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The average length of a manuscript should normally be between 1500 and 2500 words. In exceptional cases, longer articles can also be accepted. Mimeographed, xeroxed, carbon copies of manuscripts will not be accepted. Manuscript should be typed double space, on one side, with a 2" margin on A4 size paper. Footnotes and references should come at the end and not on every page. Authors are requested to submit a soft copy along with the CD (MS Word). Articles can be sent by E-mail to iaeaindia@yahoo.com, iaeadelhi@gmail.com

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Editor's Note

Indian Adult Education Association wishes all the readers a Happy and Prosperous New Year 2011.

The Indian Journal has completed 70 years and the present issue is the first one in the 71st year. All these years the journal tried its level best to accommodate quality articles received from all over India and abroad and will continue to do the same in the years to come.

The present issue of the journal carries eight articles written by the senior administrative service officer, professors in the universities, academicians in the field of education and research scholars. The subjects vary from rural transformation of tribal community, partnership for sustainable community development, revolution as a tool for rural education, job satisfaction of the faculty members of the university, common school system for quality education, perception of community members about the education for tribal children, community participation to achieve equality in education to research in adult education. The articles reflect the rich experience of the contributors in the relevant field of study.

I am sure the articles will be of great interest to the readers. If you have any suggestion, please feel it free to convey to us.

Dr. V. Mohankumar
Guest Editor

Experiments in Rural Transformation through Educating the Tribal Community in Wynad

Raju Narayana Swamy I.A.S.

Abstract

It is said that India lives in her villages. In spite of rapid pace of urbanization, around 70% of the population of India lives in villages and is employed in the primary sector. Inequities in terms of educational facilities and resources, rural poverty, environmental degradation etc are some key issues vital in India. *Education of the Scheduled Tribes has received lot of attention in independent India. However the form and content of education for the tribes has continued to be more or less same. They are among the most socially and educationally disadvantaged groups in India. The pattern of educational achievements has been different for the general and scheduled tribe population with the latter never has been an integral part of the mainstream society. This contrast in educational achievements for the general and STs is crucial in assessing their respective development experiences and reform programmes. Exclusion from basic education for the tribes is a complex socio-political process that has multiple roots and causes. The aim of this paper is to take up the questions regarding tribal education in Kerala with special reference to Wayanad. It discusses ways to better understand the influence of education on rural transformation from an indigenous perspective. The study attempts to portray the dismal state of literacy among Paniyas, a tribal community in Wayanad and factors contributing to the generally low literacy rates and educational attainment among them.*

Introduction

The "Kerala Model Development" has been the hypothesis of development that took shape in Kerala during the first three decades following the formation of the state. The characteristic feature of this model was the priority given to democratic culture in development. But the internationally acclaimed "Kerala Model" came under sharp criticism as it began to rust in the late eighties. The criticism was rooted in the perception that the model had outlived its purpose. It was criticized for its failure to produce enough wealth to satisfy the growing demands of a consumerist society. It was apprehended that the model would not even help to produce enough wealth and employment to sustain levels of living standards already achieved.

The results of Kerala model of development are highlighted in the following indicators: a generally high literacy rate, a low population growth rate and high life expectancy and greater accessibility to essential services like health, water, electricity, public distribution system, roads etc. These indicators are important because these are attributes available to, experienced by, a large section of population to show up significantly when measured on a spatial or per capita basis. The "Kerala Model" has in fact laid the foundations for the development of a new model based on knowledge-intensive industries and services and modernization of traditional agriculture and cottage industries. In the new "Kerala Model" education is the key of development. The state lays claim to the highest literacy rate in the country-90.92 percent in 2001 as compared to the national rate of 65.38 percent. However the quality of education still needs to be improved. It is in this context that we are analysing the impact of the new model on the education of adivasis in Kerala.

The Scheduled Tribes constitute the most backward group among the weaker sections in Kerala. The social reality of the Adivasis in postcolonial Kerala is characterized by poverty, malnutrition, illiteracy, socio-economic and sexual exploitation by settlers and the depletion of their traditional resource base (C. P. Balan Vaidyar, 1997). The scheduled tribes lag behind the 'others' of Kerala Model of Development in their basic achievements like education and health, which has played a central role in Kerala's development process (Human Development Report 2005, 2006). A review of literacy rates among ST population in comparison with that of the general population indicates a growing gap between literacy rates of these communities. In the recent past tribal education has achieved considerable progress in terms of primary education enrolment. But further analysis suggests that progress is lacking in terms of quality and in effecting the desired transformation. The following section will discuss about this in detail.

Statistical Profile of Adivasis

The Scheduled Tribe population is 3,641,89 (2001 census), which is nearly 1.1 per cent of the state population. The highest percentage of ST is in Wayanad District forming 17.43 percent of total population in 2001 census. The coastal district of Alappuzha has the lowest percentage (0.15 percent). More than 37 percent of the ST is concentrated in Wayanad district, another 14 percent is in Idukki. Thus more than 50 percent of the total population of ST in the state is concentrated in the hilly districts of Wayanad and Idukki. There are 10 districts viz. Kannur, Kozhikode, Malappuram, Thrissur, Ernakulam, Kottayam, Alappuzha, Pathanamthitta, Kollam and Thiruvananthapuram having proportion of ST to total population less than the state proportion of 1.14 percent showing that southern districts have lower proportion of ST population. The 4 districts having proportion higher than the state average are Kasargode, Wayanad, Palakkad and Idukki. Kasargod and Palakkad together constitute more than 19 percent of the ST in the State. The primitive tribes as recognized by the Government of Kerala are in the pre-agricultural stage of

development with very low literacy rates. They together constitute nearly 4.8 per cent of the total Scheduled Tribe population in the State.

Literacy Status of Adivasis

At present the education sector as a whole in the state is characterised by the existence of a dual system: one segment comprising high quality institutions catering to the affluent 5 per cent of the population and the second consisting of low quality institutions meant for the masses. The state has never made any attempt at equitable distribution of quality higher education, the access to which is virtually barred to children of marginalized groups like SC/ST (Abdul Salim, 2008).

