedence for enrolment in such residential schools, followed by 25% of girls from low–income families.
7. Wherever possible, established non–Governmental organizations and other non–profit–making bodies shall be involved in the operation of the schools. Corporate groups might adopt these residential schools as well.

1.5.11 Objectives of the KGBV Scheme

The KGBV scheme's main goal is to close the gender gap in elementary school enrolment, particularly at the upper primary level in rural areas and among disadvantaged groups. The scheme's goal is to provide girls from underserved groups with access to and a high–quality education by establishing residential schools with boarding facilities at the elementary level.

1.5.12 Target Group of the KGBV Scheme

On account of the scheme's targeted nature, 75% of girls from disadvantaged groups would be given precedence for enrolment in such residential schools, followed by 25% of girls from low–income households. Adolescent girls who are unable to attend regular school or who are 10 years of age or older and are out of school.

1.5.13 Scope of the KGBV Scheme

The scheme is only applicable in areas where rural female literacy is below the National average of 46.13% and the gender gap in literacy is more than the National average of 21.59% (Census of India – 2001). With effect from April 1, 2008, the requirements for an eligible Educational Block have been changed to include a block with a rural literacy rate of less than 30% and a female literacy rate of less than the National average of 53.67% in urban regions.

1.5.14 The KGBV Scheme's Strategies

Over the X five–year plan term, around 500–750 residential schools will be opened across the country in a staggered way. After deciding on a location, the proposed schools will be opened in rented or other suitable Government buildings. The district Government must ensure that the residential schools are only built in backward areas where there are no other residential schools for girls' elementary education.

The scheme may allow for the establishment of schools in specific locations with Tribal population concentration with poor female literacy or a big number of girls out of school A high concentration of disadvantaged social groups, such as those with low female literacy and/or a big proportion of girls who are not in school.

1.5.15 KGBV School Establishment Models

The KGBV plan offers three options for school establishment. Model–I has a capacity of 100 girls, but the others only have a capacity of 50. Models I and II were both residential schools, however Model III was attached to the Upper Primary/High School and was run as a non–residential school.

With effect from April 1, 2008, the criteria for eligible blocks were updated to include the following: educationally backward blocks with rural female literacy below 30% and Towns/cities with a high minority population (as defined by the Ministry of Minority Affairs) and a female literacy rate lower than the National average of 53.67% (Census 2001).

KGBVs were opened to all educationally backward blocks with rural female literacy below the National average in 2010–11, according to Census 2001.

1.5.16 Andhra Pradesh's KGBV Schools

In June 2005, the Indian Government approved the establishment of 134 Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools in three regions of Andhra Pradesh, namely Coastal Andhra, Rayalaseema, and Telangana. The Telangana region is divided into ten districts. However, the KGBV program only covered nine districts. The AP state residential educational institutions society was given the task of running these KGBV schools. Andhra Pradesh resident educational institutions society appoints principals, teaching personnel, and other employees in 134 KGBV schools, in the state.

Table 1.2: Details of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya Schools in Andhra Pradesh sanctioned under first phase.

S. No.	Geographical Regions	Total Districts	Coverage of the Scheme	KGBV Schools
1	Telangana	10	09	69
2	Rayalaseema	04	04	32
3	Coastal Andhra	09	06	33
	Total:	**23**	**19**	**134**

The information of KGBV schools sanctioned in Andhra Pradesh under phase one in 2005 are revealed in table 1.2. In Andhra Pradesh, the Indian Government has established 134 Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya Schools as part of phase–I. Under phase one, these are dispersed in three geographical regions: coastal Andhra, Rayalaseema, and Telangana. There are nine districts in the coastal Andhra region, six of which are covered by the scheme, and 33 KGBV schools are operational. There are four districts in the Rayalaseema region, with a total of four districts covered and 32 Kasturba Gandhi BalikaVidyalaya schools are active. Across 2005, the Government of India sanctioned only 69 KGBV schools in Telangana (excluding Hyderabad) as part of phase one. However, currently there are 398 KGBV schools operating in Telangana.

1.5.17 Students Quality of Learning

Quality Learning is a systematic approach that focuses on improving learning and school life quality. According to Pettersen (2008), the concept of quality learning can be found in Anglo–Saxon higher education literature. It's linked to a variety of learning styles and strategies, as well as methods of operation and behaviours. All four aspects of high–quality learning are necessary for a student's academic success. It also improves the effectiveness and efficiency of the school and classrooms by providing a variety of methods, simple tools, and concepts. The quality of education in India is influenced by a number of factors. To begin with, teachers' qualifications and attendance in school, followed by a lack of teaching material, poor infrastructure, and overcrowded classrooms, and finally, students' reading ability in grade five is at grade two levels, all of which

are significant barriers to providing students with a better learning environment. When it comes to improving academic performance, learning quality, and school reforms, school climate is an important factor to consider. Bullying, conflicts among students, suicides, character and moral education, and school climate have all been mentioned in discussions of possible solutions to issues such as bullying, conflicts among students, and suicides.

1.5.18 Learning Achievement

Learning achievement refers to the learner's ability to master the learning object's material. However, depending on the learner's motivation, the definition of learning achievement will be varied. A learner's achievement on a learning task will also be affected by his or her motivation. Organizations are social systems and activities that are governed by social laws. "People have social roles and status, just as they have psychological needs." Their environment, as social systems, is one of dynamic change rather than a static collection of relationships." The social system analysis created by Gatzets and Gaba is the most commonly known and useful framework for researching and comprehending educational institutions, given that it has two intertwined but separate dimensions. The first is made up of institutional job expectations, while the second is made up of personality and need dispositions. The following is a list of the items in order of appearance:

1. Institutions – roles – expectations for responsibilities – goal attainment
2. The individual's personality, need disposition, and goal attainment.

The interactions between the Headmaster and his staff, between teachers and their pupils, and among teachers make up the organizational environment of an educational institution. The interaction occurs within the institutions' sociological and psychological frameworks as they fulfill their prescribed roles while meeting their individual needs. Halpin and Crafts were the forerunners in this discipline (1963). Define the school's climate in terms of teacher behaviour and the school's principles. Sharma (1973) established six categories of climate using both the R– and Q–techniques. Open climate, autonomous climate, control climate, paternal climate, and closed climate are the four types. Since organizational environment differs from each school, it has a different impact on students' academic success. Over the last two–three decades, a lot of scholars have looked into the impact of school organizational climate. According to Bariya, Swatantra Devi, Mistry, and Panda (1985), the majority of Indian schools have a closed climate, followed by an open and autonomous climate.

Although learning achievement is dependent on the learner and the incentive he receives, learning achievement must be quantified in education or learning systems. In learning, the curriculum or syllabus displays the overall achievement, which is referred to as the competitive standard. It depicts the learner's minimum goal, which is explained by emotive, cognitive, and psychomotor standards. Those criteria are consistent with the nation's educational philosophy. To summarize, learning achievement is a goal that is measured by the learner's learning competencies, which are represented by a score as a sign, but the score is not a final expectation.

Some Emerging Issues Related to Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidhyalayas are as Follows

1. The Government wants to advance toward a common educational system and provide high–quality education for all students; in this case, discrepancies between different types of schools should be reduced. The school designs offered for KGBV do not meet minimal criteria and lag considerably behind those provided for Navodaya Vidyalayas.
2. It also fails to take into account local challenges and problems. Unavailability of round–the–clock security, 12 hours of electricity, and a lack of energy are all issues, as are local culture and the availability of local materials for the school's construction. Local difficulties might include caste–based issues, as well as girls from various backgrounds who have distinct requirements or aspirations. Some girls may choose to seek further education, while others may wish to pursue vocational training, and many others may wish to participate in sports and social activities in order to build confidence. The above mentioned issues should be considered when planning the school, and adequate room should be provided for above activities.
3. It's also worth noting that India's climatic design isn't well–ventilated and inefficient in terms of energy use.

1.5.19 Recommendations for a Girls' Education

The majority of people believe that girls should not pursue a degree. But this isn't appropriate for the ladies. Girls also demonstrate that they are superior to males by improving their dignity for the sake of a healthy and happy family. Girls also demonstrate that they are always with their families in all aspects of their lives.

It is a terrific tip for the girls who are also very intelligent in terms of home and physiology. When girls are educated, they are capable of accomplishing anything. In India, girls' education is critical for the country's development. Girls are constantly willing to assist their families in whatever way they can. We should urge them to pursue their studies. In the nineteenth century, girls' education was mostly for domestic purposes. However, it is increasingly considered necessary for a girls' education. Women's roles and status should be improved, and the country will mature as a result. There should be no comparison between the schooling of boys and girls. They should have access to education, which is a female right. As a result, they are critical for developing countries.

1.6 Marginalized Groups

Marginization occurs for a variety of causes, including socioeconomic, cultural, and historical aspects. The story of human history is one of powerful groups dominating the weak and lowly. The dominating group has always had an advantage over the other, and exploitation has gone on for millennia. However, democracy has taken root in most nations, and via appropriate legislation, exploitation has been eliminated. However, in developing countries, due to gradual policy changes, the winds of change have yet to blow, and the transition from exploitation to social justice is slow. Certain people are belittled from the moment they are born because they belong to a group or are a member of a marginalized group. Discrimination exists in various aspects of society. In India, women as a group endure discrimination. These groups' problems have been exacerbated by globalization. The poor are becoming poorer, while the rich's wealth is increasing, resulting in a widening gap between the rich and the poor.

The divide between affluent and poor countries has widened as a result of globalization. Capitalism, information technology, firm outsourcing, job insecurity, and the expanding divide between the rich and the poor all have an impact on people's lives in many ways.

Globalization has also played a role in the scenario. The wealthy are investing and profiting more from their investments all over the world, while the poor are becoming poorer by the day. Job losses have been exacerbated by the use of more robots than human labor, and the agrarian crisis has made matters worse.

1.6.1 Types of Marginalized Groups

Some of the groups that are typically identified as marginalized include:

Socially Marginalised Groups

In terms of a society, marginalization refers to the exclusion of specific groups of individuals. It's as if society is unconcerned with their condition or even their existence. Certain groups of people are excluded or denied access to routine activities as a result of this exclusion. Another facet of this social separation from the dominant portions of society is social stigma. These poor sectors of society also suffer other issues such as a lack of chances; society keeps them out of the mainstream; they have few social networks and interactions – and these are notably the lower castes or ethnic groupings in the community. Even after seventy years of Independence and Constitutional guarantees, many individuals, particularly those from the lower castes, continue to face discrimination, are victims of atrocities, and are excluded from the social mainstream. They are attacked, their homes are set on fire, and they remain secluded to this day, with many people refusing to associate with those who regard them as outcasts. As a result, even in the 21st century, they exist as a separate social group.

Economically Marginalised Groups

Marginalization denigrates a person's existence in society. A person who is marginalized believes that he is unimportant in society. They are not allowed to participate in the state's economic activity. They don't have a voice of their own, and they continue to be treated as disposable parts of society. They don't have access to resources and are isolated from the rest of society. All of this will have a negative impact on their ability to exist as human beings and members of society.

Politically Marginalised Groups

Political marginalization occurs when a group of people is denied the ability to participate in the political or democratic process. Due to a variety of factors, they have no say in their political process. They are not permitted to run for election as candidates or to vote in the election. They are robbed of many of the privileges that others in that society enjoy as a result of their lack of engagement. As a result, they are denied the privileges that come with political rights.

1.6.2 Reasons Responsible for Marginalisation

The following are some of the reasons for specific populations' social isolation or deprivation:

Exclusion

Marginalisation causes a group of people to be excluded from the mainstream. The influential element of society keeps them out of the social and political process. They are treated as if they are unimportant members of society. They are cut off from the society in which they live.

Globalization

Globalization has exacerbated the plight of the poor and disenfranchised them. Globalization has brought joy to the well–to–do sections of society, but it has done nothing to bring joy to the downtrodden. It has also contributed to new types of exploitation in their instance, since these parts are further exploited in the name of development.

Displacement

Another effect of development in developing countries is displacement. Certain segments of society pay a price for development. People's land is acquired by the Government for various uses, and they are displaced from their homes. While the wealthy are unaffected, the destitute and oppressed, as well as the weaker among them, are unable to start over.

1.6.3 Marginalisation of Women

Women are the ones that suffer the most in these situations because they are marginalized and excluded from society. This is not a new phenomenon; they have been marginalized by society since the dawn of humanity. Even in prehistoric communities, there was a propensity to confine women inside the four walls of the house. They were denied access to education, were denied access to numerous temples, and were always forced to play second fiddle to their counterparts. Women have always played a secondary role in society, which has always been dominated by men. In a patriarchal country like India, women have little say in even topics that affect them. Everything in her life is decided by the men in her life, and she is forced to make decisions. She is always reliant on her father, spouse, or son and has no self–sufficiency. As a result, male domination plays a significant element or role in a woman's life. In society, there is a tight social or moral code that governs what a woman can and cannot do. Women from lower social strata, uneducated women, women from specific social groups, women living in slums, and so on are more isolated. Women with disabilities and those living with HIV/AIDS suffer

discrimination in various forms. Even their own family disowns them in certain circumstances, seeing them as a problem or a bad omen for the family.

Those who are entrusted to safeguard women frequently mistreat them. They have been beaten and tortured. Women's domestic violence is on the rise. These days, many marriages result in divorce because the husbands mistreat their wives. They are subjected to violence and all kinds of crimes, and society's attitude is that a woman is created to bear all of this, and that she should suffer in quiet for the sake of the family. India is no exception, since atrocities against women are rampant in the country. It is estimated that around a quarter of all women are subjected to such abusive treatment by their partners.

For many women in India, marriage appears to be a living hell. They are frequently distressed and pressured to bring in additional dowry. Thousands of women have been brutally murdered because they did not bring enough dowries. The entire in–law family is unified in their contribution to the married women's anguish. In many Indian civilizations, even now, women do not have a choice in topics relating to their own marriages. Women are required to marry persons chosen by their parents and elders, and such decisions can be pushed on them, leaving them with little option. If a woman defies her family's limitations and marries a man she chooses, she risks being slain for the sake of the family's honour, which means she will have to pay the price with her life.

In every community, women are treated as sexual objects and are molested and raped. The number of sex–related offenses is on the rise, and despite the passage of strict legislation to address the problem, these offences are increasing day by day, making them the most vulnerable members of society. Most of the time, the people in whom the ladies place their trust are the ones who commit the crime. Despite the guarantee to women on equal pay, they are paid less than men in many societies. Even now, their engagement in social and political life is limited. In the end, even in the 21st century, women are discriminated against and forced to live on the margins.

Sexual Assaults

Against women, female foeticide, denial of equal rights to women, and violence against women – both within and outside the house – are all examples of social marginalization of women in Indian society. A lady is neither safe within nor outside her home. She is followed, assaulted, and raped all over the place.

Economic Marginalisation

May include denial of equal opportunities to women, relegation of women to the status as mostly home workers, denial of maternity benefits, non–payment of equal remuneration to women as males, denial of property rights, and denial of maintenance rights. In India, women are largely unemployed, particularly in rural areas. They are confined to the four walls of their home for the most part. Women in Indian society are more likely to stay at home and handle various household chores than to work in institutions and Government and contribute positively to the country's economy. Women have proven beyond a shadow of a doubt that they are equal to males in many aspects of life, but they do not have enough opportunity to demonstrate their worth since they are often overlooked for various reasons.

Political Marginalization

Entails denying women equal decision–making chances and a lack of representation in decision–making bodies. Despite the efforts of succeeding Governments, there are very few women elected to the Parliament. Even today, political parties are unwilling to award half of the seats in Parliament to women. There were discussions of reserving 33% of seats in Parliament and state legislatures for women, but the decision was not carried out in its entirety.

According to a recent study, in the last 16 years, more women in the age category of 17–25 committed suicide than males, indicating that women are more stressed than men. According to the report, women commit suicide at a rate of 49%, while men commit suicide at a rate of 34%. According to the survey, stress is the leading cause of suicide among women. One of the causes for the high rate of suicide among women may be marginalization and the constraints placed on them.

1.6.4 Marginalisation of Children

Another category of people who are exploited is children, and the law should be on their side to safeguard their rights. They are trafficked from rural sections of the country and transported to cities to labor in the houses of well–off individuals for a wage below the minimum wage or for food and lodging only. They labor at roadside dhabas, where many of the children are sexually exploited. Others end up in jobs that are dangerous for their young age, and occupational sickness is frequent among them. India is thought to have the world's greatest population of child laborers.

One of the reasons for this outflow of children from impoverished areas to cities is rural anguish and poverty. In many poor families, it is unavoidable for the children to work in order to help maintain the family. The intermediaries take advantage of the situation by luring the children to the cities with promises of good jobs and decent pay. When they reach the cities, however, they are sold or forced to work in the homes of wealthy people for paltry wages in a hostile environment. Many young girls who are taken from such distressed homes wind up in brothels and stay there for the rest of their lives. As a result, children are frequently victims of marginalization and constitute yet another underserved community in India crying out for justice.

1.7 Need and Significance of the Study

Since independence, India has faced a slew of confusing issues, notably in terms of encouraging females' education. Education is critical for societal re–engineering, people's empowerment, and the establishment of a good governance agenda. In today's world, the value of girls' education cannot be overstated. It is the single most significant way for individuals to develop their personal endowments, increase their skill levels, and overcome limits and choices in order to live a long and healthy life, a better sense of well–being The two most important determinants are female literacy and the percentage of females enrolled in school.

The tenth five–year plan advocated gender–specific programs to minimize gender gap in education, keeping in mind the significant challenges and concerns in accomplishing the aim. The Indian Government has announced huge flagship programs in mission mode across the country through the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan. The 'Right to Education Act–2009' went into effect on April 1st, 2010. In light of the Right to Education Act of 2009, the SSA Framework of Implementation was updated. The state of Andhra Pradesh also established quality initiatives to raise the educational level of girls. Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools are aiming to provide additional help for poor girls who have dropped out. These schools increase the social status of girls through increasing enrolment, retention, and quality education at the primary level. The current study will reveal numerous aspects of the KGBV scheme's operation and implementation. Based on the debate above, the researcher has been compelled to assess the performance of KGBV schools in the Ananthapuramu district of Andhra Pradesh.

1.7.1 Statement of the Problem

Gender–specific activities to eliminate gender disparities in elementary education were advocated in the tenth, five–year plan. Since 2005, the Government of India has been implementing the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya project, which involves the establishment of residential schools with boarding facilities at the primary level for dropout girls from mostly impoverished areas. The researcher felt compelled to assess the performance of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools in the Ananthapuramu region in terms of infrastructure, functioning, parental and student perceptions, administrative and teaching strategies, and patterns of enrolment, attendance, and student achievement. As a result, the study's problem is titled **"ROLE OF KASTURBA GANDHI BALIKA VIDYALAYA (KGBV) IN PROMOTION OF GIRLS EDUCATION IN MARGINALIZED GROUPS**."

1.7.2 Operational Definitions of Terms

To provide a full comprehension of the subject, the terminology employed in the title and thesis of the study is explained.

1. **Girl Child:** A girl child is a young woman who, in order to survive and thrive, requires love, care, protection, and guidance. In terms of academics, KGBV School students are classified as girl children.
2. **Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya School:** In 2005, the Government of India introduced the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya plan, which is a residential school. It focuses on poor girls who have dropped out of school.
3. **Dropout:** A student who has left KGBV School without completing a course of instruction, or who has not completed her course.
4. **Enrolment:** Enrolment is the process of registering females who have dropped out of school at the KGBV School.
5. **Student Achievement:** The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya student's entire performance is deemed 'achievement'. The total performance of the students is evaluated by the teachers/experts during the course of education. It encompasses both academic and extracurricular activities.
6. **Strategy:** A plan of action devised by Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya management at the district and school levels to attain the overall goal.

7. **Evaluation:** It is a systematic process of gathering, analysing, and interpreting evidence of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya students' growth and accomplishment in both academic and co–curricular areas of learning in order to make a variety of decisions.

Objectives of the Present Study

The study's objectives are listed below.

1. To investigate the operation of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools in Andhra Pradesh's Ananthapuramu District.
2. To determine enrolment, attendance, and success patterns for girls in KGBV schools.
3. To evaluate the facilities available in the KGBV schools.
4. To study the students', parents', and community members' perspectives on how KGBV schools operate.
5. To examine the processes and strategies used by teachers and project administrators to promote girls' education.
6. To make recommendations for improving KGBV schools in the Anantapuramu District.

❑

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

Most of the modern sociologists and educational sociologists, anthropologists, political theorists, and economists have performed extensive and both qualitative and quantitative analytical studies on the various aspects of geographical, socio–economic, and educational promotion of girls marginalized groups and flagship programme through KGBV in various parts of India. However, the vast majority of the available population is moderate, and most studies are scattered in nature, with insufficient sampling size. To facilitate such a review, the researcher read a variety of books, articles, magazines, and reports published and unpublished by national and international organisations, as well as scholar's theses. By reviewing the earlier literature the current study identified the research gap and framed research questions that would lead the study further. The findings of the previous studies were used to support the development of the present study to frame an appropriate design, presented in the next chapter.

The following is a review of previous research findings of social socio–economics situation, educational promotion of girls education, educational issues, marginalized groups, particularly, KGBVs and its impact.

2.1 Studies Related to Educational Status of Girls

Beata Pietkiewicz–Pareek, (2019). In India, females' education is a priority. The purpose of this article is to show how education may help girls in India battle gender inequality and discrimination in education, with the Mahila Samakhya Program and Jan Shikshan Sansthans serving as excellent examples. The status of girls in Indian society, gender inequality and girls' empowerment, and girls' education are all topics covered in this study.

Sanjukta, Sahoo (2016). Girls' education is a significant opportunity for India's social and economic development. Educated girls are the weapons that have a good impact on Indian society by contributing at home and in the workplace. They are the reason for the country's and societies improved economies. The paper's

goals are to establish the current status and issues of girls' education in India, as well as to offer viable solutions to these challenges. This study was conducted using a variety of articles, reports, research papers, books, official websites, and internet material. The paper is broken into four sections. The first section of the paper discusses the historical context and significance of girls' education in India. The paper's second section analyzes the current state of girls' education in India. The third section of the article discusses the Government of India's significant measures for enhancing girls' education as well as the various problems that girls' education in India faces. The report concludes with recommendations for overcoming the impediments to girls' education in India. The report indicates that females' education in elementary and secondary school is in far worse shape than girls' education at the higher education level. Girls' enrolment rate has declined at the elementary and secondary levels from 2012–2015, however their gross enrolment ratio has improved at the higher education level from 2012–2015. The biggest challenges for supporting girls' education in India are parental attitudes, lack of infrastructure, lack of security, superstitions connected to girls, and parents' socio–economic status. According to this article, higher authorities, community members, NGOs, and all Indian people must take responsibility for removing various impediments to girls' education from our society.

Judith Gill, Katharine Esson, and Rosalina Yuen (2016) As a result of the recent uproar over boy–related issues, this book claims that educators and the general public have become complacent concerning girls' education. It combines gender and education theories to show that girls are being projected in conflicting ways in modern schooling after an investigation of ongoing concerns about girls' lifestyles. Many girls form a sense of self identifying through strong friendship groups, but schooling processes sometimes compel them to take on the role of rivals in end–of–school rankings and to act out their personalized roles in picturing themselves into the future. Finally, the research provides knowledge and understanding, resulting in a less contentious educational path for females. Judith Gill is an Adjunct Associate Professor at the University of South Australia, as well as a former secondary schoolteacher with over 30 years of experience in teacher education. Gender and its relationships with accomplishment and working lives are her primary research interests. Kathy Esson has extensive experience in education and health care, including serving as Senior Manager at the NSW Skills Board Secretariat in Australia. She has also worked as a school and university counsellor, mainly with young women,

and was involved in a review of public education in NSW. Rosalina Yuen is an Australian psychologist who has her own private practice. She worked with girls and young women in a variety of settings as a former social worker. She delivers counselling to schools, universities, and large corporations.

According to the **UNESCO (1995)**, women and girls are trapped in vicious cycles in the world's poorest places. Illiterate women have illiterate daughters who marry too young and get trapped in a cycle of poverty, illiteracy, increased childbearing and early mortality. Most analysts and scientists have emphasized that elements outside of school, such as family and community, may be more essential than factors inside the school. From a worldwide viewpoint, the presence of female teachers among school characteristics is certainly connected with the educational contribution of girls relative to that of males. Female teachers are in the minority in first–level education in Sub–Saharan Africa and Southern Asia, notably in the latter. In these two regions, the problem of increased female school attendance is especially acute.

Shumba (2003) Teachers and teacher trainees were assessed on their knowledge of children's rights as outlined in the 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. In Masvingon Province, the questionnaires were utilized to collect data from 300 elementary assistant teachers and 150 student teachers. It was observed that 49% of educators had no knowledge of children's rights. 55.3% of teacher candidates said they were exposed to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989, throughout their teacher preparation/training. According to the investigator, the curriculum for pre–service training needs to be updated to include children's rights.

Gurusinga (2005): A survey of 66 Sumatran students was conducted as part of a project. The survey's goal was to learn more about children's rights and their perceptions of them. We employed a 16–question questionnaire for this study. After analysing the data, it was determined that all students are aware of their privileges. 92% of the students said they had the opportunity to question the educator's questions. Out of the 44% of students that took part in the survey, 44% said they never perform educational activities outside the class. 44% feel they would be satisfied if they could participate in activities outside of school. They mentioned many needs, demonstrating that they were aware of their rights. 44% of the students said they never pursue educational activities outside the classroom, which they attributed to their classroom learning experience. 44%

believe they would be satisfied if they could participate in activities outside of school. They specified a variety of requirements, demonstrating that they are fully aware of their rights.

Shahid (2007) investigated teachers' and students' knowledge, attitudes, and practices regarding the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, which was linked to the classroom education process. A cross–sectional descriptive survey design was used in his study. A total of 929 4th and 5th grade children were surveyed in the Allama Iqbal Town of the Lahore City District, and 212 primary school teachers were questioned, comprising 63 male and 149 female instructors from the same area. Information was acquired using three self–developed and organized interview questions. The outcome of the survey revealed that a large number of primary school instructors have received training on children's rights. Similarly, they had a positive attitude toward children's rights. In a large number of their schools, they have exercised children's rights. The students, on the other hand, were deemed to be insufficiently aware of children's rights.

Gafoor and Rajan (2008) investigated the level of child rights awareness among pre–service trainees at TTI in the previous year. Using a simple random sample technique, a group of 500 final year new students were identified from 16 teacher education institutes in the Kerala revenue districts of Kasaragodu, Konnur, Kozhikodai, and Malapuram. The sample had had explicit exposure to child rights ideas as part of their standardized syllabus throughout their teacher training course. A sensitivity test for children's rights was employed, which included 52 items from the UNCRC (United Nations Child Rights Convention) and the Indian Constitution's section on children's rights. Each item on the children's rights awareness exam was determined to be known. Despite the fact that the average child rights awareness score was fairly good, there were considerable gaps in basic child rights knowledge among student teachers at the teacher training institute. Based on the findings, the researcher advised that future teachers be exposed to various media in order to increase their awareness.

Akinola and Egieh (2009): A sensitivity test for children's rights was conducted using 52 UNCRC and Indian Constitution objects related to children's rights. Each of the knowledge test items on children's rights was established. While the overall awareness of children's rights was rather strong, the Teacher Education College student teacher noted major gaps in basic children's rights. On the basis of the findings, the researcher made a recommendation.

Samal, Dubey, Pradhan, and Mohapatra (2009): In the Varanasi district, a study was conducted on the rights of children among working girls. Working girls in the lower socioeconomic strata aged 8–18 years who worked in unorganized sectors in both cities and suburbs of Varanasi district were used as a target group for the study. A multiphase sampling approach was utilized to collect the sample. The girls were recruited from 292 urban and 190 rural locations. According to the findings, most children were aware of various social programs, such as midday meals, free tuition, and scholarships. However, they are facing a grim future due to a lack of parental education. Academics, social workers, leaders, managers, campaigners, legislators, and law enforcers are all encouraged to participate, according to the study.

2.2 Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya Schools

Researchers have conducted numerous studies on the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme/schools at the National and state levels.

Samirranjan Adhikari, (2020): The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV) Scheme As A Facilitator of Female Learners' Academic Motivation; Motivation, in general, underpins behavior that is marked by willingness and volition. Extrinsic intervention is provided through the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV), which are residential schools that serve hard–to–reach females, mostly those from the SC, ST, OBC, and minority communities. The study's major goal is to compare the motivating characteristics of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya pupils to those of their general counterparts. This study used the Motivation Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) to investigate variations in self–efficacy, intrinsic value, and test anxiety between the two groups of students in an ex–post–facto research methodology. There was no statistically significant difference in intrinsic value. However, ordinary students had much higher mean scores in self efficacy, but the KGBV group had significantly lower mean scores in test anxiety. The KGBV system appeared to be successful in raising the deprived group to the level of the general group.

The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme was evaluated by the Gender Unit, Technical Support Group–SSA, Ed.CIL, New Delhi, in 2007. The study's particular goals were to determine if the KGBV scheme's goals were being met or not. According to the findings of the study, the teachers involved in the management of the KGBV Scheme put in a lot of effort.

Many of the part–time teachers were in their early twenties and had a lot of potential. The teachers had no experience with accelerated learning techniques. Most of the KGBV schools' girls appeared to be settled and confident. A high percentage of the girls in KGBV schools are from low–income families, and the majority of them have dropped out at various stages of primary school or do not have ready access to upper primary schools. Some of the schools cater to elementary school dropouts as well as girls who have never enrolled. The majority of the schools were operating in makeshift facilities. Many of the rental structures are in poor condition. Infrastructure development in several states is of high quality. The most frequent piece of equipment was a sewing machine. In some states, sanitation units in KGBV schools are still a major concern for females who venture out into the field, jeopardizing their safety. For vocational courses, part–time instructors are employed. The computers were available in two or three states, but no teachers were available. In all KGBV schools, remedial teaching and private tuition were common. The evaluation procedure is likewise similar to that used in formal education. In other places, language is a big issue, and aboriginal females continue to struggle with studying since textbooks are written in the state language. The majority of the occupational courses and classes were stereotypically gendered. Teachers requested more training in order to better understand and appreciate the children' unique learning demands. Many of the wardens and teachers who lived with the children need further training in order to effectively administer the school, develop a health and nutrition plan, and maintain hygiene. The KGBV Schools have been warmly received by parents and community people, who have requested that they be expanded to include classes up to X.

Sharda Jain and Kameshwari Jandhyala (2007) conducted a study on the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme in the state of Haryana. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. The study's findings revealed that the girl selecting method is effective. The most common method for identifying girls for the KGBVs was to distribute brochures. Village visits and the identification of potential females were also aided by non–Governmental organizations. The ultimate decision was taken based on the social marginalization of the candidates. Haryana's Government has decided to offer transportation for girls attending upper primary schools. No explicit advice on how to conduct a residential school has been given to the instructors or warden. The state curriculum is followed by the KGBV schools. As the majority of the females are approaching puberty, it is critical to include a life skills component. There were

no concrete initiatives taken to provide vocational training for girls. The program was well–received by the community.

Dilip. G. Patil and Kayasta S.L. (2007) conducted a study on the evaluation of Maharashtra's Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. According to the study's findings, the initiative is being implemented exclusively through NGO collaboration. The state has delegated all management authority. Through their community mobilization initiatives, coordinators played an essential role in identifying girls. They are also required to play an important part in school monitoring, as well as assisting teaching and learning activities. More needs to be done to bring girls from minority areas into the mainstream. Greater community–wide efforts to recruit Muslim girls are needed. The girls were mostly from the Warli tribes. It was encouraging to see that the school had enrolled some girls who had never attended before. The girls appeared to be content, well–fed, and well–organized. Participation in local sports tournaments and other cultural activities is being encouraged. The teachers' selection has been excellent. Teachers appeared to be amiable and friendly to the pupils. The teaching methods were similar to those used in public schools.

The study on the evaluation of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme in Punjab was carried out by **Usha Nayar, Girija. B. H., (2007)**. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. The study's findings revealed that because the girls are enrolled in mainstream schools, retention is not an issue. The assessment of KGBVs' effectiveness among parents, teachers, and the general public was favourable. The people were overjoyed that their girl children would have access to such a great institution. They are really pleased with the food quality provided to the girls, as well as the academic activities and learning process. The teachers had high expectations for the upkeep and operation of the KGBV schools. The method for selecting girls for KGBVs was properly publicized in all villages via booklets and stickers.

Susma Pande, Vijayanti. K.R, did a research in Jammu Kashmir on the evaluation of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya project. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. According to the findings of the study, the KGBV schools were administered in rented buildings. On weekends, the parents usually arrive and take their children home. Warm clothing and bedding were in short supply. When it rained or snowed, even the short walk

from the rented hostel to the school became a hazard. The remedial instruction is currently taking place. Girls have remarkable self–discipline and self–esteem. Since girls visit their homes frequently for various reasons, their attendance is poor. The KGBVs follow a curriculum that is consistent with the regular system. The training was of outstanding quality, which may be attributable to their strong qualifications. The perception of school functioning among parents, teachers, and the general public was positive. The people were overjoyed at the splendid facility that had been built for their girl children.

The study on the evaluation of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya programme in Tripura was undertaken by **Vimala Ramachandran and Najma Akhtar in 2007**. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. According to the findings of the study, KGBV schools are located in upper primary schools. The majority of the teachers were qualified and appointed in accordance with state Government guidelines. They cited Tripura's cultural uniqueness in appointing male teachers as tutors, which community members stated was not a problem. The tutors were all quite knowledgeable. For wardens and teachers, there has been no organized training program. Wardens were on the lookout for the girls and were enthusiastic in their assistance. The toilets and kitchen were both spotless and well–kept. In all KGBV schools, security is a major concern. A medical examination has not yet been scheduled. This is an issue that deserves more attention. The girls from all three ethnic groupings were unafraid to speak their minds. The cultural programs on show were excellent and authentic to their culture. There has been no attempt to broaden the curriculum.

The study on the evaluation of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme in Uttarkhand was undertaken by **Subhashini Paliwal and Nishi Mehrotra (2007)**. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. The study's findings revealed that the girls were chosen through a method that used house hold survey data to identify them. The girls are overjoyed to be in school. All of the schools are either in rented buildings or on Government school grounds. The girls were having fun in the grounds of a nearby primary school. Although there is a dedicated group of young women, the KGBV schools are generally supervised by wardens who are from the teaching cadre and Anudeshikas who are not qualified as teachers. Even with conventional classroom instruction, the girls were performing admirably, as evidenced by the regular examinations given to them. The language barrier was a difficulty for tribal

girls and migrating Bengali girls whose teachers did not speak their own tongue. There were computers, but no teachers were available to teach the females. The teaching and learning method is textbook–based and not dissimilar to those of formal schools. The parents were overjoyed that their children were succeeding academically. The computer–assisted learning application is now in use.

In Uttar Pradesh, **Mehrotra and coworkers (2007)** did a study on the appraisal of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme. The study's goals were to look into the enrolment of girls by category, examine the availability of infrastructure, assess the rate of achievement, and look into the involvement of NGOs and other non–profit organizations in the operation of KGBV schools. According to the findings of the survey, most of the districts' school buildings were under construction. Food was supplied appropriately in all KGBVs according to the weekly menu. Recreational activities and outdoor sports were given adequate attention. All of the teachers that were appointed were well qualified for their positions. Most of the time, teachers taught using the lecture style. As there was no provision for a distinct head teacher, the warden served as the Principal. The teachers of physical education and cultural education were unavailable. For the females, sufficient water supply and safety procedures were arranged. The cook and watchman did not have their own quarters, but they were able to reside on campus. The school's operation was praised by all parents and community members.

In the state of Jharkhand, **Michael. L. Archie and Bhattachaya. G.C. (2007)** did a study on the evaluation of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya project. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. The study's main findings were that 64% of teachers in KGBVs had no prior teaching experience in schools. Teaching learning resources were available in most KGBV schools. In 56% of the schools, only a science lab was offered. Teachers' demeanor at school was quite pleasant because the majority of the children are from the Scheduled Tribes community. The educational method was rated as satisfactory by 96% of parents. In certain schools, aboriginal females have a language barrier. Teachers are unfamiliar with the local languages, and students continue to struggle with Hindi comprehension. The majority of instructors have said that they receive academic assistance from authorities. Many schools have concerns with cleanliness and hygiene that require rapid care. Many of the girls continue their education in ashrams and ordinary schools near their homes. Many places do not maintain their records in a consistent manner.

Shanwaj Datta, Banu Mehata, (2007) conducted a study on the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme in the state of Chhattisgarh. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. According to the conclusions of the study, teachers simply arrive to attend classes and then leave after school. The girls and teachers have a shaky relationship. Textbooks are used in the teaching and learning process. The evaluation procedure is comparable to that used in formal schools. Although computers were available, not all schools had teachers available to teach the females. The girls seemed to like the food and appeared to be in good health. On account of their distant location, the wardens had difficulty getting around and contacting medics in an emergency. The KGBV's cleanliness, sanitation, and physical environment have become a severe concern. With an insufficient number of toilets and bathtubs, rented buildings are unsuitable. Garbage disposal in the highlands is also a challenge. The parents are quite powerful and keep a close eye on their children. As the Block resource centre coordinators are men, wardens are unwilling to bring all issues to their attention. All schools kept comprehensive records of all documentation relating to accounting, incentive distribution to females, food bills, hostel assets, and health examinations. Information regarding the daily routine was available in the classrooms.

In Tamilnadu, **Vimala Ramachandran and Fatima Alikhan (2007)** did a study on the evaluation of the Kasturba Gandhi BalikaVidyalaya project. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. The study's findings demonstrated that the KGBV Scheme is inextricably tied to SSA. The KGBV students are not eligible for any of the state Government's incentives for students in formal schools. The BRC/CRC was not giving the academic support that was required. The persons in charge of monitoring and assisting KGBV Schools on the block, in the district, and at the state level are fairly responsive. Children from low–income families are primarily served by the KGBV Schools. The girls have been identified by local NGOs and cluster resource centre workers. The researchers found no evidence that household survey data was used to identify out–of–school girls. The majority of the teachers had a bachelor's degree in education and had had some training. Many books were available in the KGBV Schools, but they did not appear to be used. Schools might do a lot more to help the environment by introducing a kitchen garden, managing waste water, and so on. The pupils were pleased with the arrangements as well as the general atmosphere. Almost all of their parents begged for the KGBV programme to be extended up to class 10.

The girls' health and nutritional situation deserve significantly more attention. In most of the schools, a monthly medical check–up is held.