A review of literacy rates among ST population in comparison with that of the general population indicates a growing gap between literacy rates of these communities (Kerala Development Report, 2008). Our examination of recent trends in educational attainment of tribes and the trends in enrolment/drop-out for the children are empty by absence of relevant statistical data. The main sources which have been utilized are the Census, Statistical Publications of Tribal Department and the NSSO etc. We have also drawn upon active studies. It is found that the literacy rates of the tribes are far behind those of the other sections of populations. The literacy rate of the scheduled tribes population in the State is as follows:-

Table 1.1

Literacy Rates – STs vs. All Castes (in %)

| Category | 1971 | 1981 | 1991 |
|------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| General | 60.42 | 70.42 | 89.81 |
| Scheduled Castes | 4.21 | 55.96 | 79.66 |
| Scheduled Tribes | 25.72 | 31.79 | 57.22 |

Source: Census of India, Series-10, Kerala. Paper-3 of 1971, 1981, 1991 Final Population Totals.

Even though a significant increase had occurred among the Scheduled Tribes a wide gap is still existing between the literacy rate among STs and general population. District wise literacy rate in Kerala among ST shows that Kottayam has the highest tribal literacy and Palakkad has the lowest. A detailed literacy rate district wise is given on the next page.

Table 1.2

District-wise Tribal Literacy Rates

| District | 1971 | 1981 | 1991 |
|--------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Thiruvananthapuram | 42.17 | 58.06 | 74.00 |
| Kollam | 32.59 | 50.30 | 62.42 |
| Pathanamthitta | — | — | 73.21 |
| Alappuzha | 60.23 | 53.71 | 74.48 |
| Kottayam | 38.44 | 73.63 | 88.69 |
| Idukki | 45.12 | 52.60 | 76.96 |
| Ernakulam | — | 43.35 | 62.78 |
| Thrissur | 25.06 | 29.90 | 51.40 |
| Palakkad | 7.13 | 12.04 | 34.87 |
| Malappuram | 13.67 | 16.33 | 43.93 |
| Kozhikode | 23.24 | 14.24 | 52.36 |
| Wayanad | — | 43.24 | 50.63 |
| Kannur | 25.52 | 33.18 | 58.61 |
| Kasargod | — | — | 66.38 |
| Kerala | 25.52 | 31.79 | 57.22 |

Source: Census of India, Series-10, Kerala, Paper-3 of 1971, 1981, and 1991, Final Population Totals.

About two-third of the districts in Malabar region have literacy rates lower than the state average. Malabar region has a tribal population of more than sixty five per cent. The level of education among the ST and that of general population is discussed now.

Table 1.3

**Level of Education among ST and other Social Groups
[As on 1999-2000 (Rural)]**

| Level of Education | ST | SC | OBC | Others |
|-----------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| Illiterate | 26.36 | 23.60 | 17.36 | 11.67 |
| Literate without formal schooling | 0.33 | 1.80 | 0.93 | 0.86 |
| Below Primary | 16.12 | 17.05 | 18.31 | 12.30 |
| Primary | 12.50 | 20.99 | 19.76 | 14.93 |
| Middle | 26.32 | 25.67 | 27.52 | 26.00 |
| Secondary | 8.22 | 7.49 | 10.72 | 19.50 |
| Higher Secondary | 5.26 | 1.67 | 3.20 | 7.44 |
| Graduation above | 4.90 | 1.73 | 3.20 | 7.30 |

Source: *Human Development Report 2005(2006)*, State Planning Board, Govt. of Kerala, p.66.

From the above table it could be analysed that over a quarter of the ST population was illiterate compared to just a little over 10 per cent for others. However it is at the higher levels that the differences are more striking, especially from 'secondary' level onwards. Hence, the deprived groups lag behind the 'others' in these basic functioning achievements, which has played a central role in Kerala's development process. Disparities in the literacy rate levels between STs and total literacy rate are continuing in spite of various educational concessions extended to Scheduled Tribes.

There are three specific reasons for this, low enrolment ratio of Scheduled Tribes children at the school level, high drop out ratio of Scheduled Tribes as compared to non-Scheduled Tribes and poor economic conditions. The following sections will discuss these three factors in detail.

Economic Conditions

The backwardness and the poor living conditions of the Scheduled Tribe population are major concerns. Most of the tribal people have a low economic profile and lead a miserable life. The adivasis constitute 3 per cent of the total BPL population while their proportion to total population is only 1.14 per cent (Economic Review, 2009).

It implies that the incidence of poverty among the Scheduled Tribes is about three times that of the total population of the state. The study of C.Krishnan points out that the major factor accounting for low educational achievements and low aspirations on the part of tribefolk in Wayanad (One of the 14 districts in Kerala) is their poor social and economic condition. They live in unhealthy environment, do low-paid physical labour, and own very little land (Krishnan, C. 1999).

Education and Enrolment

The percentage of Scheduled tribe students in total enrolment also went up only marginally from 1.15 per cent in 2001-02 to 1.23 per cent in 2003-04. But the absolute number of Scheduled Tribe students enrolled went up from 58859 in 2001-01 to 60339 in 2003-04. Also the vast majority of these students are in government schools and government-aided schools. In 2004, 42.08 percent of the SC/ST students were enrolled in government schools, 56.39 percent in government-aided schools and a 1.53 percent in private unaided schools (Anjana, Alex, 2005).

The proportions of Scheduled Tribe students in Lower Primary and Upper Primary schools during 2008-09 are relatively higher than their population percentage. In High School section the percentage of Scheduled Tribe students is a little less than their population percentage.

Table 1.4
Enrolment of ST students at School Levels
[As on 1.10.2008]

| Section | Total | ST | Percentage to Total |
|---------|---------|-------|---------------------|
| LP | 166599 | 33781 | 2.03 |
| UP | 1452540 | 24449 | 1.68 |
| HS | 1427293 | 15882 | 1.11 |
| Total | 4545826 | 74112 | 1.63 |

Source: *Directorate of Public Instruction* (2009), Government of Kerala, Thiruvananthapuram.

Also the proportion of enrolment of SC/ST students has been higher in general education than in professional education. In the professional stream at the post-graduation level, their proportion is nearly one-half of their corresponding shares at the degree level. The proportion of Scheduled Tribes enrolment in professional courses at the postgraduate level is almost half of that in the corresponding courses at the degree level (Abdul Salim, 2008).

Drop-out Rate

Among the Indian states Kerala has achieved the distinction of the state having the lowest dropout rate among school students. In the year 2006-07 dropout ratio among school students in Kerala was 0.81 per cent. The drop-out rate in Lower Primary Section, Upper Primary Section and High School Section were 0.59 Per cent, 0.52 per cent and 1.38 per cent respectively. Among the Districts, Wayanad has the highest drop out ratio in the Lower Primary section (1.89 %), Upper Primary Section (1.92 %) and High School Section (2.56 %). Drop-out ratio among Scheduled Tribe students is 4.18 per cent.¹

According to the report of SC/ST Development Department, the state never made any attempt at equitable distribution of quality higher education, the access to which is virtually barred to the children of the marginalized groups like Scheduled Tribes. The principles of equity and access are thought to be the concerns only of government-run and aided private institutions. Even here the SC/ST and other backward sections are unable to avail themselves fully of the facilities statutorily made available to them. Though the government has reserved 20 percent (15 Per cent for SC and 5 Percent for ST) of seats in the government aided Arts and Science Colleges in Kerala for SC/ST students, their annual quotas are seldom filled, not even as late as 2000 (Report on the Implementation of Safeguards and Development Programmes for SC/ST, 2000). In 2000 the share of SC/ST enrolment in Arts and Science Colleges

was only 12.86 per cent. In a note prepared by the department in August 2000, it was pointed out that in the case of self-financing courses run by the University, the share of SC/ST students was marginal.

In all the Five Year Plans, priority was given to the educational development of Scheduled Tribes. The main reason for the very slow spread of education among STs is the peculiar nature of their dwelling. Majority of the STs are living in remote areas far away from educational institutions. Lack of sufficient educational institutions in tribal areas, poverty etc curtail effective educational development among STs. Moreover, the parents of the tribal children being generally illiterate, they neither attach much importance to education nor insist their children to attend classes regularly. The study of Sam Mohanlal highlights that the main reason for dropout is the total incompatibility between the students and the use of language in the textbooks, language used by the teachers in the school, and the contents of the text that are often not ecofriendly(Sam Mohanlal, 2001).

Role of Teachers

The representation of Scheduled Tribes in the cadre of teachers is very low. During 1997-98, out of 187088 teachers up to the High School level, there were 6642 (3.5%) belonging to SC and 354 (0.18%) belonging to ST. At the Primary, Middle and Secondary levels the representation of ST teachers was 0.1 per cent and 2.7 per cent and 0.18 per cent respectively. It is also seen that there is no inservice training for tribal teachers. The need for special training to understand the tribal traits for teachers in the tribal areas should be considered (Chapter X, 1998). The State Government should make efforts to fill up the prescribed percentage of reservation of 2 percent for STs in the teaching profession.

State and Tribal literacy Programmes

The government has been implementing several programmes for the educational improvement of the tribes for the past few decades. The levels of awareness and utilisation of these schemes are relatively low among the tribefolk. In almost all the recent years, more than fifty per cent of the allotment under the State-level schemes of the Scheduled Tribes Development has been on education (Krishnan, C., 1991, p.44.). The total literacy campaign launched in 1991-92 did not fully succeed in incorporating tribes mainly because of non-easy accessibility to their settlements and dearth of qualified instructors to carry out the programme. A special project titled Tribal Literacy Project was launched for tribals once the total literacy campaign was over. This programme covered several programs incidental to the cultural and socio-economic advancement of tribals. During 1995-96, the literacy programs were transferred to the Panchayat Raj Institutions. The experience in Kerala shows that in spite of successful completion of the Total Literacy Campaign, a good number of literates and semi-literates relapsed into illiteracy mainly due to the lack of continuous

and systematic follow up programmes. (Environmental Literacy Programme: Evaluation Report, 2006).

Due to the gaps between and within education systems the current status of education prevailing is quantitatively inadequate, and qualitatively incompetent to address the education and training/skill needs of the adivasi population in Kerala. Internal inefficiency and lack of responsiveness of the societal requirements especially when it comes to the 'world of work' therefore mean that the educational system has failed to benefit individuals who need to make a good living and to broaden their personalities with information and essential human qualities. Hence the tribal youth should be equipped with necessary skills so as to enhance their contribution to the national economy and to increase their livelihood capacity. In addition to expansion of the formal education network, the non-formal and informal education networks need expansion to cover the greater rural population.

Tribal education in Wayanad

The large influx of settlers during the first half of the 20th century transformed the socio-economic and cultural scenario of the district. The first school in Wayanad is the Upper Primary School in Mananthavady taluk established in the year 1869. By 1900 there were 6 schools in the region. After the formation of the present state of Kerala, 26 schools were begun in 1957 in several remote areas of Wayanad. In the process, the literacy rate among the adivasis of Wayanad has improved substantially. But still it has to go a long way to reach the height reached by the other sections of the populations in the district.

Table 1.5
Literacy in Wayanad District, 1991
Community Percentage

| | |
|---------------------------|-------|
| General | 82.73 |
| SC | 75.27 |
| ST | 50.63 |
| Tribal literacy in Kerala | 57.22 |

Source: Census of India, 1991, Series 12, Kerala.

The average number of students per school in Wayanad is 532 where as in Kerala, it is 481. As majority of the ST lives in remote areas, the children find it extremely difficult to reach out to schools. Paniyas are the single largest segment and they account for about 48 percent of the habitats, 46 percent of the families and 45 per cent of the population among major tribal communities in Wayanad. Adiyas form only 7 percent of this population. Mananthavady taluk (taken for the study also) has a fair representation of all the five communities.

Table 1.6
Taluk-wise distribution of tribal communities

| Taluk | Adiyan | | Paniyan | | Kattunayakan | | Kurichian | | | Kuruman |
|-----------------|--------|------|---------|------|--------------|------|-----------|------|-----|---------|
| | H | F | H | F | H | F | H | F | H | F |
| Mananthavady | 98 | 1344 | 257 | 2837 | 31 | 461 | 221 | 2089 | 24 | 340 |
| Sulthan Bathery | 1 | 16 | 291 | 3359 | 139 | 1790 | 2 | 28 | 234 | 3043 |
| Vythiry | — | — | 301 | 3118 | 31 | 372 | 101 | 930 | 52 | 501 |
| Total | 99 | 1360 | 849 | 9314 | 201 | 2631 | 324 | 3037 | 310 | 3884 |

H-No. of households, F-No. of families

Source: ITDP Survey, Wayanad, 1990.