The study on the evaluation of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme was carried out by the Gender Unit, Technical Support Group–SSA, Ed.CIL, New Delhi, in 2008. The research was carried out in a total of twelve states, including Andhra Pradesh. The study's particular goals were to determine if the KGBV scheme's goals were being met or not. According to the findings of the investigation, the management of KGBV Schools was given to a missionary school in Meghalaya state, where exclusively Catholic girls were enrolled, which is a breach of the criteria. The KGBV schools were used as a non–formal education centre there. The KGBV Schools were used as a hostel facility for girls enrolled in normal schools in Punjab and West Bengal. The majority of states had not provided any training to KGBV teachers or wardens. The vocational training intake was primarily aimed at increasing the retention of girls over time. The infrastructure was not appropriately utilized. The majority of states have offered library books and instructional learning resources, but usage is a vital aspect. Remedial classes and private tutoring were rather frequent. The teachers were unfamiliar with accelerated learning strategies. In the KGBV schools, hygiene, sanitation, and the physical environment have become major concerns. There was no discernible difference in educational quality between ordinary Government schools and the KGBV. The evaluation procedure is likewise similar to that of formal schools. Language is a big issue in tribal communities, where pupils struggle to learn because the books are written in the state language.

A study was conducted by **J.M. Abhayankar and Mona Yadav (2008)** on the functioning and effective execution of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme in Meghalaya. The study's specific goal was to see if the goals of the KGBV scheme were being met or not. The study's findings reveal that there were enough toilets and that they were clean. The students used to produce vegetables, and they now teach the girls how to do so. The school didn't have any sporting goods. The entire block has not been represented equally. There isn't enough diversity in the KGBV schools to represent all oppressed groups. The students were chosen based on their age and socioeconomic background. The NGO was acting as a guardian. There is no supervised activity planned in the daily routine. There isn't a set weekly menu in place. As the supply of liquid petroleum gas (LPG) was unreliable, wood was used as a cooking fuel. Students were separated

into four groups based on their learning and comprehension abilities to make teaching easier. The school gives all NGO–prepared instructional material as well as one note book per student. At this time, traditional school books are not being taught. Textbooks were generally used in the classroom. Remedial education was not provided at the school. Exam–oriented instruction is the norm. The neighbourhood was also aware of the school's operations. At the time of entrance, no comprehensive health camp for girls had been arranged.

The study on the evaluation of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya programme in West Bengal was conducted by **Vimala Ramachandran and Najma Akhtar in 2008**. The study's specific goal was to see if the KGBV scheme's aims were being met or not. The study's key findings revealed that the state has a sizable Muslim population. As the pupils admitted to KGBVs in West Bengal were already enrolled in Upper primary schools, they benefit from both the regular school and the KGBVs. The employees in charge of monitoring and assisting KGBVs at the local, district, and state levels have never been exposed to gender concerns. Bedding, classroom furnishings, and culinary equipment have been donated to all schools. The dormitories were congested, and the girls had very little room to walk about. The teachers are all local graduates who have had no training. The musical and gaming equipment was also present, but it was not in use. Parents also noted that their daughters are now well–dressed, taking a bath every day, and washing their hair and face. Almost all of the parents pushed for the "hostel" program to be extended through the ninth grade.

Vinod. K. Sharma and Dharmendra. K. Sharma (2011) conducted a study on the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme in Rajasthan's Sirohi district. The study's main goals were to learn about the trends, issues, and challenges of enrolment and retention, as well as to determine the availability and quality of physical infrastructure in accordance with scheme guidelines. According to the study's conclusions, the initiative has been successful in providing access to educational institutions to the most underprivileged. Despite the fact that the girls enrolled are of various ages, most of the schools have a higher percentage of older dropouts. The buildings in question are not far from the girls' home communities. Health exams and hygiene were determined to be consistent and satisfactory. The meal is likewise prepared in accordance with the KGBV requirements. The girls are also taken on educational trips and tours. Many of the females had previously been out of school or have dropped out of the educational cycle. It's critical to

figure out what strategies and materials to utilize to help children learn faster and achieve grade–level knowledge and abilities. In many cases where Model 3 is being implemented, learning–related concerns were found to be identical to those observed in the conventional school system. Parents reported that their daughters were content in the KGBV schools.

Sandya Gihar and Manojkumar Saxena (2011) conducted a study in Uttarakhand to assess the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme. The study's main goals were to evaluate efforts made to enrol and retain out–of–school girls, to identify curricular and co–curricular activities conducted in schools, to investigate the boarding, lodging, and healthcare facilities provided to girls, and to investigate the status of passed–out girls from schools and their perceptions. The findings of the investigation revealed that, with the exception of the head teacher, no KGBV has the required teaching or non–teaching employees. Only Derry/Tat Patti was used for seating students in the classrooms in an overwhelming majority of KGBV schools (84%). A good energy connection is available in 80% of the KGBV Schools. Water supply through taps is the source of safe drinking water availability. More than half of the KGBVs (52%) did not have a play area. All but one of the KGBV schools reported having a variety of indoor and outdoor sports equipment. It has been shown that it has doubled in three years. All other groups' dropout rates have been steadily falling. In the last three academic years, the overall attendance of girls has been above 90%, according to an analysis of their annual attendance. The aggregate annual academic achievement of girls has been over 90% in all areas, according to the data.

Kashyapi Awasthi, Priti Chaudhari, The study's main goals were to investigate the status of KGBV schools in terms of material resource availability, adequacy, usability, relevance, and appropriate utilization, as well as to investigate the profile of teachers and students, the teaching–learning process, and the perceptions of various functionaries. The study's findings demonstrate that while the availability of material resources was not a problem in the majority of situations, adequacy, usability, and appropriate utilization were not. The majority of teachers working in Gujarat's KGBVs are from the arts discipline, with only a few from the sciences. Teachers working at KGBV schools are dissatisfied with their jobs due to poor pay compared to the nature of their responsibilities. Teachers stated that they had learned to live in harmony and cooperation. Physical education was determined to be quite lacking.

Sri Purna Chandra Brahma (2012) did a research in Mayurbhanj district to analyse the functioning of KGBV schools. The study's main goals were to assess the efficiency of KGBVs in ensuring dropout girls' access to school education, to study the quality of education offered to the girls, and to assess the amount of community involvement in the operation of KGBVs. The study's key conclusions were that each KGBV has the necessary number of part–time teachers to provide remedial instruction to dropout girls. Each KGBV has placed a strong emphasis on ongoing and detailed examination. The KGBV girls have received extensive training in sketching and painting. Some Adivasi girls are talented dancers and singers. They've honed their communication skills. The daily routine demonstrates that both academic and co–curricular activities are prioritized. It's time for the weekly health checkup. The majority of KGBV schools have access to safe drinking water. Some KGBVs do not keep their health cards up to date. The district office, as well as the headmaster, has taken a variety of efforts to promote life skills development. Training and practice in judo and karate for self–defense are available at each KGBV. Almost everyone at KGBV is involved in the community. Work experience and vocational training are provided by local artisans and skilled laborers. It has been discovered that certain gifted children are given opportunities to demonstrate their abilities in co–curricular activities.

Nityananda Pradhan (2012) investigated the functioning of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools in Koraput district's tribal belts. The main goals were to investigate concerns in KGBV administration, to investigate children's learning achievement, to investigate the needs and problems of KGBV children, and to propose methods for the schools' successful functioning. The study's key results were that officers adequately monitor KGBVs and that there is no special monitoring framework in place to make the monitoring process more efficient. Due to a lack of local resource persons to handle vocational education components in KGBVs, they are weak. Many of the part–time teachers hired to provide remedial education and counselling to pupils outside of school hours and during holidays are untrained, according to the report. It was discovered that some pupils were crucial in motivating other local dropout girls. Students have expressed their appreciation for the schools' programs and services.

Minaketan Das (2012) did a study in Nuapada district on the impact of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya on girls' education. The study's main goals were to evaluate the influence of KGBV on enrolment, retention, and quality achievement in Nuapada district, to identify the factors impacting KGBV's smooth

operation, and to propose solutions for improving girls' education through KGBV's operation. The study's key results were that all KGBV hostel buildings are now under construction, with boarders sleeping on the floors. The urinal, lavatory, and restroom facilities are insufficient and improperly cleaned. Though a gas cylinder and an aqua guard are available, KGBV does not use them; instead, the KGBV girls follow a set of instructions. Regular health check–ups, preventatives, and medications are given to unwell females on a regular basis. The KGBV girls consume only safe water. The KGBV girls do not all wear mosquito nets. Although appropriate teaching learning materials are available throughout the KGBV, teachers rarely employ them. Due to overcrowding in the classroom and teachers' unwillingness to do so, activity–based teaching is only used on occasion. Inside the classroom, the quality of the teachers' activities is subpar. After the class, proper evaluation is not carried out, and weak pupils are given little weight. Classroom instruction has a negligible impact. All members of the KGBV are required to participate in some co–curricular activities on a regular basis. The KGBV, on the other hand, pays little attention to project work and quiz competitions. For all of the KGBV, the quality in the non–scholastic component is average. For greater performance, KGBV staff requires attitudinal training. In all of the KGBV, the level of vocational theory instruction is poor. In all of the KGBV the quality of life skill training is negligible. All of the teachers require to be given orientation on how to conduct life skill training. The managing committees are in place to ensure that KGBV runs smoothly according to the rules, and all of the managing committees are providing appropriate assistance to the headmasters.

Sanjeev Kumar Mishra (2012) investigated the impact of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme on educational quality in the Samblapur district. The major goals were to see how far the KGBV had succeeded in enrolling the girls. In what ways is the boarding school attracting girl students from underserved community schools? The study's key findings were that the community did not understand that KGBV is a novel concept for promoting girls' education. They believe it is merely an extension of a hostel to the current school. The majority of students come from the area in which it is located. There has been no life–skills instruction for kids at any of the KGBVs. Even three years after the intervention, none of the KGBV have adequate infrastructure. Students have access to play and recreation items, but they rarely use them. Each KGBV has formed a KGBV committee in accordance with the scheme's requirements, although participation at these meetings is very low. The authority's oversight of KGBVs is highly erratic.

Second National evaluation study of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya project was done by Gender Unit, Technical Support Group–SSA, Ed.CIL, New Delhi, in 2013. The study's particular goals were to determine if the KGBV scheme's goals were being met or not. Male staff members worked in many KGBV schools, according to the study's findings. No male employees will be allowed to live in the KGBV and have unrestricted access to the girls' living quarters. The employees were not hired in accordance with RTE guidelines. All implementing agencies should adhere to this. Many KGBVs did not fill staff vacancies with well–qualified people. Wardens should be given managerial training, as well as education in teenage psychology, life skills, and health–related concerns and agencies. Teachers were not offered continuing professional development in more engaging, progressive teaching methods. Cooks and wardens received no nutrition or hygiene instruction. For KGBV instructors, specialized teacher training is essential, particularly in the areas of mathematics and science. The safety and security of the girls is not a concern in many KGBV schools. The wardens must be trained to run a dormitory for adolescent girls and educated on children's rights. The KGBVs' dropout data was not kept up to date. It also appears that the transition from class 9–10 should be closely observed. Managing an adolescent girls' residential hostel necessitates managerial ability to combine socio–emotional difficulties and a safe atmosphere. The district and block level agencies did not monitor the learning levels on a regular basis.

Great care should be taken to ensure that it does not exclusively consist of gender stereotyped activities. Gender education, rights education, teenage sexual and reproductive health education, life skills, and self–defence were not included in the standard curriculum. In many states, bilingual instruction is necessary, and this necessitated immediate attention at the bridging stage. All schools should implement computer education, and a qualified computer instructor should be hired. The libraries are insufficient and are hardly used. The majority of KGBVs devote time and effort to planning cultural programs for females. The KGBVs' long–term viability would be determined by intimate community ownership; therefore genuine community participation was discouraged.

Several KGBVs do not follow the norms and requirements of the Right to Education (RTE), hence compliance with the RTE should be prioritized. In most states, there was a minimal fraction of children with special needs (CWSN). The selection of pupils is done on a case–by–case basis. Girls who are already

enrolled in school are also enrolled in the KGBV. The number of CWSN girls appears to be somewhat restricted. Their lack of representation is a severe problem that must be addressed. The important finding is that special focus group % representation is good and represents their number in the population. The initiative, however, is not reaching out to out–of–school females, which is a matter of concern. Some Governments send regular instructors to the KGBV on deputation, which is an excellent idea because these teachers are certified and trained. In–service training programs have become a hot topic. The salary paid to KGBV employees varies greatly as well. Tutors were frequently unable to handle the complete curriculum for the children.

Punjab State Consultancy Services (2014) conducted a study on school dropout rates among girls in Punjab. The study's major goal was to identify the main causes of school dropout at the basic and secondary levels, as well as to offer strategies for improving the situation. With regard to girl children, the study highlights the primary reasons for school dropouts. The schools' infrastructural facilities are inadequate. Parents from low–income families of students who are uninterested in pursuing higher education. The current school curriculum does not provide youngsters with additional income–generating opportunities after they have completed their education. Harvesting of family–owned agricultural crops by youngsters. Due to poverty and big family sizes, dropout rates are higher in villages bordering rural remote areas. Parents are less interested in their children's education as a result of educated unemployment. The lack of a relationship between the school curriculum and real–world requirements, besides, simply gaining theoretical knowledge with no immediate application, does not represent utility. There is a scarcity of qualified, trained, and motivated instructors, particularly in rural areas. Teacher absenteeism for a variety of causes, including Government duty/assignments in non–teaching positions. In some circumstances, a teacher's harsh behaviour toward some pupils leads to the student's withdrawal from school. When parents are busy harvesting, daughters in agricultural families are expected to take care of domestic duties and siblings. The study on school drop–out rates has clearly brought out the critical dimensions of school education in Punjab and the ground realities, it is concluded. A huge percentage of the parents are uneducated and live on a subsistence level of income. This group, in particular, demands post–secondary education that assists their children in obtaining jobs or engaging in self–employment.

Maureen Kapute Mzuza and Yang Yudong (2014) investigated the factors that contribute to low passing rates and high dropout rates among Malawian primary school girls. The study's specific goal was to identify factors that contribute to poor performance and high dropout rates among elementary school girls. According to the report, a growth in the number of pupils enrolled in Malawi's elementary schools was not matched by an equal increase in the number of teachers, resulting in a severe teacher shortage for the children. In addition, the number of schools was not increased, resulting in a deficit of learning space. Teachers were unable to successfully convey the teaching material as a result of these factors, and pupils were unable to concentrate due to obstacles such as a shortage of teaching and learning tools, classroom congestion, and a high pupil–to–teacher ratio, among others. This eventually had an impact on their exam pass percentage. The study also indicated that elementary school lasts eight years, and as a result, most females are behind their male peers in age. As a result, after failing their examinations, the majority of girls marry or become pregnant, resulting in high drop–out rates. It was concluded that the issues confronting and impeding female child education in Malawi are multi–faceted and cannot be remedied with a single solution.

Maliko Winason (2014) did an evaluative study in the Kaganga district of Kalomo on public perceptions of girl–child education. The study's goal was to figure out what factors lead to educational inequality. The goal of this study was to raise public awareness about the importance and necessity of resolving gender disparities in the education of girls. It focuses on the cultural and socioeconomic barriers that girls face. The study's key findings were that in communities where illiteracy rates are still high, socio–cultural attitudes and customs continue to shape females' social position. There has been a progressive shift in parents' attitudes toward their daughters' education. Parents are aware of the possible harm that their attitudes toward girls can cause. Parents who are uneducated firmly believe that girls must be married as soon as they reach the age of marriage. Parents' evaluations of their daughters' skills are influenced by the societal behaviours that lead to low self–esteem in girls. The tradition of early marriage was thus discovered to be a significant impediment to females' education. As they rely on farming for a living, parents believe that sending a girl to school is expensive. Parents prefer that their girls attend schools that are close to their homes. They prefer female teachers, while many parents in rural regions are happy to have their girls taught by a man, especially if he is a member of the community and hence trusted.

Umadevi. L, V. Kavitha Kiran, (2014): The study's goal was to determine the academic achievement of female pupils at KGBV residential schools. A total of 2700 girls (7^{th}–9^{th} grades) were chosen as study participants from 45 KGBVs in Andhra Pradesh and Telangana. Scholastic achievement tests were given to the girls. According to the findings, only a small percentage of KGBV females perform well in school, earning an A+ mark on average. The majority of the females were determined to be average or below average in their academics. Only 10% of KGBV females are getting A+ grade in their studies, according to the findings. The majority of the females were determined to be average or below average in their academics. Many of the KGBV girls have dropped out of school, and some have never attended at all. Another intriguing finding from the study was that as the class size grew the percentage of girls who performed poorly reduced. It was great to see how the girls' grades are rising as they continue their study at KGBV. It was also surprised to discover that while the girls performed well in Telugu, several of them performed poorly in English. It's also worth noting that there was no difference in girls' academic achievement across the three areas and communities.

2.3 Studies on Marginalized Groups Education

Advaita Rajendra and Ankur Sarin (2021): In this essay, they discuss the experiences of students at a Government–run residential secondary school that mostly enrols females from low–income families. They investigate how the categories of disadvantage caste and gender continue to operate in this space, even as the state strives to eradicate them, through an examination of the program's history, secondary evaluations undertaken over time, and a month–long interaction with one such residential school. We detail daily informal encounters in the space, emphasising their importance in maintaining and sometimes challenging extant social distinctions, based on Bourdieu's theory of 'practices.' We explore the promise and limitations of targeted residential schooling, highlighting the diversity that exists even within the nominal category of "disadvantaged." Our findings highlight to the need for greater sensitivity in the conception and implementation of state–run programs aimed at the most vulnerable, as well as a rethinking of efforts to provide a "alternative field."

Radhika Kapur, (2020): Higher Education's Contribution to Improving the Status of Marginalized Groups In today's world, people from underprivileged groups are enrolling in higher education institutions. They are seeking bachelors, masters, and doctorate degrees in order to further their education and better their

lives. Individuals are relocating from rural to urban areas in order to enroll in higher educational institutions. Even though their parents are uneducated, they move their children to urban areas in order to provide greater prospects for employment.

Filmer and Pritchett (1999) used NFHS data from 1992–93 to assess the determinants of child (aged 6–14) enrolment and educational achievement of a cohort (aged 15–19) in India. The study yields five significant findings. First, using an asset index as a proxy for household wealth reveals huge disparities in enrolment and achievement between children from wealthy and poor families. While 82% of students from the wealthiest, 20% of families complete grade 8, only 20% of children from the poorest 40% of families do. Second, wealth disparities are substantial throughout India's states. Third, gender differences accentuate these disparities; for example, although 80% of girls from the top 20% of households complete grade 8, only 9.5% of girls from the bottom 40% do so. Fourth, disparities in enrolment are explained only in part by the physical presence or absence of school facilities in rural villages. Fifth, there are significant disparities in enrolment rates among comparable households among states, particularly among the poor. Enrolment rates in Kerala, for example, are 44 percentage points higher than in Bihar for a similarly impoverished family.

There are two often reported theories for the gender difference in schooling in the economics of education literature. First, the disparity is attributable to gender discrimination in the labor market: if the labor market rewards women's education less well than men's (i.e., the rate of return on women's schooling is lower than men's), girls will have weaker economic incentives to invest in schooling than boys. Another key reason for the disparity is that parents treat their sons and daughters differently. This disparity in treatment may emerge as a result of son preference, which drives parents to place a higher value on the welfare of their sons, or because parents believe that the benefits of a daughter's education are mostly reaped by her in–laws. This is exacerbated by the fact that in some countries, societal conventions demand parents to save for a dowry for daughters but not for men. As a result there is a potentially large asymmetry in parental incentives to educate sons and daughters, as girls may lose out in the intra–household distribution of education (Kingdon, 2002).

Education is frequently viewed as a significant determinant in economic development, according to **Glewwe et al (2012)**. In East Asia and Latin America, a one–year increase in the average education level of the adult population can result

in real GDP growth of 3–5%. Education investments may be more beneficial than many other forms of investments from a personal standpoint. Education is often promoted as a tool of reducing inequality, increasing the productivity of other expenditures, and promoting social and political progress.

People seek education not merely for its intrinsic value, but also for its instrumental benefits, such as its role in improving individuals' labor market prospects. If the labor market rewards education differently for different groups, this will have an impact on how people view the economic benefits of education. Differential labor market returns of males and females have been utilized in the literature to explain not just the gender gap in education, but also the gender disparity in employment. However, there is a significant gender discrepancy in much more fundamental welfare outcomes, such as the probability of survival for girls and boys (Rosenzweig and Schultz, 1982).

The Indian Government's greatest problem in reducing the social impacts of the caste system, which remain ingrained in Indian culture, has been ensuring access to education for India's SCs and STs. Many theories have been presented as to why SCs and STs have poor literacy and primary school enrolment rates, but the most plausible one cites history and uneven access as the root causes. In India, the ancient caste system, which has resulted in social and economic oppression of the SCs and STs, continues to play a major role. Since the 1850s, the SCs and STs have been denied access to school on a systematic basis. As this decade corresponded with Britain's formal administration of India, much of the advancements in education for SCs and STs came from outside forces rather than the National Government. 31 For the SCs and STs who were still physically and emotionally tormented, the incentives to pursue education were weak due to the unchanging social norms and behaviour. The gradual advancement of SCs and STs' education has been attributed to increased efforts to remove caste discrimination paired with further initiatives to promote accessibility and appeal for education. When India attained Independence, the duty for social equality fell entirely on the shoulders of the Indian Government. Despite the benefits of social initiatives and Government policies aimed at increasing basic education rates, the literate population of the SC and ST is still significantly lower than that of the rest of India.

Desai and Kulkarni, (2008): Globalization of education has been a feature of the last century. Along with this increase in education, the divide between different social strata has widened. Education can help underprivileged people

boost their earnings. Education contributes to ensuring that everyone benefits from growth. Education, from an economic standpoint, is seen as a way to make people more productive at work and at home. It can also be viewed as a way of empowering socially and economically disadvantaged communities to demand political change. Governments are aiming to achieve some type of social or economic equality for the population by utilizing any of these factors as motivation to pursue educational progress.

Psacharopoulos, (1988): Some development scholars consider education as a way to improve social wellbeing through economic methods. Primary education has the highest rate of return when compared to secondary and University education, which means that the expenses of providing basic education are far lower than the advantages of learning to read and write. Increases in education are credited with 17.2% of economic growth in Africa and 11.1% in Asia between the 1950s and 1960s. Primary education is said to contribute to greater income distribution in addition to increased economic growth. Providing primary education to an additional 10% of the population would result in a 5% reduction in inequality. The economic benefits of boosting primary school enrolment rates highlight the necessity of improving education accessibility for India's SCs and STs.

Wigley and Wigley, (2006): Another incentive to pursue education is that it can enable an individual to work for a better quality of life. Human beings frequently base their life objectives and daily behaviours on what they consider to be feasible, which is a key aspect influenced by education. Poor people's knowledge of possibilities is expanded through education, which is often a necessary aspect in providing motivation to escape poverty and social oppression.

Thorat, (2003): Primary education has higher rates of return than secondary and University education. As a result, it is more important for Governments to prioritize increasing access to basic education before moving on to higher levels of education. Governments and aid groups can raise the number of people who have the core skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic by focusing development on human capabilities. Individuals can use these talents to communicate, argue, count, and solve problems, allowing them to become more aware of and in control of their own lives. This enables individuals to better deal with challenges in their daily life, such as obtaining a bank loan, defending themselves in court, abandoning toxic personal relationships, or avoiding occupations that would expose them to hazardous working conditions. Even having a basic education is a valuable

advantage that is sometimes ignored. Education has had an independent effect on life expectancy, causing educated people to live longer.

Nambissan, (2002): Ambedkar was one of the most influential SCs and STs political leader in India who recognized the importance of social fairness. He believed that a better degree of knowledge would enable SCs and STs to recognize their strengths and strive to the highest Hindu positions, and that as a result, they would use political power and influence to abolish their persecution. The usefulness of education, according to Ambedkar, was in empowering SCs and STs, to engage political action for social improvement through informed lobbying.

Pinto, (2000): Following the country's Independence, the Government was given more duty to promote the economic and educational interests of the lower castes, as well as to safeguard the SCs and STs from social injustices and exploitation. The SCs and STs would see very little action over the next few decades to back up the claims and advances made in the 1950s to help enhance their access to elementary education. In India, the number of schools established and the amount of money dedicated to basic education programs both improved slightly throughout the 1950s. The Government's efforts waned during the next three decades, with the rate of primary school construction falling from 5.8% in the 1960s to 2.1% in the 1970s, and finally to barely 1.3% in the 1980s. This was accompanied by a change in funding from primary to secondary school education.

Mungekar, (1999): Improvements in access to education for everyone of India were made between 1983 and 2000, while the disparity in education rates for SCs and STs, particularly females, and those in higher castes remained steady. Enrolment rates for SC and ST boys increased from 47.7% to a pitiful 63.25% over a seventeen–year span. Enrolment rates for high caste boys increased from 73.22–82.92% when compared to lower caste boys. While comparing the enrolment rates of female SC and STs, which increased from 15.72–32.61%, to their upper–caste counterparts, whose enrolment increased from 43.56–59.15%, the results were much worse. The education gap can also be seen as extending across the educational system, with the proportion of SCs and STs who succeed compared to non–SCs and STs remaining low throughout elementary, secondary, and post–secondary education. Despite significant success in increasing enrolment rates in India, statistics suggest that little progress has been made in closing the education gap between castes. The failure of several attempts to increase social equality within the Indian caste system over the past 150 years may be seen in the lack of success in boosting primary enrolment rates for SCs and STs.

Desai and Whiteside, (2000): As the caste system in India began to crumble, there was a larger shift toward equalizing society in order to promote safer and more beneficial learning settings. The Indian Government has made significant progress in improving the quality of life for India's lowest castes since Independence. Modern exposure to worldwide thought has extended access to ideas and strategies for increasing education rates for SCs and STs, resulting in some of the most impressive successes in recent years.

Jabbi, and Rajyalakshmi (2001): Following the passage of the Caste Disabilities Removal Act, the British Government worked to improve SC and ST school attendance by employing tactics that were sensitive to the caste system. As the children of the SCs and STs were frequently bullied at school, the British proposed other teaching methods rather than openly addressing the caste issue. The adoption of night schooling for SCs and STs' children was one recommended solution. Children would no longer have to worry about attending school with members of the upper castes, but they would still be exposed to the perils of traveling to and from school in the dark. The idea of all–SCs and STs schools was also suggested as a solution. This technique reduced the dangers of night–time learning, but it did not assist to reduce class animosity. By 1931, 81 years after education was initially made available to all inhabitants of India, these two systems had combined to provide a 4% primary enrolment rate for SCs and STs' children. 93% of these SC and ST youngsters were enrolled in all–SC and ST schools.

When there were insufficient all–SC and ST schools where children may pursue secondary education, a problem arose. Only 1% of all students in the country at that time completed secondary school.

Kumar, et al, (2001): When coping with a National problem, such as dangerously low primary enrolment rates, Governments frequently seek foreign support. The World Bank recommended the District Primary Education Program (DPEP) to the Indian Government in order to enhance primary enrolment rates in India. The program's goal was to reduce enrolment gaps between gender and socioeconomic status to 5% and reduce dropout rates to 10%. The World Bank provides the majority of the money for the DPEP. It recommends the creation of local committees to regulate the recruiting and administration of paraprofessionals. These para–teachers are DPEP–hired trained teachers who are filling shortages in primary schools. They are recruited for a limited time but are given the option of extending their contract if they perform successfully. They are a less expensive

option to permanent teaching staff, yet their performance is often higher as a result of better incentives. India has seen a decrease in primary enrolment rates with the implementation of the DPEP. It's probable that National programs to raise primary school enrolment will fall short of their goals. Instead, program managers are so focused on a top–down approach to education development that they are unable to identify and address individual challenges.

Crossley and Murby (1994): The distribution of supplementary textbooks to a community is a smaller–scale, more capital–based method to development and raising primary enrolment rates. In poor nations, textbooks are frequently the only source of information for a subject's curriculum. Knowledge resources will be limited if a school is unable to purchase its own textbooks. By increasing the number of textbooks available, development initiatives intend to boost the capacity of schools to accept more students, as well as provide extra tools to help kids do better in school. The main fear about supplying textbooks is that it will not result in higher enrolment rates. New textbooks give no incentive for SC and ST students to attend classes because they do not remove any of the barriers to education that they face now. Increasing access to textbooks has helped to improve educational quality while having little or no effect on enrolment numbers.

In terms of education, data shows a significant disparity in school attendance between SC and STs and non–SC/STs. In rural India, 70% of children aged 5–14 were enrolled in school at the aggregate level in 2000. However, the dropout rate was at 4.5%, and an alarming 26% of the youngsters never went to school. The SCs have a significantly high school dropout rate (5.2%) and a proportion of children who have never attended school (36%) than other ethnic groups. In rural India, the ratio of school dropouts and those who have never attended school is lower for the other backward castes than for the SC socioeconomic group. In contrast, the proportion of OBC children who attend school (70%) is higher than that of SC children. In comparison to the SCs and OBCs, the 'others' have the highest school attendance percentage (78%) of any social category. As a result, when compared to SCs and OBCs, their drop–out percentage is lower (4%).

According to the National Sample Survey (NSS), education has increased among SC and STs, although not at the same rate as among the upper castes. SC and ST men improved their post–primary attainment by 39 percentage points in the two decades following 1983. However, this was still less than the rise seen in non–SC/ST men (56 percentage points). Similarly, between 1983 and 2004–05, SC

and ST women improved by 21 percentage points in post–primary achievement, compared to 38 percentage points for their upper caste counterparts over the same period. Furthermore, there were a lot of dropouts. According to the 11th Five Year Plan, 74% of SC and ST boys and 71% of SC and ST girls dropped out of school between grades 1 and 10.

Deshpande and Newman, (2007): Returns on schooling appear to be lower among SC and ST men on average than among other males. In fact, in rural regions, schooling tends to be a disadvantage for SC and ST men. This anomaly could be explained by three factors: first, all men with education in a rural, primarily agricultural context are penalized; second, SC and ST men are more affected by these effects if they have post–primary education; and third, job growth in rural areas has not kept pace with the increase in the supply of educated SC and ST men. Education enhances the likelihood of all males joining the labor force in metropolitan areas, although the effects on SC and ST men are not statistically significant. Several studies have found evidence of discrimination, particularly in private sector hiring.

2.4 Studies of Promotion of Girls Educations

Vasantha Gouri, (2017): Basic, functional, or digital education always enlightens a person from ignorance and naivety. A woman's awareness of the value of hygiene, healthy habits, and knowledge of numerous disciplines aids her in supporting her family and grooming her children to become better citizens of society. The current paper examines the status and importance of women's education in India by examining case studies of girl child education in Government–run primary schools in the interior villages of Telangana and Andhra Pradesh's Nellore, Chittoor, and Mahabubnagar districts, as well as villagers' socio–psychological attitudes toward female education.

Arun Mehta, (2006–07): The National University of Educational Planning and Administration has built the District Information System for Education, which is a comprehensive database on Indian elementary education (DISE). The project covers both primary and upper primary schools/sections in all districts of the country's six northern states, which was true for both primary and composite primary and upper primary levels of education. Smaller states have been brought together to form seven states. These minor states fared far better than several larger states. In addition, each indication must be examined separately in order to identify

states that require improvement. Many schools entrust their administration to paraprofessionals. All of these schools should be studied to see how they operate. The primary school dropout rate was high; it must be reduced if the aim of universal primary education and retention are to be attained.

Mhrd Deeal: mentioned the following. Adolescents require more care, instruction, and knowledge. The Bihar Education Programme made it simple for girls to finish Class 5 and enroll in Class 6 in Government schools. The Girl Child Education camp was able to retain girls from various social backgrounds, and girls who finished Class VIII were working in the most difficult locations under the Lok Jumbish Program. Girls in Delhi were found to have a high level of proficiency in life skills, as well as being confident, aggressive, and in command of their lives. They gained an understanding of cultural restrictions, sexism, and sexuality by examining their own circumstances. They also learned computer skills, sewing techniques, and beauty cures, read the newspaper on a regular basis, and were permitted to freely mingle with boys in classes and workshops. The research looked at educational initiatives outside of conventional schooling. Alternative educational views, which may have an impact on society's disenfranchised parts, must be acknowledged, supported, and nurtured.

Sonia Mistry, Ravi Kant Pandey, and Valentina Rizzo (2006) created a quality education package to strengthen schools and communities. The study's goals were to identify and document those aspects of the QP that were successful, to identify best practices in the implementation process, to observe systematic successes and challenges of the QP that were relevant for implementation outside of Lalitpur, and to identify potential obstacles to the QP's long–term sustainability. The findings were divided into two categories based on the research: school and community. The program inputs, when combined with Government programs like the midday meal, had a considerable impact on the educational quality in the examined schools. Both teachers and students commended the teaching – learning resources as a fun approach to teach, study, and practice new concepts when they were used. When compared to their 5th grade counterparts' reading and writing abilities, 3rd grade kids who used the workbooks the previous year showed equivalent or superior ability.

Kumkum Mukherjee, We observed 114 children from schools that used the tight supervision approach and 113 children from environments that used the indirect method of teaching. Children in schools that use indirect supervision are

more self–reliant and independent in their knowledge and attitude to learning in general, according to the findings. The indirect technique of teaching appears to be preferable to the close supervision method, according to the findings.

Usha Nayar, Pratham, New Delhi: examined children's learning levels, school enrolment and dropout patterns, gender inequalities, and school performance.

The purpose of this study (ASER) was to look at the state of education in rural India. According to ASER 2005, school enrolment levels were extremely high in almost all states; nonetheless, basic reading and arithmetic abilities must be improved. To lay a firm basis for learning, students should have a strong foundation in elementary school.

The purpose of the 2006 conducted rapid assessment survey in rural areas, according to Pratham, New Delhi, was twofold: to get reliable estimates of the status of children's schooling and basic learning (reading, writing, and math ability) at the district level; and to measure the change in these basic learning indicators and school statistics from the previous year. The quality of adult literacy programs should be improved, according to the report. Learning programs that allow children to finish the elementary cycle in four years rather than the traditional eight should also be considered, with a focus on reading comprehension. Mothers function as a multiplier when it comes to educating their children, so efforts should be focused on educating them.

Pratham, New Delhi, (2009) assesses India's educational situation. It concentrated on fundamental reading, comprehension, and arithmetic skills. ASER 2008 evaluated early–grades curriculum as well as indicators such as time, school schedules, maps, famous persons, and many chores.

Rajaram (2000) investigated India's educational level, school attendance, and school continuance. According to research, just roughly a third of Indian homes had an adult member who had finished grade one. No adult female had ever completed formal schooling in more than half of Indian families. The highest grade finished by a typical adult member among males was in Delhi, whereas the highest grade completed by a typical adult member among females was in Kerala. The degree of education achieved by a typical adult male or female has a significant impact on school attendance and kid retention. To promote educational continuity, the report advised that formal education be provided to all parts of the population, particularly the most vulnerable.

Vimala Ramachandran assessed the Shiksha Karmi Project and Lok Jumbish, two innovative education programs in Rajasthan, in 2001. Innovative community participation in basic education in Rajasthan. The report also revealed the situation of children from scheduled castes who go to school. The Shikha Karmi Project (SKP), based on the Tilonia concept of the Social Work and Research Centre (SWRC), offers a dynamic, functional model of education that includes training local school dropouts as primary school teachers in order to provide education to the most vulnerable members of society, including girls. Monitoring by Village Education Committees (VEC) to bring in mid–course correction, problem solving, taking a process–oriented approach, and including NGOs are all important components of the SKP. In the context of persons who have little or no access to basic education, the study advised community participation. It is necessary to create an environment that is supportive of females' participation.

Reddy (2001): Investigated primary education in Manipur. The research was conducted in two districts of Manipur as part of the Operation Blackboard Scheme review. The majority of the primary schools surveyed (200 in both districts) were more than 3 kilometers away from the block headquarters. It was suggested that instructors be motivated, that communities be involved, and that education officials be monitored. To improve the learning environment, more rooms should be built, more teachers should be hired, and physical facilities should be provided.

Greetings, Saroja (1999): In schools in Ron Taluka, Gadag district, Karnataka, the structure of school education and the factors influencing female school dropouts were studied. The author conducted a case study on "School related factors affecting the female school drop–out phenomenon in rural areas:" It was suggested that separate girls' schools be opened in villages, that more female teachers be hired, that the school environment be made appealing, and that necessary educational and sporting materials be provided. Policymakers and concerned officials should work to make elementary education universal and lower the number of female dropouts.

Saxena and his Colleagues (2000): In States and UTs, policies on incentives for girls' involvement, as well as their implementation mechanisms, were reviewed. It evaluated elements that influenced girls' participation in elementary school and counselled parents and village chiefs in Tamil Nadu and Uttar Pradesh about the implementation of incentive programmes.

Suresh Sharma and Others: According to them, "Operation Blackboard" and "Sarva Siksha Abhiyan" are Government–sponsored initiatives aimed at universal enrolment and basic education.

The link with household living conditions, access to electricity, and expenditure on primary schooling has the largest marginal impacts, according to the study. The National Family Health Survey (NFHS) was utilized to cross–reference the findings of one study with those of another. Another common reason for dropout is that it "costs too much" for both boys and girls, followed by "required for outside work for payment in cash or kind" for boys and being "required for household work" for girls, "repeated failure" for both genders, "required for work on family farm/family business" for boys, and finally "required for household work" for 10% boys and 15% girls. It's worth noting that during the 1980s and 1990s, female literacy rates grew faster than male literacy rates, closing the gap between the two. Para instructors were also discussed by the author.

Primary education, according to **Singh, Joshi, and Garia (2003)**, offers the foundation from which an individual might pursue higher education. The study evaluated the social acceptability of Parishad Primary Schools in Uttar Pradesh (Faizabad and Agra) in terms of enrolment, quality of education and instructors, school facilities, and parents' perspectives, as well as the social acceptability of private schools in the same area. It was advised that the quality of education at Parishad schools be enhanced by providing teacher training, learning and teaching materials, filling vacant teacher positions, and paying instructors a fair wage.

Sudhakar, Umamohan, and Sugunakumari are three characters in the movie **Sudhakar, Umamohan, and Sugunakumari (1999)**. analyzed school enrolment and dropout rates, parental involvement in their children's education, weavers' perspectives on education, and their perceptions of kid incomes and work–orientation The research was carried out in the village of Somandepalli in the Anantapur district of Andhra Pradesh in 1998–99.

According to the findings, 56.6% of parents do not provide any direction to their children. Parents were interested in their children's education in 43.3% of cases. They recommended children to study at home on a regular basis. Nearly 54.1% of respondents were interested in their school's management, and 50% of parents said that a Village Education Committee (VEC) was needed to oversee the school's operations and management. Three years of formal schooling, according to respondents, was sufficient to designate youngsters as literates.

Thangaraj, (2002): The impact of the noon meal scheme, often known as the midday meal scheme, on enrolment and retention was investigated. The programs aided in increasing school strength and enrolment, as well as reducing child malnutrition. Many people, particularly widows and destitutes, were employed as Aayas, chefs, Balsevikas, and noon meal organizers as a result of the scheme. The examination of the system revealed a clear rising trend in children's health and educational standing. The weight of 90% of the children increased, their height increased, their anemia decreased (18.4%–11%), and the incidence of eye illnesses and dental problems decreased. Tamil Nadu's dropout rates had also decreased. Poverty must be eradicated in order to achieve 100% attendance and 0% dropout rates.

Anne Treutner's analysis: According to the findings, both men and women should receive educational training in order to boost their economic status and improve their self–esteem. Thiruvananthapuram–based Women's Empowerment and Human Resource Development Centre of India examined the functional performance of DPEP schools in Kerala in 2001. The purpose of the study was to evaluate the functional efficiency of DPEP schools in Kerala, as well as the schools' current physical environment and parental awareness and involvement in school operations. Physical environment, students' activities, teachers' activities, availability of handbooks, learning activities, learners' involvement in the learning process, role of the head teacher, parents' perspectives on DPEP, and community opinion all contribute to functional efficiency. DPEP strives to alleviate the stress of learning for primary school students by fostering comprehensive ability as well as the development of the learner's personality. Suggestions for educational reform included changes to the examination system and evaluation method, encouragement of creative thinking and activities, de–linking of the lower primary (LP) section from high school (HS)/higher secondary school (HSS), and a check on the appointment of teachers to perform other duties such as census operations, election work, and so on. Academic and administrative freedom for BRC, coordinated media officer visits to BRC, material collecting from local sources, and fostering democratic conduct between school officials and higher authorities were all suggested.

Yadappanavar, (2002) studied factors impacting primary schools using a case study technique. In Deodurg Block, Raichur district, Karnataka, the study found the key reasons for children's poor access to and retention in elementary

school. Poverty was shown to be the primary factor for children's inability to attend school, according to the study. Teachers had to deal with a student population that was travelling along with their parents in search of work. In comparison to boys, girls' education was not prioritized. Toilets, drinking water, and a playground were among the infrastructure facilities that were lacking. Poor resource planning and a casual parental attitude toward schooling were also factors in the low enrolment of children. Incentives should be provided to low–income families to encourage them to send their daughters to school, according to the study. It was also suggested that roads/transport be built, that lower primary schools be upgraded to primary and higher primary schools, and that good infrastructure be built.

In his essay, **Yanhong Zhang (2008)** discussed world education indicators (WEI). The goal of the WEI–SPS project was to collect cross–National data on how schools operate, including school resources and potential indicators of practices related to educational quality and equity. The SPS study included eleven countries:. Only four Indian states were included in the study. The response percentages in the other countries were around 90% or higher. Data was gathered and analyzed using questionnaires and interviews. The significant conclusions include: I With the exception of India, Malaysia, and Sri Lanka, the majority of teachers in most nations are dissatisfied with their wages. ii) Educators, parents, policymakers, and the general public must collaborate to ensure that once children attend schools, they have a positive learning experience.

2.5 Studies Related to Educational Problems of Girls

Bisaria, S., researched the NCERT's 'Need–based vocationalization of education for girls' in 1991. (ERIC Funded) Dilemma The study looks at how girls' education is becoming more vocationalized, as well as the need to establish needs–based vocational courses that meet the needs of girls with varying levels of success. The study's main findings: The majority of the girls in the schools wanted to learn how to work for themselves.

1. Many girls working outside of school needed training so that they could do their own job with stronger qualifications and without the assistance of intermediaries.
2. Girls studying at industrial training institutions wanted to develop self–employment skills and needed training tailored to this;

3. Girls told their parents at school (teachers did not encourage them). It was their peer group and, in some cases, their brothers.' who pushed them to enrol in a technical school.

Since they needed to make a living, the girls pushed through the technical education they were seeking at home.

Srnritikana Bhattacharya studied at the University of Calcutta in 1992 "The difficulties of scholastic backwardness of teenage girl pupils all around Calcutta." The study's main findings were:

1. Intelligence and academic achievement were positively related; the poorer the child's mental ability, the worse the scholastic performance, and the poorer the child's mental capacity,
2. Poor mental ability was not the only cause of scholastic backwardness; the student outcomes of the learners were also harmed by personality traits such as extroversion and introversion, as well as home and school factors.
3. Another key issue that was discovered to contribute to neglect and slow or no response was the lack of routine evaluation of class work.

Madhu Sekhar's (2001) Work: Good education is thought to be essential for social advancement. Female education has an impact on health and other social issues such as the gender ratio, birth rate, child and mortality rates, and so on. The sex ratio has been quite low in almost all states with poor female literacy rates. She believes that educational windows and doors should be widely opened so that girls and women can benefit from the bright light of knowledge. A literate mother will do wonders for our country in the future in terms of developing a stable society and a vibrant culture. She also emphasized the importance of girls' education and the Government's extensive efforts to promote literacy, particularly among girls, and noted that access to school was still denied. As a result, the author believes that educating girls should be prioritized because women can do wonders in creating a stable society and a bright future for the country. Finally, the author proposes that NGOs and the media might help to raise awareness among indigenous people.

Adhav, Kishore's (2002) Analysis: It opened the door to breaking down the mental barrier that one didn't need the best in the world to get an education. As a gratifying contribution to social transformation, education must be accorded a high priority on the National agenda. He emphasized the importance of our planners speeding up the reform process and encouraging creativity among administrators through training.

Suguna B. and Ranu G. S. (2002): The focus of the research was on "Non–formal education as a tool for women's development." The following findings were discovered as a result of their field work.

1. It is commonly understood that, because women are such a powerful force, National progress is impossible to achieve without them.
2. It is vital to educate women in order to include them in the development process; non–formal education has been identified as an appropriate strategy for eliminating women's illiteracy and its educational implications on their social position.

Deva and Mayura are a couple (2003): A study of the influences of family and school characteristics on academic success in IX and X classes studied by residential school students has been published. The report comprised 120 children from the city of Hyderabad. The investigator devised an interview schedule to investigate family issues, while the second author devised a questionnaire for teachers to investigate school factors. The conclusion was that girls were superior to boys. Academic achievement has been influenced by factors such as family ambitions and socioeconomic background.

Sarma, Santosh Kumar (2004): Psuedo shows in the paper that gender equality and women's empowerment are important.

1. Women's education is still urgently needed because it is a vital human right.
2. In truth, women are an important portion of a country's human resources.
3. Education is the most effective means of channelling these resources into National development.
4. In order to eliminate the evil of gender disparity, education is seen as a crucial tool in the shift.
5. Education liberates us from ignorance and boosts our self–confidence.

Nazarika Himaadri and Devi Ranusri (2011): Did a study on "Problems of Girls' Education at Secondary Level in Sipajhar Block" with a focus on Darrang District.

1. Economic inequity, education, and ignorance have an impact on females' academic activities, according to the findings of the study.
2. Girls are employed in household jobs.

3. 20% of families are unable to cover the costs of their daughters' education.
4. As the study demonstrates, parental education and encouragement are critical in the education of girls. Approximately 20% of parents are unable to provide effective instruction.

Ranganaath. N. Santos Rao, Dr. K. Achyuta and Sreenivas (2011) investigated the topic of "Gender Equality in Education." Educational discrimination is clearly a serious infringement of women's and girls' rights, as well as a significant impediment to social and economic development. In order to achieve gender equality and parity in education, the state should pay close attention to both education and the cultural and administrative structures of society.

2.6 Studies on Major Policies and Schemes in India

Parul Chandani and Gurudatt Kakkar (2020) Analysis: In India, there are both opportunities and challenges for girl child education and schooling. 5 and 14. Education is a continual process of learning new skills, and it is constantly centered on the students. Education has a huge impact on humanity's survival and growth. Education fosters human knowledge, consciousness, and understanding for the betterment of society. Education in the twenty–first century directs an individual to creativity as a human right. The Indian education system is the world's largest, with primary, middle, secondary, higher secondary, and college education all playing a vital role in shaping people's personalities. However, there are numerous roadblocks in our country's educational system, and substantial numbers of school–aged youngsters continue to drop out before completing secondary education.

R Sarojadevi and SP Mathiraj Subramanian (2016) studied that the sphere of women's education, India is presently a world leader. Women's education has been a key priority of both the Government and civil society in India, as educated women may play a critical role in the country's growth. Women's empowerment focuses on education since it allows them to respond to problems, confront their established roles, and transform their lives so that we don't overlook the significance of education in terms of women's empowerment, India is on track to become a powerhouse and developed country by 2020. In rural areas, the rise of women's education is quite gradual. This clearly indicates that a huge proportion of our country's women are illiterate, feeble, backward, and exploited. Women's education is the most powerful weapon for changing their social status. Education also helps to alleviate inequities and serves as

a tool of raising one's status within the family. After the 86th Constitutional Amendment proclaimed education from the age of 6–14 a fundamental right of every Indian child, the Government of India established the EFA program in 2002. However, according to the parameters set for women, the status of girls' education is not improving. This study was undertaken in order to learn more about the current state of women's education. According to the findings, the rate of female education is increasing, but not in a sustainable way.

According to Prasanta Kumar Acharya and Manoranjan Behera (2004), progress on civil works had been very poor by the end of November 2003, owing to late delivery of money, inadequate monitoring, and a lack of district–level convergence of SSA with other associated development programmes. However, the Orissa Primary Education Programme Authority (OPEPA) has made significant headway in developing teacher training programs at both the state and district levels. OPEPA had rendered about 70% of EGS (Education Guarantee Scheme) centers operational, which was a great feat. However, progress in the establishment of Alternate and Innovative Education Centers (AIE) has been slow.

Tejaswini Adhikari's observations: The survey covered five Navi Mumbai Municipal Corporation schools (NMMC). The assessment found that school infrastructure was in dire need of repair. There were insufficient classrooms, teachers, tables, and chairs. There were only three classrooms for 420 kids, and just two teachers were responsible for the entire school. Most of the schools had a significant number of youngsters in their classrooms due to their convenient location and low–cost education. Teachers' motivation, pro–children attitudes, and creative teaching/learning processes all need to be strengthened. To relieve the strain on instructors, it is also advised that suitable staff be appointed. A good network of balwadis is needed, as it is reorganizing the human resource component of schools and increasing community participation. There is also a requirement for functionaries to be trained.

"Learning achievement of slum children in Delhi," by Aggarwal and Sunita Chugh, published in 2003, New Delhi: "Basic education is a fundamental right, and the 86th Constitutional Amendment was recently enacted to ensure that all children have access to high–quality basic education. The study's major goal was to discover the social, economic, and organizational aspects that are linked to a learner's education and accomplishment level in a slum. In both courses and grades, the slum children's performance was well below what was expected.

Yash Aggrawal, (2001): In his study, he looked at the many aspects of access and retention in District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) districts, with a particular focus on the structure and patterns in enrolment for DPEP districts, as well as trends in district level performance measures like retention. District Information System for Education (DISE) formats were used to collect data from the DPEP states. The study discovered that both formal and alternative primary education systems had made considerable increases in access and retention. Despite significant progress in enrolment and retention, it is clear that additional efforts will be required before the overall goals of the DPEP can be met. Steps and the community must be enhanced in order to increase data quality; secondly, data should be validated on a regular basis using scientifically planned sample surveys, and the margin of error should be established at the district level.

Rukmini Banerjee's (2000) survey: Poverty and primary schooling were the subject of field investigations in Mumbai and Delhi. The study looked at the obstacles that must be overcome in order to attain universal primary education. According to the report, the reason for so many youngsters not attending school has less to do with their families' financial situation and more to do with the education system's shortcomings. The inability of the educational system to attract and retain children is more important than the financial situation of families. In towns and villages, school enrolment has increased considerably, but the Government school system's ability to retain and adequately teach pupils has been less spectacular. In addition, the survey found that achievement levels in primary schools were similar in Classes III and IV. It has been noted that youngsters who have attended school for a number of years are not always literate. The report recommended that for the universalization of primary education in India, a flexible approach, community accountability, and innovative initiatives at the local level, whether in the classroom or in the community, be recognized. Schools and communities must be publicly recognized for their dedication to the education of all children.

Vijiya Sherry Chand, Geeta Amin and Choudhury; narrated innovations under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in 2006. The Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) is the Government of India's flagship basic education program, which has been in place since 2002. Innovative Interventions were found in 13 states across the country. These advances contributed significantly to the reduction of out–of–school youngsters. It was also discovered that almost 3 million children with disabilities were identified in 2006, with 1.83 million enrolling. Another innovation to be

fostered was the coupling of civic works to an educational goal, such as teaching rainwater collection. Strategies should be developed to focus on a problem area defined by National guidelines, and monitoring and assessment methods should be put in place wherever possible to allow for intervention revisions.

Devaraj, Amaidhi, and colleagues (2005) conducted a study on quality education in the Chamarajanagar district. According to research, the Chamarajanagar district in South Karnataka has a low literacy rate and a big population of Scheduled Castes (SC) and Scheduled Tribes (ST) (ST). By strengthening the capacities of all stakeholders concerned, an awareness programme was launched to improve the quality of basic education in Government schools and Ashramshalas (Government–aided Institutions). During DQEP exams, it was discovered that learning levels had improved. Efforts to involve and integrate the community with the school have achieved progress. HM held discussions with parents and the community concerning school growth and children's learning levels. Teachers learned how to spot youngsters with low learning levels and pay extra attention to them. Overall, classroom teaching methods improved as a result of the employment of drama, games, and art activities.

Gandhe and his colleagues (2000): In Rajasthan, conducted a study on externally aided projects in the field of primary education. The purpose of this study is to examine, conceptualize, and comprehend the operationalization and program execution approaches used by the Lok Jumbish and Shiksha Karmi Projects in Rajasthan's Ajmer District. These projects, which focus specifically on females' engagement in education and are equipped with innovative tactics and active community participation, intend to pave the path for speedier educational progress. Micro–planning, a retention (and monitoring) register, low–cost dormitories for migrant children, night classes, community–based school repairs, minority education, and teacher training are among the innovations embraced. There is a need to promote awareness among rural women about the need of educating their daughters, as well as address the issue of child marriage, which is a barrier to girls' education.

Uma Hirisave and Shanti observed that Children with scholastic challenges were found to be more impulsive, threw more temper tantrums, were more tense, restless, defiant, disobedient, and had a difficult time concentrating on academic and non–academic work, according to an analysis of their behaviour problems.

In "Reaching the Unreached: Innovative Strategies for Providing Out–of–School Children with Access to Basic Education," the authors discuss "reaching the unreached." It was said that India's primary education system has grown to be one of the world's largest, yet girls drop out at a considerably higher rate than boys. The current study looked into the reasons for non–enrolment and dropout rates, as well as the attitudes of parents, children, and the community toward education, as well as the involvement of the Government and non–Governmental organizations (NGOs) in the education system.

The Indian Institute of Education in Pune (2006) looked into the issue of school dropouts, which has plagued the primary education system not only in India but also in other developing countries. Various variables impacting lower attendance were discussed in this article. Local teachers should be made available for teaching in schools to reduce teacher absenteeism and improve punctuality; incentives should be provided to encourage women teachers; and the cultural gap between parents and teachers should be bridged through more elaborate forms of participation in the school management and control system, according to the report.

Usha Jayachandran Observes: These youngsters would stay at home throughout the slump, unable to continue their education. With this in mind, Vidhayak Sansad (constructive parliament) in collaboration with Shramjeevi Sangathana set up mobile schools near the bhongas brick kilns (temporary huts built by migrant labourers). The Zilla Parishad conducts examinations at the end of each session, and certificates are issued to youngsters who were unable to finish their education in conventional schools due to their parents' itinerant lifestyle. Teachers primarily live in bhonga schools and, in addition to providing instruction, ensure that the children's cleanliness is taken care of. The writers also discussed some of the issues that these institutions face.

Juneja, Nalini, and Nabanita Nandi. (2000) have highlighted Indore's educational profile. The problem of street children is an unavoidable result of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan/Education for All program. Identifying the function of educational authorities at the local level, according to the authors, is the first step toward establishing mechanisms for periodic diagnosis of the situation. The current "shot in the dark" techniques do not offer much hope for long–term transformation.

Jyotirmayee Kar (2002) did the research to see how much access to schools and the quality of education affects enrolment in primary and secondary schools in the state of Orissa. The research is based on secondary data gathered from Orissa's

economic surveys, records, and statistical abstracts. The material includes a cross–section of information on the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of the State's 30 districts. It was discovered that the factors influencing girls and boys enrolment at the basic and secondary levels of education are not significantly different. In elementary school enrolment, an economic variable represented by agricultural development plays a significant effect, whereas in secondary school, educational factors such as the number of schools and literacy rate take centre stage. In the educational system, schools have an important role in promoting secondary school enrolment, but not in elementary school enrolment.

Khandelwal, Amit (2007) assessed the theoretical and practical components of teacher education in India. The curriculum for elementary teacher education is divided into three parts: theory of education, teaching practice, and practicum (project work, sessions work, Primary Education co–curricular activities, etc). The teacher education program aids trainees in their preparation for roles such as instructor, facilitator of learning, and evaluator. Effective teaching entails abilities such as introducing a new subject, piqueing students' attention and maintaining motivation, assisting students in learning new concepts, creating thought–provoking questions, and coordinating classroom interaction, among other things. Exploratory trips to schools, observation of classroom teaching, practicing blackboard/whiteboard writing, preparation of lesson plan writing, practice teaching, supervised teaching, and training workshops are all organized by a Teachers Education Institution (TEI). The Committee recommended that the final assessment, as well as internal and external assessments, give equal weight to theory and practical components. Internal and external examiners should perform a viva–voce at the end of the second year, with one internal and one external examiner in each team of evaluators.

The challenges of universalizing elementary education in India were explored by Kothari (2004). The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) conducted the study to explain the Indian primary education situation using a range of data sources such as Census, NSS, NCERT, and NFHS surveys. Gender, age, the rural–urban gap, spending groups, village amenities, and children's health status were all used to assess the overall development position. India was categorized as having a medium level of human development. In the end, the author stated that we are still far from achieving the aim of universal enrolment of children aged 6–14. It's also feasible that malnutrition, severe illness,

and physical disabilities are preventing them from starting school. School must become more appealing to girls and first–generation students. We as a country are likely to remain stuck at 80–85% enrolment rates unless we take necessary actions, whereas other developing countries are on their way to 100% enrolment.

Arun Mehta's significant findings include: I The majority of primary school teachers were between the ages of 26 and 45. ii) Graduates and above made up 49% of male teachers and 48% of female teachers. iii) In 2005, 379,000 para teachers were hired, accounting for 9.09% of the total 4.17 million instructors, with 65% of them working in primary schools. To improve enrolment and retention of children in schools, there is still a need to focus on filling teacher vacancies in schools.

2.7 Studies on Causes of Dropout Girls

A study by **Amgoth, Deepa and Kameswari, Lakshmi and Ramala, Geetha and Pettugani, Sreedevi. (2019).** A study on family related reasons for being school dropouts among banjara tribal adolescent girls in Ranga Reddy district. Adolescence is regarded, as a unique phase of human development. It is a transitional phase of growth and development between childhood and adulthood. NCERT defined a dropout as a pupil who leaves school before the completion of a school stage or leaving at some intermediate or non–terminal point of a given level of education (school stage). There is a substantial lacuna among adolescent girls for being school dropouts in a tribal community; hence, an attempt was made to study the reasons for being school dropouts among adolescent girls of Banjara tribal community. Exploratory research design was used for the present study. The locale of the study was purposely selected as Maheshwaram mandal of Ranga Reddy district in Telangana State. Sample size of the present study was 60 among Banjara tribal adolescent school dropout girls. The age group of respondents were 12–24 years who were randomly selected. Structured questionnaire was used to study the family related reasons for being dropouts. Frequency and percentage were used to analyse the collected data. Results revealed that 53.3% of the respondents had dropped out of the school due to "financial constraints" in the family. As much as 50% of the respondents had dropped out due to the "early marriage" and "lack of parental interest towards education". Hence, guidance and counselling is to be given to the family members since family is the primary source of information and support to their young ones so as they must be aware of education and importance of it for a better life. NCERT defined the term 'dropout' in two senses. It may mean either: (i) one

who has discontinued education before completing the last level of education for which he/she was enrolled or (ii) one who has discontinued education before attaining a specific level. According to Gabriela Chirtes causes for school dropout has four leading factors: family factors, school related factors, social environmental factors and personal factors. The Planning commission mentions in one of its report that the Government has special concern and commitment for the well–being of the Scheduled Tribes (also referred to as STs/Tribals) who suffer as a Group due to their social and economic backwardness and relative isolation. Shadreck (2013) studied about the school based factors and the dropout phenomenon. and established that poverty and financial constraints were critical in the dropout phenomenon, the study recommended that parents, teachers as well pupils should team up to work together to encourage and assist children on the verge of dropping out to remain in school. Snigdha and Goswami (2012) investigated the factors influencing the school dropouts at the primary level in Jorhat district of Assam. The major factors influencing school dropouts were found to be household work, lack of parental guidance in studies, large family size, poor economic condition of the family, ill–health and illiteracy of parents were found to be the major reasons for the dropping out of students from the schools in this study. Chirtes (2010) investigated a case study relating to the causes of school dropouts. He opined that school dropout leads to failure in social integration, and as a result greatly diminishes a person's chances to achieve personal success in legally accepted fields of activity. A just identification and analysis of these factors were helpful in revealing the action that is to be taken and eventually lead to a decrease and prevention of school dropout. Vijay (2007) [4] designed a questionnaire to analyse the causes and consequences of school Drop–outs which included socioeconomic details of respondents, details related to causes of being a drop and general consequences from both the respondents point of view and school point of view.

F. John, A. Francisco, and L. Moliner's (2015) Analysis: One of the Millennium Development Goals for 2015 was for everyone to have access to primary education, yet 58 million children aged 6–11 are still out of school, a situation that disproportionately impacts females. Sub–Saharan Africa has the lowest rates of primary school enrolment, with only 65% of children attending (UNESCO, 2014). To this predicament, we must add that one out of every three females drop out of school and is unable to attend secondary school (Plan, 2012). Given this context, the purpose of this study is to investigate the factors

that contribute to females dropping out of primary school in central Kibosho (Tanzania). It conducted a qualitative exploratory study with 20 participants and 12 teachers, which included semi–structured interviews and focus groups. The findings demonstrate that a variety of socioeconomic and gender factors contribute to female dropout in rural schools, including poverty, a lack of moral support, parental illiteracy, initiation ceremonies, early pregnancy, family responsibilities, a lack of resources, and teacher motivation. Following the findings, the article makes a number of recommendations to the Tanzanian Government as well as other educational institutions in order to avoid girls and young women from dropping out.

In Tamil nadu, **Malathi Duraisamy (2006)** did a study on the enrolment and retention of girls in primary schools.

The study was carried out with the following goals in mind:

1. To determine the enrolment, dropout, and retention of females in primary and elementary school.
2. To investigate the economic and demographic factors that have an impact on enrolment.
3. To investigate children's and parents' goals for schooling, as well as community impressions of the school education system.

The investigation was conducted using a qualitative method. Data was gathered through a focused group discussion and an interview.

1. 68% of girls (5–15 years) in Chennai and 70% of girls (5–16) in Perambalur are currently enrolled, according to the study's findings. In terms of enrolment of girl children, mother's education appears to matter more than father's education, as evidenced by growing enrolment as mother's education increases.
2. Drop–out rate greater in Chennai than Perambalur and higher in the middle stage in both districts. On account of the focus on slums, this is the case. Parents and girls want their daughters to pursue further education, but they emphasize the importance of appropriate education, employable skills, and English proficiency.

Based on the data, the following strategies were suggested.

1. To enable females to attend middle and higher levels of education, the current practice of recruiting female teachers should be continued and expanded.

2. Schools in remote areas should be upgraded and made more complete.
3. Encourage the role of NGOs and other trusts in enhancing community participation so that resources can be created to upgrade and provide certain much–needed services such as toilets and drinking water. Create awareness among parents and children about the importance of girls' education and the various incentives and benefits that are available.

Kalaiarasan (2010) did research on teacher absenteeism and student attendance in Tamilnadu's primary and secondary schools.

The following were the goals of the research:

1. To investigate teacher absenteeism in relation to meetings and trainings.
2. To investigate teacher absenteeism in connection to legitimate leave such as CL and ML.
3. To investigate teacher absenteeism in connection to a variety of teaching and non–teaching activities.
4. To investigate student absenteeism in connection to various reasons.
5. To learn about HM's approach for dealing with teacher absence and tardiness.
6. To learn about HM's approach for dealing with student absence.
7. During several visits, observe the attendance position and activities of the teachers.

The investigation was conducted using a survey method.

The following are the study's principal findings.

1. A teacher spent 25–35 days on average as ML, CL, or OD, or for further education purposes.
2. According to Headmasters, roughly half of all teacher absences are attributable to health issues affecting instructors and their families.
3. During the visit, approximately 88% of teachers were present in the school; teachers spent 160–163 days teaching.
4. Meetings and training account for 52–57% of days missed by instructors.

Based on the data, the following strategies were suggested.

1. Organizing meetings (77–85%), identifying children's problems (66–74%), and teaching youngsters the importance of punctuality (60–69 %)
2. Giving/receiving gifts/rewards (53–69 %)
3. Requiring students to view an audio–visual program in the absence of their teachers
4. HMs engage the classes themselves by documenting the precise time of arrival and marking leave as significant tactics for dealing with late students and teachers.

Subbiah (2010) looked at "Teacher Absenteeism and Student Attendance in Selected Tamil Nadu Districts."

The study was carried out with the following goals in mind.

1. To learn more about the status of the teacher absenteeism and student attendance issues.
2. To discover that a crucial element determining the quality of learning is the children's attendance rate.

The study employs a survey method, and the following are his primary conclusions.

1. In middle schools, there are 100% toilet and drinking water facilities.
2. Toilets are required in 15% of primary schools.
3. Almost all of the teachers are on a set schedule.

The strategies used were as follows:

1. A different teacher has been assigned to you.
2. This is a combined class.
3. A member of the community attends class.
4. Students study independently.
5. The class is managed by the teacher.
6. Students are permitted to play.
7. HM is in class.
8. Students are exposed to audio visual aids.

A study on absenteeism among teachers and pupils in selected areas of Tamil Nadu was undertaken by **Jayakumar.M (2010)**.

The study was carried out with the following goals in mind.

1. The percentage of pupils in attendance throughout several standards (I–VIII Standard) and to identify the students' absence trend.
2. The role of social groups in observing absenteeism behavior and the gender–based difference in attendance among pupils across multiple Standards (I–VIII Standard).
3. The role of social groupings in noticing absenteeism behavior and the social group–wise variance in attendance of pupils throughout several standards (I–VIII Standard).
4. Percentage of instructors by gender, age, and social category in relation to the students they educate.
5. The reasons for teachers' absences in relation to their socioeconomic status.
6. A distribution of teachers who have engaged in a variety of activities, including teaching, during their working days.
7. The distribution of student absenteeism by gender and standard deviation among the various reasons stated.

The investigation was conducted using a survey method.

1. Boy's enrolment in classes is higher than females' enrolment in classes, with the exception of the Coimbatore district.
2. After six STDs, girls' enrolment drops and their dropout rate rises.
3. In all districts, attendance is above 90% in grades III, IV, and V.
4. Attendance in the first and second grades was slightly lower (85–92 %) (special attention to each child and teacher home visits will help to raise the proportion).
5. In upper elementary courses, the attendance rate was above 90% (although in some places where seasonal unemployment is prevalent, the rate was as low as 85%).

Absenteeism among students has several causes.

1. Absenteeism rates range from 6–16%.
2. The most common reason is illness.
3. Taking part in family gatherings.
4. Ailment of the parent.
5. You live in a remote location.
6. Looking after siblings.
7. Work that provides a source of income.
8. Fear of being punished.
9. In every district, girls outnumbered boys in terms of attendance (1; 1:12)

Manimegalai (2011) studied how the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya could help close the gender gap in education (KGBV).

The method of surveying is utilized, and the tool used is a questionnaire.

The following were some of the study's goals:

1. To investigate the types of struggles and issues faced by the respondents before enrolling in KGBV and the relief, if any, from such issues after enrolling in KGBV.
2. To investigate the types of struggles and issues faced by the respondents before enrolling in KGBV and the relief, if any, from such issues after enrolling in KGBV.
3. To assess how well the schemes are working in accordance with state and federal regulations, as well as innovations made by various institutions, schools, parents, communities, VECs, and non–Governmental organizations during implementation.
4. To collect opinions regarding KGBV from the general public, teachers, and students.
5. To determine the difficulties faced by SSA officials and non–Governmental organizations in implementing the scheme.
6. To present case studies of successful girls.

7. To analyze the appropriateness of infrastructure, girl–friendly environments, safe drinking water, food, medical, and counselling services, among other things.
8. To enlist the type of life skill education and co–curricular activities provided by the scheme.
9. To investigate the operation of VEC in order to aid in the reduction of the gender gap in education.

The KGBV plan provides a wonderful opportunity for girls who have never enrolled or who have dropped out of school to continue their education.

1. Girls will benefit from vocational training if they do not continue their education.
2. Teachers must be taught not just in diverse teaching approaches, but also in the scheme's overall goal of closing the gap.

In their study titled "Academic failure and school dropout: The influence of peers**," Hymel et al (1996)** focused on four different aspects of peer influence that together contribute to a child's dropout, including prior social acceptance and rejection, social isolation vs involvement, the negative influence of peers, and aggression and antisocial behaviour.

In their study, School Participation in Rural India, **Dreze and Kingdon (1999)** A study of school dropouts in North Indian rural children was undertaken by the Review of Development Economics, which looked at a variety of factors that contributed to their high dropout rate. The writers looked into parental education, motivation, social backdrop, village development, teacher postings, teacher regularity, and midday meals, among other things. The authors found that parent–teacher coordination is particularly important for grade attainment, and that the mid–meal has increased the chances of girls finishing primary school by 30% compared to locations where the mid–day meal scheme is not offered. Similarly, it is extremely improbable that children of educated parents will drop out.

In **Guraghe Zone, Ethopia, Reta B (2004)** did a study on "Psycho Social Factors Contributing to Dropout Among Secondary School Girls." In the underdeveloped world, there appears to be widespread consensus that girls are less favored socially and culturally than boys. Around 60% of Ethiopians, the majority of whom are women, are said to be victims of harmful traditional beliefs. As a

result of long–standing firmly held customs and practices, both, at the family and community level, girls are excluded and suppressed. A great number of studies have also found that such environmental abuse of girls has an impact on their psychosocial development, which in turn has an impact on their academic performance.

The research was carried out in two secondary schools in order to better understand the psychosocial issues that contribute to female dropout as well as the development of psychological issues among the girls in those institutions. The following are the study's major findings:

Psychological Factors	**Social Factors**
Unassertive Behavior	Lack of Study time
Inferiority	Lack of knowledge among parents about girls education
Low Self–Esteem	Financial Problem

The study's findings suggest that females develop a variety of psychological disorders as a result of their involvement in social issues. Furthermore, the statistical findings show that peer influence rises with grade level but declines after a certain point. Furthermore, the Spearman association revealed that grade level and the majority of the factors that encourage girls to drop out of school are adversely connected.

At the 0.01 and 0.05 levels, the majority of the relationships are likewise found to be significant. Academic failure, health issues, peer pressure, unwanted pregnancy, marriage, and various forms of harassment of girls are all statistically significant at 0.01 levels.

Psychological elements have a direct impact on a girl's educational path. It is not only her family members that have a direct influence on her schooling pattern; her neighbourhood, society, relatives, and other factors all play a role in her educational system. Another issue that comes up when psychological patterns are explored is Eve teasing **Tahmima and Kamrun N. (2011).** Psycho–Social Impacts of Eve Teasing on Adolescent Girls was the title of the study. The exploratory study's overall goal was to look at the psychosocial effects of eve teasing on adolescent females. Purposive and random sampling were used to select 600 girls aged 12–18 years old from five schools in Sylhet, Bangladesh. According

to the findings, 86.67% of young girls have experienced various forms of teasing in their lives. The teasers are almost often young males. Patriarchy, illiteracy, unemployment, faulty socialization, the modern manner of dressing up, western media and sky culture, inadequate regulations and enforcement, and misuse of technology are all grounds for eve teasing. The victims' experiences of eve teasing were found to be extremely traumatic. When they are teased, the respondents say they feel uncomfortable, nervous, less dignified, inferior, embarrassed, angry, degraded, terrified, and traumatized. Respondents expressed apprehension about venturing outside. It has social consequences such as kidnapping, acid throwing, dropping out of school, early marriage, suicide, and so on.

These kinds of incidents have a direct impact on girls' schooling patterns. In many cases, a girl's ability to continue her studies is hampered by pressure from family members. In addition, due to cultural norms, girls often blame themselves for eve teasing incidents.

In a similar study conducted in West Bengal, **Mondal and Majumder (2013)** linked the dropout problem of children in rural India to their socioeconomic circumstances. The title of the paper was "The Socio–Economic Problems of Primary School Dropout in Ramnagar, Gaighata Block, North 24 Parganas, West Bengal." The authors believe that dropout rates differ significantly between boys and girls, and that social and economic variables, as well as other factors such as parental occupation, are the key causes of dropouts up until elementary school.

Hossain I (2013) concludes in his study titled "Socio–Economic and Educational Status of Muslim Women: A Comparative Outlook" that enrolling girls in school is only half the battle because it is meaningful only if they complete the minimum of 8 years of schooling, which requires their families to be able to resist the pressures of income generation and work at home. The inability to enter the educational system appears to be the first barrier for Muslim women. Those that do gain admission do not appear to be able to complete their study, let alone pursue higher education. Education would be the most promising avenue of upward mobility for economically disadvantaged communities, such as Muslims. Muslims' backwardness has been clearly documented. It is supported by personal experience as well as Government statistics and publications. Different aspects of backwardness have now entered the public domain. There is also agreement on corrective actions. It is now widely accepted that education is the most effective and long–term strategy for addressing all aspects of backwardness. There is

also a widespread view among Muslim parents that education is unimportant for girls and that it may impart incorrect ideals. Even if girls are enrolled, they are removed from school at a young age in order to marry them off. As a result, Muslim girls have a higher dropout rate.

Muslim women have studied up to high school level, whereas 6.9% of non–Muslim women have done so. Muslim women make up 0.5% of those with a post–secondary degree, while non–Muslim women make up 4.6%. The Muslim–to–non–Muslim ratios in the categories are 1:7 and 1:9. When assessing the socioeconomic situations of Muslims in India, it is important to remember that, like other minorities, the issues Muslims confront are multifaceted, since they face issues related to security, identity, and equity at the same time. And the interplay of these elements is at the heart of the community's daily socioeconomic and political operations.

Joseph (2014) studied the "Development and Effectiveness of Positive Psycho–educational Intervention Program in Enhancing Student Engagement, Motivation, and Alleviation of Depressive Symptoms of Selected School Dropouts." The author tested the program on 68 dropout boys who were chosen at random from the suburbs and found that it was helpful in increasing engagement, motivation, and relief among students in overcoming depressed symptoms associated with dropout.

Saroja, K. (1999) investigated "School related elements influencing the female school drop–out problem in rural areas: a case study assessed the structure of school education and the factors influencing female school dropouts in schools in Ron Taluka of Gadag district, Karnataka." Less than 20% of the female population was literate, according to the findings. In Ron Taluka, there were 92 villages, seven of which lacked schools. There were 43 boys–only schools, 15 girls–only schools, and the remaining 162 schools were coeducational. This could be one of the reasons why girls drop out of school. 73% of teachers in schools were male, which could be a factor in girls dropping out. The fact that four schools were located on the periphery of the community was another cause for girls dropping out. Only 19 instructional and sporting materials, such as science kits, radios, and cassettes, were available in only three schools. Boys enrolled in schools at a higher rate (855) than females (774), although total attendance of both boys (560) and girls (534) was lower than the enrolment. The Government suggested a teacher–to–student ratio of 1:40, but in the sample schools, it was found to be 1:66. Two teachers from

one school held free coaching lessons after school hours to help students improve their grades. It was advised that separate girls' schools be established in villages, that more female instructors be appointed, that the school environment be pleasant, and that essential educational and sporting materials be provided. Policymakers and concerned officials should work to make elementary education universal and lower the number of female dropouts.

Educating girls, according to a DFID report titled "Girls Education: Towards a Better Future for All," can help make communities and societies healthier, wealthier, and safer, as well as reduce child deaths, enhance maternal health, and combat the spread of HIV and AIDS. It is the foundation for the achievement of all other MDGs. As a result, the year 2005 was chosen as the target date. Women who have at least a high school diploma are far less likely to be poor. Providing girls with an extra year of schooling over the National norm can increase their earnings by 10–20%.

The major roadblocks to obtaining an education have been recognized, and they have been addressed.

1. Poor school environments – ensuring that girls have access to a safe school environment;
2. Women's weak position in society – ensuring that society and parents value girls' education
3. Conflict – ensuring that children who are excluded due to conflict have access to schooling
4. Social exclusion – ensuring that children who are excluded due to conflict have access to schooling.

The importance of International organizations in building the school support system is highlighted in the report. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) is in charge of girls' education. Its strategy for accelerating action on girls' education, for which the UK has contributed financial support, acknowledges this critical role, and the strategy's effective execution is critical to the cause of girls' education. UNICEF also leads the UN Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI), a global cooperation that aims to promote awareness about the importance of girls' education.

1. Countries must implement measures that ensure that girls have access to education and are able to learn well. This necessitates enough money from countries themselves, as well as well–trained teachers, a school climate that encourages girls to learn, and a societal milieu that appreciates educated women and girls.
2. Global leaders must take the lead in promoting females' education. Policy will be aided by a rekindled political momentum. Actions that challenge the existing structures and procedures that prevent girls from achieving their entitlement to a basic education are required.
3. Indicators of Educational Attainment were created by John A and Shinde S (2012). Literacy rates, Proportion of population finishing specified level of education, Mean Years of Schooling, and Enrolment Rates are some of the metrics. The study's main findings are as follows:

In 2001, Muslims had a literacy rate that was much lower than the National average.

1. In comparison to all other SRCs, Muslim dropout rates are highest at the primary, middle, and high school levels.
2. Primary education appears to be the most difficult aspect of schooling.
3. Since independence, the expansion of educational options has not resulted in a convergence in attainment levels between Muslims and 'All Others.'

According to the **National Sample Survey Office (2013)**, state–by–state inter–religious comparisons have been made, debunking allegations from some quarters that Gujarat Muslims have recently performed better than the rest of India and other populations. The report titled "Employment and Unemployment Situation among Major Religious Groups in India" is particularly noteworthy because it includes information on not only literacy levels but also educational attendance rates.