A general profile of the study area

The field study was conducted among the adivasis in Wayanad, concentrating on a particular community, the Paniyas. The Paniya community of Mananthavady taluk constitutes the study. The total Paniya population in Wayanad is spread over in three taluks, of which Mananthavady has been purposefully selected for the study. This is located in the north-western part of Wayanad district. It touches the border of Coorg district in Karnataka. The total land area is 736.39 Sq.kms. There are seven village panchayats in this block. The discussion in this paper is only a part of the research work being done by the researcher in Wayanad. For the above study the researcher has concentrated on four hamlets selected from Mananthavady and Vellamunda panchayat of Mananthavady taluk. A total of hundred respondents from Paniya community are taken for the study by random sampling technique.

A profile of the hamlet under study

Padachikunnu and Mandaikunnu Colony: These colonies belong to Mananthavady panchayat, inhabited by members of Paniya community. The colonies belong to ward twelve with thirty six families in Padachikunnu and ten families in Mandaikunnu colony. The settlements are situated in close proximity to Mananthavady town, the nerve centre of Wayanad. Their accessibility to school, primary health centre, ration shop, post office, panchayat office and tribal office is within a radius of one kilometre. A few members of Padachikunnu colony have access to electricity. The colonies are situated on the fringes of agricultural land owned by non-tribes. Agricultural crops consist of mainly paddy, coffee and banana. The Paniya households of these colonies are working as agricultural labourers. They work in and around their colony or sometimes migrate to Coorg in Karnataka.

Mangalassery and Valaramkunnu colony are situated in Vellamunda panchayat. These two colonies are one kilometre apart. Mangalassery colony belongs to twentieth ward with thirty families and Valaramkunnu is in the nineteenth ward with thirty two families. Being situated at a higher altitude reaching the colonies is very hard. The two hamlets are located at the extreme end of Banasura mountain ranges. The colonies are not provided with motorable roads. An anganavadi(pre-primary school) is located near the Mangalassery colony while there is no provision for it near Valaramkunnu colony. The Paniya people living here depend on wage labour and also access forest products. Accessibility of tribal extension office, panchayat office, primary health centre, ration shop, telephone booths etc are within a radius of four kilometres.

Broad Socio-economic and other differentials

The most formidable problem, which is fairly common in demographic surveys relates to misreporting of age. Many household members have no exact record of the date of birth, and most of the reported ages are based on guesses and memory. Twenty five men and twenty five women respondents were selected for the study. Men respondents' age wise reflects that respondents in a range of thirty to forty age formed sixty percent, forty to fifty formed twenty percent and in the age group below twenty years formed twenty percent. Distribution of women respondents' age wise reflects that respondents in a range of twenty to thirty formed forty percent and in a range of thirty to forty age groups formed 26 per cent. The age group of forty to fifty accounted for 15 percent and fifty to sixty percent formed 11 percent. Up to twenty years age respondents formed 8 percent. The availability of infrastructure facilities reflects the standard of development of any society. The infrastructure facilities which we are going to discuss here include settlement pattern, drinking water, sanitation, employment pattern, electricity, transportation facility, public distribution system, furniture etc.

Table 1.7

Background Information of Paniya in percentage

Family size (no. of persons in one house) Up to 5 persons-62-7 persons-32-8-10 persons-6

| | |
|---|---|
| Family size | (no. of persons in one house) Up to 5 persons-62 5-7 persons-32 8-10 persons-6 |
| House construction | In % |
| Percentage with ST dept. provided houses | 87 |
| Percentage who built houses by themselves | 13 |

| | |
|---|---|
| Average no. of rooms | |
| 1-3 rooms per household | 84 |
| Upto five rooms | 16 |
| More than five rooms | nil |
| Electrification | Yes-13 |
| No. of electric bulbs in the house | One- 11 %, two-2%, more than two-nil |
| Electrification | No-87% |
| Roof of house | Tiles-85% Thatched- 3% Concrete- 12% |
| Percentage of household possessing radio/watch | Yes-45% No-55% |
| Percentage of households with bicycle | Nil |
| Percentage of households with furniture | Bed-nil Table (for study purpose)-nil Chair(plastic)- 72% Bench(small wooden stool)- 89 % Cupboard-nil Bookshelf-nil Almirah-3% |
| Fuel used in kitchen | LPG-nil Kerosine Stove-3% Fire wood-100% |
| Kitchen Utensils | Earthen vessels exclusively- nil Steel vessels exclusively-nil Earthen, Steel& Aluminium vessels- 98% Crockery-nil Glass vessels(tumblers only)-35% Mixie-2% |
| Sanitation | Yes-14% , No- 86% |
| Employment | Agricultural labourers:- 96% (men) / 98 % (women) Tribal promoters:-4% (men) Anganavadi helpers-2% (women respondents) |
| Average working days of labour per month | Two weeks-91% Three weeks-9% |
| Whether participated in MGNREGP | Yes-93% , No-7% |

Source: Survey Data

Education

Education is one of the most important pre-requisites of human resource development. The Paniya communities by and large still are deprived of basic

educational facilities. It was observed that three hamlets under study had anganavadies (pre-primary schools) near to their hamlets. But the high school facility was not found in hamlets in Vellamunda panchayat. For the Paniyas in Vellamunda panchayat accessibility of high school is beyond their reach. The distance from the colonies to the schools is given in the table below

Table 1.8
Hamlet wise distance to reach high school

| Panchayat | Hamlet | Distance to reach Primary School (in kms) | Distance to reach Lower School (in kms) | Distance to reach Upper School (in kms) | Distance to reach high school (inkms) |
|--------------|---------------------|---|---|---|---------------------------------------|
| Mananthavady | Mandaikunnu Colony | 1.5 | | 1.5 | 1.5 |
| Mananthavady | Padachikunnu Colony | 2.5 | | 2.5 | 2.5 |
| Vellamunda | Valaramkunnu Colony | 3.5 | | 3.5 | 6.5 |
| Vellamunda | Mangalassery Colony | 3 | | 3 | 6 |