In Gujarat's educational facilities, Hindu children aged 5–14 had an attendance rate of 81.4%, according to the survey. In comparison, Muslims have a 78.7% attendance rate in the same age range. What's more upsetting is that the attendance rate of Muslim children in Gujarat is among the lowest in India, with only three states performing worse: Bihar (74.6%), Rajasthan (73.2%), and Uttar Pradesh (73.2%). According to the survey, the Muslim attendance rate at educational institutes in this age range is 82.3% across India, which is nearly four percentage points higher than the National average. Following the Sachar committee's report

to Parliament in November 2006, the NSSO report is the first major finding on the situation of minority education in India.

According to the **Annual Survey of Education Report (ASER) (2013),** state–sponsored education initiatives have had no effect on schoolchildren. The report not only claims that 3% of the state's children aged 6–14 are "out of school" — a measure devised to mix school dropouts and those who were never enrolled in schools. It also implies that Gujarat's 3% "out of school" rate is higher than that of 11 other Indian states.

Worse, the ASER study indicated that as girls progressed through the grades, a greater number of them dropped out. This should cause state policymakers to consider what went wrong with Kanya Kelavani. The findings of the ASER study, which focuses on rural India, also reveal that in the age group 7–10, 1.5% of Gujarat girls were out of school, compared to 0.9% of males. This was higher than 11 other states – Kerala (0%), Chhattisgarh (1.4%), Haryana (0.3%), Himachal Pradesh (0.3%), Karnataka (0.7%), Maharashtra (0.8%), Punjab (0.8%), Tamil Nadu (0.1%), Uttarakhand (0.7%), West Bengal (0.5%), and Andhra Pradesh (1.0%) – and equal to two states, Assam and Jammu and Kashmir (0.5%). This is the alarming pattern. It discovered: In the two older age categories selected for out–of–school girls – 11–14 and 15–16 – Gujarat's ranking plummeted dramatically.

In Gujarat, as many as 6.6% of females aged 11–14 were found to be "out of school," compared to only 3.7% of boys. This, according to the ASER report, is higher than not only progressive states, but even those with historically low human development indexes. Thus, Bihar had 4.6% of out–of–school girls in this age range, whereas Chhattisgarh had 3.8%, Haryana had 3.1%, Himachal Pradesh had 1.0%, and Jammu and Kashmir had 1.0%. 3.5%, Jharkhand 5.2%, Karnataka 3.0%, Kerala 0%, Punjab 2.1%, Madhya Pradesh 5.9%, Maharashtra 2.5%, Odisha 5.3%, Tamil Nadu 0.7%, Uttarakhand 3.8%, West Bengal 4.0%, Andhra Pradesh 5.7%, and Assam 5.4%. The rate of attendance at educational institutions among Gujarat Muslims decreases significantly as youngsters get older. Thus, only roughly 32.5% of Muslims in the age range 15–19 are found to be attending educational institutions, which drops to 13.2% in the next age group, 20–24. "Despite 75% net enrolment, around similar levels compared to the SCs/STs and other groups, the Muslims are deprived at the level of matriculation and higher levels," Shariff (2012) wrote in his research Gujarat Shining: Relative

Development of Gujarat and Socio–Religious Differentials. Shariff's research was a rebuttal to those in the Gujarat administration who claimed, citing the Sachar Committee Report, that Gujarat Muslims had considerably higher educational standards than Indian Muslims.

Hasan and Menon (2004) performed the Muslim Women Survey (MWS), which included 9541 households from 12 states and included a wide range of topics including education, work, socioeconomic position, marriage, and mobility, access to media, political involvement, domestic violence, and decision–making. One of the most distressing conclusions of the poll is the extremely low level of education. In fact, approximately 60% of Muslim respondents said they never went to school. The "percentage of Muslims in formal work or wealth–creating occupations is tiny," according to the study, and there appears to be a negative association between education and employment among Muslims. In rural North India, the number of Muslim women who are illiterate is far higher than in the rest of the country, with over 85% reporting that they are illiterate. Fewer than 17% of Muslim women who ever enrolled completed eight years of schooling, and fewer than 10% completed upper secondary education, both of which are much lower than the National average. The survey also showed that when one progresses up the "academic ladder," the presence of Muslim women decreases significantly – only 3.56% of Muslim women made it to the higher education tier, which is even lower than the Scheduled Castes rate.

Feminists have looked at gender inequality and women's status in India, claiming that women still have a low status in Indian society **(Ramachandran, 2004b, 2003a and 2003b; Sudarshan, 2000; Basu and Ray, 1990).** Child marriage and polygamy, which were common practices in the eighteenth century, are suggested as factors for women's low status by Basu and Ray. They point out that in places like rural communities, where girls and women are ruled by their parents, husbands, and in–laws, gendered power dynamics remain established. This is assumed to be a natural situation (Kumar, 1993). Women are confined to the home and have little room or opportunity to express themselves. On account of these realities, early reform efforts focused primarily on teaching women, as education was regarded as critical to their salvation. After realizing that women's education could not be promoted without abolishing customs like child marriage and preventing widow remarriage, the focus moved to social reform. According to the authors, social reform organizations focused their efforts on raising the

age of marriage for girls and boys, abolishing the state and purdah systems, and educating women through curriculum reform based on National needs, demanding the establishment of teacher training institutions, the recruitment of more women teachers, and revising textbooks to make them more inclusive. However, the authors claim that at the end of the twentieth century, it was clear that rural areas remained ignored, and that the educational needs of girls and women from low–income families had yet to be fully met. While one of the main focuses of women's struggle is to discuss legislative reforms necessary to encourage women's education, the book does not address the issue of persuading girls to attend school and keeping them there once the relevant legislation is in place. The continuing of under–education of females in India implies that legislation alone will not solve the problem, and that another obstacle exists that stops all girls from fully participating in education.

A number of studies have found that there are two important aspects affecting girls' education that are related to the school as a material and socio–cultural institution. These are largely related to school supply and quality, such as the availability of schools, resources, teachers, structures, and facilities, all of which influence girls' school enrolment and perseverance. In the past, the distance between the school and the girls' homes was noted as a significant impediment limiting their access to education **(Rose and Subrahmanian, 2005; Karlekar, 2000; Brown, 1991)**. **According to Karlekar (2000),** many of the 36% of girls in her sample who never went to school identified the lack of a neighbourhood school as the primary reason (2000: 85). In 2000, however, Aggarwal stated that the availability of a school closer to their home does not guarantee that all children, particularly girls, attend school. Karlekar (2000) went on to say that an undesirable school environment has a negative impact on girls' education. She noted that the presence of a school in close proximity to a girl's house did not necessarily guarantee a girl's enrolment and retention. Her research in a South Indian state discovered that even if there was a school within a one–kilometer radius of the settlement, females dropped out at a rate of 50%. These findings show that simply having a school does not guarantee girls' participation (UNESCO, 2009; Ramachandran, 2003a and 2003b), and emphasize the importance of a safe school environment, effective teachers, dynamic classrooms, and a gender sensitive environment in ensuring girls' participation (UNESCO, 2009, 2008, and 2007).

2.8 Research Gap

At both the National and International levels, a significant amount of study has been done in the areas of girls' education, issues in girls' education, and dropout rate.

The review demonstrates the significance of the variables chosen for the study in the field of education, as well as the acceptability of the methodologies chosen to monitor marginalized group education and dropout rate.

The investigator learned via a review of related literature that the majority of studies have focused on the examination of the selected factors in relation to other variables such as girls' education, issues in girls' education, and dropout rate, among others.

Based on the evaluation, the investigator can infer that very few studies have been conducted in Andhra Pradesh regarding marginalized girls' education and its impact on dropout rates in Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalayas. It also highlights the lack of such research in the Indian setting, making the study more relevant.

❑

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The education of Women in India Plays a Significant role in improving living standards in the Country. A higher women literacy rate improves the Quality of life at both at Home and outside home, by encouraging and promoting education of children especially female children, and in reducing the infant mortality rate. As an independent group, women constitute 48% of the total population of India. They not only constitute valuable human resources of the country but their development in the Socio economic arena also sets pace for sustainable growth of the economy.

The Principle of General equality is enshrined in the Indian constitution in its preamble, Fundamental rights, Fundamental duties and Directive Principles of State Policy. The Constitution officially grants equality to women and also empowers the state to adopt measures of positive discrimination in favour of women. However, the varied forms of discrimination that women in India are subject to are far from positive.

The role of education in facilitating social and economic progress is well accepted access to education is critical for benefiting from emerging opportunities that are accompanied by economic growth keeping in view of this accepted fact, these has been a thrust on education of girls since Independence in order to bridge the gender gap in Education in India. Free and compulsory education up to the age of 14 is the responsibility of the state, and the fulfillment of this obligation is critical for the improvements in educational condition of girls and that of gender equality in Universalisation of Elementary Education.

Until 1976, Education was State subject. Since its transfer to the Concurrent list by the 42nd constitutional amendment in 1976, a new thrust was provided to girls education in the National policy on Education (NPE) 1986, which provided a holistic vision for the Education of Women and Girls, and recognized the cross cutting issues that inhibited the realization of this goal. The National Policy on

education (NPE), 1986, as received in 1992, a Path breaking Policy document, articulates the Government of India's Unequivocal Commitment that "Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. In order to neutralize the accumulated distortions of the past, there will be a well–conceived edge of women….There will be an act of faith and social Engineering….The removal of women's illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their services setting time targets and effective monitoring…." **"Investing in opportunities for Women and Girls has strong multiplier effect across all Millennium Development goals"(MDGS)–UNDP(2007)**.

At the Millennium summit in September, 2000, 147, World leaders agreed to a global compact known as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGS). This consisted of eight goals and were backed by on action plan with 18 quantifiable targets combating poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation and discrimination against women. The MDGS constituted of the following: (1) Eradicate extreme Poverty and hunger (2) Achieve Universal primary Education, (3) Promote General equality and empower women (4) Reduce Child morality (5)Improve Natural health (6) Ensure environmental sustainability (7) Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and other diseases (8) Develop a Global Partnership for development.

MDGS and Education: Achieving Universal Primary Education is one of the important MDGS. The MDGS 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 targets. Eliminate general disparity in Primary and Secondary Education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015.

3.2 Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya

The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalas Scheme was launched in July, 2004 for setting un presedented Schools at upper primary level for girls belonging predominantly to the S.C., S.T., O.B.C, and Minority communities. The Scheme is being implemented in educationally backward blocks of the country where the female rural literacy is below the National average and gender gap in literacy is above the National average. Education back ward block (EBBS) Scheme was applicable since inception in 2004 EBBS wherever female literacy is below the National average (46.13 census 2001) and gender gap in literacy is more than the National

average (21.59 Census2001). The scheme provides for a minimum reservation of 75% of the seats for the Girls belonging to SC, ST, OBC and Minority communities and Priority for remaining 25% is accorded to Girls from families below poverty line. The scheme of KGBV ran as separate scheme is harmony with the Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA). KBGV scheme is merged with SSA in the XI plan with effect from 1st April, 2007. Reaching out to the girl child is Central to the efforts to Universalize Elementary Education. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan or "Education for All "Programme recognizes that ensuring Girls Education is required not only in the Education system but also in societal norms and attitudes.

The Criteria of eligible blocks has been revised with effect from 1st April,2008 to include additional 316 EBBS with Rural Female Literacy below 30% and 94 towns/cities having minority concentration (as per the list identified by the Ministry of Minority affairs) with female literacy rate below the National average (53.67% census 2001).

A total of 2180 residential schools were sanctioned and between 500–750 schools were to be opened in a phased manner over the X plan period at an estimated cost of Rs. 19.05 lakhs as recurring cost and Rs.26.25 lakhs as non–recurring cost per school. Initially, the proposed schools were to be opened in rented or other available Government buildings. After deciding the location such residential schools had to be setup only in those backward blocks that did not have residential schools for elementary education of girls under any other scheme of Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment Ministry of Tribunal effects, which was to be ensured by the District Level authority of SSA at the time of actual district level planning of KGBV initiatives by Coordinative with the other Departments/Ministries.

The Scheme is being implemented in 28 States/UT namely Assam, Andhra Pradesh, Arunahcal Pradesh, Bihar, Chhatisgarh, Dadar and Nagar Haveli, Delhi, Gujarat, Haryana, Himichal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Jarkhand, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharastra, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Odisha, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Telanagana, Thirupura, Uttar Pradesh, Uttara Khand and West Bengal.

A total of 3609 KGBVs were sanctioned by the Govt. of India in 460 Districts as of June, 2014.Out of these 330 KGBVs sanctioned in Schedule caste, (SC) SFD Districts and 508 in Schedule Tribes (ST) SFD Districts of which 329 and 508 are Operational respectively. 544 KGBVs were sanctioned and are operational in Muslim concentration Districts. 912 out of 913 KGBVs sanctioned were

operational in 88 districts identified for the integrated action plan for selected Tribal and Backward Districts upto 30–06–2014. The Enrolment of total girls is 347725.

The methodology of the current research investigation is discussed in this chapter. This comprises the study's objectives, hypotheses, study area, sample, variables chosen for the study, research instruments, tool description, pilot study, data collection strategy, and data analysis, as well as the statistical techniques employed in the research.

3.3 Statement of The Problem

Gender–specific programmes to eliminate gender disparities in elementary education were advocated in the tenth five–year plan. One of the gender–focused programmes is the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya Scheme. The Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya Scheme was established by the Indian Government in 2005. The KGBV schools were developed in challenging places to help dropout girls from social categories such as scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, backward classes, and minority communities complete their education. In addition, it is intended to be a quality improvement in the country as part of a National aim to improve the quality of primary education in order to promote girls' education. The researcher was compelled to assess the performance of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools in Andhra Pradesh's region. As a result, the problem is defined as **"ROLE OF KASTURBA GANDHI BALIKA VIDYALAYA (KGBV) IN PROMOTION OF GIRLS EDUCATION IN MARGINALIZED GROUPS**."

Women are seen as definite target group for the simple reason that all over the world, literacy rate among women are lower than men. If women are indispensable to the development process, literacy among women must increase so taking this need in consideration Government of India has implemented various Policy measures to promote and accelerate women's education in India including girl child a holistic approach both central and state Level. The present study aims at the study of role of Kasturiba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBVs) in promoting Education of S.C., ST., and OBC. And Minority Girls in Ananthapuramu District.

3.4 Operational Definitions

A. Kasturba Gandhi Vidhyalayas (KGBVs)

B. Promoting Education

C. Marginalized/Disadvantaged group Girls

A. Kasturba Gandhi Vidhyalayas (KGBVs)

Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidhyalayas (KGBVS) Scheme was launched by the Government of India, in August, 2004 for setting up residential Schools at Upper Primary levels for girls belonging predominantly to the SC, ST, OBC and Minorities in different areas.

B. Promoting Education

Education has always been important in the Development of Nation, and it plays a vital role in the development of Human race and nation. The development of Human culture social, economic and political depends on education. Ultimately all these aspects lead to National Development every Nation in view of this approach India has provided various facilities development of Education and Social upliftment. Govt. of India provided special provisions for Girl Child also.

C. Marginalized Group/Disadvantaged

Group of people who are not able to enjoy the facilities opportunities and benefits that other enjoy in the field of Education Employment Social status Economical status etc., Ex. SC, ST, OBC., and Minority Girls, below poverty line including physically challenged people.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the Study is to evaluate the impact of KGBV on the girls educational of marginalized groups. To realize these main objective, the following objectives were arrived at:

1. To study the status of Ananthapuramu district in terms of Education with reference to State and National scenario;
2. To Study about the Kasturba Balika Vidhyalayas Scheme in Ananthapuramu District of Andhra Pradesh;
3. To identify the infrastructural facilities provided by the KGBVs for SC, ST, OBC Minority girls in Ananthapuramu District;
4. To study the Educational activities carried out by the KGBVs for SC, ST, OBC Minority girls in Ananthapuramu District;
5. To Study the strategies, incentives of KGBV in promoting education to marginalized group girls;

6. To realize the impact of KGBV in promoting education to marginalzed group in the backward locale of Ananthapuramu; and finally
7. To look into the short comings in the existing scheme and suggest recourse to improve the KGBV.

3.5 Hypotheses of the Study

The hypotheses or evaluation questions influence any research design for the project. As a result, the following research hypotheses have been developed for this study.

1. KGBV schools are doing a good job of promoting girls' education.
2. The patterns of enrolment, attendance, and success levels of girls in different KGBVs are not significantly different.
3. Infrastructural facilities in KGBVs have an impact on the education of girls.
4. There is no discernible difference in how students, parents, and the community see the KGBV's operation.
5. The tactics used by teachers and project administrators to promote girls' education are not significantly different.

3.6 Methodology

The purpose of this study was to assess the performance of Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools in the Ananthapuramu district of Andhra Pradesh. The researcher chose the interview and survey methods for data collection because they were deemed to be appropriate for gathering information to evaluate the study's aims. The multi–state random sampling strategy was used to pick the sample. The researcher created and evaluated six different sorts of data gathering tools for different types of respondents. The five–point scale (Likert's type) was created to measure students' and parents' perceptions of the KGBV School's operation. For the focus group conversations with students and community members, the researcher created two check lists. In this study the multi–stage random sampling technique approach was used.

3.7 Study Area

Anantapur is a great place to get a feel for the region's ancient history. Most people believe that the name of the city comes from a large tank called 'Anaatasagaram,'

which means 'Endless Ocean.'. Chilkkavodeya, the minister of Bukka–I, a Vijayanagar prince, built the villages of Anaantasagaram and Bukkarayasamudram, respectively. Some scholars believe Anaantasagaram was named after Bukka's queen, but others believe it was named after Anantarasa Chikkavodeya, because Bukka had no queen by that name.

Anantapur is also known as "Hande Anantapuram" in local parlance. Vijayanagara 'Hande' refers to the reigning ruler. Hunumappa Naidu of the Hande family received Anantapur and a few other cities as a gift from the Vijayanagar emperors. After that, it was ruled by the Qutub Shahis, Mughals, and the Nawabs of Kadapa, but the Hande leaders remained in power as their suzerains. During Ramappa's reign, the palergar of Bellary seized control, but Siddappa, Ramappa's son, eventually retook control. 1757 saw the invasion on Anantapur by Morari Rao Ghorpade. Despite the army's best efforts, Siddappa was able to secure Rs 50,000 from them in exchange for his surrender.

Hyder Ali and Tipu Sultan eventually came into control of it. Except for Siddappa, who escaped from Tipu's captivity in Srirangaptnam, all the male members of the Siddappa family were hanged. After Tipu's death, Siddappa reclaimed it. On account of the Treaty of 1799, Siddappa had to submit to Nizam, who now had complete control over the region. After the British took over, he was given a pension.

Anantapur district was created in 1882 after Bellary district was split up. In 1910, it was further expanded by adding Revenue Mandals from Kadapa District i.e., Kadiri, Mudigubba, Nallamada, N.P.Kunta, Talupula, Nallacheruvu, O.D. Cheruvu, Tanakal, Amadagur and Gandlapenta (earlier Kadiri Taluk). In 1956, the current Bellary District Revenue Mandals of Rayadurg, D.Hirehal, Kanekal, Bommanahal, and Gummagatta were added to Anantapur District. The district has been divided into three revenue divisions, each with 63 revenue Mandals (Anantapur Division 20, Dharmavaram Division 17 and Penukonda Division 26).

3.8 Population

The population refers to the total number of cases that match a set of criteria. The researcher was limited to doing an evaluation study on Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools in Andhra Pradesh. Till June 2019, there were 352 KGBV schools operating in the Andhra pradesh region. From the total KGBV schools in the Andhra pradesh region, the schools that have class X and have

sent five batches of class X to the public examinations were identified. Based on these criteria, a total of 40 KGBV schools were identified and included in the evaluation study's population.

3.9 Sample of the Study

Average literacy rate of Anantapur in 2011 was 63.57 compared to 56.13 in 2001. If things are looked out at gender wise, male and female literacy were 73.02 and 53.97, respectively. At the 2001 census, same figures stood at 68.38 and 43.34 in Anantapur District. The total literate in Anantapur District were 2,310,960 of which male and female were 1,338,474 and 972,486 respectively. Of the 13 districts in Andhra Pradesh, Ananthapuramu stands at poor 9th position and is less than the State Average. The literacy rate of Scheduled Castes is as low as 56.3 and the female literacy is 47.7; and for Scheduled Tribes it is 55.0 and for the total population and 44.2 for females. Owing to low ranking and performance, the Present Study was decided to be carried out in Ananthapuramu District of A.P. State. All the students studying in KGBV in Ananthapuramu district will the population for the Study. Of the population, 260 students and parents will be selected by stratified random sampling for a detailed study. The Revenue Divisions, Mandals and Villages and also the different marginalized groups will form the strata to pickup the sample. The primary and secondary data will be collected from all the stake holders by judicious use of different techniques for data collection, yet the primary data will be collected by use of a standardized schedule. The collected data will be anlysed by use of SPSS to draw meaningful conclusions.

3.10 Selection of Schools

To begin, the purposive sampling method was used to select 40 KGBV schools. As of June 2019, the researcher focused on schools that had sent out five secondary school certificate batches (class X). The researcher, on the other hand, purposefully selected 40 Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools from sample districts based on the following criteria:

1. Five batches of SSC students graduated from KGBV schools in June 2019.
2. Schools with their own building and full–fledged facilities.

3.11 Selection of Respondents

In this study 300 respondent were selected. The researcher intended to include all relevant respondents in order to evaluate the study's aims. Students,

instructors, special officers, parents, and community members were among those who responded at the school level. The respondents at the district level were the implementing and monitoring authorities, namely the District project officer and Girl Child Development Officer of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in the concerned districts.

3.12 District and School Level Chief Functionaries

The special officer served as the school's chief administrator, supervisor, and monitor. The special officers are included in the survey as one of the respondents. The special officers of the sample schools were given interview schedules by the researcher. Each district's district project officer and female child development officer are also questioned for data collection at the district level.

3.13 School Teachers from Sample

The study's respondents are contract residential teachers. The teacher at the sample schools was given an interview schedule by the researcher. All of the subject teachers from each selected sample school are sample respondents.

3.14 Students from Sample Schools

The scheme's beneficiaries and target group are students. As a result, the researcher chose to present the questionnaire to girls in grades IX and X in order to analyze their perceptions of how KGBV schools operate.

3.15 Development of Research Tools

For data collection, the researcher created interview schedules, perception schedules, and check lists for focus group discussions. The instruments were created with the study's aims in mind. Six tools for evaluating the study were established and developed by the researcher. The research schedules were all created in a workshop setting. In conjunction with teachers, DIET teachers, special officers, and parents, the researcher developed the instruments.

The tools were first created in English and subsequently translated into Telugu. Each instrument's Telugu version was created with the assistance of language experts from Karimnagar's District Institute of Education and Training. After translation, all schedules were evaluated by specialists with strong Telugu and English language skills. The research professionals revised all of the instruments and examined them for coherence and comprehensiveness.

3.16 Validity of Research Tool

The tool's content and item validity were assessed by the researcher. The test items were written with the study's aims in mind. For the finalization of the tools, the list of statements and questions was shared among educational research experts, KGBV school administrators, and field functionaries. A few statements and queries were amended thanks to the experts' excellent feedback. Some test items were changed, while others were removed. Following the corrections, the researcher completed the tools. The experts agreed that the remarks and questions were without ambiguity relevant to the topic chosen.

3.17 Content Validity

By assessing the relevance of the test items individually and as a whole, the researcher determined content validity. The items reflect a random sample of the variable being measured. The content validity of the tool was determined using the opinions of professionals in the field of educational research at the time of its development. Expert recommendations were taken into account, and the instrument was standardized as a result. It was disseminated once more for final comments among experts and others working on the KGBV plan, as well as academics at the Districts Institute of Education and Training.

3.18 Item Validity

Each item's discrimination strength was determined. The tool's items were all valid, proving the discrimination. The validity of all instruments was determined using the opinions of subject experts. The experts determined that the finished items were relevant to the evaluated area and that no ambiguity existed. The tools have right content and item authenticity, it can be asserted. It is now reasonable to believe that the instrument was appropriate for the current study.

3.19 Reliability of the Tool

The measurement technique's consistency in measuring the notion of interest was a source of worry. The Likert type scale was employed in this study. It consists of five points, with 1 indicating strong agreement, 2 indicating agreement, 3 indicating undecided, 4 indicating disagreement, and 5 indicating strong disagreement with the negative and positive statements, respectively. 5 equals strongly agree, 4 equals agree, 3 equals uncertain, 2 equals disagree, and 1 equals severely disagree.

Cronbach's Alpha ratings suggested that all of the questions in the instrument had satisfactory internal reliability. For the 60 items, the coefficient is 0.922. It's worth noting that a reliability coefficient of 0.72 or higher is regarded as "acceptable." It implies that the things have a high level of internal consistency. As a result, the tool was deemed to be trustworthy and acceptable for data collecting in the study.

Table 3.1: Reliability co–efficient value of the tool.

Method used	Reliability co–efficient value	Cronbach's Alpha based on standardized items	No. of Items
Cronbach's Alpha	0.922	0.927	60

3.20 Scoring Pattern

The perception schedule was created by the researcher to collect data from the pupils. There are 60 statements in total. In this case, half of the statements were negative and the other half were positive. The assertions are based on a five–point Likert scale. In the data analysis, the tool's summative ratings were employed.

Scoring Pattern for the Positive Statements

Severely agree–5 points, agree–4 points, undecided–3 points, disagree–2 points, and strongly disagree–1 point were given.

Scoring Pattern for the Negative Statements

Strongly agree–1, agree–2, undecided–3, disagree–4, and strongly disagree–5.

3.21 Description of the Variables

Qualities, features, or characteristics of people, things, or circumstances that fluctuate or vary were the variables. The study's essential factors and features were determined by the researcher. In this investigation, the following variables were used:

1. Independent variables
2. Dependent variables

3.21.1 Independent Variables

Independent variables identified by the study include the pupils' class, age, and socioeconomic category, as well as parental education, occupation, and family income. For teacher designation, age, gender, social class, teaching experience, and subject handling, educational qualifications and experience are taken into account.

3.21.2 Dependent Variables

The following dependent variables were discovered in this study:

1. Student enrolment, attendance, and success patterns.
2. Students', parents', and community members' perspectives.

3.22 Administration of the Tool and Collection of Data

Before administering the research tools at sample KGBV schools, the researcher obtained approval from district officials. Permission from the department head was obtained and communicated to all of the sample KGBV schools ahead of time. The day and time for data collection were set with the help of a special officer and teachers at the school.

3.22.1 Administration of the Tools

3.22.1.1 Administration of Tool–1

The tool–1 was created to gather information from district officials. After obtaining their approval in advance, the researcher approached the District Project Officer and Girl child Development Officer of the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan in the concerned district and interviewed them.

3.22.1.2 Administration of Tool–2

The Special officer's school–based information was collected using tool–2. To collect basic and secondary data, the school records are used. Prior clearance from a special officer was required to use the tool. With the interview schedule in hand, the researcher personally met with special officers in sample schools and collected data. For data gathering, the researcher went to current and previous records. The researcher has gathered school data from the past five years, including enrolment, attendance, and student success.

3.22.1.3 Administration of Tool–3

The tool–3 was created to collect information from teachers in the classroom. Prior clearance was obtained from specific officers in order to administer the tool. In each sample school, the researcher met with six subject instructors in person. Before administering the interview, the teachers were given instructions.

3.22.1.4 Administration of Tool–4

The tool–4 was created to collect information from pupils. Prior approval was obtained from the special officials in order to administer the instrument. The researcher randomly picked thirty pupils from classes VIII, IX, and X at a rate of ten students from each class, weighing all community categories equally. Preference was given to kids who were admitted into class VI. Telugu is used as the medium of instruction in the identified sample KGBV schools. As a result, the Telugu version of the perceived schedule was adopted. At first, a group of pupils was isolated from the rest of the class and asked to sit in a different room. All of the pupils received photocopied perception schedules. The schedule was administered with the assistance of two teachers.

3.22.1.5 Administration of Tool–5

The tool–5 was created to facilitate a focus group discussion (FGD) with parents and others of the community. Prior notice has been issued to the Special Officers in order for them to send office notification to the parents and community members in order to conduct the FGD. The target group was invited to the focus group discussion by the researcher. It was decided that no school staff members would be present for the conversation in order to encourage participants to convey their true feelings. During the debate, the Telugu language was employed. It allows participants to express themselves freely. The discussion session included a minimum of four and a maximum of eight participants. The researcher recorded the discussion on audio and jotted down the relevant details in a field notebook. The entire FGD session took one hour to complete. Using preset questions, the researcher gathered various views and opinions from the respondents. The researcher recorded the members' views/opinions in Telugu and transcribed them in English.

3.22.1.6 Administration of Tool–6

The tool–6 was created with student groups in mind to facilitate focus group conversations. In addition, the researcher held eight focus group conversations with students in the KGBV schools, ranging from grades VI to X. The pupils were chosen at random from each class at a rate of three students per class, representing all social categories. The target group was invited to engage in the conversation by the researcher. During the focus group talks, school staff members were prohibited

in order to encourage participants to voice their honest ideas. Telugu was utilized during the conversation to allow members to express themselves freely.

3.23 Collection of Data

The information was gathered in two stages. The data was obtained from the school point in the first phase. The data was collected from state and district level offices in the second phase. The researcher went to each of the KGBV schools in the sample. Secondary data was gathered from the State Project Office, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, Andhra Pradesh, Amaravathi, and the concerned district project offices. The researcher spent two days in each sampled school collecting data according to the time schedule. During the data collection, the researcher chose not to disrupt the class activity.

3.24 Statistical Techniques Used

The researcher used descriptive and inferential statistics to examine the data collected in the study. Following data gathering, the information was reviewed, categorized, and coded. The relevant statistical approaches were used for data analysis and inferences were formed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 16th version.

Descriptive Statistics

The data was analysed using descriptive statistical approaches such as mean, standard deviation, and mean comparison. The tool had a number of variables from which composite variables could be calculated. The descriptive data were useful in determining the item's quality. For data comparisons and interpretation, bar graphs, percentages, and pie diagrams were used.

Inferential Statistics

In order to compare the means across and within the groups, inferential statistical techniques such as one–way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were utilised. Cronbach's Alpha co–efficient test was also used to determine the tools' dependability.

3.25 Limitations of the Present Study

Following are the limitations of the study

1. Only Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools are included in the study.
2. Only Ananthapuramu District is included in the study
3. The research is limited to Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools, which as of June 2019 had graduated five secondary school certificate (class X) classes.

❑

Chapter 4

Marginalized Groups in Andhra Pradesh and Promotion of Girls Education in Anatapur District

4.1 Profile of Andhra Pradesh

Andhra Pradesh, a Telugu state, was created on November 1st, 1956, when a Telangana section of the Hyderabad kingdom and an Andhra state formed in 1953 from the British East India province of Madras merged. Andhra Pradesh is home to a population of about 80 million people It is the seventh largest state in terms of surface area with an area of 162,975 square kilometers and the 10th largest state with 49,386,799 residents. It borders on the northwest of Telangana, on the north of Chhattisgarh, on the north of Odisha, on the west of Tamil Nadu and in the east on Bangladesh Bay.

After Gujarat, it has the second longest Indian coastline of around 974 kilometres (605 mi). The first language state to be constituted in India on 1 October 1953 is Andhra Pradesh. The Government was once a major Buddhist pilgrimage in the country and a Buddhist centre which is found in the form of ruins, chaityas and stupas in numerous sites of the State. The world–famous Kohi Noor Diamond Land is also known to have been found in the State, because of its source in its Kollur Mine and also many other widely known diamonds. It is often referred to as the 'India rice bowl' because it is a major rice grower in India. Telugu is the official language, the fourth most spoken in India and the eleventh most spoken on the globe. It is an Indian language which is one of the classical languages.

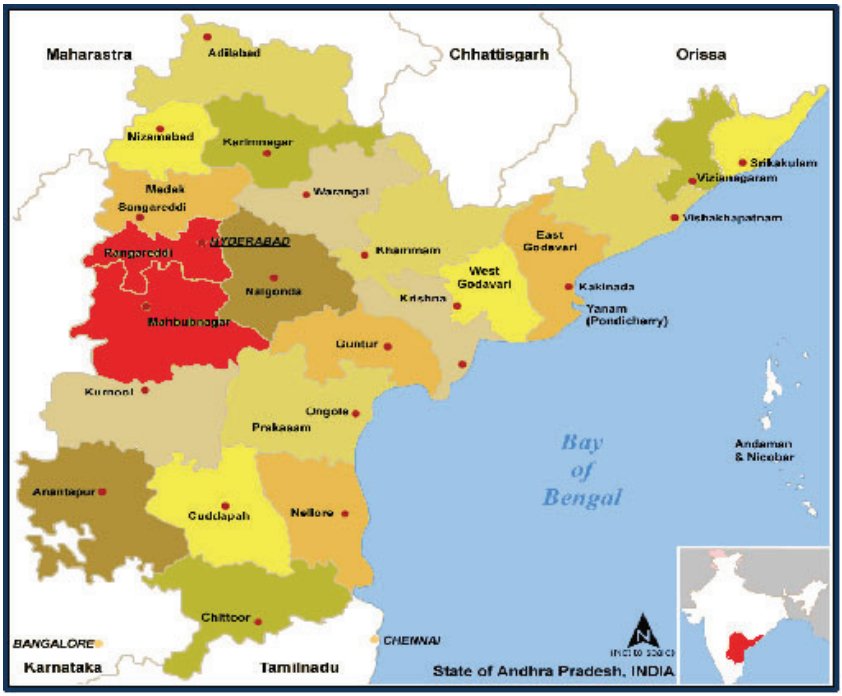


Fig. 4.1: Map of Andhra Pradesh.

The Andhras were early residents, tracing their history back to the Vedic period, when the Rigvedic work Aitareya Brahmana was quoted in the 8th century BCE. The Andhras departed from northern India from the banks of the Yamuna River and immigrated to south India, according to Aitareya Brahmana. The Assaka Mahajanapada (700–300 B.C.), an ancient kingdom in southeast India, between the rivers Godavari and Krishna, reports that Ramayana, Mahabharata and Puranas include inhabitants in this area who are descended from Viswamitra. The area is also called the Satavahans, also called Andhras, the earliest monarchs of Andhra Pradesh and India. The territory is called the Andhras. Early people have promoted local culture of art through the building of temples and Buddhist sculptures. Mauryan, Satavahana, Salankayan, and Andhra Ikshvakus, Pallavas, Vishnukundinas, Rashtrakutas, Cholás, Cakatiyas, Vijayanagara, the empire of the Gaja, Mughal, the sultanates of the Decan, Asahi, Asaf Jahis, the empire of the Mauryan was ruled. Andhra was

a vasall Kingdom of Ashoka in the 3rd century BC but Andhra became strong after his death and spread its rule to and fro all Marathas.

4.2 Geography

The state features diversified topography from the Eastern Ghats and Nallamala Hills to the Bay of Bengal that support diverse ecosystems, rich flora and fauna diversity. The flow through the state consists of two primary rivers, Krishna and Godavari. The State Coast spans from Srikakulam to the district of Nellore along the Bay of Bengal, which is 975 km long (606 mi). Eastern Ghats are formed by the plains on the East Coast. The coastal lands of the Godavari, Krishna and Penna are for the most part delta basins. There are non–stop eastern ghats, with local names for single portions. The Eastern Ghats are one of the main geographical divisions of the state. A mineral rich region is the Kadapa Basin, which is made of two arching branches of the East Ghats. In the south and far north the Ghats are becoming increasingly apparent. Intense agriculture is applied in most coastal plains. The semi–arid conditions of the Rayalaseema region Andhra Pradesh comprises two major regions, namely the South–West Rayalaseema, and the East and North–East coastal Andhra, which borders on Bengal Bay. The State has 13 districts, 9 in coastal Andhra and 4 in Rayalaseema. The state is also a part of the union, Yanam – a district of Puducherry in the Godavari Delta on the east side of the state to the south of Kakinada. It has three capitals, the only State (proposed). Visakhapatnam is the state's main city and commercial hub and Amaravati and Kurnool are both legislative and judicial capitals. With a GNP of 9,71 trillion (US$140 billion), and a 17th–high GSDP per person, Andhra Pradesh is the 8th biggest economy in India, with a GNP of €168,000 (US$2,400). Andhra Pradesh is 27th on the Human Development Index in Indian States (HDI). It is competent to provide territorial waters for roughly 15,000 square kilometres of land.

The number of tourists to Andhra Pradesh in 2015 reached 121.8 million, an increase of 30% over the previous year, which makes it India's third largest state. One of the world's most frequented religious places with 18.25 million people per year is the Tirumala Venkateswara Temple, located in Tirupati. There are also several additional pilgrimage areas in the region, such as the Kshetras Pancharama, Mallikarjuna Jyotirlinga and the Rama Temple Kodanda. Natural attractions include Visakhapatnam beaches, the Araku Valley, Horsley Hills and Konaseema deltas on the Godavari River and Krishna divisions. The beaches are also part of the state's natural attractions.

4.3 Climate

Dependant on the geographical region, the climate in Andhra Pradesh varies substantially. From March to June last summers. Summer temperatures in the coastal plain generally range from 20–41 °C (68–106 °F) higher than in the rest of the country. The tropical rainy season extends from July to September. The northeast monsoon is responsible for around one third of the total rainfall. In the Bay of Bengal, low pressures and tropical cyclones develop from October to November, bringing rain into the southern and coastal portions of the state, together with the North–East Monsoon.

Winter months are in Andhra Pradesh in November, December, January and February. The winters are not too cold, because the state has a lengthy coastline belt. The temperature range in winter is usually between 12 and 30 °C (54–86 °F). In addition, because of the comparatively mild climate and the temperature fluctuations from 0–10 °C, Lambasingi is also known as the "Kashmir of Andhra Pradesh" in the Visakhapatnam district (32–50 °F).

4.4 Education and Research

In the 2011 Indian census, Andhra Pradesh had a literacy rate of 67, 41%. Government supported, and private schools, supervised and regulated by the State Department for School Education, provide elementary and secondary education. City, rural and residential schools are in existence. Accomplished at 62,063 schools correspondingly, 7,041,568 students were enrolled in children's info and school information reports (2018–19). The Directorate of State Examinations, manages and carries out an examination of the Secondary School Certificate (SSC). Over 600,000 pupils participated in the 2019 SSC exam and have scored a 94.88% success rate with a 100% pass rate in 5,464 schools. The primary media of instruction for Urdu, Hindi, Kannada, Odia and Tamil are in Telugu and English. The Department of Higher Education is responsible for higher education in the state.

The Central Universities include The All India Medical Sciences Institute, IIM Visakhapatnam, IIT Tirupati, NIT Tadepalligudem, IIITDM Kurnool, Indian Petroleum and Energy Institute and NIDV, Andhra Pradesh's Central University, IIIT Sri City, IISER Tirupati, Guntur, and IIFT Kakinada. In 2008, in order to address the educational needs of rural young people in Andhra Pradesh, the Government of Andhra Pradesh founded the Rajiv Gandhi University of Confirmation of

Technologies (RGUKT). GITAM, KL University and Vignan University are the deemed universities in the state according to the University Grant Commission. There are 18 state universities in horticulture, legal, medical, technology, vedic and veterinary studies. There is a higher education system. Andhra University was founded in 1926 and is the oldest university in the country.

The Central State Governments have created research institutes. NSTL is an independent research institute under the Government's Ministry for Human Resource Development in India, the National Atmospheric Laboratory conducts fundamental and applied research in atmospheric and spatial sciences and the research carried out by the National Oceanographic Institute (NOI), the Naval Sciences and Technological Laboratories (NSTL) and the National Atmospheric Research Laboratory (NIO), Education and Research Indian Institute of Science, Tirupati, Engineering and Research Society in Applied Microwave Electronics, Visakhapatnam Central Tobacco Research Institute, under the authority of ICAR (Indian Council for Research in Agriculture), performs basic and applied tobacco research for the benefit of the agricultural community, India Oil Palm Research Institute (IIPOR) in Pedavegi near Eluru, district of West Godavari provides research centre for all elements of the conservation and improvement of palm oil, production, protection, post–harvest technologies and technology transfer and coordinates research. Some are the CCRH Gudivada Regional Institute for Research, Tirupati Clinical Institute for Research and the Visakhapatnam National Oceanography Institute in Andhra Pradesh.

4.5 Marginalized Groups/Disadvantage Groups in Andhra Pradesh

The National Commission of Minority Educational Institutions (NCMEI), Ministry of Human Resources Development and Government of India, set up its Committee on Girls' Education in 2007 to formulate and recommend ways and means for improving the serious situation of minority girls, in general, and in the communities, in order to achieve female empowerment through women's education. The purpose of this exercise was to examine the ways in which Religious minority girls could be empowered in India through education, to raise education standards for minority girls. It was also intended to improve the educational chances of minority girls. The Committee, in cooperation with many stakeholders, including NGOs, academic institutions, religious leaders and other functionaries in the sector, organises seminars, conferences and symposia in various parts of India for the purposed achievement. Interactions were in place

in order to reach the ground level and raise awareness among parents, NGOs, religious leaders and other individuals in communities with various public and private institutions. These meetings with various stakeholders were enhancing and strengthening the Committee's awareness of the problem, and the viable options for supporting holistic education for Muslim girls. After careful review of all the evidence, the Committee concluded that positive discrimination notably against Muslim girls is necessary. The following are the various topics mentioned in this report about Muslim girls' education:

1. **Phenomenal minority syndrome –** Once a group of individuals are declared or are deceived, many issues, such as psychological, social, political, economic, educational, legal, administrative or public–sector tensions and similar problems, begin to prevent their natural progress or development;
2. **Community prejudice management –** The continuation of community policy and the prevailing communities' beliefs in Independent India have made several promises to the minority communities of the country made by the National leadership. The presence of community driven people in the administration and other public life did not aid such communities much, even with constitutional safeguards. The Government raises the bohemian mood of "minority appeasure" in order to resist such activities, on the one hand, minority communities experience hurdles to their progress and developments due to community discriminations. The Community agenda works by promoting ever–wrong minority assumptions, like their suspected loyalty to the country, the increase in population, cultural differences, public sensitivity, orthodoxy, etc.
3. **Government inaction –** Government and administration inactivity was often considered as critical for driving minorities towards eternal backwardness.
4. **Changes in the attitude of the community –** for a long time, the beliefs have been seen to dissuade the educational achievements of the community. However, it cannot be experimentally justified in due course that Islam requires all believers, including women, to acquire knowledge. Besides other verses of the Qur'an which call for the knowledge to become a major virtue, the famous Prophet's saying: "The acquisition of knowledge is obligated on all Muslim men and Muslim women." In Islam, the meaning of "compulsory" means that it will not be sinful to do so. This task lays first and foremost with individuals, girls here, not with their parents and society. So if an adult Muslim female doesn't work to gain knowledge to its fullest extent, she will be considered a

committee of a sin that will harm her future. If parents and society come in or fail to offer adequate facilities, they will be seen as the sinners.

5. **Parental literacy –** In many studies, it has been considered that parental literacy is a key component in promoting education among their children, especially in the literacy and pédagogy of mothers. An educated mother therefore has a huge impact on her children's educational achievements. Since the prevalence of analphabetism amongst Muslim moms is more common, in particular in towns and rural communities, it is possible to promote parental literacy at the same time.
6. **The failure of the public education system –** Public education in India, despite the fact that parent education provides free education at the primary level, is not the first choice of parents. Many study projects have discovered that parents make enormous sacrifices to send some or all of their children out of a poor family and disadvantageous community to private schools, since they are deceived by Government schools.
7. **Lack of consciousness –** Many individuals are currently unaware of the benefits of education despite technological progress and the availability of the most recent methods of communication. Sensitivity is thus a major concern in supporting education for minority girls. The corrective measures should be given due significance.
8. **Inadequate assistance from Government** – official activity has often been found to be nominal or inadequate as compared to the quantity of action necessary in light of the ground conditions. Often the Government's intervention looks insignificant and out of proportion to the necessity. It is also thought that the minority girls immediately make use of their proper part in the programmes for general women and girls that is usually not always the case. Minority females need particular arrangements in the realm of education that match other poor populations.
9. **Drop–outs –** The reasons for this trend include parental analphabetism, poverty, girls' school in the neighbourhood unavailability, child labour, early marriage, perceived barriers to the future use of education, community discrimination, non–encouragement atmosphere in the home, fewer women teachers compared to male teachers, improper infrastructure.

10. **Single sex institutions** – Co–education has become a global norm, although religious communities and numerous other individuals are generally not inclined to accept this fully. In numerous studies, Muslim parents were shown not to send their daughters to a joint education but instead choose to drop their daughters from education, something which was sometimes referred to as rigidity and fundamentalism.
11. **Professional education –** For those populations, on the one hand, that are viewed as educationally backward and, on the other, that come of such homes where there is ongoing demand on younger people to participate in household revenues, professional training becomes even more crucial. It has been shown that, owing to difficult economic conditions at home, many boys and girls in educationally backward populations are forced to give up their schooling and enter some kind of work to contribute to family earnings.
12. **Vocational training** – Minority members, Muslims in particular, are not so much apparent in professional training; Muslim girls, in particular, are quite few on vocational courses. The reasons given for this inadequacy include their insufficient impetus to attend particular courses beyond primary school, their incompetence to pass admission tests in professional institutions and societal inhibitions.
13. **Distance training –** Distance learning might be of assistance to disadvantaged populations because it is cost–effective, flexible and easily accessible.
14. **Institution building —** Diverse research studies previously have repeatedly raised the issue of deficiency in a number of schools and institutions dedicated to promoting minority education. It is often seen that, as the minority population of a village, block, or district increases, the number of education institutions decreases. More usually, there is a significantly smaller number of schools or their quality is quite bad for the minority population in an area.

4.6 Recommendations

The Committee reached the following recommendations after deliberations

It is vital to develop an adequate atmosphere for promoting and providing better education for females. If these social groups can be brought out of their unease, positive and affirmative discrimination is important. In public life, the constitutional objectives of secularism and social fairness should be of vital importance. In the

educational programme of instructors, the appropriate course content should be introduced for this aim. In addition, the Government's rehabilitation courses and academic programming should also include similar topics. Teacher sensitisation programmes, which not only are vital for peaceful minority development, but also for the country as a whole, may be arranged at various levels sometimes for the promotion of communal harmony. Public–sector educational institutions should not be utilised to promote a specific culture and the actual secular environment in Government schools should be maintained.

Closer relationships between officials and the local leadership are also needed for a stronger interface between public aspirations.

Strengthening of the legal foundation. Cells/sections for public grievances at least at district level should be established so that the officials and aggravated individuals might engage formally and topics of concern can be settled as quickly and as conveniently as feasible. The officials should participate more frequently in community–based education programmes and speak their opinions and public opinion on mutual issues.

Minority community members should have a creative and productive role in the integration and enforcement of their rights into the mainstream.

Education is a tool to make future India a reality. Curriculum material that have been created carefully should incorporate the constitutional ideals of laicism, democracy, socialism, federalism, liberty, justice, equality and brotherhood. The textbooks should nurture the nascent Indians on the basis of these noble values and not communal and religious lines, which can only unimaginably damage the country and its residents. The policymakers, specialists and officials concerned should be sensitive to these constitutional commitments while fulfilling their everyday obligations. They also need to be careful about these constitutional duties.

Free expression should not be limited by tolerance or insensitivity. The code of clothing, cultural activities, the perpetuity of the cultural tapestry that is India should venture into interpreting history, extracurricular activities etc. The school uniform according to the cultural traditions of the small minority students notably girls should be allowed to wear if they so opt out. The community of schools should stress the culture of tolerance and mutual respect. Appropriate mechanisms are needed in the formulation of standards guiding the educational system to create this environment.

4.7 Development of Infrastructure

This is often emphasized that, following primary education, minority girls generally prefer to abandon mainly because of the non–accessibility at safe distances to secondary schools. In addition, in minority concentration regions the number of primary, middle– and secondary schools in the secondary schools is very insufficient. Institutional growth in these areas therefore remains the leading cause. Minority schools or schools in minority villages, blocks and districts must be carefully structured so as to place them in a position to encourage the membership of minority females by a large number. A suitable use should be made of the Multi–Sectoral Development Programme (MSDP). The 'Infrastructural Development of Minority Institutions (IDMI)' regime should not only be continued, but should be modified so as to remove previous shortcomings. MSDPs should be applied mainly in minority concentration places/residence blocks to make the primary beneficiary of the scheme a minority community. It is necessary to encourage NGOs promoting the growth of minorities, especially females, to profit effectively from the scheme.

Setting up an increased number of girl hostels and women's worker hostels as a strategy for increasing the educational achievement of women continues to be a constant demand. It therefore appears to be reasonable to create dormitories for minority females in all cities with a population of 50000 or more. The appointment of the minority community's guard must be mandatory in such dormitories. These dormitories can also be set up in the region or in PPP style through competent NGOs.

Multi–stream residential schools and girl–only professional institutions have been consistently found to support minority girls' education. In order to create and administer model schools for boys and girls in the communities, the NGOs working on the education development of minority populations shall devote 15% of the proposed Model Schools under the framework of the Central administration.

7% of the residence is for the girls of minority communities with the rider that Muslim girls have the first right to 5% of the residence at Central schools, Navoday schools, model schools, ITI's, multitechno–professional institutions, and Government–run girls' holiday homes.

4.8 System of Support

NGOs work only among Muslims and Buddhic communities. Non–Governmental organisations. Local Muslim activists need to be motivated to form large–scale

organisations dedicated to community development. Workshops should be arranged on district capacity building.

In addition to enabling administrative bodies to develop, monitor and implement MSDP local projects, the Village/Block/District Education Committees should endeavour to support girls' education and awareness in the minority groups systematically. They are able to help local NGOs to develop and disseminate important information.

Minority community leadership, in particular Muslims, should organise funds to help deserving students' higher education and professional education. Part of it should be reserved for girls. A certain portion of their resources to support girls' education should be allocated by Community funding.

The Government and/or communities should establish education prizes and other incentives in order to encourage people who serve community development in such a remarkable manner to do more work or others to demonstrate their functionality.

Targeted response to the threat of analphabetism, especially in the educationally retrograde minorities, is needed. Therefore, the 20 minority districts identified with the lowest female literacy and other dark spots demand special attention. The Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA) should not only launch schemes for this goal, but also the Adult Education Department. It may involve local NGOs and community leaders who have a guaranteed influence on minorities.

The Government machinery should scrub the village and block wise action plans aimed at the dark spots in the districts highlighted. Environmental support, IEC materials, the demands of classes, textbooks, certifying and promotional efforts should be mobilised sufficiently. It was found that SHGs have a major role in promoting literacy and education among women and hence can participate in special educational efforts.

Admission Drives A number of NGOs operate admission drives to boost their registration rates in different sections of the country. This procedure is guaranteed by local NGOs, through a little payment each year, to a successful level of female literacy in minority concentration areas, especially those in the identify low–education districts.

4.9 Scholarships

Bursaries remain one of the best strategies in encouraging education, and the quota for girls should be extended from 30–50% under primary and secondary scholarships. Minority girls should be granted scholarships and other benefits, if not all minority pupils, equivalent to those enjoyed by SC/ST students.

4.10 Education for Quality

In educating the backward minority, quality education is a key issue. Children in educationally retrograde minority populations barely have excellent primary and secondary education which results in a heavy dropout. In this context, model schools must be set up near minority concentration sites, or such schools should be set up specifically for children in minorities Navodya Vidyalaya Soft loans for the establishment of quality institutions and institutions of excellence should be arranged by the National Minorities Development and Finance Corporation to NGOs and institutions. Teacher training and upgrading courses for the promotion of the quality of minority institutions conducted by various Government entities should be strengthened.

4.11 Standards Relaxation

The establishment of schools, vocational institutions and professional institutions by community–oriented organisations might take time–bound flexibility in the stipulated standards. A changeover criterion may also be determined for distinguishing for the intended advantage for strong and weak associations.

4.12 Professional Link

Professional skills are what the educationally backward minorities most need to retain secondary school pupils and to help those who left school to build a better future once more. It is equally necessary for girls of educationally backward minorities to learn something that can help them add to family revenue concurrently or to stop learning. NGOs which seek to elevate minorities may be granted facilities in the form of easy registration, setup costs and support for added–value in their services to create centres for skill development in areas of high levels. Such minority and other girls–oriented NGOs can be given priority.

4.13 Education Distance

In the MCDs and metropolitan regions with bigger numbers of minorities and with as many organisations as possible for distance training, NIOS, IGNOU, MANUU and other organisations should begin advocacy programmes. Some standards can be modified and the price for minority females can be waived when necessary. Urdu must be offered to students with Madrasa background, in accordance with their background, and bridge courses should be supplied to students from all distance learning courses to switch from their traditional course to some modern subject areas when required.

4.14 Coaching Remedial

The Government should encourage corrective tutoring of weaker pupils in minority communities, following the pattern of SCs/STs. Suitable provisions for addressing girls' needs in these communities should be made.

4.15 Coaching Entrance

In their respective states Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, West Bengal and Assam, Government must set up high quality coaching institutes for minorities. These institutes can also be opened in PPP or through the use of reputed institutes that currently exist.

4.16 Targeted Action

The country needs a focused response to relieve its backward education and social situation in specific communities (e.g. squares), social (e.g. biradaris), occupational (e.g., workers in Bida and garment) as well as nomadic (e.g. Gujjara and sappera) groups and other marginalised minority communities. Many of these groups and communities' women and girls are uneducated and engage in menial subsistence work. The SSA may employ inventive strategies to take them out of the downward cycle under the system or by any particular scheme.

4.17 Mother Tongue

Girls should be offered to be taught through Urdu in mostly Urdu–speaking areas/ locations. It was acknowledged as a concept that Government schools would have an Urdu teacher in areas/locations with 10% of the population of Urdu speakers;

nevertheless, the positions are not filled typically and the teachers appointed to teach other subjects are included. It needs to be done and monitored properly. The officials concerned should be held accountable and these defaults should be addressed firmly. In Mewat and certain areas of Uttar Pradesh it has been seen that Muslim parents' initial hesitancy in sending their daughters to adjacent private schools was gone, when they were informed that Urdu, Arabic and modern topics are also being taught. Both enrolment and retention rates have grown. The Government schools and the private schools, which are not governed by the community itself, can generalise this experience.

4.18 Education of the Parents

Both Government and private schools, in particular those of women, need to develop an appropriate strategy for parental literacy. The PTA's can be used to make moms aware that fundamental learning can be carried out at home through their own daughters/sons or specific classes in or outside the institution itself.

4.19 Incentive for the Movement

The switching incentive demonstrates an effective technology to enhance girls' participation in higher education at faraway universities. In Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and West Bengal, females choose to continue their studies at a basic level under the system of providing free cycles. Also considered as an innovative technique is the innovation of the Nayab Foundation in the free transit for girls from communities. It therefore appears appropriate to use this unique experiment in order to increase the participation and retention of minority girls in the high primary and high–school level of learning through local schools by the Ministry of Human Resource Development. The proposed Education Fund can also give private institutions this incentive. It has been noted that a considerable number of girls go nearly everyday from smaller towns/villages to major towns and towns, either as private pupils or for formal lessons. The movements required for training outside local levels may be offset for girls of weaker segments, or they can travel free of cost with ID cards shown. There should be proper advertising to lure ever more girls to the advantage.

4.20 Profile of Anatapur District

Anantapur is a great place to get a feel for the region's ancient history. Most people believe that the name of the city comes from a large tank called 'Anaatasagaram,' which means 'Endless Ocean.'. Chilkkavodeya, the minister of Bukka–I, a Vijayanagar prince, built the villages of Anaantasagaram and Bukkarayasamudram, respectively. Some scholars believe Anaantasagaram was named after Bukka's queen, but others believe it was named after Anantarasa Chikkavodeya, because Bukka had no queen by that name.

Anantapur is also known as "Hande Anantapuram" in local parlance. Vijayanagara 'Hande' refers to the reigning ruler. Hunumappa Naidu of the Hande family received Anantapur and a few other cities as a gift from the Vijayanagar emperors. After that, it was ruled by the Qutub Shahis, Mughals, and the Nawabs of Kadapa, but the Hande leaders remained in power as their suzerains. During Ramappa's reign, the palergar of Bellary seized control, but Siddappa, Ramappa's son, eventually retook control. 1757 saw the invasion on Anantapur by Morari Rao Ghorpade. Despite the army's best efforts, Siddappa was able to secure Rs 50,000 from them in exchange for his surrender.

Hyder Ali and Tipu Sultan eventually came into control of it. Except for Siddappa, who escaped from Tipu's captivity in Srirangaptnam, all the male members of the Siddappa family were hung. After Tipu's death, Siddappa reclaimed it. Because of the Treaty of 1799, Siddappa had to submit to Nizam, who now had complete control over the region. After the British took over, he was given a pension.

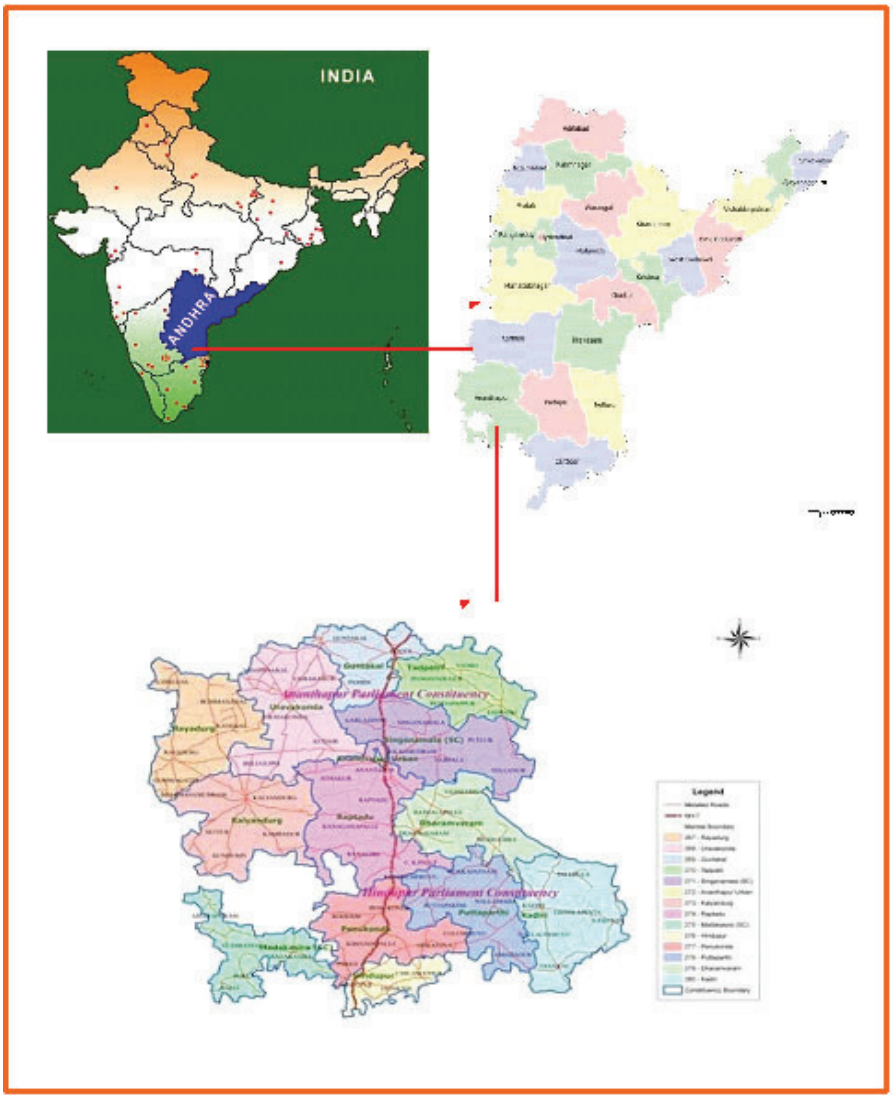


Fig. 4.2: Map Showing the Study Area.

Anantapur district was created in 1882 after Bellary district was split up. In 1910, it was further expanded by adding Revenue Mandals from Kadapa

District from Kadiri, Mudigubba, Nallamada, N.P.Kunta,Talupula, Nallacheruvu, O.D.Cheruvu, Tanakal, Amadagur and Gandlapenta (earlier Kadiri Taluk). In 1956, the current Bellary District Revenue Mandals of Rayadurg, D.Hirehal, Kanekal, Bommanahal, and Gummagatta were added to Anantapur District. The district has been divided into three revenue divisions, each with 63 revenue Mandals (Anantapur Division 20, Dharmavaram Division 17 and Penukonda Division 26).

4.21 Boundaries and Topography

Anantapur District is situated between latitudes 13'–40' and 15'–15' in the north and 76'–50' and 78'–30' in the east. It is bordered on the north by Bellary and Kurnool Districts and on the south and north by Karnataka's Kadapa and Kolar Districts. The district has a roughly oblong shape, with the longer side extending north to south and a piece of Karnataka's Chitradurg District encroaching from the west between Kundurpi and Amarapuram Mandals.

There are three natural divisions in the district. First, there is Rayadurg Mandal, which includes the areas of Black Cotton soils such as Beluguppa Gooty, Guntakal and Vajrakarur. Second, there is Kalyandarg Mandal, which includes the areas of arid Treeless soils such as C.K.Palli and Dharmavaram. Third, there is the Mandal of Peddavadugur which contains the areas of poor Red Soils. Fourth, there is the Mandal of This region has normal productivity in sandy red soils on a par with the rest of the country.

Table 4.: Distribution on the Basis of Geographical Profile.

Item	Units	Figure	Source
Area	In'000Sq. Km	19.1	Census 2011
Population	In Persons	40,83,315	〃
Male	In Persons	20,64,928	〃
Female	In Persons	20,18,387	〃
Urban	In Persons	11,46,956	〃
Rural	In Persons	29,36,359	〃
Population Growth (decadal)	%	12.16	〃

Item	Units	Figure	Source
Population Density (Person/Sq.Km)	Ratio	213	″
Literacy	%	64.28	″
Male	%	74.09	″
Female	%	54.31	″
Urbanisation	%	28.09	″
Workers as % of total population	%	48.82	2001
Workers % of main Workers	%	82.76	″
Household industries	%	5.84	″
Area under Food and Non–Food crops	Area in Hectares	11,14,083	2012
Mining and Quarrying (Limestone–Top)	Qty in tonnes	13,76,672	″
Forest Area under the control of Forest Department	Area in Hectares	1,96,978	″
Gross irrigated area as % of gross cropped area	%	54.84	″
Value of out put of major crops	%	–	″
Percapita food grain production	%	–	″
Road Length per 100 sq.km.	InSq.km	120.96	″

Item	Units	Figure	Source
Post offices per 100,000 persons	Ratio	23.09	″
Bankbranches-per100,000 persons	Ratio	7.54	″
Population per bank	In Thousands	13.41	″
Percapita bank deposits	Rs.In Crores	21699.28	″
Percapita bank credit	In Rs.	17518.11	″
Percapita bank credit to agriculture	In Rs.	54.43	2010
Percapita bank credit to agriculture	In Rs.	19.95	″
Percapita bank credit to Industries	In Rs.	7.19	″

4.22 Rainfall and Climate

On account of its high altitude, Anantapur has a comfortable environment throughout the year. It gradually descends from the south to the north, towards the Pennar Valley in the Peddavadugur, Peddapappur, and Tadipatri Mandals. Other areas like Hindupur and Parigi gradually ascend above sea level to reach the Karnataka Plateau, which has an average elevation of around 2000 feet above sea level. These areas are located in the southern part of the state. Roughly 1100 feet of elevation can be found in Anantapur, while the lowest point on the mountain is located at Tadipatri, at about 900 feet.

On account of the Peninsula's location, it is the driest section of the state, making agriculture conditions more precarious. Due to its poor location, the Monsoon also avoids this area. Far from the East coast, it misses out on North East Monsoon's benefits, and being cut off by the Western Ghats, South West Monsoon's ability to penetrate and quench these parched soils is also hindered. As a result of the terrible seasons, the district lacks monsoons and is frequently hit by drought. The district receives less rainfall than Rayalaseema and other areas of Andhra Pradesh, with a mean annual rainfall of 553.0 mm. The average annual

rainfall during the South West Monsoon season is 338.0 millimetres, or about 61.2% of the total. The lack of rain during the South West monsoon season, which runs from June to September, would cause a drought in the district, resulting in failed crops. Only 156.0 m.ms of the year's total rainfall falls during the North East monsoon period, accounting for 28.3% of the total (October to December). Other months of the year are virtually completely dry. March, April, and May are hot months, with daily highs ranging from 31.7°C–38.9°C on average. There are a few colder months in November, December and January with lows of 14.5°C. The High Elevation Mandals of Hindupur, Parigi. Lepakshi. Chilamathur. Agali. Rolla. and Madakasira are cooler than other Mandals in the district.

4.23 Soils

Most of the soils in Anantapur District, with the exception of those in Kanekal, Bommanahall, Vidapaankal, Uravakonda, Vajrakarur, Guntakal, Gooty, Pamidi, Pedavadugur, Yadiki, Tadipatri, Yellanur, Peddapappur, and Putlur mandals, are reddish. These Mandals have nearly equal amounts of red and black dirt. Thus, red soils account for 76% of the total area and black soils account for 24%.

4.24 Occupational Pattern

Agriculture is the district's primary industry. There are 4.90 lakh cultivators, or 6.49% of the population, and 5.33% Agricultural labourers, or 5.96% of the population. Together, they make up 3.1% of the district's workforce. Non–agricultural workers make up roughly 11.14% of the population, or 28.55%. Non–workers account for around 14.70 lakh people, or 21.63% of the population. Non–agricultural employees employ 18.99 lakh people, of whom 18.99 lakh work in household industries, manufacturing, processing, etc. The number of people registered with the employment exchange is a good indicator of an urban resource.

4.25 Infrastructure

Water

Water availability affects a wide range of sectors, including agriculture as well as manufacturing. Many mineral, agricultural, chemical, and leather–based industries require large amounts of water to function properly. Only if there are good water sources accessible, would these industries be able to survive.

Railways

The railroads are an essential mode of transportation in the area. The railways in Anantapur district are good. Anantapur district is home to 81 broad gauge and 28 metre gauge railway stations. There are 340 kilometres of broad gauge railway line and 249 kilometres of metre gauge railway line in this district.

Guntakal and Dharmavaram are the district's largest stations, followed by Gooty. As a result of the efficient transit of people and goods over these well–connected train lines, the residents of the district benefit greatly. Villagers may now travel between locations without the use of a road thanks to the railway lines. As railroad transportation is the most cost–effective option, it contributes to industry expansion.

Roads

Roads have a crucial and dominant role in the district's transportation infrastructure, both for people and goods. This is due to the fact that road transportation is more efficient, less expensive, and has a bigger network to reach the most rural areas of the district. A good road network therefore attracts industry to come forward and establish businesses. The district of Anantapur has 9187.69 kilometres of roadways. There are metallic and non–metallic roads in the district.

Communication

A company's capacity to communicate effectively is critical in today's fast–paced business environment, especially with the rapid advancement of communication tools like telephones, telegraphs, and the postal service. Communication tools like Fax, Telex, and other technologically sophisticated gadgets are increasingly gaining relevance. Global village is becoming a reality due to widespread usage of satellite communication for more efficient, fast, and clear transmission of information and to significant advances in the telecommunications sector. This has grown to be a critical component of greater industrial communication. Apart from being rapid, this industry has also become cheap and reasonable, even for the small businessman, saving him a lot of time.

Other activities with more potential and demand in the area include ready–made clothing, Kambli weaving, leaf plate production, Chandrika production, stone cutting and quarrying, brick production, engineering–based, food–based, and chemical–based enterprises.

Land utilization

The district has a total size of 19.13 lakh hectares. The tables below show the district's land use patterns for the years 2010–2011. The table shows that the net sown area is 11.02 lakh hectares, or around 12% of the total sown area. There are 11.79 lakh hectares of cropland in the country. A total of 0.77 lakh hectares have been seeded many times. It is estimated that the District has a cultivated land area of 11.79 lakh hectares (ha). Out of which, in the years 2010–2011, 9.9 million hectares are planted during Kharif and 1.80 million hectares are planted during Rabi Season. Only 16.31% of the gross cultivated area in 2010–11 was irrigated in the District.

Canals accounted for 13.12% of the total irrigated area in 2010–11, tanks for 5.14%, Tube wells for 75.60%, wells for 4.70%, and other sources for 1.38%. Except for canals, none of the major supply routes are in any danger.

4.26 Natural Resources

Forests

The District lacks forest wealth. Even though Anantapur District is home to a sizable tree population, it lacks the lush foliage common to forested areas such as pastures.

Mineral resources

Gold: Gold is found in the Cholite Schist's and physlite as well as the western section of the Dharwar Schist's Belt in the district at Ramagiri hamlet in Ramagiri mandal. The area has a 14–kilometer length. Exploratory mining in the vicinity has reduced ore shoots to an average width of 100 CMS tonnes to around 467 metres. Bharat Gold Mines Limited is expected to carry out the mining operations.

Diamonds: Diamonds can be found at Vajrakarur. Their primary habitat is pipe rocks, where they can be found in abundance.

Asbestos: The dangers of asbestos are well documented (Chrysolite variety Cross fibre type) High–Grade Barytes Pipe This region's minerals include stone, iron ore, and steatite. However, the region is devoid of large–scale mineral deposits. In Tadipatri Mandal, there are two huge cement factories (Ms. Ultra Tech Ltd. and Ms. Penna Cement Ltd.), each manufacturing lakhs of tonnes of cement every year.

4.27 Educational Institutions Profile

Around 81.57% of elementary schools are run by the Government, with the remaining 18.43% under private administration in the district's well–endowed educational system. Out of 4472 primary schools, only 9 are all–girls academies. In upper primary schools, the Government manages 96.69% of schools, with private administration in 3.21% of schools. Only two girls–only elementary schools are available in the district's upper primary levels. 76.98% of high schools are run by the Government, with the rest being privately managed. There are six high schools in the area, five of which are run by the Government and one by the private sector.

There are six special education schools in the district run by the Andhra Pradesh Government for students with physical disabilities. All except one are managed by individuals with a vested interest in them. There are about 28.17% private junior colleges in the district, with the rest being Government junior colleges. One in every fourteen junior colleges (14.79%) in this area was designated solely for female students. Degree colleges are dominated by the private sector (74.14%) with the Government running only 25.66% of them. There were two female–only colleges in competition for students in this area. There is only one medical school in the country that is Government–run. One Government–run school and 23 privately managed schools provide bachelor's degrees in education. There is only one women–only college in the area. Fourteen engineering colleges are privately managed while only two are Government–run, and all three of the district's pharmacy colleges are privately managed. In terms of Polytechnic Colleges, one is run by the Government and the other two are run by private organizations.

4.28 Development of Girls Education in Anantapur District

Parents said that neighbours, families, village panchayats and school instructors came to learn about the KGBV initiative. 62,5% of the girls reported knowing KGBV via their relatives, 35% of them from neighbours and 12,5% from their acquaintances. They said they knew it. All girls (100%) said that they were motivated by parents to join KGBV.

Parents were enthusiastic about the education of their daughters. The most prevalent answer that parents gave when they were asked about why their daughters were being sent to the KGBV was "We want to educate our daughter.'

The KGBV team is working to motivate more girls to enrol in KGBV at the gross root level. Teachers also communicate information formally or informally about the KGBV facilities.

4.29 Selection Procedure of the girl students for KGBV Anantapur

There is no particular technique for selecting girls at KGBV, Anantapur. The girls are admitted directly without being tested or examined. Many Muslim girls were found to attend different schools before they joined KGBV, while students of BPL joined immediately after they finished their class V school. Few also showed that, mostly because of financial challenges they had previously discontinued schooling. The Director of the State Project informed that students are admitted each year from June to July. The KGBV focuses on the access of abandoned girls, orphans, city–deficient females or rag pickers, and handicapped girls. Door–to–door with the anganwadi workers, vocational education officers and instructors visit the school to identify prospective females. Parents are motivated to educate and enrol their daughters in KGBV.

4.30 Enrolment and dropout of the girls in KGBV Ananthapuramu

The registration data given by the Special officers demonstrate that minority females' registration figures are substantially greater than other categories, i.e. SC/ST/OBC. Interactions with special officers and teachers have indicated that some females originate from Residential Special Training Centers (RSTCs) (NRSTC). Whereas other BPL girls were admitted to primary school in KGBV because there was no high level primary school in their community as they were prospective drop–outs. The instructors and special officers said that in the basti females are still out of school who participate in beedi making.

In 2008–09, 21 girls from a minority group were enrolled, increasing to 108 in 2009–2010 and then to 143 in 2010–2011, but falling to 122 in 2011–2012. The team reviewed the reasons for this change in enrolment data with the school authority and parents. There were various causes, but family resistance was the most typical explanation. Parents were not prepared to go to the hostel for their girls. In intellectual topics, others have also mentioned the females' disinterest. An important component of the fields was proposed to build interest in the university

courses that the subjects should be taught by academic teaching and skills education. However, if not 100%, it is significant that a considerable number of students, whether ordinary, abandoned, or never registered, are enrolled, demonstrating the State's commitment to overcoming gender differences.

4.31 Infrastructural Facilities

In the provision of quality education, the question of infrastructure is of paramount importance. In Anantapur, KGBV had its own building in the same structure with its own hostel and school amenities. Some parts of the building have not yet been built. There are sixteen rooms in this KGBV. The rooms have 3 bedrooms, 1 work room, 3 classrooms, 1 kitchen and 2 multi–purpose spaces. A separate space is provided for each class to make the teacher more successful in the teaching process. Nevertheless, the Special officer thought that KGBV classrooms are less as secondary programmes were introduced by the school. x and x. As for the setup of seats, 30 girls were frequently discovered to be sitting in a single classroom. There is no compound wall in the KGBV. Five computers and a computer teacher were recently supplied to the KGBV. Good bathroom facilities were available in the KGBV. The water was arranged by the well. The toilets were large enough, ventilated well and there was appropriate lighting.

The special officer also noted that a cleaning team should be engaged in order to maintain hygiene on the residential campus and to keep it clean every day. In addition, they also teach girls the value of maintaining a clean school. Students receive Rs. 50/– every month to cover their daily costs.

The girls receive one bed, two bed linen, one radio in each room and utensils for meals according to the instructions. They have two bed linens for each. Girls have complained of the timely modification of the mattresses. Also noted were games and sports instruments like Ludo, Badminton, Rings, Cords, Ropes, Table Tennis, Football, Hockey and Carom, etc. that were not enough and that sports like Kabaddi, Kho–kho, etc. were inclined to do so.

There is a separate kitchen and a restaurant facility. The KGBV has also one permanent cook and one assistant, who prepare the food on the menu and look after kitchen and foodstuffs, display daily menus and clean up the utensils, in line with State rules. The kitchen is cleaned and carefully maintained.

4.32 Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalya in Anantapur District

The KGBV welcomes females with special needs. There were two impaired kids enrolled in classes VI and VII, physically challenged students enrolled at KGBV. The Gender Coordinators are directed to equip KGBV for the integration of these children with suitable infrastructure. This has been a beneficial outcome and huge numbers of girls with certain needs are incorporated. There was a three–day course to instruct special officers and contractual teachers to include children with special needs. However, they are not given any particular facilities. There is a dearth of instructional help, which is highly necessary for physical growth. These pupils are integrated into the classrooms along with other children to develop a child to child interaction understand the feelings of one another and learn from one another.

The officials added that KGBVs were found in Andhra Pradesh where children with a certain impairment were hospitalised. They had roughly ten children with hearing impairments, much like in a KGBV, while seventeen females had a partial blindness in another. According to them, dedicated efforts can be made to supply all the facilities and special teachers. They have appropriate facilities such as ramps, children's bathrooms, and teaching tools such as braile books, For these KGBVs, teachers are appointed using IEDS installations.

4.33 Vocational Education

Professional training was restricted to handwork and stitching. The management committee engages part–time professional instructors to provide this training. The IT professional offers computer training five days a week. However, no norms or curricula for vocational training have been established. Analysis of the answers suggest that the school lacks proper training materials and equipment. While there are part–time instructors, the girls interviewed said they have received no instruction whatsoever that must be determined. It is crucial to equip girl students with vocational and technical training since it helps them to be self–reliant.

4.34 Health

It is an appreciable move done by the State to provide the auxiliary sibling (ANM). ANM organises monthly medical inspections. The ANM provides for girls' health and hygiene. Yoga/physical activities by girls shall be conducted as much as possible to ensure the good health of residents. Every resident's health cards are kept frequently. Inside the KGBV were supplied free medicine and first–aid

services. The "emergency money," which amounts to Rs. 25000/– p.a. also has been provided. In the event of an emergency, people have also been brought to Jadcherla's closest private clinic. The special officer takes girls in the safety guard car/rickshaw in case of any medical emergency. The safety guard is in the vicinity and can be contacted as needed.

The primary concern of the State Government is cleanliness and hygiene at KGBV. This is ensured by the teachers and the supporters and the girls are taught about that. KGBV girls took part for three days in UNICEF's Swasth Programme. They are sensitised to cleanliness, health and hygiene issues throughout the training.

4.35 Review and Assessment

The Special Officer was aware of the State Board's constant, comprehensive assessment procedure. She informed the pupils that the tests are done on a weekly basis and that objective and subjective test types are raised. They are also assigned in order to be regularly reviewed. The evaluation procedure assists the teachers, according to them, to gain enough feedback and to build/plan corrective lessons.