Source: Survey Data

Most of the Paniya parents prefer to stop their children's education in the mid way itself. In the study we have found the Paniyas in Vellamunda panchayat are never even thinking of going to high school. They were even found not interested in sending their children to high school. 43 percent of the respondents were illiterates and twenty three percent had primary level of education. Thirty two percent had high school education and two percent had passed tenth standard. We failed to get a plus two passed respondent from any of the four colonies taken for the study. In the study it was also found that not a single woman had passed tenth standard. In fact female education is still lagging behind. It is so because every woman member in this backward community becomes an earning member and therefore, lends their hand in any economic pursuit worth the name. In the Paniya community, as soon as the children attain the age of six or seven years, they participate in the income earning process and assist in some petty jobs like fetching water, collecting fuel wood, looking after infants at home etc. Boys will go for work as agricultural labourers. We have incorporated a slightly urbanized area also in our study. This we have done purposefully to understand whether urbanization has really helped these people in improving their educational attainment. Though in Mananthavady there is high school near the colony, we found no significant improvement in educational attainment among the respondents from this area. Hence it could be concluded that distance to reach school is not the only reason for the low literacy attainment among the Paniyas. In Mananthavady most of the colony people had gone only up to seventh standard.

Some of them had gone up to 10th standard. But while interacting with them, the quality of educational attainment was found to be very poor.

Since schooling of children in the tribal context is essentially a household decision, its variation should largely be the result of differences in awareness, responsiveness and motivations of the parents spaced out from the considerations relating to convenience of schooling. Most of the respondents gave vague replies as to the reasons for their dropping out of school. In the study it was found that sixty two per cent of the respondents had no interest in studying while thirty eight percent said they are interested in studying and financial crisis has restricted them from going to school. An interesting fact is that only thirty percent of the respondents considered education as very important. Sixty percent showed no interest, and in their opinion education is not at all significant. Seventy percent of the respondents wanted their children to be sent to schools but the rest were found not interested in sending their children to schools. One important factor that hinders the development of education among tribal community is parental sluggishness. They give little importance to the education of their children. They do they insist on the regular attendance in classes by their children who happen to be enrolled. Ninety two percent of the respondents came with complaints on school facilities. They also complained about the partiality of teachers towards their children.

In the study we have also found that most of the tribal children's home environment is not conducive to education. Their dwellings lack facilities for study. Most of them have no electricity, no study room, no furniture, not even proper food. (See table 1.7) On an average, about 35 percent of the tribal children in the district enrolled in standard I drop out from schools before reaching standard VI whereas the corresponding dropout rate for non-tribal children was hardly five percent (Krishnan, C., 1999).

Paniya economy and its influence in education

In the study we have found that the major factor accounting for low educational achievements and low aspirations on the part of Paniyas is their poor social and economic conditions. All the respondents were wage labourers. The total working days is limited to two weeks in one month (see table 1.7). Of the 100 households taken for survey we have found that men in all the households are using liquor. Even we have found women taking liquor. Both men and women are taking betel leaves regularly. In the survey all the respondents said they are spending Rs. 20.00 per day for chewing. Children from the age of six or seven are even encouraged by the family members in taking pan. The youngsters are also using hashish, ganja, pan, cigar etc. They are keen in spending their income for garments, cinema and liquor. Not a single household surveyed was found spending their income for buying books. None of them had gone to a library. Only the two tribal promoters incorporated in the study were found reading newspaper from Tribal Department Office. Non-enrolment in school

is more due to poverty and general ignorance of the parents. Hence the long-lasting solution to the educational backwardness of adivasis cannot be found without substantial improvement of their economic status. The following section will discuss on this.

Education for rural transformation

Education is essentially the process of awakening of the country's populace. Day back in 1983 Robert Chambers in his seminal volume, *Rural Development: putting the Last First* spoke about invisible rural poverty and the urban trap that diverted political attention and bureaucratic action away from the problems of rural deprivation and under development. The rural poor live on the margins of subsistence..... Illiterate, often malnourished, affected with serious health problems, some times stigmatised by ethnic prejudices, living often in remote, isolated areas and having limited access to productive resources. One out of five children in developing countries still does not attend primary school. A frontal assault on the citadels of situation is the need of the hour.

Here in lies the importance of rural transformation. The solutions to the problems of poverty and deprivation in rural areas do not lie in preventing urbanization. The inexorable forces of change have to be turned into positive development and enhancement of people's capacities to cope with change. A major development change is to manage a progressive transformation of rural areas, keeping in view the blurred boundary and the dynamic linkages between rural and urban areas. The said transformation no doubt seeks to convey a vision of poor active and positive process of change and development of rural communities in the context of national and global changes. Education in all forms as a means of equipping people which skills and enhancing their capacity is the heart and soul of agenda for such a rural transformation.

In the globalized world of twenty-first century, the dynamics of rural transformation has created a new educational imperative which go beyond traditional concerns. Increasing opportunities for post primary and secondary educations, alternative mechanisms for vocational and occupational skill development for changing rural needs, re-orienting tertiary education so as to serve the dynamic needs of rural development, and above all bridging the urban-rural digital divide and making better use of ICT for combating urban rural educational disparity is to be addressed in letter and spirit. In short, we should get out of the present scenario of resistance and self defeating neglect of the rural dimension in development, discourse and action.

In spite of the overwhelming logic of numbers and intensity of problems the rural people represent (*Education for Rural Transformation: Towards a policy framework, INRULED, Sep, 2001*).

An approach to rural transformation in the context of Paniyas could be implemented by giving attention to the following matters:-

- 1) Tribal people in Kerala are now working mostly as unskilled labourers in the agricultural sector. They are not inactive, but they are also not incapable. For their survival they apply massive energy, potency and vitality on a daily basis. Education and skill development will enhance their ability to work better with much high return. But they have to be attuned to their needs.
- 2) The present education provided by the government is not improving the quality of life of these people. It is neither helping in achieving the minimal economic growth nor resulting in significant decline in poverty. Education though considered to be the major aspect related to economic growth and poverty elimination has so long been haunted by poor planning and functioning at the local level.
- 3) In this context the issue which raises here is on how the education given to tribes could be reshaped to boost the proficiency of adivasis, which will promote the production structure and result in higher stage of their development. The workforce in rural areas will need to be highly skilled to quickly acclimatize to domestic requirements. In such a situation a redesigned general and technical education package will have to be offered before the adivasis in Kerala.
- 4) The mission of having the adivasis out of poverty and putting them in control of their own lives is a composite concern. Provision of suitable education and skill development training in this situation would work as a means for it.