4.36 Teaching Personnel and Non–teachers

In each KGBV there is a special officer, who carries out the duties of Headmaster and guard. These special officials are normal deputation Government teachers and do not stay overnight. At the time of the visit nine contract teachers were either part time or full time, employed by the KGBV. Nearly all teachers have been trained and qualified professionally. The KGBV teachers had been trained in service, i.e. in computers and in teaching methods etc. These training programmes lasted between three and five days. The lecturers and the specialist stated that the choice for such training rests mainly on the merit, knowledge and working experience. Teachers receive subject–specific training, for a maximum of four days. The ANM and the special officer receive three days of instruction.

❑

Chapter 5

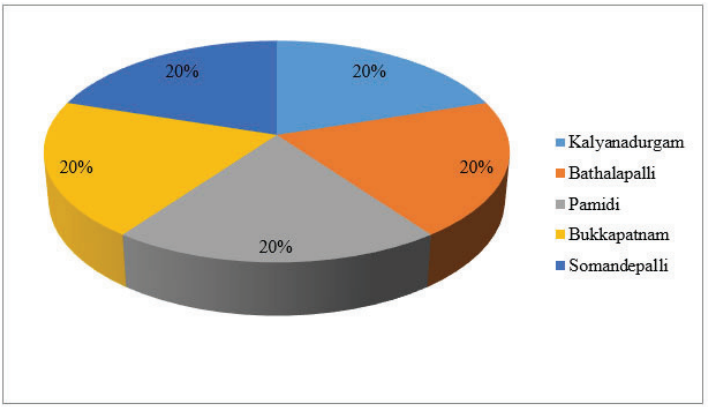
Analysis and Discussion

Students Parents Schedule

5.1 Distribution on the Basis of Mandal Wise Frequency

Table 5.1: Mandal wise frequency distribution.

Sl. No.	Mandal	Frequency	Percent
1	Kalyanadurgam	52	20.00
2	Bathalapalli	52	20.00
3	Pamidi	52	20.00
4	Bukkapatnam	52	20.00
5	Somandepalli	52	20.00
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



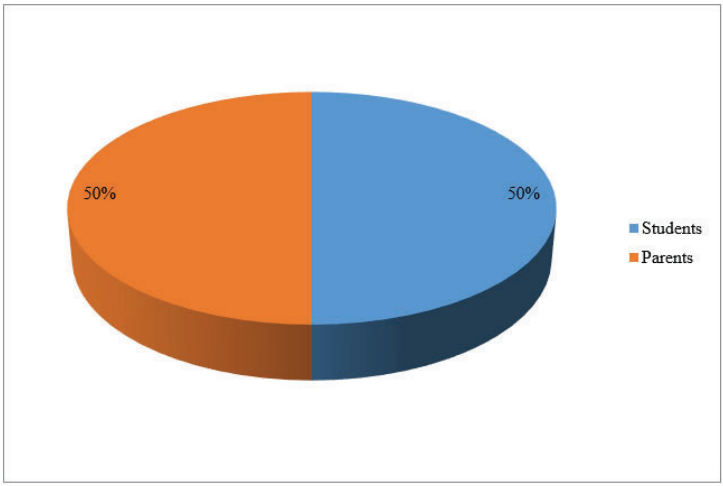
Graph. 5.1: Mandal wise frequency distribution.

The above table 5.1 shows that the distribution of sample with respect to Mandal. Out of 260 (100%) of sample each Mandal have an equal frequency of 52 (20.00%). There are five Mandals included in the study; these are Kalyanadurgam, Bathalapalli, Pamidi, Bukkapatnam, Somandepalli.

5.2 Distribution on the Basis of Parents/Students

Table 5.2: Parents/Students

Sl. No.	Parents/Students	Frequency	Percent
1	Students	130	50.00
2	Parents	130	50.00
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



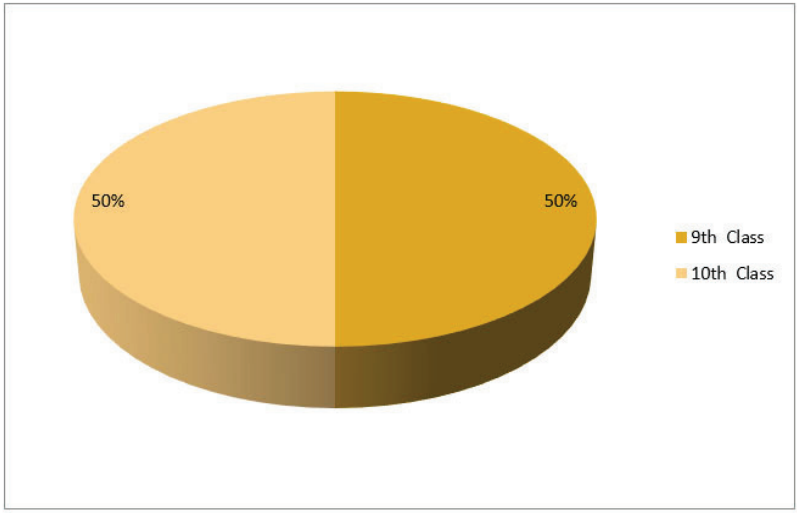
Graph. 5.2: Parents/Students.

The above table 5.2 shows that the distribution of sample with respect to class. Out of 260 (100%) samples 130 (50%) is the student and 130 (50%) is parents. Both are in the equal ratio.

5.3 Distribution on the Basis of Class

Table 5.3: Class.

Sl. No.	Class	Frequency	Percent
1	9th Class	130	50.00
2	10th Class	130	50.00
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



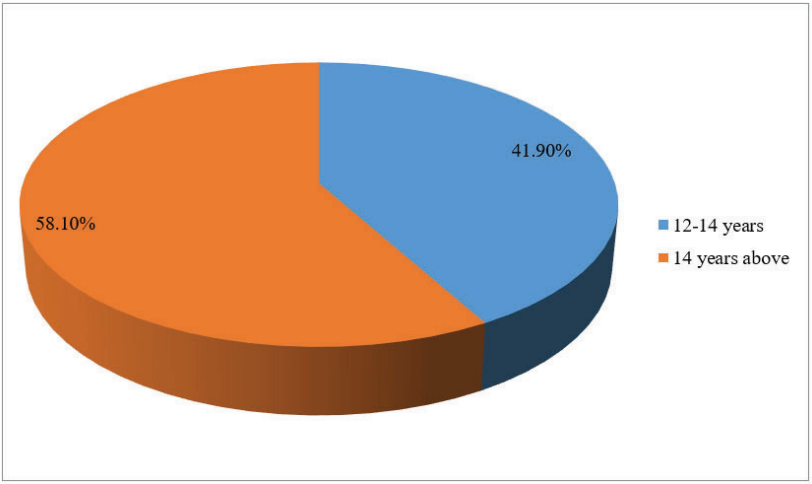
Graph 5.3: Class.

The above table 5.3 shows the distribution of student sample with respect to class. Out of 260 (100%) sample students, all are girls and selected from 9th and 10th classes, hence, it may be concluded that 9th and 10th class girls of KGBV took equal part in the selected sample schools.

5.4 Distribution on the Basis of Age

Table 5.4: Age.

Sl. No.	Age	Frequency	Percent
1	12–14 years	109	41.90
2	14 years above	151	58.10
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



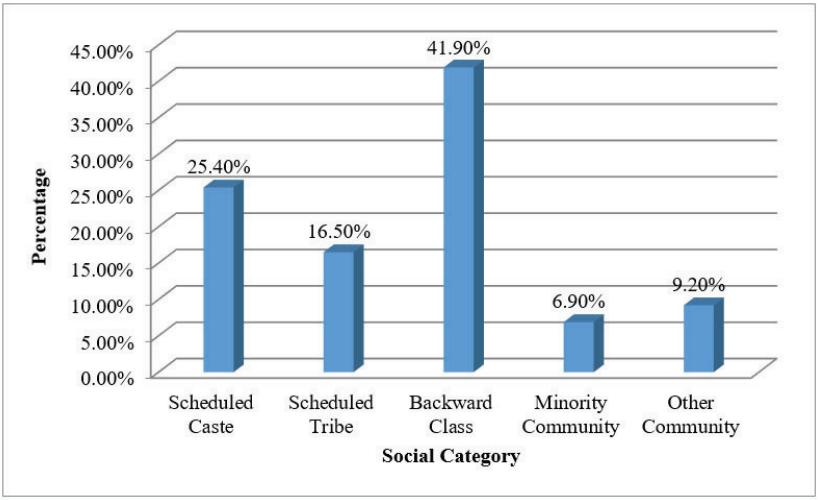
Graph 5.4: Age.

The above table 5.4 shows that the distribution of student sample with respect to their age. Out of 260 sample students 151 (58.07%), students are in the age group of above 14 years, followed by 109 (41.92%) students in the age of 12–14 years. So, it may be concluded that the majority students are from above 14 years of age group in the sample.

5.5 Distribution on the Basis of Social Category.

Table 5.5: Social Category.

Sl. No.	Social Category	Frequency	Percent
1	Scheduled Caste	66	25.40
2	Scheduled Tribe	43	16.50
3	Backward Class	109	41.90
4	Minority Community	18	6.90
5	Other Community	24	9.20
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



Graph 5.5: Social Category.

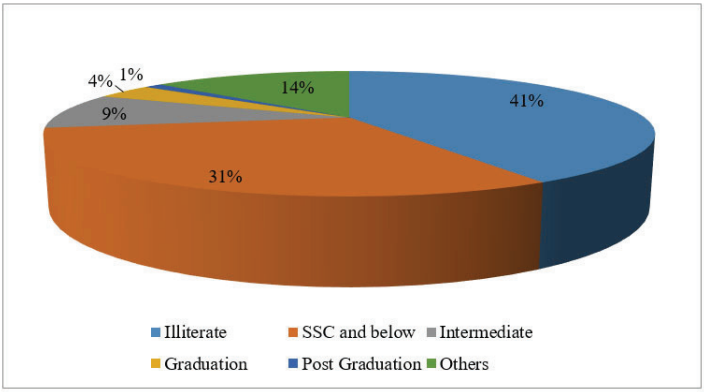
The above table 5.5 shows the distribution of student sample with respect to social category. Out of 260 sample students, 43 (16.50%) students belong to scheduled tribe community, followed by 109 (41.90%) students from backward class and 66 (25.40%) students from Scheduled caste community. The remaining,

24 (9.20%) students belong to other classes and 18 (6.90%) students are from the minority class. Hence, it may be concluded that the majority students belong to Scheduled tribe in the sample.

5.6 Distribution on the Basis of Educational Level of the Father

Table 5.6: Educational Level of the Father.

Sl. No.	Educational level of the father	Frequency	Percent
1	Illiterate	108	41.50
2	SSC and below	80	30.80
3	Intermediate	24	9.20
4	Graduate	10	3.80
5	Post Graduate	3	1.20
6	Others	35	13.50
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



Graph 5.6: Educational Level of the Father.

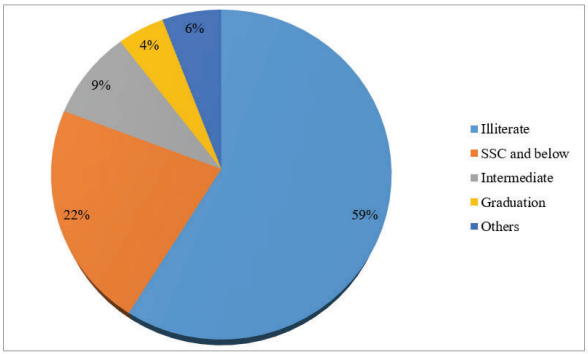
The above table 5.6 shows the distribution of student sample with respect to father's education. Out of 260 sample students 108 (41.50%) student's fathers

are illiterates, followed by 80 (30.80%) fathers are having SSC and below level education. In the remaining, 24 (9.20%) fathers are have intermediate qualification, followed by 10 (3.80%) fathers are with graduation and 3 (1.20%) fathers having post–graduate qualification and others are 35 (13.50%) Hence, it may be concluded that the majority of student's fathers are illiterates in the sample.

5.7 Distribution on the Basis of Educational Level of the Mother

Table 5.7: Educational Level of the Mother.

Sl. No.	Educational level of the Mother	Frequency	Percent
1	Illiterate	153	58.80
2	SSC and below	57	21.90
3	Intermediate	23	8.80
4	Graduate	12	4.60
5	Others	15	5.80
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



Graph 5.7: Educational Level of the Mother.

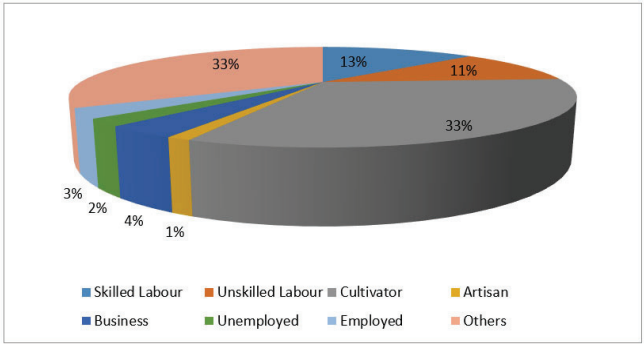
The above table 5.7 shows the distribution of student sample with respect to mother's education. Out of 260 sample students 153 (58.80%) student's mothers

are illiterates, followed by 57 (21.90%) mothers being literates and having SSC and below qualification. In the remaining sample 23 (8.80%) mothers have intermediate qualification and 12 (4.60%) have Graduate qualification and others is 15 (5.80%). On the whole, it may be concluded that the majority student's mothers are illiterates in the sample.

5.8 Distribution on the Basis of Occupation of the Father

Table 5.8: Occupation of the Father.

Sl. No.	Occupation of the Father	Frequency	Percent
1	Skilled Labour	34	13.10
2	Unskilled Labour	28	10.80
3	Cultivator	85	32.70
4	Artisan	3	1.20
5	Business	10	3.80
6	Unemployed	6	2.30
7	Employed	8	3.10
8	Others	86	33.10
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



Graph 5.8: Occupation of the Father.

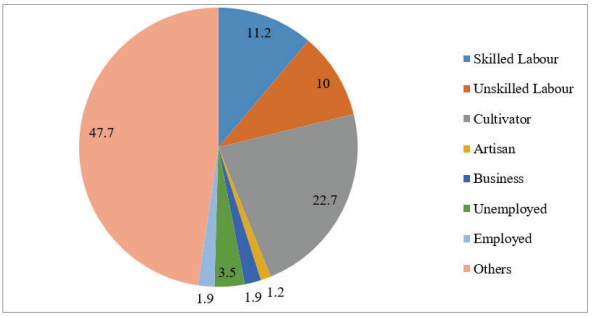
The above table 5.8 shows that the distribution of student sample with respect to father's occupation. Out of 260 sample students 85 (32.70%)

student's fathers are cultivators, followed by 34 (13.10%) fathers who are skilled labourers and 28 (10.80%) are un–skilled labourers. In the remaining sample 8 (3.10%) fathers are employed followed by 10 (3.80%) fathers who have business and 86 (33.10%) fathers are involved other works and remaining sample are unemployed. So, it may be concluded that the majority of student's father occupation is cultivators in the sample.

5.9 Distribution on the Basis of Occupation of the Mother

Table 5.9: Occupation of the mother.

Sl. No.	Occupation of the Mother	Frequency	Percent
1	Skilled Labour	29	11.20
2	Unskilled Labour	26	10.00
3	Cultivator	59	22.70
4	Artisan	3	1.20
5	Business	5	1.90
6	Unemployed	9	3.50
7	Employed	5	1.90
8	Others	124	47.70
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



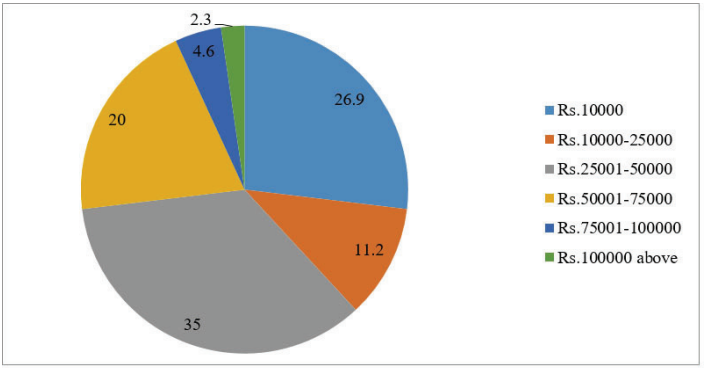
Graph 5.9: Occupation of the Mother.

The above table 5.9 shows the distribution of student sample with respect to mother's occupation. Out of 260 sample students 59 (22.70%) student's mothers are cultivators, followed by 29 (11.20%) mothers who are skilled labourers and 26 (10.00%) mothers are un–skilled labourers. In remaining sample 124 (47.70%) mothers participate in other works, 5 (1.90%) mothers are employees and 3 (1.20%) mothers are artisans. Hence, it may be concluded that the majority of student's mothers are cultivators in the sample.

5.10 Distribution on the Basis of Annual Income of the Family

Table 5.10: Annual Income of the family.

Sl. No.	Annual Income of the family	Frequency	Percent
1	Rs.10000	70	26.90
2	Rs.10000–25000	29	11.20
3	Rs.25001–50000	91	35.00
4	Rs.50001–75000	52	20.00
5	Rs.75001–100000	12	4.60
6	Rs.100000 and above	6	2.30
	Total	**260**	**100.00**



Graph 5.10: Annual Income of the Family.

The above table 5.10 shows the distribution of student sample with respect to family annual income. Out of 260 sample students 70 (26.90%) student's family annual income is Rs.10,000 and below, followed by 91 (35.00%) student's family annual income being between Rs.25, 000 and Rs.50, 000 and 29 (11.20%) students' family annual income is Rs.10,001–25,000. In the remaining sample students 52 (20.00%) students family annual income is Rs.50,000–75,000, 12 (4.60%) students have Rs.75,000 to one lakh and 6 (2.30%) student's family income is one lakh and above income. On the whole, it may be concluded that the majority students have family annual income of Rs.25001–50000 in the sample.

5.11 Distribution on the Basis of Frequency Distribution of the Perception of Students and Parents

Table 5.11: Frequency Distribution of the Perception of Students and Parents

Sl. No.	Class Interval	Mid value	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
1	171–175	173	8	3.10	8	3.10
2	176–180	178	41	15.80	49	18.80
3	181–185	183	49	18.80	98	37.70
4	186–190	188	58	22.30	156	60.00
5	191–195	193	43	16.50	199	76.50
6	196–200	198	12	4.60	211	81.20
7	201–205	203	17	6.50	228	87.70
8	206–210	208	12	4.60	240	92.30
9	211–215	213	11	4.20	251	96.50
10	216–220	218	9	3.50	260	100.00

STATISTICS			
Mean	190.48	Std. Error of Skewness	0.15
Median	189.00	Kurtosis	0.03
Mode	189.00	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.30
Std. Deviation	11.15	Range	49.00
Skewness	0.85	Q.D	6.00

5.12 Distribution on the Basis of Parents and Students wise Difference of the Perception

Table 5.12: Parents and Students wise difference of the perception.

	Parents/ Students	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t–value	p value
Total Perception of the Parents and students	Students	130	195.11	12.066	7.339**	0.000
	Parents	130	185.86	7.797		

The above table 5.12 reveals the class wise comparison of perception scores of the student's perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The perception score of students is 195.11%, followed by Parents at 185.86%.

The above table 5.12 reveals the class versus students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. In this, the t–ratio is 7.339** which are higher than the table value found to be significant at 0.05 levels.

Hence, it may be concluded that the class of students has influence on student's perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools.

5.13 Distribution on the Basis of Class Wise Difference of the Parents and Students' Perception

Table 5.13: Class wise difference of the Parents and students perception.

	Class code	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t–value	p value
Total Perception of the Parents and students	9th Class	130	186.66	10.136	5.878**	0.000
	10th Class	130	194.31	10.828		

The above table 5.13 reveals that the class wise comparison of perception scores of the student's perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The perception score of 10th class students is 194.31%, followed by 9th class students of 186.66%.

The above table 5.13 reveals the class versus student's perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. In this, the t–ratio is 5.878** which is higher than the table value 3.03 found to be significant at 0.05 levels.

Hence, it may be concluded that the class of students has influence on student's perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools.

5.14 Distribution on the Basis of Age wise Difference of the Parents and Students' Perception

Table 5.14: Age wise difference of the Parents and students perception.

	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t–value	p value
Total Perception of the Parents and students	12–14 years	109	186.11	10.249	5.693**	0.000
	14 years above	151	193.64	10.722		

The above table 5.14 reveals the age group wise comparison of perception scores of the student's perceptions towards functioning of

the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The perception score of students whose age is above 14 years is 193.64% above 14 years age group students is 186.11% followed by 12–14 years age group students So, it may be conclude that the perception score 193.64% of students whose age is 14 years above is found high.

The above table 5.14 reveals the age wise comparison of perception scores of students' perception towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. It indicates that the obtained t ratio is 5.693**. There is a significant influence of student's age on perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the age of students has a significant influence on students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools.

5.15 Distribution on the Basis of Social Category wise Difference of the Parents and Students' Perception

Table 5.15: Social category wise difference of the Parents and students perception.

Social Category	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95%Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Scheduled Caste	66	185.73	8.022	0.987	183.76	187.7	173	205
Scheduled Tribe	43	187.91	9.271	1.414	185.05	190.76	175	209
Backward Class	109	190.35	10.464	1.002	188.36	192.34	171	219
Minority Community	18	203.78	11.604	2.735	198.01	209.55	182	220
Other Community	24	198.83	12.576	2.567	193.52	204.14	182	220
Total	**260**	**190.48**	**11.146**	**0.691**	**189.12**	**191.85**	**171**	**220**

ANOVA						
Total Perception of the Parents and students						
	Sum of Squares	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p value**	**Sig**
Between Groups	6635.023	4	1658.756	16.559	0.000	**
Within Groups	25543.916	255	100.172			
Total	**32178.938**	**259**				

The above table 5.15 reveals the community wise comparison of perception score of student's perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The scheduled caste students mean score is 185.73%, followed by minority community students perception score is 203.78%, and backward class students mean score is 190.35%. From the remaining of the sample other caste, schedule tribe students perception scores are 198.83% and 187.91% respectively. Hence, it may be concluded that Minority Community student have a high perception score and Scheduled Caste students have low perception scores in the sample.

The above table reveals the community wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The analysis of variance indicates the obtained F ratio is 16.559 higher than the table value at 0.01 level. Therefore, there is a significant influence of community on the students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the community has significant influence on students' perceptions.

5.16 Distribution on the Basis of Educational level of Mother wise Difference of the Parents and Students Perception

Table 5.16: Educational level of mother wise difference of the Parents and students perception.

Educational level of the father	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95%Confidence Interval for Mean		Mini mum	Maxi mum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Illiterate	108	187.35	9.764	0.94	185.49	189.21	171	220
SSC and below	80	191.3	10.491	1.173	188.97	193.63	177	217
Intermediate	24	191.17	12.125	2.475	186.05	196.29	175	219
Graduation	10	207.6	10.967	3.468	199.75	215.45	190	220
Post Graduation	3	182.33	6.658	3.844	165.79	198.87	178	190
Others	35	193.63	11.024	1.863	189.84	197.42	179	216
Total	**260**	**190.48**	**11.146**	**0.691**	**189.12**	**191.85**	**171**	**220**

ANOVA						
Total Perception of the Parents and students						
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Sig
Between Groups	4598.937	5	919.787	8.471	0.000	**
Within Groups	27580.001	254	108.583			
Total	**32178.938**	**259**				

The above table 5.16 reveals the father's education wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The students' whose fathers' education is intermediate has a perception score of 191.17%, followed by students whose fathers are post–graduates is 182.33%, that of the graduate fathers' is 207.6% and father s' whose education is SSC and below is 191.3% and the remaining Fathers' education is illiterates perception score is 187.35%. Hence, it may be concluded that students whose fathers' educational qualification is Graduation is having high perception score and Intermediate fathers are having low perception score in the sample.

The above table shows the father education versus students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The analysis of variance for father's education indicates the obtained F–value of 8.471, which is more than table value at 0.01 levels. Therefore there is significant influence of fathers' education of students on students' perceptions towards functioning of KGBV schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the father's education has significant influence on students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools.

5.17 Distribution on the Basis of Educational level of Mother wise Difference of the Parents and Students' Perception

Table 5.17: Educational level of mother wise difference of the Parents and students perception.

Educational level of the mother	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95%Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Illiterate	153	187.74	10.256	0.829	186.1	189.38	171	219
SSC andbelow	57	193	9.769	1.294	190.41	195.59	173	215
Intermediate	23	189.09	10.264	2.14	184.65	193.53	178	215
Graduation	12	207.25	11.258	3.25	200.1	214.4	190	220
Others	15	197.67	10.104	2.609	192.07	203.26	188	220
Total	**260**	**190.48**	**11.146**	**0.691**	**189.12**	**191.85**	**171**	**220**

ANOVA						
Total Perception of the Parents and students						
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Sig
Between Groups	5705.987	4	1426.497	13.741	0.000	**
Within Groups	26472.952	255	103.815			
Total	**32178.938**	**259**				

The above table 5.17 shows the mothers' education wise comparison of perception scores of students with perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The mean score of students whose mother possess intermediate is 189.09%, followed by graduate mothers which is 207.25% and whose mothers' education is SSC and below the perception score is 193% and illiterate mothers' perception score is 187.74%. So, it may be concluded that the students whose mothers' possess Graduation have high

perception score than others. The students whose mothers are illiterates have low perception score in the sample.

The above table 5.17 reveals the mothers' education wise comparison of perception scores of students with perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The analysis of variance obtained F ratio 13.741 is more than the table value 0.01 levels. Therefore there is significant influence of mothers' education on student's perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the mothers' education of students has significant influence on Students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools.

5.18 Distribution on the Basis of Occupation of Father wise Difference of the Parents and Students Perception

Table 5.18: Occupation of Father wise difference of the Parents and Students Perception.

Occupation of the Father	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
SkilledLabour	34	188.21	11.083	1.901	184.34	192.07	178	217
Unskilled Labour	28	193.5	9.935	1.878	189.65	197.35	179	210
Cultivator	85	191.26	11.938	1.295	188.68	193.83	171	220
Artisan	3	180.67	2.517	1.453	174.42	186.92	178	183
Business	10	192.9	7.156	2.263	187.78	198.02	179	204
Unemployed	6	201	10.863	4.435	189.6	212.4	184	215
Employed	8	200.5	10.994	3.887	191.31	209.69	188	219
Others	86	188.03	10.156	1.095	185.86	190.21	173	220
Total	**260**	**190.48**	**11.146**	**0.691**	**189.12**	**191.85**	**171**	**220**

ANOVA						
Total Perception of the Parents and Students						
	Sum of Squares	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p value**	**Sig**
Between Groups	2811.612	7	401.659	3.447	0.002	**
Within Groups	29367.327	252	116.537			
Total	**32178.938**	**259**				

The above table 5.18 shows the fathers' occupation wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards functioning of the sample schools. The perception scores of artisan fathers are 180.67%, followed by un–skilled labour fathers' i.e. 193.5%, employed and un–employed fathers' perception scores are 201% and 200.5% respectively. The skilled labour fathers' perception score is 188.21% and whose fathers' occupation is cultivation and business is 191.26% and 192.9%, respectively.

Hence, it may be concluded that the students, whose fathers are Unemployed have a high perception score. The students whose fathers are Artisans have the low perception score in the selected sample.

The above table 5.18 reveals the fathers' occupation wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards functioning of the sample schools. The analysis of variance indicates that the obtained F ratio is 3.447, which is higher than the table value 2.01 at 0.01 levels. Therefore, there is significant influence of father's occupation on students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. Hence, it maybe concluded that the father's occupation has significant influence on students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools.

5.19 Distribution on the Basis of Occupation of Mother wise Difference of the Parents and Students' Perception

Table 5.19: Occupation of Mother wise Difference of the Parents and Students' Perception.

Occupation of the Mother	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95%Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Skilled Labour	29	188.79	13.257	2.462	183.75	193.84	171	217
Unskilled Labour	26	196.27	11.223	2.201	191.74	200.8	179	215
Cultivator	59	193.24	10.953	1.426	190.38	196.09	175	219
Artisan	3	193	2	1.155	188.03	197.97	191	195
Business	5	187.6	8.792	3.932	176.68	198.52	178	198
Unemployed	9	192.44	11.304	3.768	183.76	201.13	182	219
Employed	5	195.6	18.078	8.085	173.15	218.05	178	216
Others	124	188.06	9.939	0.893	186.3	189.83	173	220
Total	**260**	**190.48**	**11.146**	**0.691**	**189.12**	**191.85**	**171**	**220**

ANOVA						
Total Perception of the Parents and Students						
	Sum of Squares	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p value**	**Sig**
Between Groups	2352.28	7	336.04	2.839	0.007	**
Within Groups	29826.658	252	118.36			
Total	**32178.938**	**259**				

The above table 5.19 shows the mothers' occupation wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The mean score of students of artisan mother is 193, followed by employed mother's perception score is 196.27%, un–skilled labour mother's perception score is 192.44% and unemployed mother's perception score is 192.44%. The students, whose mothers occupation is other having perception score is 188.79%, skilled labour is 188.06% and remaining mother's occupation i.e., business and cultivator is 187.6% and 193.24%, respectively.

So, it may be concluded that the Unskilled Labour' mothers are having high perception score of 196.27%. The Business mothers of students are having low perception score of 187.6% in the sample.

The above table 5.19 indicates that the mother's occupation wise comparison of perception scores of student's perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The F value 2.839 obtained, which is found to be significant at 0.05 levels. There is significant influence of mother's occupation on student's perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools.

Hence, it may be concluded that the mother's occupation has significant influence on student's perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools.

5.20 Distribution on the Basis of Annual Income of the Family wise Difference of the Parents and Students' Perception

Table 5.20: Annual Income of the Family wise difference of the Parents and Students Perception.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95%Confidence Interval for Mean		Mini mum	Maxi mum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Rs. 10000	70	186.59	8.903	1.064	184.46	188.71	173	212
Rs. 10000–25000	29	187.55	9.318	1.73	184.01	191.1	171	209
Rs. 25001–50000	91	190.64	9.703	1.017	188.62	192.66	175	213
Rs. 50001–75000	52	191.27	11.53	1.599	188.06	194.48	178	219
Rs. 75001–100000	12	208.67	11.268	3.253	201.51	215.83	188	220
Rs. 100000 above	6	204.67	14.882	6.075	189.05	220.28	184	219
Total	**260**	**190.48**	**11.146**	**0.691**	**189.12**	**191.85**	**171**	**220**

ANOVA						
Total Perception of the Parents and students						
	Sum of Squares	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p value**	**Sig**
Between Groups	6521.517	5	1304.303	12.912	0.000	**
Within Groups	25657.422	254	101.013			
Total	32178.938	259				

The above table 5.20 shows the family annual income wise comparison of perception scores of student's perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The perception score of students whose family income is above Rs.1,00,000 is 204.67%, followed by students family income Rs.75,001–1,00,000 perception score is 208.67% and students, whose family income is Rs.50,001–75,000 perception score is 191.27% in the sample the remaining Rs25,001–50,000, Rs.10,0015,000 and below Rs.10,000 student's family income are 190.64%, 187.55% and 186.59% respectively.

So, it may be concluded that the students, whose family income is Rs.75001–100000 are having high perception score. The student, whose family income is below Rs.10,000, is having low perception score.

The above table 5.20 indicates the family annual income wise comparison of perception scores of student's perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The obtained F value is 12.912 which found to be significant at 0.05 levels. Therefore, there is significant influence of student's family annual income in student's perceptions in the sample schools.

Hence, it may be concluded that the family annual income has significant influence on student's perceptions towards functioning of KGBV Schools.

5.21 Distribution on the Basis of Mandal wise Difference of the Parents and Students' Perception

Table 5.21: Mandal wise difference of the Parents and students perception.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95%Confidence Interval for Mean		Mini mum	Maxi mum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Kalyana–durgam	52	194.35	12.585	1.745	190.84	197.85	175	220
Bathalapalli	52	184.81	6.982	0.968	182.86	186.75	177	214
Pamidi	52	199.08	9.414	1.305	196.46	201.7	184	219
Bukkapatnam	52	183.63	5.844	0.81	182.01	185.26	171	197
Somandepalli	52	190.56	11.396	1.58	187.39	193.73	173	217
Total	**260**	**190.48**	**11.146**	**0.691**	**189.12**	**191.85**	**171**	**220**

ANOVA						
Total Perception of the Parents and students						
	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**p value**	**Sig**
Between Groups	8730.515	4	2182.629	23.736	0.000	**
Within Groups	23448.423	255	91.955			
Total	32178.938	259				

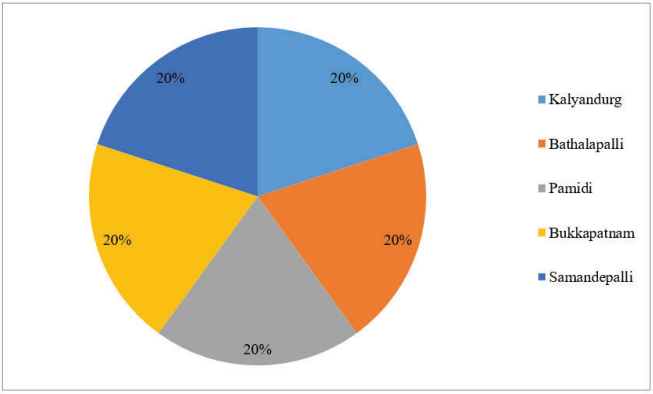
The above table 5.21 indicates the Mandal wise difference of the Parents and students perception towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The obtained F value is 23.736 which is found to be significant at 0.05 levels. Therefore, there is significant influence of Mandal wise difference of the Parents and students perception in the sample schools.

Hence, it may be concluded that the Mandal wise difference of the Parents and students perception towards functioning of KGBV Schools is significant.

Teachers Schedule Tables

Table 5.22: Distribution on the Basis of Mandal Code.

Mandal Code	Frequency	Percent
Kalyandurg	8	20.00
Bathalapalli	8	20.00
Pamidi	8	20.00
Bukkapatnam	8	20.00
Somandepalli	8	20.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**

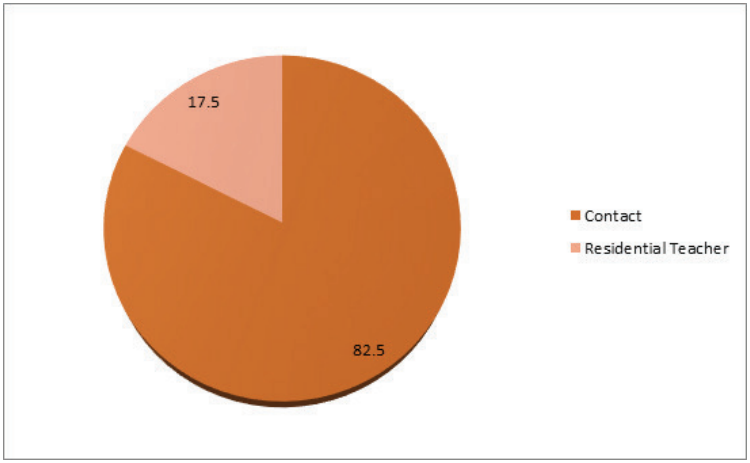


Graph 5.11: Distribution on the Basis of Mandal Code.

The above table 5.22 shows the distribution of the teacher sample with respect to Mandal code in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers, 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Kalyandurg, 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Bathalapalli, 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Pamidi, 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Bukkapatnam and 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Somandepalli in the sample.

Table 5.23: Distribution on the Basis of Designation.

Designation	Frequency	Percent
Contract	33	82.50
Residential Teacher	7	17.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**

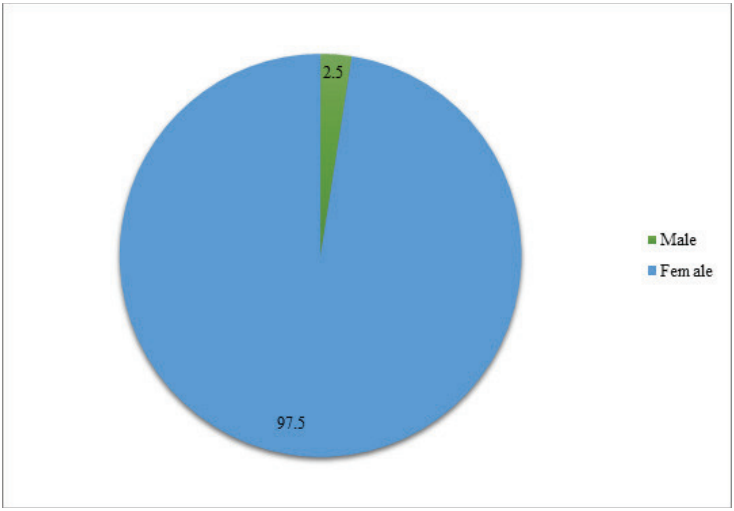


Graph 12: Distribution on the Basis of Designation.

The above table 5.23 shows the distribution of the teacher sample with respect to designation in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers, 33 (82.50%) teachers are on Contract basis and only 7 (17.50%) teachers are Residential Teacher.

Table 5.24: Distribution on the Basis of Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	1	2.50
Female	39	97.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**

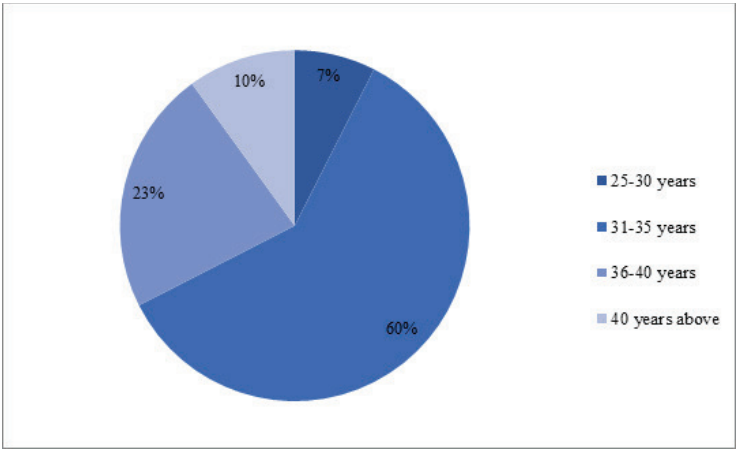


Graph 13: Distribution on the Basis of Gender.

The above table 5.24 shows the distribution of the teacher sample with respect to gender in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers, 39 (97.50%) teachers are female and only 1 (2.50%) teacher is male.

Table 5.25: Distribution on the basis of Age.