Education for eradicating poverty

Education should help to reduce poverty and provide better health. According to the Kerala Development Report (2008, p.356.), the rural poverty among adivasis in Kerala persists and comes to more than two-and-a-half times that of the rural population of Kerala in general. The level of education is directly related to income and wealth, which in turn influence poverty. Education has to enhance capacities of people, expand the areas of competencies, and change people's practices and attitudes, which together can significantly improve their lifestyle. For eradication of poverty and attaining better living standards the education policy must be carefully designed at the local level.

Promoting skills through education

There are many traditional skills and technologies practiced by adivasi people

for generations. Many of them are locally specific which people learn usually through informal education. Some examples are mat making using bamboo, pandanus leaf etc, vegetable preservation techniques for long term use (Bamboo seeds used for making 'Puttu' a favourite dish of Paniya community), meat preservation technique, seed preservation technique for the next crop (paddy) etc. These diverse skills serve up the local requirements. These usually include low cost or cheap process, with locally available natural raw materials and above all simplicity of the process. Most of these skills are now found to be in decline in the absence of support for production of commodities and marketing. Further improving these skills are necessary as the students can gather the necessary orientation and prepare themselves for wage and self-employment.

Rural non-farm sector development

Poverty situation in Kerala clearly suggests that the majority of the rural poor are marginal and landless farmers, agricultural labourers and other asset less non-agricultural workers. Agricultural growth is providing only limited possibilities for labour absorption and poverty continues on a massive scale in rural areas. In this context there is an obvious relationship between the rural non-farm sector income and the rural poverty. When the income from the rural non-farm sector sources are higher than that of the agricultural sector, access to the non-farm sector jobs represents an upward mobility improving wellbeing and reducing poverty. By diversifying their sources of income rural adivasi households can augment their incomes and minimize the extent to which they are affected by adverse income shocks from farm activities. The rural non-farm incomes increase the households' income. They can buy farm inputs more easily, thus increasing their farm productivity.

Rural non-farm sector offers landless adivasis an important option for generating income. Biswajith, Choudhurys' (2010) study on the rural non-farm sector in Bangladesh finds that the rural non-farm sector has played an important role in limiting rural poverty, particularly where land ownership is skewed and labour force growth remains high.

In the quest of diversification of the rural economy the significance of this sector in terms of potential for economic conversion has to be looked into. In the current overriding concern to have improvement in the rural economy, policy emphasis has to be laid on non-farm sector, particularly with its scope of contribution to accelerating the poverty reduction process. Training the adivasi students in these sectors to some extent can help them to earn money from these sectors. They could acclimatise with the situation by trying to learn skills on the job, by which productivity and quality of rural small scale products will also remain high.

Conclusion

Education in Kerala is heavily biased against the Scheduled Tribes. Although a few ST students do benefit from education, they represent the cream of the community and not the masses. The children of the poor, less educated parents with low income occupations are only marginally represented. Decentralization of educational management is an aspect that needs special consideration in the context of tribal areas. In fact, considering the geographical terrain and communication problems in tribal areas, it is crucial to restructure the existing system of educational management. From the above study we can conclude that the present education system for adivasis is not a well planned one, although the government has succeeded in the enrolment of these people in primary school level. The education system has failed to meet the needs of adivasis. Shortages of trained teachers, reading materials, poor infrastructure facilities etc are the prime causes behind this. Finally, the study finds that educational system must suit with the rural and agricultural base- towards a knowledge skills-based economy. Overall, the available data evidence shows that importance to farm/non-farm activities in the rural areas can help in reducing poverty. The education system should also be moulded by giving priority to these sectors.

Rezaul Islam & Ahmedullah Mia (2007) in their study on rural people in Bangladesh finds that the current life situations as well as the possibilities have influenced the rural poor to look for new opportunities and develop new aspirations. If people are equipped with more information, particularly science-based education, and technical vocational training they can shape their destiny to have a more satisfying standard of living. Skill development, competency building, and teacher's motivation also need to be strengthened for nourishing educational development. A remedy for educational backwardness of tribefolk cannot be achieved by neglecting their economic status. Careful and calculative measures must be taken keeping in view the cultural moorings of the tribals.

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Review and Analysis of Research in Adult Education

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Introduction

In the present study an endeavor has been made to collect, review, classify and evaluate the research undertaken in adult education, since the launching of National Literacy Mission (NLM) in the year 1988 and to study the status and feasibility of the implementation of the results. The present study has surveyed the research conducted in the region of the country i.e. Punjab and Chandigarh viz. Education Department of Panjab University of Chandigarh, Education Department of Punjabi University of Patiala and Education Department of Guru Nanak Dev University of Amritsar, Regional Resource Centre for Adult and Continuing Education, Centre for Adult Continuing Education and Extension of Panjab University, Chandigarh, DIETs and other Institutes of Education located in the area. The present study has reviewed the various primary and secondary sources of research viz. theses, dissertations and reports of the research projects undertaken in the field of adult education. It may be mentioned that periodical research/ research reported in academic journals or short research communications have not been included in this study.

Objectives of the Study

The present study has the following objectives:

- To collect information about available research studies concerning various aspects of adult education conducted in this region.
- To categorise the various studies into different sub-areas for the purpose of identification of research trends.
- To prepare an annotated bibliography of these studies for meaningful dissemination.
- To examine the status and feasibility of implementation of the results in the field.
- To identify the priority research areas, which need further investigation.

Methodology

The study has been conducted in two phases:

Phase-I: In this phase, the research already conducted in Adult Education was categorised and analysed. It depended upon secondary data.

Phase-II: In this phase, the extent and possibility of implementation of the results of research studies was undertaken. This was conducted in the field based set up for the collection of Primary data.

All the important institutions of education in the region were surveyed to find the research conducted in the area of adult education.

Broad Classification and Categorisation of the Research Studies

The studies thus gathered were categorised into broad categories through a workshop mode, which were devised specifically for this purpose, as no such scheme is available in the literature. The thirteen broad categories as given below were identified:

Table: Broad Categories of Research Studies

| Number | Broad Classification and Categories of research |
|--------|---|
| 1 | Historical development of Adult Education |
| 2 | Teaching learning outcomes (literacy skills) |
| 3 | Motivational study |
| 4 | Participatory and non participatory programmes |
| 5 | Administration/Management |
| 6 | Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT) |
| 7 | Knowledge, Attitude and Practice |
| 8 | Material production |
| 9 | Population Education |
| 10 | Interest, needs of the learners |
| 11 | Programme evaluation |
| 12 | Training effectiveness |

Table: The year wise distribution of research studies

| Sr. no. | Year | Number of studies | Percentage |
|---------|-----------|-------------------|------------|
| 1 | 1988 | 8 | 20.5 |
| 2 | 1989-91 | 6 | 15.3 |
| 3 | 1992-94 | 6 | 15.3 |
| 4 | 1995-97 | 10 | 25.63 |
| 5 | 1998-2000 | 9 | 23.0 |

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The studies given above were placed into the identified categories, which are presented in the tabular form as given on next page:-

Table: Percentage of studies conducted in each category

| Broad Categories | Number | Percentage |
|--|--------|------------|
| Programme evaluation | 11 | 25 |
| Interest, needs of the learners | 2 | 5 |
| Historical development of adult Education | 1 | 2.5 |
| Knowledge, attitude and practice (KAP) | 4 | 10 |
| Strength, Weakness, Opportunities and threats (SWOT) | 1 | 2.5 |
| Training Effectiveness | 1 | 2.5 |
| Teaching Learning outcomes (literacy skills) | 4 | 10 |
| Motivation/psychological field | 4 | 10 |
| Participatory and non Participatory programmes | 3 | 7.5 |
| Administration and management | 1 | 2.5 |
| Material Development | 3 | 7.5 |
| Population Education | 4 | 10 |

Table: The Number of research studies undertaken exclusively for earning academic degrees is given below:

| Degree | No. of Studies | Percentage |
|---------------|----------------|------------|
| Ph. D thesis | 8 | 20.5 |
| M.Phil thesis | 8 | 20.50 |
| M.A. thesis | 5 | 13 |
| Other Sources | 18 | 46.00 |

Analysis

The basic purpose of the present study is to evaluate and critically review the available research studies completed in the jurisdiction of Regional Resource Centre for Adult & Continuing Education, Panjab University, Chandigarh while launching of NLM. These studies are reviewed keeping in mind if they can provide any guidance for planning of policy programmes and in the area of research in Adult Education in the country. The areas of adult education which have received proper attention since launching of NLM and in the light of the above to suggest future directions in which research activities should be planned and conducted.

The studies were collected and abstracts were prepared on the various research studies. They were classified into two different categories i.e. Academic studies for a degree and research projects. Out of the total of 39 studies 21 studies were conducted for obtaining a degree. The rest of the 18 studies were based on the adult education projects undertaken by various institutions. The topics of these studies were mainly pertaining to participation/non-participation in the programmes, Knowledge, Attitude

and Practice (KAP) studies on various aspects of Literacy Campaign, the problems of dropouts, motivation and mobilisation aspects of literacy campaign. The historical development of adult education, the learning outcomes in terms of skills, studies related to preparation of IPCL Primers, developing of teaching learning material for effective outcomes and studies on population educational aspects were taken up like Empowerment of women, health, and childcare integrating the inter spouse communication etc.

Above studies covers practical problems encountered while implementing literacy campaign in UT Chandigarh and Punjab.

Phase: II

To study the Utilisation and Dissemination of Research in Adult Education.

Objectives

The second phase of the study was carried out with the following objectives:

1. To examine whether the findings of research of adult education has been made use of in strengthening of policy and planning or implementation of the programme.
2. To seek the priorities of adult education research as expressed by the field functionaries.
3. Suggestions made by the field functionaries for the optimum utilisation of the research study in the field.

Methodology

Design of the study

Keeping in view the objectives of the study, the present phase of the study is essentially a survey method of research. A questionnaire was developed for this purpose by the two investigators.

Sample

One-day state level workshop was organised and data was also collected from the field functionaries who were associated with the adult literacy programme directly or indirectly i.e. from District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) or ZSS (Zilla Sakhsharta Samiti) or from any other registered or un-registered organisation working at the block level. Thus a stratified random sample of 115 field functionaries was taken from the various districts of Punjab.

Data, Analysis and Interpretation
Table: Distribution of sample

| District | No of ZSS functionaries | No. of DIET functionaries | No. of functionaries from other organisation | Workshop Conducted At RRC |
|-----------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|---------------------------|
| Bathinda | 8 | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| Fatehgarh Shaib | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Ludiana | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sangrur | 10 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Patiala | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Ferozpur | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Faridkot | 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Hoshiarpur | 6 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Kapurthala | 17 | 0 | 11 | 0 |
| Nawanshehar | 17 | 0 | 3 | 1 |
| Roopnagar | 6 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Jallandar | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Muksar | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Gurdaspur | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Mohali | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| Total | 84 | 4 | 17 | 10 |

Tools Used

For the purpose of collection of the data a structured questionnaire was prepared. This has following two parts:

Part – I dealt with the general characteristic of the studies undertaken.

(Annexure I)

Part – II dealt with the question about the knowledge of research in adult education, its utilisation and suggestions, if any, for better utilisation of research finding in adults literacy programme.

Analysis of the findings

It was found that only ten out of a total of 115 respondents have gone through one or more than one research studies. This implies that only a few field functionaries have knowledge about the research undertaken in the area of adult education.

The research studies known to the field functionaries are project reports and not academic theses or dissertations. This is attributed to the non-dissemination of

such reports at block or district level. This needs wide publicity of the findings in the regional languages and coverage by the multi media. Reporting of the finding in local newspaper will be of paramount importance. Workshops on dissemination and discussions of the results of the various research reports/theses may be taken up locally in relation to developing a plan for implementation of findings and relating them with the research process in the field.