Age	Frequency	Percent
25–30 years	3	7.50
31–35 years	24	60.00
36–40 years	9	22.50
40 years above	4	10.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**



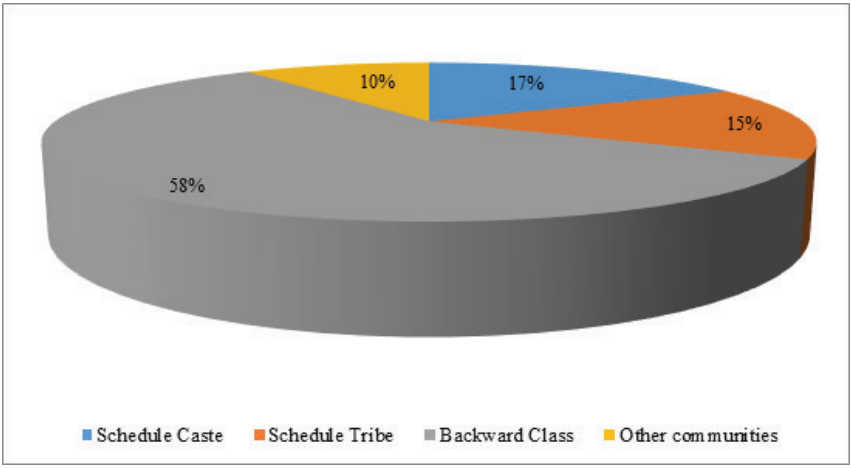
Graph 5.14: Distribution on the basis of Age.

Age

The above table 5.25 shows the distribution of the teacher sample with respect to age in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers, 3 (7.50%) teachers are in the age group of 25–30 years, followed by 24 (60.00%) teachers in the age group of 31–35 years. It is also observed that out of 40 samples 9 (22.50%) teachers are in the age group of 36–40 years. The remaining, 4 (10.00%) teachers are in the age below 25 years and above 40 years. So, it may be concluded that the majority teachers working are in the age group of 31–35 years in the sample schools.

Table 5.26: Distribution on the basis of Social Category.

Social Category	Frequency	Percent
Schedule Caste	7	17.50
Schedule Tribe	6	15.00
Backward Class	23	57.50
Other communities	4	10.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**

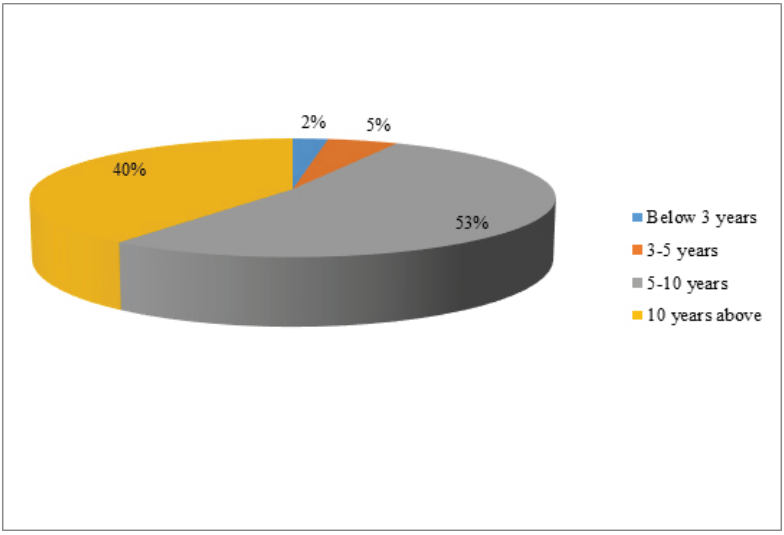


Graph 5.15: Distribution on the basis of Social Category.

The above table 5.26 shows the distribution of the teacher sample with respect to community. Out of 40 sample teachers 23 (57.50%) teachers belong to backward class community, followed by 6 (15.00%) teachers from scheduled tribe and 7 (17.50%) teachers from the scheduled caste. The remaining 4 (10.00%) teachers belong to the other caste community working in the sample schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the majority teachers belong to the backward class community.

Table 5.27: Distribution on the basis of Teaching Experience.

Teaching Experience	Frequency	Percent
Below 3 years	1	2.50
3–5 years	2	5.00
5–10 years	21	52.50
10 years above	16	40.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**

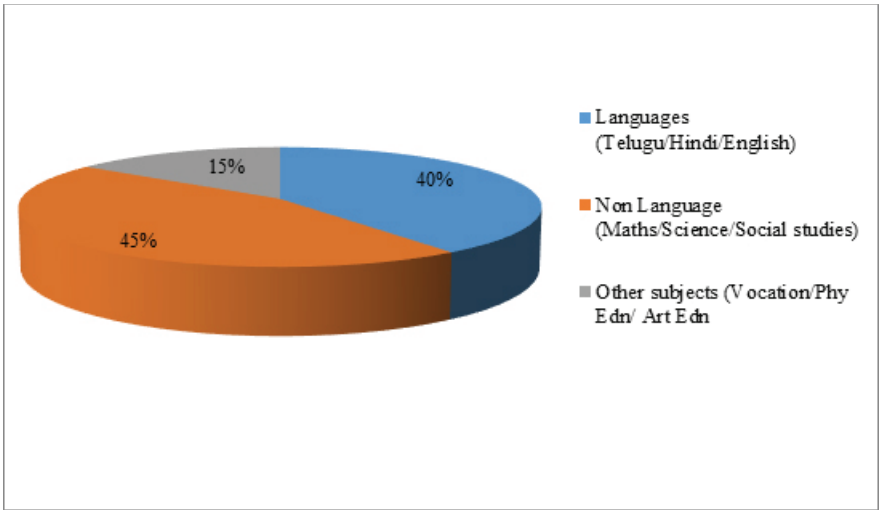


Graph 5.16: Distribution on the basis of Teaching Experience.

The above table 5.27 reveals the distribution of teacher sample with respect to their teaching experience in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers 2 (5.00%) teachers have 3–5 years of teaching experience, whereas 21(52.50%) teachers have 5–10 years of teaching experience and 1 (2.50%) teacher have below three years of teaching experience. The remaining sample 16 (40.00%) teachers have above ten years of the teaching experience. Hence, it may be concluded that the majority teachers working have 5–10 years of teaching experience in the sample.

Table 5.28: Distribution on the basis of Subject Handling in the School.

Subject Handling In The School	Frequency	Percent
Languages (Telugu/Hindi/English)	16	40.00
Non Language (Maths/Science/Social studies)	18	45.00
Other subjects (Vocation/Phy Edn/Art Edn	6	15.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**

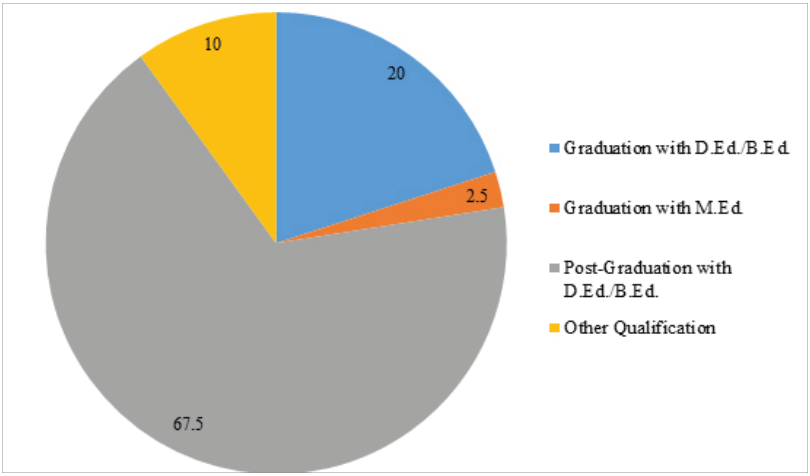


Graph 5.17: Distribution on the basis of subject handling in the school.

The above table 5.28 shows the distribution of teacher sample with respect to the subject handled by them. Out of 40 sample teachers 18 (45.00%) teachers teach non–language subjects, followed by 16 (40.00%) teachers that teach language subjects in the sample, of the remaining 6 (15.00%) teachers teach other subjects. Hence, it may be concluded that the majority of teachers teach non–language subjects, followed by language teachers in the SAMPLE.

Table 5.29: Distribution on the basis of Educational Qualifications.

Educational Qualifications	Frequency	Percent
Graduation with D.Ed./B.Ed.	8	20.00
Graduation with M.Ed.	1	2.50
Post–Graduation with D.Ed./B. Ed.	27	67.50
Other Qualifications	4	10.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**

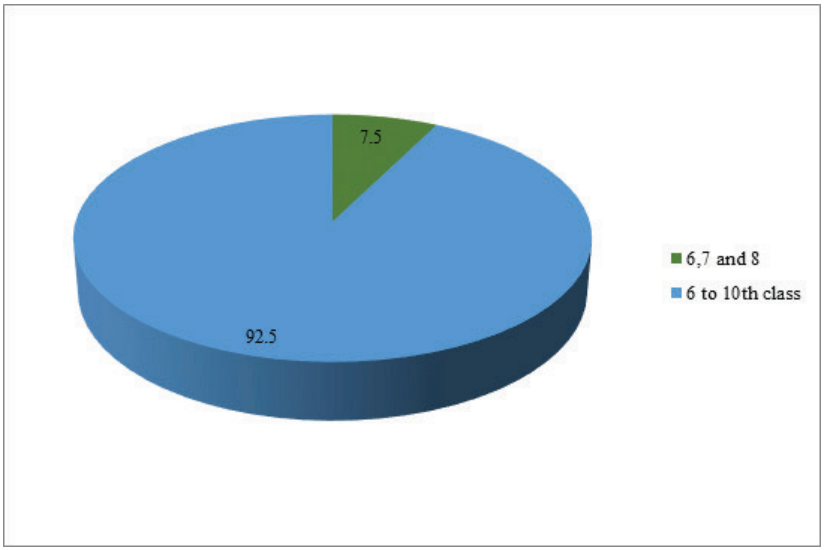


Graph 5.18: Distribution on the basis of Educational Qualifications.

The above table 5.29 shows the distribution of teacher sample with respect to their educational qualifications. Out of 40 sample teachers, 27 (67.50%) teachers working have post graduation and D.Ed./B.Ed. educational qualifications. The remaining 8 (20.00%) teachers working have degree and D.Ed./B.Ed. educational qualifications and only one teacher working has post graduation with M.Ed. educational qualification and the rest of 4 (10.00%) teachers working have other educational qualifications. Hence, it may be concluded that the majority teachers working have post graduation and D.Ed./B.Ed. educational qualifications.

Table 5.30: Distribution on the basis of Teacher Learning Strategies.

What level do you Teach	Frequency	Percent
6,7 and 8	3	7.50
6–10th class	37	92.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 5.19: Distribution on the basis of Teacher Learning Strategies.

The above table 5.30 indicates the details of classes handled by the teachers in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers, almost all teachers are teaching from 6th–10th classes in all the KGBV schools. So, it may be concluded that teachers handle 6th–10th classes in the school.

Table 5.31: Distribution on the basis of – is there Sufficient Teaching Staff are Working in the School.

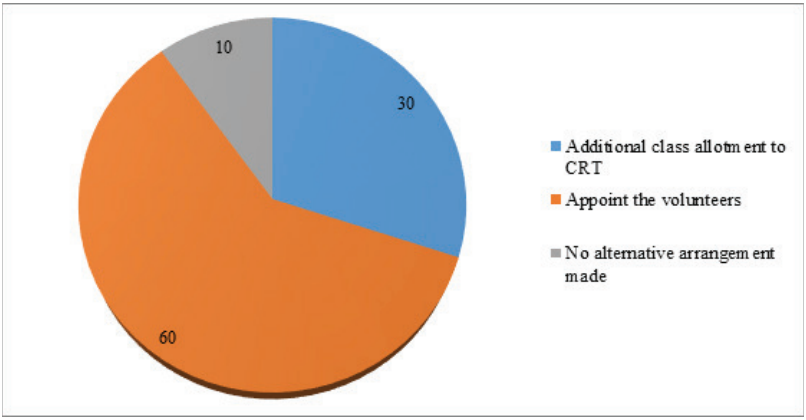
Is there sufficient teaching staff working in the school	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

Is there Sufficient Teaching Staff Working in the School ?

The above table 5.31 indicates the details of sufficient teaching staff working in the school in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers, 40 (100%) of the teachers said there is sufficient staff in the school.

Table 5.32: Distribution on the basis of – in case of teacher vacancy alternative arrangements to complete the course in time.

In case of teacher vacancy alternative arrangements to complete the course in time	Frequency	Percent
Additional class allotment to CRT	12	30.00
Appoint the volunteers	24	60.00
No alternative arrangement made	4	10.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 5.20: Distribution on the basis of – in case of teacher vacancy alternative arrangements to complete the course in time.

In Case of Teacher Vacancy Alternative Arrangements to Complete the Course in Time

The above table 5.32 reveals the details of alternative arrangements in case of teacher vacancy in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers 4 (10.00%) teachers said that in case of teacher vacancy, no alternative arrangement made in the school, whereas 12 (30.00%) teachers said that the additional classes would be allotted to them. The remaining, 24 (60.00%) teachers said that in case of teacher vacancy, the school appoints the volunteers in the sample schools.

So, it may be concluded that in majority KGBV schools the additional classes would given to the volunteer teachers.

Distribution on the Basis of – is the Time table Prescribed by the School Available and Followed by the Teacher Available

Table 5.33: Is the time table prescribed by the school available and followed by the teacher available.

Teacher Available	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

Is the Time table Prescribed by the School Available and Followed by the Teacher Available?

The above table 5.33 presents the Time Table Prescribed by the School Available and whether Followed by the Teacher Available. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) teachers stated that Time Table Prescribed by the School Available and Followed by the Teacher.

Distribution on the Basis of – is the Teacher Diary Containing Period Plans Maintained by the Teacher or Not?

Table 5.34: Is the teacher diary containing period plans maintained by the teacher or not.

Teacher diary containing period plans maintained by the teacher or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

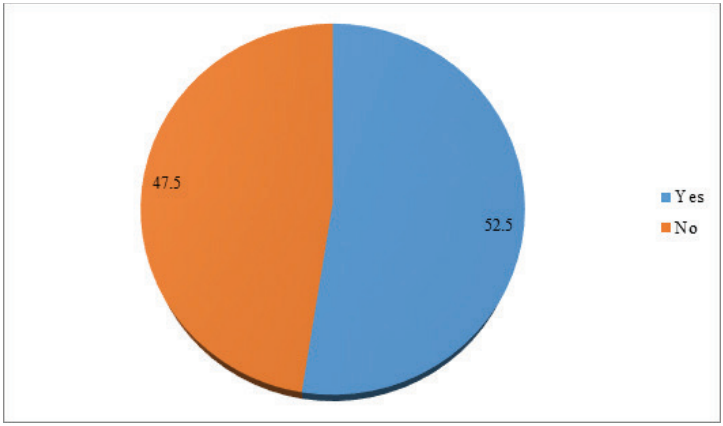
Is the Teacher Diary Containing Period Plans Maintained by the Teacher or not?

The above table 5.34 presents the details of maintenance of diary– cum– period plans by the teachers. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) teachers stated that they are maintaining the diary containing period plans.

Distribution on the Basis of – are Individualized Educational plan Prepared for CWSN

Table 5.35: Are individualized educational plan prepared for CWSN.

Individualized educational plan prepared for CWSN	Frequency	Percent
Yes	21	52.50
No	19	47.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 5.21: Are individualized educational plan prepared for CWSN.

The above table 5.35 presents the details of Individualized Educational Plan Prepared for CWSN. Out of 40 sample teachers 21 (52.50%) teachers that Educational Plan was Prepared for CWSN while 19 (47.50) stated that Educational Plan is not Prepared for CWSN.

Table 5.36: Are remedial teaching classes arranged for academically weaker students.

Is remedial teaching classes arranged for academically weaker students	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

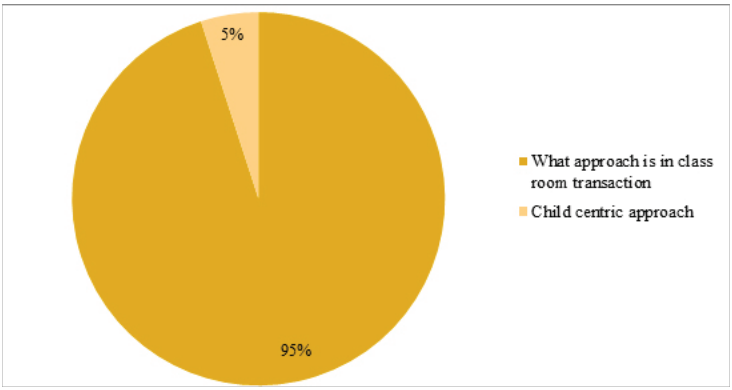
Is Remedial Teaching classes Arranged for Academically Weaker Students?

The above table 5.36 presents the details of Remedial Teaching Classes arranged for academically weaker students. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) teachers stated that Remedial Teaching Classes were arranged for academically weaker students.

Distribution on the Basis of Class room and School Activities

Table 5.37: Class room and school activities.

Class room and school activities	Frequency	Percent
What approach is in class room transaction	38	95.00
Child centric approach	2	5.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 22: Class room and school activities.

The data presented in the above table 5.37 reveals the details of approaches and methods adopted by the teachers. Out of 40 sample teachers 02 (5.00%) teachers said that they were following the child centric approach in the teaching/ learning process, whereas 38 (95.00%) teachers said that approach is in class room transaction.

Thus, it may be concluded that the majority of KGBV teachers follow the approach and activity methods in teaching/learning process.

Distribution on the Basis of Whether Activity–based Teaching method is being used while Teaching or not

Table 5.38: Whether activity–based teaching method is using while teaching or not.

Whether activity–based teaching method is using while teaching or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

Whether Activity based Teaching method is used while Teaching or not

The above table 5.38 presents whether the activity based Teaching Method is being used While Teaching. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) teachers stated that activity Based Teaching Method Is being used While Teaching.

Distribution on the basis of Whether Teacher using Teaching Learning material or not

Table 5.39: Whether teacher using teaching learning material or not whether teacher using Teaching/Learning material or not.

Whether teacher using teaching learning material or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.39 presents whether the Teaching/Learning Material are used or Not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) teachers used the Teaching/ Learning Material.

Distribution on the basis of Whether Students are Participating Actively in Teaching/learning Process

Table 5.40: Whether students are participating actively in teaching learning process.

Whether students are participating actively in teaching/learning process	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

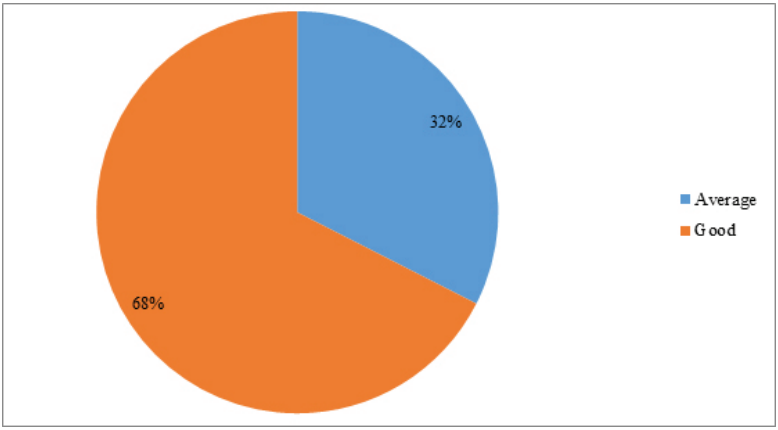
Whether Students are Participating Actively in Teaching/learning Process

The above table 5.40 presents whether the Students Are Participating Actively in Teaching/Learning Process. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) stated that students are participating actively in Teaching/Learning Process.

Distribution on the basis of how is the Achievement levels of the Students in the School

Table 5.41: How are the achievement levels of the students in the school.

How are the achievement levels of the students in the school	Frequency	Percent
Average	13	32.50
Good	27	67.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 5.23: How is the achievement levels of the students in the school.

The above table 5.41 reveals the Achievement Levels Of the Students in The School. Out of 40 sample teachers 27 (67.50%) who stated Good said that the supervisory study periods are being organized, whereas 2 (4.25%) teachers viewed that there are no supervisory study periods being organized.

As far as organization of self study periods are concerned 40 (85.1%) teachers said the self study periods are being organized, whereas 7 (14.8%) teachers said that there are no self study classes organized for the children.

Hence, it can be concluded that in the majority sample KGBV schools supervisory and self study classes, are being organized.

Distribution on the Basis of Whether Students are Having Interest towards their Study or not

Table 5.42: Whether students are having interest towards their study or not.

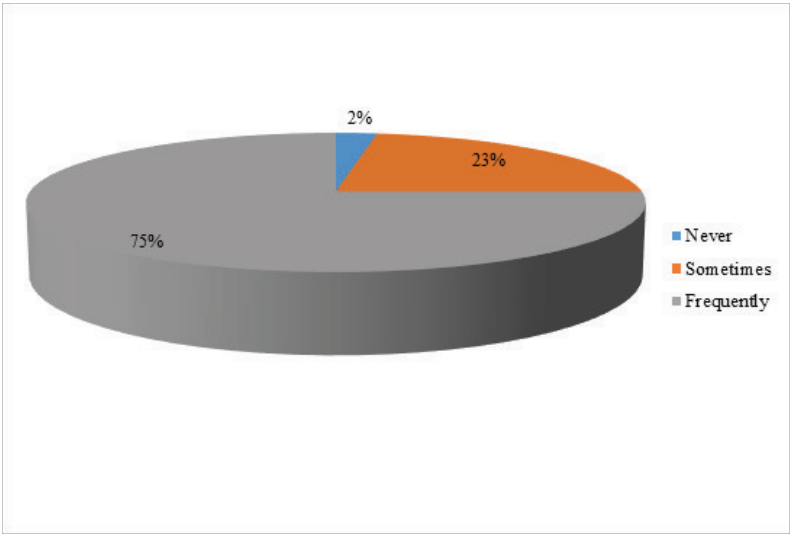
Whether students are having interest towards their study or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.42 presents Whether Students have Interest towards Their Studies or Not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) claimed that Students have Interest towards Their Studies.

Distribution on the Basis of Whether the Students Submit their Homework Regularly or not

Table 5.43: Whether the students submit their homework regularly or not.

Whether the students submit their homework regularly or not	Frequency	Percent
Never	1	2.50
Sometimes	9	22.50
Frequently	30	75.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 5.24: Whether the students submit their homework regularly or not.

The above table 5.43 presents whether the Students Submit Their Home Work regularly or not. Out of 40 sample teachers 30 (75.00%) said, Yes the Students Submit Their Home Work regularly, 09 (22.50%) said the Students Submit Their Home Work Sometimes and only 01 (2.50%) said that students never submit their homework regularly.

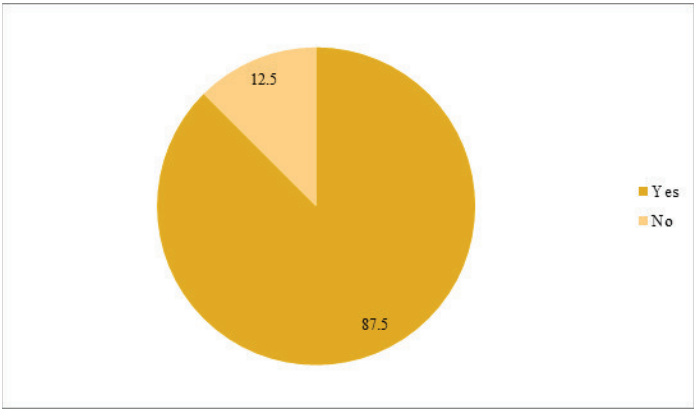
Table 5.44: Whether subject club activities are being organized or not.

Whether subject club activities are being organized or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.44 presents Whether Subject Club Activities Are Being Organized or Not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) Subject Club Activities Are Being Organized.

Table 5.45: Whether science experiments are being demonstrated or not.

Whether science experiments are being demonstrated or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	35	87.50
No	5	12.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 25: Whether science experiments are being demonstrated or not

The above table 5.45 presents Whether Science Experiments Are Being Demonstrated or Not. Out of 40 sample teachers 35 (87.50%) said "Yes the science experiments are being demonstrated by the Teacher" while only 05 (12.50%) said the science experiments are not demonstrated by the Teacher.

Table 5.46: Whether supervisory study periods are being organized or not.

Whether supervisory study periods are being organized or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.46 presents Whether Supervisory Study Periods Are Being Organized or Not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said that Subject Supervisory Study Periods Are Being Organized.

Table 5.47: Whether the teachers allot projects to children as prescribed in their text books or not.

Whether the teachers allot projects to children as prescribed in their text books or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.47 presents that the Whether the Teacher Allots the Child Projects as Prescribed in Their Text Books or Not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) the Teacher Allots the Child Projects as Prescribed in Their Text Books.

Table 5.48: Do the Teachers complete the prescribed syllabus on time.

Do the teachers complete the prescribed syllabus on time	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.48 presents whether the Teachers Complete the Prescribed Syllabus on Time. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) teachers said that Teacher Complete the Prescribed Syllabus on Time.

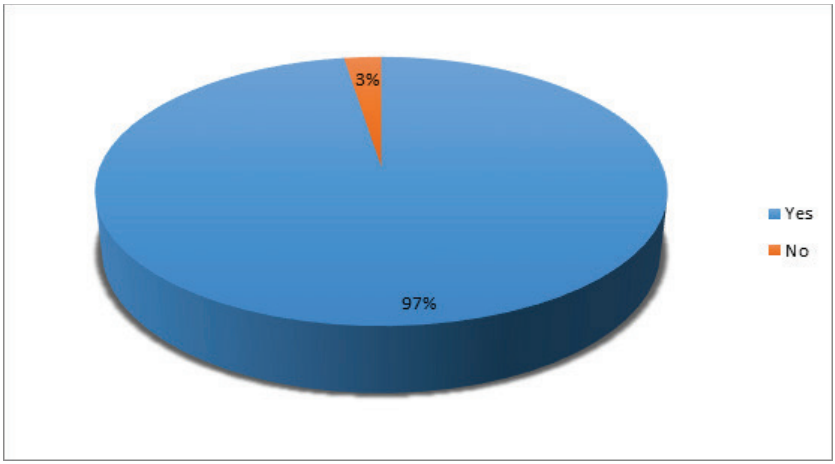
Table 5.49: Whether innovative activities are being organized or nor.

Whether innovative activities are being organized or nor	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.49 presents Whether Innovative Activities Are Being Organized or Not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) agreed that Innovative Activities are Being Organized.

Table 5.50: Do the computer education classes are being conducted regularly.

Do the computer education classes are being conducted regularly	Frequency	Percent
Yes	39	97.50
No	1	2.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**



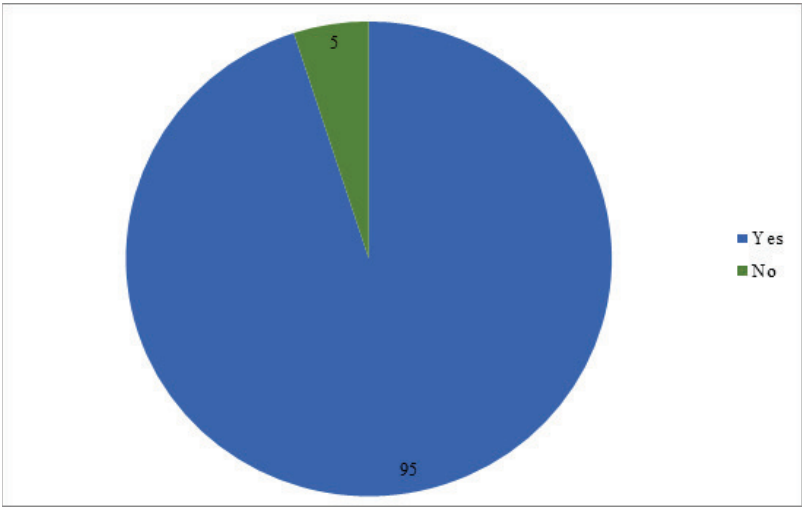
Graph 5.26: Do the computer education classes are being conducted regularly.

The above table 5.50 presents whether the Computer Education Classes Are Being Conducted Regularly. Out of 40 sample teachers 39 (97.50%) said yes the Computer Education Classes Are Being Conducted and only 01 (2.50%) said that Computer Education Classes are not Being Conducted.

Table 5.51: Whether the Vocational Education classes are being Conducted or not.

Whether the vocational education classes are being conducted or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	38	95.00
No	2	5.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**

The above table 5.51 presents Whether the Vocational Education Classes Are Being Conducted or Not. Out of 40 sample teachers 38 (95.00%) said yes the Vocational Education Classes Are Being Conducted and only 02 (5.00%) said that no Vocational Education Classes Are Being Conducted.

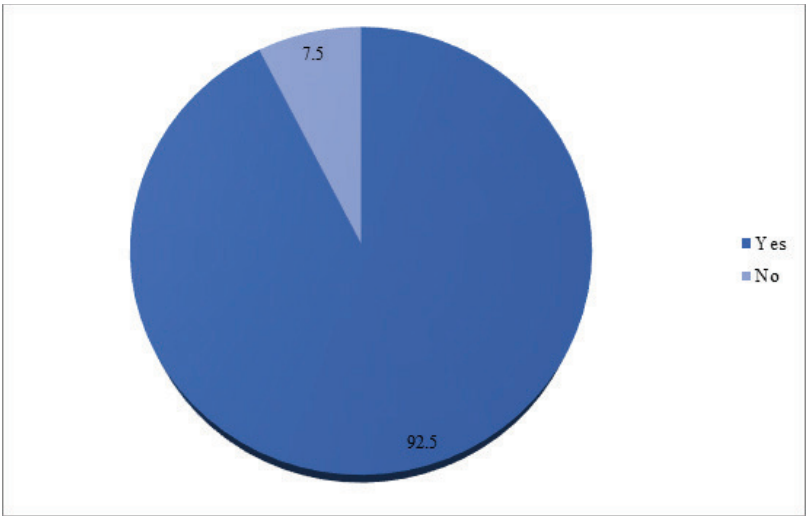


Graph 5.27: Whether the vocational education class are being conducted or not.

Table 5.52: Are the physical education and yoga classes being conducted.

Are the physical education and yoga classes are being conducted	Frequency	Percent
Yes	37	92.50
No	3	7.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**

The above table 5.52 presents whether the Physical Education and Yoga Classes Are Being Conducted. Out of 40 sample teachers 37 (92.50%) said yes the physical education classes are being conducted and 3 (7.50%) said that no physical education classes are being conducted.



Graph 5.28: Are the physical education and yoga classes being conducted.

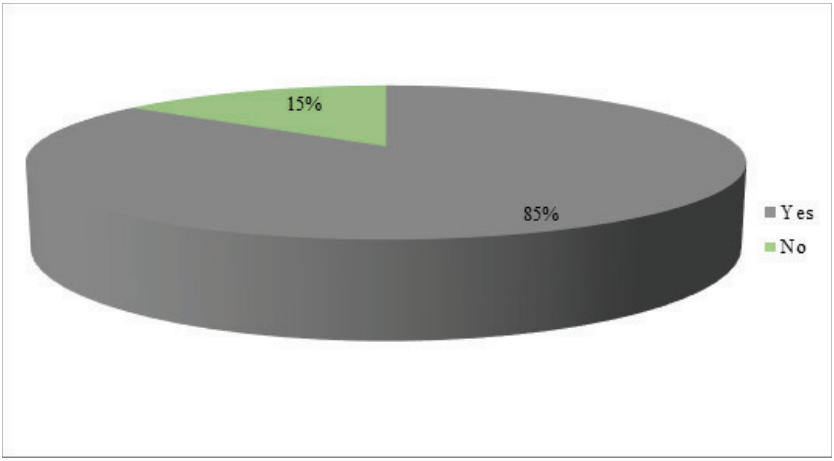
Table 5.53: Are remedial instruction is given to slow learners or not

Are the remedial instruction is given to slow learners or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.53 presents whether the remedial instruction is given to slow learners or not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said that remedial instruction is given to slow learners.

Table 5.54: Do reading room activities are being conducted regularly.

Do reading room activities are being conducted regularly	Frequency	Percent
Yes	34	85.00
No	6	15.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 5.29: Do reading room activities are being conducted regularly.

The above table 5.54 presents whether reading room activities are being conducted regularly. Out of 40 sample teachers 34 (85.00%) said yes reading room activities are being conducted regularly and 6 (15.00%) said no reading room activities are being conducted regularly.

Table 5.55: Whether the cultural activities are being organized regularly

Whether the cultural activities are being organized regularly	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.55 presents whether the cultural activities are being organized regularly. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said that cultural activities are being organized regularly.

Table 5.56: Is KGBV school implementing a continuous and comprehensive Evaluation or not.

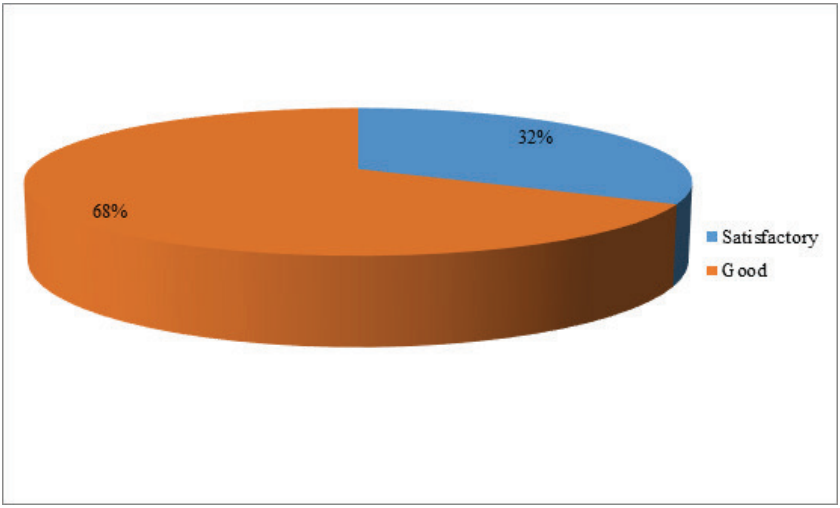
Is KGBV school implementing the continuous and comprehensive Evaluation or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.56 presents whether the KGBV school is implementing the continuous and comprehensive Evaluation or not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said that KGBV school is implementing the continuous and comprehensive Evaluation.

Community Participation

Table 5.57: Community Participation.

Community Participation	Frequency	Percent
Satisfactory	13	32.50
Good	27	67.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**

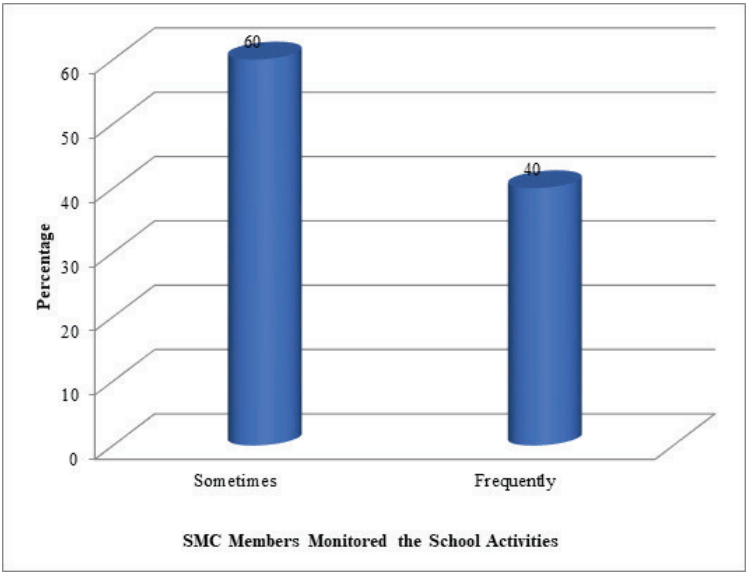


Graph 5.30: Community Participation.

The above table 5.57 presents the Community Participation in KGBV. Out of 40 sample teachers 13 (32.50%) said that community participation is Satisfactory, while 27 (67.50%) said that community participation is Good.

Table 5.58: Whether the SMC members monitored the school activities.

Whether the SMC members monitored the school activities	Frequency	Percent
Sometimes	24	60.00
Frequently	16	40.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**

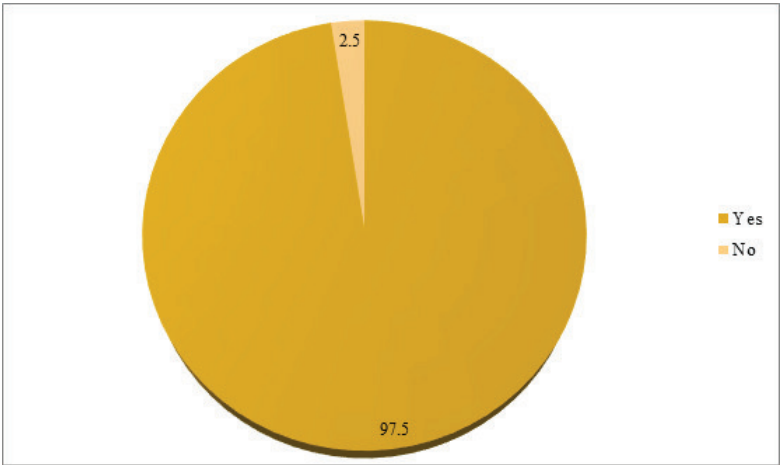


Graph 5.31: Whether the SMC members monitored the school activities.

The above table 5.58 presents whether the SMC members monitored the school activities. Out of 40 sample teachers 24 (60.00%) said that SMC members monitored the school activities Sometimes while 16 (40.00%) said that SMC members monitored the school activities frequently.

Table 5.59: Do present prefer to admit their daughters into the KGBV.

Do present prefer to admit their daughters into the KGBV	Frequency	Percent
Yes	39	97.50
No	1	2.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**



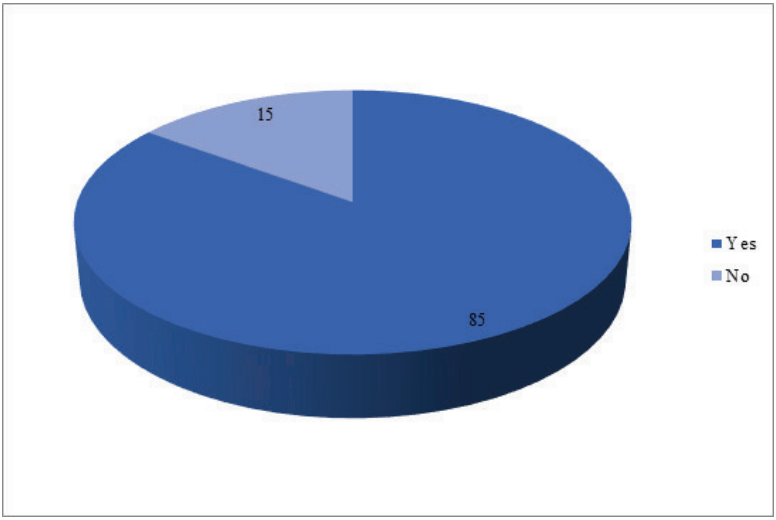
Graph 5.32: Do present prefer to admit their daughters into the KGBV.

The above table 5.59 shows whether the present admit their daughters into KGBV. Out of 40 sample teachers 39 (97.50%) said that they prefer to admit their daughters into KGBV while 01 (2.50%) said that they do not prefer to admit their daughters into the KGBV.

Teachers In Service Trainings

Table 5.60: Do the teachers possess professional training qualifications as mandated.

Teachers in service trainings	Frequency	Percent
Yes	34	85.00
No	6	15.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**

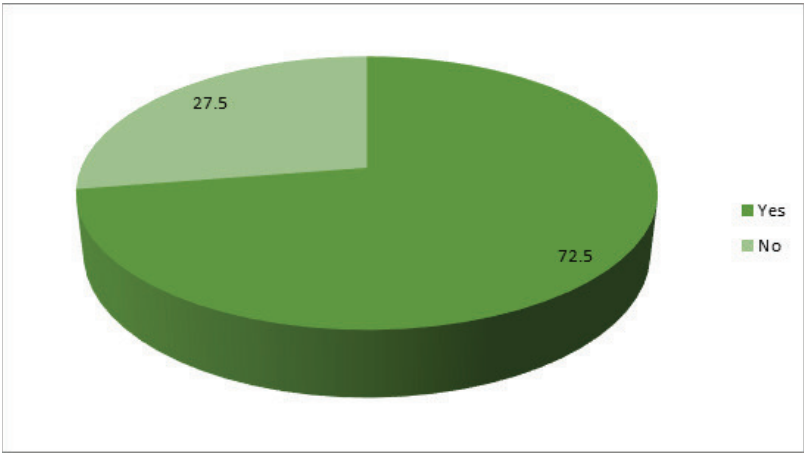


Graph 5.33: Do the teachers possess professional training qualifications as mandated.

The above table 5.60 presents whether teachers possess professional training qualifications as mandated. Out of 40 sample teachers 34 (85.00%) said that they possess professional training qualifications as mandated while 6 (15.00%) said that they do not possess professional training qualifications as mandated.

Table 5.61: Have the respondent had attended any in service training before.

Have the respondent had attended any in service training before	Frequency	Percent
Yes	29	72.50
No	11	27.50
Total	40	100.00

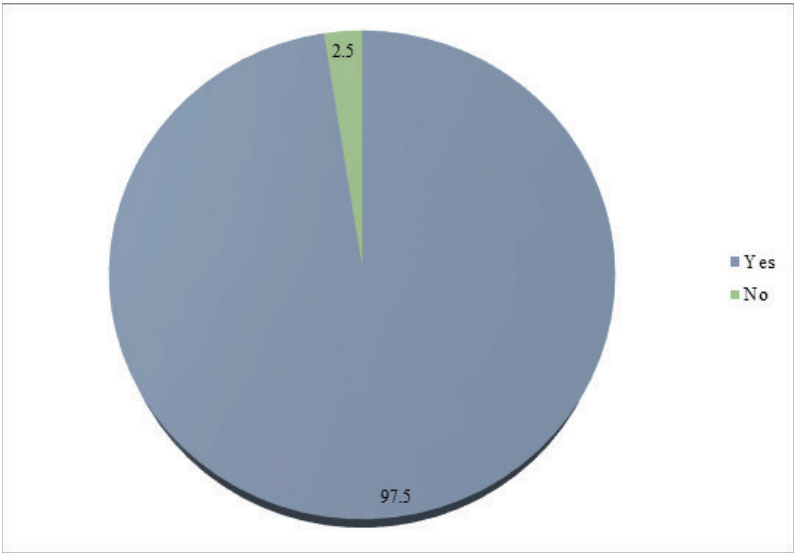


Graph 5.34: Have the respondent had attended any in service training before.

The above table 5.61 presents whether the respondents had attended any in service training before. Out of 40 sample teachers 29 (72.50%) said that they possess service training experience before while 11 (27.50%) said that they do not possess service training before.

Table 5.62: Whether the teacher/CRT are trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation.

Whether the teacher/CRT are trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation	Frequency	Percent
Yes	39	97.50
No	1	2.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**

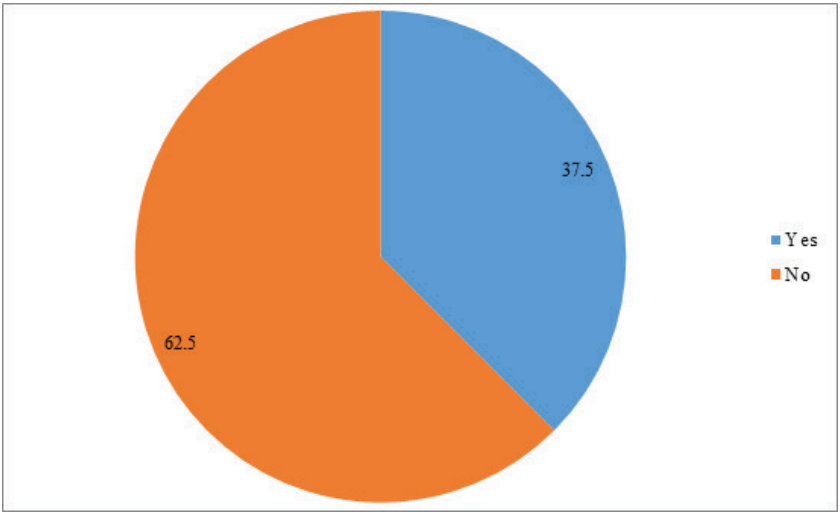


Graph 5.35: Whether the teacher/CRT are trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation.

The above table 5.62 presents whether the teacher/CRT are trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation. Out of 40 sample teachers 39 (97.50%) said yes the teacher/CRT are trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation while 01 (2.50%) said no the teacher/CRT are not trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation.

Table 5.63: Whether teachers/CRTs received includes training for dealing with CWSN students.

	Whether teachers/CRTs received includes training for dealing with CWSN students	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	15	37.50
	No	25	62.50
	Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 5.36: Whether teachers/CRTs received includes training for dealing with CWSN students.

The above table 5.63 presents whether teachers/CRTs received includes training for dealing with CWSN students. Out of 40 sample teachers 15 (37.50%) said yes teachers/CRTs received includes training for dealing with CWSN students while 25 (62.50%) said no teachers/CRTs received includes training for dealing with CWSN students.

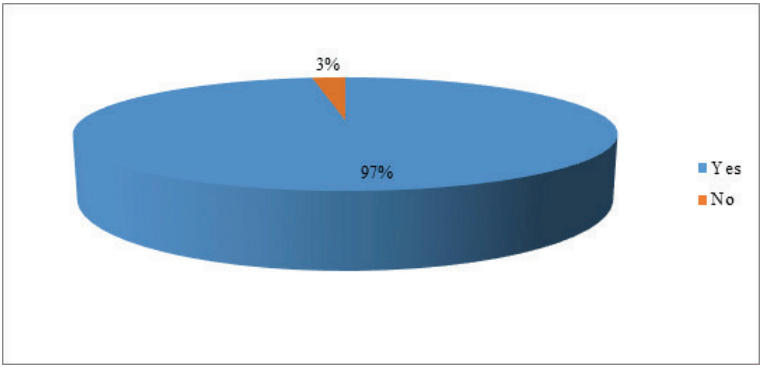
Table 5.64: Are Teacher/CRTs trained using the new technologies for imparting the lessons in class room.

Are teacher/CRTs trained using the new technologies for imparting the lessons in class room	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.64 presents whether teacher/CRTs trained are using the new technologies for imparting the lessons in class room. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said yes teacher/CRTs are trained in using the new technologies for imparting the lessons in the classroom.

Table 5.65: Whether the teacher/CRT are undergone training on new.

Whether the teacher/CRT are undergone training on new	Frequency	Percent
Yes	39	97.50
No	1	2.50
Total	40	100.00

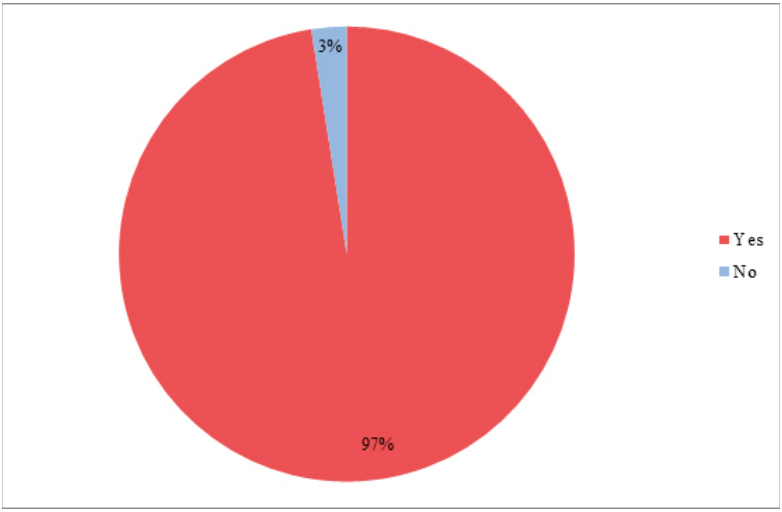


Graph 5.37: Whether the teacher/CRT are undergone training on new.

The above table 5.65 presents whether the teacher/CRT have undergone training on new techniques. Out of 40 sample teachers 39 (97.50%) said yes teacher/CRT have undergone training while 01 (2.50%) said no teacher/CRT has undergone training.

Table 5.66: Whether the Teacher/CRT are trained on Right to education Act–2009 or not.

Whether the Teacher/CRT are trained on Right to education Act–2009 or not	Frequency	Percent
Yes	39	97.50
No	1	2.50
Total	**40**	**100.00**

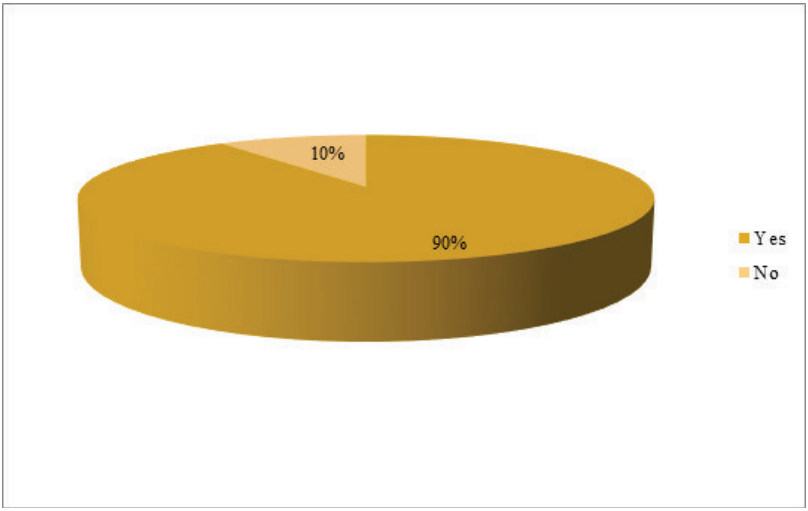


Graph 5.38: Whether the Teacher/CRT are trained on Right to education Act–2009 or not.

The above table 5.66 presents whether the teacher/CRT are trained on Right to education Act–2009 or not. Out of 40 sample teachers 39 (97.50%) said they have undergone training on Right to education Act–2009, while 01 (2.50%) said, no, they have not undergone training on Right to education Act–2009.

Table 5.67: Did in service training programs help the teacher in teaching.

Did in service training programs help the teacher in teaching	Frequency	Percent
Yes	36	90.00
No	4	10.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**



Graph 5.39: Did in service training programs help the teacher in teaching.

The above table 6.67 presents whether in–service training programs help the teacher in teaching. Out of 40 sample teachers 36 (90.00%) said yes service training programs help the teacher in teaching while only 04 (10.00%) said no service training programs do not help the teacher in teaching.

Change Inattitude

Table 5.68: Change in attitude.

Change in attitude	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.68 presents whether in–service training programs help the teacher in changing attitude. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said yes in–service training programs help the teacher in changing attitude.

Gain Knowledge

Table 5.69: Gain Knowledge.

Gain Knowledge	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.69 presents in–service training programs help the teacher in Gaining knowledge. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said yes service training programs help the teacher in Gaining knowledge.

Enhancing Teaching Skills

Table 5.70: Enhancing Teaching Skills

Enhancing teaching skills	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.70 presents that in–service training programs help the teacher in enhancing teaching skills. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said yes service training programs help the teacher in enhancing teaching skills.

Improves the Confidence Level

Table 5.71: Improves the Confidence Level

Improves the confidence level	Frequency	Percent
Yes	40	100.00

The above table 5.71 presents that in–service training programs help to Improve the confidence level of the teachers. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said yes service training programs help to Improve the confidence level of the teacher.

Chapter 6

Summary And Conclusion

In today's world, the importance of a girl's education cannot be overstated. There were a number of convincing arguments in favour of females' education. Education is the key to all human growth processes, according to the development paradigm. It enables individuals to become self–sufficient and to participate in the National development process. Education's importance is widely acknowledged, and in most countries, education is viewed as an element of religion and modernization. Education is a fundamental right, according to the United Nations charter on fundamental rights. It is critical to the nations and human resource development. Under Article 45 of the Indian constitution, India has made National efforts to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14. Education was recognized a concurrent subject in the mid–1970s, implying a serious partnership between the federal and state Governments.

The Indian Government has placed a great premium on females' education. The Government of India approved and launched the KGBV Scheme in the year 2005. The KGBV schools were formed to help dropout girls from social groups like Scheduled Caste, Scheduled Tribe, Backward Class, and Minorities in challenging places get an education. These schools have a significant impact on the status of girls' education at the primary level. To ensure that the provisions made for the growth of female education are followed.

6.1 Major Findings

6.1.1 Students Parents Schedule

- The distribution of sample with respect to Mandal: Out of 260 (100%) samples each Mandal has in the equal frequency of 52 (20.00%). There are five Mandals included in the study; these are Kalyanadurgam, Bathalapalli, Pamidi, Bukkapatnam, Samendapalli.

- The distribution of sample with respect to class. In this, out of 260 (100%) of samples 130 (50%) is that of student and 130 (50%) of parents. Both are in the equal ratio.
- Distribution of student sample with respect to class. Out of 260 (100%) of sample students, all are girls and selected from 8th and 9th classes. Hence, it may be concluded that 8th and 9th class girls of KGBV took equal part in the selected sample schools.
- Distribution of student sample with respect to their age, Out of 260 sample students 151 (58.07%), students are in the age group of above 14 years, followed by 109 (41.92%) students in the age of 12–14 years. Thus, it may be concluded that the majority students are from above 14 years of age group in the sample.
- The distribution of student sample with respect to father's education. Out of 260 sample students 108 (41.50%) student's fathers are illiterates, followed by 80 (30.80%) fathers with SSC and below education. In the remaining, 24 (9.20%) fathers have intermediate qualification, followed by 10 (3.80%) fathers who are having graduation and 3 (1.20%) fathers who have post–graduation qualification and the other are 35 (13.50%) Hence, it may be concluded that the majority of students' fathers are illiterates in the sample.
- The class wise comparison of perception scores of the students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The perception score of students is 195.11percent, followed by Parents' 185.86%.
- The class versus students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools: In this, the t–ratio is 7.339** which are higher than the table value found to be significant at 0.05 levels.
- Hence, it may be concluded that the class of students has influence on student's perceptions towards the functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools.
- The class wise comparison of perception scores of the students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha GandhiBalika Vidyalaya schools. The perception score of 10th class students is 194.31%, followed by 9th class students is 186.66%.
- The class versus students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. In this, the t– ratio is 5.878** which are higher than the table value 3.03 found to be significant at 0.05 levels.

- Hence, it may be concluded that the class of students has influence on students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools.
- The age group wise comparison of perception scores of the students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The perception score of students whose age is above 14 years is 193.64% above 14 years age group students is 186.11% followed by 12–14 years age group students So, it may be concluded that the perception score 193.64% of students whose age is 14 years above is found high.
- The age wise comparison of perception scores of students' perception towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. It indicates that the obtained t ratio is 5.693**. There is a significant influence of students' age on perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturbha Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the age of students has a significant influence on students' perceptions towards the functioning of the KGBV schools.
- The community wise comparison of perception score of students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The schedule caste students mean score is 185.73%, followed by minority community students perception score is 203.78%, and backward class students mean score is 190.35%. From the remaining sample other caste, scheduled tribe students perception scores are 198.83% and 187.91% respectively. Hence, it may be concluded that Minority Community students have high perception score and Scheduled Caste students have low perception scores in the sample.
- The community wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools. The analysis of variance indicates the obtained F ratio is 16.559 higher than the table value at 0.01 level. Therefore, there is a significant influence of community on the students' perceptions towards the functioning of the KGBV schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the community has significant influence on students' perceptions.
- The father's education wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The students' whose father's education is intermediate have a perception score of 191.17%,

followed by students whose father's are post graduation with 182.33%, the graduate fathers' is 207.6% and fathers' whose education is SSC and below is 191.3% and the remaining whose fathers' education is nil the perception score is 187.35%. Hence, it may be concluded that students whose fathers' educational qualification is Graduation has a high perception score and Intermediate fathers have low perception score in the sample.

- The father education versus students' perceptions towards functioning of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools: The analysis of variance for fathers' education indicates the obtained F– value of 8.471, which is more than table value at 0.01 levels. Therefore there is significant influence of fathers' education of students on students' perceptions towards the functioning of KGBV schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the fathers' education on students has significant influence on students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools.
- The mothers' education wise comparison of perception scores of students with perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools. The mean score of students whose mothers possess intermediate is 189.09%, followed by graduate mothers at 207.25%, whose mothers' education is SSC and below the perception score is 193% and illiterate mother perception score is 187.74%. So, it may be concluded that the students whose mothers' possess Graduation have high perception score than others. The students whose mothers' are illiterates have low perception score in the sample.
- The mothers' education wise comparison of perception scores of students with perceptions towards the functioning of the KGBV schools: The analysis of variance obtained F ratio 13.741 is more than the table value of 0.01 levels. Therefore there is significant influence of mothers' education on students' perceptions towards the functioning of the KGBV schools. Hence, it may be concluded that the mothers' education of students has a significant influence on Students' perceptions towards functioning of the KGBV schools.
- The family annual income wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards the functioning of the KGBV schools. The perception score of students whose family income is above Rs.1,00,000 is 204.67%, followed by students family income Rs. 75,001 to Rs.1,00,000 perception score being 208.67% and students, whose family income is Rs.50, 001 to Rs.75, 000 perception score is 191.27% in the sample the remaining Rs 25,001

to Rs.50, 000, Rs.10, 001 to Rs.25, 000 and below Rs.10, 000 students' family income are 190.64%, 187.55% and 186.59%, respectively

- So, it may be concluded that the students, whose family income is Rs.75001–100000 have a high perception score. The students', whose family income is below Rs. 10,000, have low perception score.
- The family annual income wise comparison of perception scores of students' perceptions towards the functioning of the KGBV schools. The obtained F value is 12.912 which is found to be significant at 0.05 levels. Therefore, there is significant influence of students' family annual income in students' perceptions in the sample schools.
- Hence, it may be concluded that the family annual income has significant influence on the students' perceptions towards functioning of KGBV Schools.
- The Mandal wise difference of the Parents and students perception towards the functioning of the KGBV schools. The obtained F value is 23.736 which is found to be significant at 0.05 levels. Therefore, there is significant influence of Mandal wise difference of the Parents and students perception in the sample schools.
- Hence, it may be concluded that the Mandal wise difference of the Parents and students perception towards functioning of KGBV Schools is significant.

6.1.2 Teachers Schedule

- The distribution of the teacher sample with respect to Mandal code in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers, 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Kalyandurg, 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Bathalapalli, 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Pamidi, 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Bukkapatnam and 8 (20.00%) teachers are of Somandepalli in the sample.
- The distribution of the teacher sample with respect to designation in the sample: Out of 40 sample teachers, 33 (82.50%) teachers are on Contract basis and only 7 (17.50%) teachers are Residential Teachers.
- The distribution of the teacher sample with respect to gender in the sample: Out of 40 sample teachers, 39 (97.50%) teachers are female and only 1 (2.50%) teacher is male.
- The distribution of the teacher sample with respect to age in the sample. Out of 40 sample teachers, 3 (7.50%) teachers are in the age group of 25–30 years,

followed by 24 (60.00%) teachers who are in the age group of 31–35 years. It is also observed that out of 40 samples 9 (22.50%) teachers are in the age group of 36–40 years. The remaining, 4 (10.00%) teachers are in the age below 25 years and above 40 years. So, it may be concluded that the majority of teachers are working in the age group of 31–35 years in the sample schools.

- The distribution of teacher sample with respect to subject handled by them: Out of 40 sample teachers, 18 (45.00%) teachers are teaching non–language subjects, followed by 16 (40.00%) teachers teaching language subjects in the sample. In the remaining 6 (15.00%) teachers are teaching other subjects. Hence, it may be concluded that the majority of teachers are teaching non–language subjects, followed by language teachers in the SAMPLE.
- The distribution of teacher sample with respect to their educational qualifications. Out of 40 sample teachers, 27 (67.50%) teachers are working with post graduation and D.Ed./B.Ed. educational qualifications. The remaining 8 (20.00%) teachers are working with degree and D.Ed./B. Ed. educational qualifications and only one teacher is working with post graduation with M.Ed. educational qualifications and the rest of 4 (10.00%) teachers are working with other educational qualifications. Hence, it may be concluded that the majority teachers working have post graduation and D.Ed./B.Ed. educational qualifications.
- The details of approaches and methods adopted by the teachers. Out of 40 sample teachers 02 (5.00%) teachers said that they were following the child centric approach in teaching/learning process, whereas 38 (95.00%) teacher said that their approach is in class room transaction. So, it may be concluded that the majority KGBV teachers are following the approach and activity methods in the teaching/learning process.
- The KGBV school is implementing the continuous and comprehensive Evaluation or not. Out of 40 sample teachers 40 (100%) said that KGBV school is implementing the continuous and comprehensive Evaluation

6.1.3 Community Participation

- The Community Participation: Out of 40 sample teachers, 13 (32.50%) said that community participation is Satisfactory while 27 (67.50%) said that community participation is Good.

- The SMC members monitored the school activities: Out of 40 sample teachers, 24 (60.00%) said that SMC members monitored the school activities sometimes while 16 (40.00%) said that SMC members monitored the school activities frequently.
- The presents to admit their daughters into KGBV. Out of 40 sample teachers 39 (97.50%) said that they prefer to admit their daughters into KGBV while 01 (2.50%) said that they do not prefer to admit their daughters into KGBV.

6.1.4 Teachers in Service Trainings

- Whether the presents teacher possess professional training qualifications that are mandated. Out of 40 sample teachers 34 (85.00%) said that they possess professional training qualifications mandated while 6 (15.00%) said that they do not possess professional training qualifications as mandated.
- Whether the present respondents had attended any in service training before: Out of 40 sample teachers, 29 (72.50%) said that they possess service training gained before, while 11 (27.50%) said that they do not possess service training gained before.
- The above table presents whether the teacher/CRT are trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation. Out of 40 sample teachers 39 (97.50%) said yes the teacher/CRT are trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation while 01 (2.50%) said no the teacher/CRT are not trained in continuous comprehensive evaluation.
- Whether the present teachers/CRTs received includes training for dealing with CWSN students. Out of 40 sample teachers 15 (37.50%) said yes teachers/CRTs received training that include method for dealing with CWSN students while 25 (62.50%) said no teachers/CRTs received no training for dealing with CWSN students.
- Whether the present that teacher/CRTs trained using the new technologies for imparting the lessons in class room: Out of 40 sample teachers, 40 (100%) said that yes teacher/CRTs trained in using the new technologies for imparting the lessons in class room.
- Whether the present the teacher/CRT have undergone training on new technologies: Out of 40 sample teachers, 39 (97.50%) said yes teacher/CRTs have undergone training while 01 (2.50%) said no the teacher/CRTs have not undergone training.

- Whether the present the teacher/CRT are trained on Right to education Act–2009 or not. Out of 40 sample teachers, 39 (97.50%) said yes they had undergone training on Right to education Act–2009 while 01 (2.50%) said no they have not undergone training on Right to education Act–2009.
- Whether the in service training programs help the teacher in teaching: Out of 40 sample teachers, 36 (90.00%) said yes service training programs help the teacher in teaching while only 04 (10.00%) said no service training programs do not help the teacher in teaching.
- Whether their in service training programs help the teacher in changing attitude: Out of 40 sample teachers, 40 (100%) said yes service training programs help the teacher in changing attitude.
- Whether in service training programs help the teacher in Gaining knowledge: Out of 40 sample teachers, 40 (100%) said yes service training programs help the teacher in Gaining knowledge.
- Whether in service training programs help the teacher in enhancing teaching skills: Out of 40 sample teachers, 40 (100%) said yes service training programs help the teacher in enhancing teaching skills.
- Whether in service training programs helps to Improves the confidence level of the teacher: Out of 40 sample teachers, 40 (100%) said yes service training programs helps to Improves the confidence level of the teacher.

6.2 Discussion

Education is essential at all stages of human growth. Individuals are empowered to become self–sufficient, and they are able to participate in the National development process. Education functions as a societal integrator, imparting principles that promote social cohesiveness and National identity. In today's world, the significance of education cannot be overstated. The education of girls is critical to the long–term success of any programme. It is the single most significant way for people to improve their personal endowments, build competence levels, overcome limits, and make better choices in order to improve their well–being through time. Girls' education has several compelling benefits, including improved child nutrition and health, lower fertility rates, increased women's domestic role and political participation, increased economic productivity and growth, and protection of girls from severe diseases and exploitation, among others.

The South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation designated the years 1991–2000 as the decade of the girl child in 1981. The period 2001–2010 has been designated as the SAARC Decade of Children's Rights, with 1990 designated as the SAARC Year of the Girl Child. Under Article 45 of the Indian constitution, India established a National commitment to provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14. Education was established as a concurrent subject in the mid–1970s, implying collaboration between the federal and state Governments. Sikdar and Mukherjee, 2000, identified 20 reasons for school dropouts, categorising them into three groups: society, school, and parent–centric reasons. Following the passage of the Indian Constitution 86th Amendment Act in December 2002, the National promise to provide free and compulsory education to all children aged 6–14 years is now a Fundamental Right of every child in India. Policymakers suggested gender–specific measures to minimise gender disparities in education in the Tenth Five Year Plan (2002–2007), such as the National Plan of Education for Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL) and Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV).

In 2005, the Indian Government approved and implemented the KGBV project, which aims to establish residential schools for girls from scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, backward classes, and minority communities at the upper primary level. The scheme is only applicable in defined educationally backward blocks where, according to census data from 2001, rural female literacy is lower than the National average of 46.13% and the gender gap in literacy is more than the National average of 21.59%. The KGBV scheme's principal goal is to provide girls from underprivileged backgrounds with access to high quality education. In the state of Andhra Pradesh, the KGBV schools are managed by several organisations. The purpose of this study is to assess the KGBV schools' functioning, patterns of enrolment–attendance achievement, infrastructural facilities, student–parent perceptions, and teacher and district authorities' tactics. The researcher devised appropriate objectives, hypotheses, and instruments to assess the effectiveness of KGBV schools in Andhra Pradesh.

According to the conclusions of the study on the functioning of KGBV, special officers organise various school activities to promote girls' education, and special officers supervise teaching and other activities in KGBV schools. It also indicates that parents and community members were pleased with the schools' performance. The KGBV girls' enrolment, attendance, and accomplishment records reveal that enrolment increased year over year in every class, and attendance improved by 10%.

For the last five academic years, the majority of sample schools have shown an increase in enrolment and attendance of classes from VI to X, with the exception of 2014–15. The percentage of students that scored above 60% has declined. Teachers claim that untrained special officers are to blame for the declining attendance and a gap in student achievement of more than 60% in 2014–15.

While comparing the highest female literacy rate districts with sample KGBV school kids to the lowest female literacy rate districts with sample school children, it was discovered that the highest female literacy rate districts sample school children perform better.

Enrolment, attendance, and achievement rates in sample KGBV schools managed by the Andhra Pradesh residential educational institutions society are 88.0%, 92.6%, and 70.4%, respectively. Enrolment, attendance, and achievement rates in sample KGBV schools managed by the Andhra Pradesh tribal welfare residential educational institutions society are 90.6%, 95.8%, and 73.6%, respectively.

The KGBV management's facilities revealed that the majority of parents and community residents were extremely pleased with the infrastructural facilities, food quality, and drinking water offered to the children. The independent variables of the students' perceptions towards the functioning of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools, such as class, age, community, parents' education, parents' occupation, and family annual income, have no influence on their perceptions towards the functioning of the KGBV schools. It was discovered that KGBV students, their parents, and community members had a positive attitude toward girls' education.

Teachers conduct specified curricular, co–curricular, and extra–curricular activities such as vocational and computer training, physical and health education, subject, and cultural club activities, according to teacher ideas on teaching methodologies. Teachers at the KGBV were required to attend trainings on a regular basis in order to keep their professional abilities up to date. Teachers have difficulty teaching crucial subjects in the absence of these.

The majority of district officials organized review meetings with special officers, conducted orientation training on school administration, organized in–service orientation trainings for teachers for capacity building, organized orientation trainings for school management committees, and conducted enrolment drives for

promotion of dropped out students, according to district officials' strategies for implementing the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme. However, district administrators must take appropriate steps to educate parents, inspire good school management committee functioning, and hold advocacy meetings with parents and community members. These actions ensure that the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya scheme runs smoothly.

6.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions are formed based on the foregoing discussion and findings:

- The curricular and co–curricular activities for the advancement of girls' education are overseen by the special officers of the KGBV schools. The effectiveness of KGBV schools has been praised by parents and community groups.
- Special officials are using a variety of tactics to re–enroll dropout girls at Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools.
- The vast majority of kids will be admitted to class VI. In addition, the number of pupils enrolled in each class expanded year after year. It suggests that there is a high desire for girls to enrol in KGBV schools.
- The transition rate of students from class VI to class X is on the decline. As a result, there is a need to encourage KGBV students and their parents to keep their daughters in school until they complete their education.
- The sample schools maintained by the Andhra Pradesh residential educational institutions society have more vacant seats (i.e. 2.60% of students) than the schools controlled by the Andhra Pradesh tribal welfare residential educational institutions society. Special enrolling drives should be organised by the authority.
- When compared to the lowest female literacy districts sample schools children, the highest female rate districts KGBV school students perform better. There is a need to organise specific classes in KGBV schools in the districts with the lowest female literacy.
- In the sample, almost all KGBV schools are housed in their own buildings. It has been observed that all KGBV schools have strong infrastructural facilities, but that the dormitories are overcrowded due to the large enrolment.

- Playground facilities are offered in 75% of KGBV schools. Due to a shortage of physical education teachers, other teachers are conducting PET classes when time permits.
- The majority of parents said their children are satisfied with the services offered. They were more satisfied with the academic and extracurricular activities offered by KGBV schools.
- The parent and community organisations reported that due to a lack of boarding and lodging facilities, the majority of the girl students in KGBV's enrolled were forced to withdraw from regular primary and upper elementary schools.
- The students' class, age, and community have a considerable impact on the students' view of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya's operation.
- The education and family income of the students' moms and fathers have no bearing on the students' view of the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya's operation.
- For the entire development of the KGBV girls, the teachers place a premium on planning school curriculum and co–curricular activities.
- Teachers use a child–centered approach and activity–based teaching methods, but they rarely use teaching/learning materials or local resources in their instruction.
- For better teaching in the classroom, the majority of instructors (75%) keep a teaching diary including period plans and tailored educational plans for children with special needs.
- Almost all district officials provide orientation training for school functionaries on a regular basis.
- School management committees have been formed by the majority of district officials, but they are not functioning correctly. The school management committees can be activated by taking the appropriate measures.

6.4 Recommendations

- Based on the findings and conclusions of the current study, the following recommendations are presented. Administrators, teachers, parents, and community members would be able to improve the effective operation of KGBV schools in the Andhra Pradesh region as a result of this.

- School infrastructure and physical facilities have an impact on the promotion of girls' education. The physical facilities at the Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools are excellent. However, the amenities need to be improved.
- In the majority of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools, there is no alternative power source or steam cooking equipment in the kitchen. It must be made available.
- As there aren't enough cots in the dormitory, 30% of KGBV girls sleep on the floor. It has been revealed that all KGBV schools would be provided with enough cots and bedding.
- It is critical to provide mosquito nets in all of the KGBV schools' dorms.
- Uniforms, note books, text books, blankets, trunk boxes, and other items must be provided to the KGBV girls in a timely manner.
- The dining rooms in the majority of KGBV schools are insufficiently furnished. It must be made available.
- All of the sample schools have adequate restrooms. 50% of them were unfit for use.
- The sanitation facility in the majority of the sample schools is inadequate and unsanitary. It is necessary to repair them.
- The bulk of the teachers at KGBV School are day scholars. However, staying on campus is needed. Staff quarters should be built for this purpose.
- Institutional, lodging, and boarding arrangements for children with special needs need to be enhanced, such as the building of accessible restrooms and the procurement of equipment, among other things.
- The KGBV school administration should develop guidance and counselling centres on campus. It will be more beneficial to students, parents, and members of the community.
- The KGBV school administration should set up onsite health camps staffed by a full–time health assistant.
- During the vacation season, district administrators should assess the actual training needs of the functionaries and schedule specific trainings for capacity building.

- On a need–to–know basis, district officials must conduct in–service orientation programmes for KGBV employees to ensure active participation in the implementation of school activities.
- The district officials will use creative tactics and approaches while training school administrators.
- Special officers must receive leadership development training in order to effectively manage school activities.
- District officials must hold orientation training workshops on a regular basis to excite and include school management committees in school activities and parent advocacy meetings.
- The principles of environmental and value education are also introduced. As the KGBV is the proper place to transform knowledge in order to contribute to the future betterment of society, the KGBVs should be set upin a large number.
- The KGBV girls are usually from farmer or labourer families, and their natural ability to farm may be a source of self–sufficiency. The girls may be involved in gardening work as part of their vocational and job experience education at KGBV schools.
- Work experience and vocational training will be provided to local artisans and skilled labourers.
- For the essential shift in the accomplishment of girls, remedial teaching for slow learners must be provided.
- Although all KGBV schools have adequate teaching and learning materials, teachers rarely use them. The KGBV management must encourage the creation and usage of instructional learning materials.
- The KGBV teachers will identify creative ways to improve the learning process and will use a child–centered approach and activity–based strategies in the classroom.
- The scheduled tribe has the lowest overall student accomplishment rate of 59.31%. During the summer vacation, in addition to remedial instruction, special coaching to improve their educational levels is provided.
- Only 30% of KGBV schools organise library and reading room activities, according to the data. It appears that the library and reading room activities should be bolstered for the girls' overall growth.

- The KGBV girls are taught games/sports activities, self–defence techniques, and vocational skills in addition to subject instruction that will benefit them in the future. However, efficient implementation of such initiatives is essential.
- For inspiring and enrolling the dropped out females into the KGBV Schools, the KGBV management should engage in significant community mobilisation by including teachers, school management committees, parents, and villagers.
- Every year, roughly 5% of students vacancies are recorded in the majority of KGBV schools. Special enrolling drives should be held by the authority prior to the start of the academic year.
- There is a considerable enrolment disparity between class VI and class VII, according to the data.
- As a result, there is a need to encourage KGBV students and their parents to finish their schooling.
- The district officials should draft the annual academic calendar well in advance of the start of the academic year.
- The annual subject plans are prepared by the subject teachers in advance, taking into account available local resources.
- The project officials must prepare an action plan for strengthening monitoring and establishing proper mechanisms for accelerating KGBV school activities.
- The district officials will inspect the KGBV schools on a regular basis to ensure that they are operating properly. This would make it easier to keep track of how well the facilities and local resources are being used.
- A sufficient number of computer systems are available in the majority of KGBV schools. Computer teachers, on the other hand, are not appointed. It is possible to take action in this area.
- Teacher recruitment should be done on a regular basis in accordance with the KGBVs' topic requirements. The district administration will have a waiting list of selected contract residential instructors.

6.5 Educational Implications

By encouraging females' education, KGBV schools play a significant role in closing the gender gap. The current research study's findings have immediate

ramifications for students, instructors, and administrators. The study's educational implications were as follows:

1. The findings of this study have ramifications for both school administrators and district officials. The special officers can improve the planning, organisation, and management of various school activities by understanding the many challenges faced by KGBV girls (dropped out and never enrolled).
2. Teaching is a multi–faceted endeavour. The teacher can create appropriate teaching tactics for the KGBV girls who come from low–income families. The instructor might take precautions when creating the school schedule and preparing academic and co–curricular activities. As a result, kids can increase their academic performance.
3. The KGBV initiative aims to bridge the literacy gap between men and women by increasing girls' involvement in the primary school. Through proper functioning and promotion of girls education, KGBV schools can show significant outcomes in enrolment of girls.
4. In rural areas and impoverished populations, gender differences still exist. Only through the successful operation of Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools can it be eradicated.
5. The KGBV schools were formed to promote education, particularly for girls who had dropped out of school in remote areas. By operating KGBV schools effectively, it is possible to increase the number of girls enrolled.
6. The KGBV schools concentrated on educationally underserved areas and disadvantaged social groups. The KGBV schools will assist the girls who have dropped out of school in overcoming socio–cultural and economic barriers to receiving an elementary education.

6.6 Assumptions of the Present Study

The following were the study's assumptions:

1. All Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya schools operate in the same manner.
2. The attitudes of students, parents, and community members about the role of KGBV schools are similar.
3. To promote girls' education, all district officials and instructors are using the same tactics.

4. In the research study, all of the KGBV students filled out the perception schedule on their own.
5. No external influences influenced the responses of KGBV students, instructors, parents, or community members.

6.6 Scope for Further Research

The following are some research ideas for the future:

1. For the study, the researcher chose just eight KGBV schools. However, there was always the option of attending KGBV schools in the area.
2. There was a lot of room for doing assessment studies on how special institutions, residential schools, and ashram schools functioned.
3. The current study focuses on KGBV schools that are managed in a variety of ways. It can be taken as a stand–alone course for various management schools.
4. A comparable research study might be carried out among public and private schools, as well as other educational institutions. As a result, there was plenty of room for more investigation.

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