Most of the times the field functionaries expressed their problems and did not mention research topics to be covered. The field functionaries have reported the knowledge of project type research in adult education. They know about the research conducted on causes of drop outs of adult learners from literacy campaign, mobilisation & motivational aspects of learners, IPCL primers methodology, village development and literacy, population education, implementation of TLC, attitude of adult learners towards TLC and adolescent Education. Regarding suggestions for setting priorities of topics to be researched on adult education only few functionaries could give suggestions. It was found out that these functionaries were better qualified than the rest. They revealed that the research being conducted is more academic in nature and not practical i.e. action oriented research. They suggested that research in adult education should be done on topics, which can help in better implementation of projects in the field. A very important suggestion of the present study is that research reports and findings should be translated into regional languages and be disseminated at the local level in book format. Most of them desired the active interaction of field workers in adult education workshops. Based on the recommendation it is suggested that a seminar on action research in adult education be taken up half yearly and an effort be made to form an association of the field functionaries of adult education. The expressed areas of research by the field functionaries were oriented towards the successful implementation of the project findings in the field.

The various topics of research to be taken up according to the functionaries in the fields are:

- To study the working condition of the literacy centers and to find ways of improvement.
- To study the characteristics of the successful volunteers and impact of training of the volunteers.
- To find out the reason's why the projects are abandoned in the mid-way.
- To find out the factors associated with successful take up of residual illiteracy.
- To find out the problems of volunteers/learners/ teachers, and to find out solutions for motivation.
- To study the role of adult education in economic development at family level.
- To study relationship of the monitoring strategies and techniques with the achievements of the learners.
- To study how the participation of local government can be strengthened.

- To relate the success of the project with logistics of material production and distribution.
- To study the role of adult education in transforming the economic and social status of women.
- To study the impact of training on the job and in field set up.

Suggestions

From the analysis of the findings of the study, the following suggestions can be made for successfully carrying out the research in the field of adult education.

- Research studies should be published and should reach all- the ZSS functionaries so that the persons engaged in this field gain greater insights by acquiring knowledge.
- Research studies should be translated in the regional languages and disseminated throughout.
- Workshop on regional research conducted in Adult Education as a follow up to be taken up after every six months.
- Research needs to be conducted in the emerging areas as suggested by functionaries of adult education at various levels.
- Forming of Associations of Field Functionaries of Adult Education.
- A repository of research in adult Education may be planned to collect database of research activities with the intention to synthesise bibliographies and material lying scattered in the institutions.

Adult Education Research: Priorities to be placed

The analysis of the studies carried out in the area of adult education in the state shows that most of the studies are impact/ evaluation studies' Very few studies involve functionality. There is a need of developing theoretical concepts of adult education in order to understand development of its sub-components. It is a welcome sign that the impact/ evaluation studies are being taken up in large numbers, which are the basic need for development of the society. It is felt that fundamental or theoretical research may be taken up and planned to build a body of knowledge on adult education. Research for field-testing is incorporated to study the impact of National Literacy Mission. Efforts should be made to build up awareness. Role of media and the functionality component of the programme along with its various other aspects be taken up for research. Over-lapping of the work by different development agencies in the field must be avoided and relative role of these agencies be defined. Lack of interest and negative attitude towards adult education research could be attributed to the marginal consideration of adult education as an enterprise.

More areas of research could be related to administration and organisation of adult education at the government and local level, Its policy planning, economics of

adult education and development of appropriate reading material and methodologies, mass media its effect and role be studied.

Evaluation of the programmes, inter-disciplinary research projects could also be undertaken to promote research in adult education. Continuing Education Seems to be less explored, so there is a need to place more stress on this aspect of adult education. Relationship of elementary education with adult literacy in bringing about education for all may also be taken up for research in a quantitative and qualitative perspective by utilising secondary sources as well as the primary sources.

Summary and conclusions

Research in Adult Education is a developing field. From the results of the present study, utilisation of research conducted in the field of adult education can be divided into two categories, namely theoretical and practical. The research conducted by the universities and colleges for degree viz. (Ph.D, M.Phil, M.Ed) is usually of theoretical type, On the other hand the research on the topics of practical value is being carried out in the form of Research Projects sanctioned by NLM/ DAE, or through Ministry of 'Human Resource Development, Govt. of India. The latter kind of research has been conducted in the State Resource Centers. There is lack of balance between practice oriented and disciplined oriented adult education. The purpose of the discipline-oriented research is to develop and test theories in order to lay foundations for applied research.

Utilisation of research findings in adult Education involves the dissemination of results in the field.

This study was conducted in two phases. In the first phase of the study, already published research studies were collected in the form of reports, thesis or dissertation for a degree. All the important institutions in the region were contacted to report on the research conducted in the area of adult Education. The studies gathered were categorised by arbitrary classification scheme devised through a workshop mode and abstracts of each study were prepared.

In the second phase the data were collected from primary sources. Workshop was conducted for this specific purpose. This was supplemented by collecting data from the field that is from DIETs, ZSS and other institutions. It was found that the results of research are minimally disseminated at district level. In general the functionaries are not aware of these projects and about the research being carried in the Universities. Thus the present study suggests that the results of the research may be disseminated widely at the district level and the efforts should be made to incorporate the findings in the main stream of adult education programmes.

Training workshops/courses need to be organised for state level functionaries

inclusive of district level workers on research methodology relevant to Adult Education Programmes. Regional/State Resource Centres can undertake this task in future. From the results of this study, it seems that very little is being done to put the findings of various research studies into practice.

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Annexure-I

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Mobilization Strategies on Partnership for Sustainable Community Development in South-Western Nigeria

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Olawuni A.O.*

Abstract

This paper examined the mobilization strategies as determinants of partnership in sustainable community development projects in South West, Nigeria. This is with the view of determining the strategies for effective mobilization of community people, the government and other community development agencies to partner in order to have sustainable community development projects in their communities.

The descriptive survey research design was adopted for the study. The target population consisted of Community people, Community Based Organization leaders, Change-agent officers and Community development officials in nine purposively selected local governments in Oyo, Ogun and Ondo states of Nigeria. The stratified random sampling technique was used to select 1217 community development partners in the selected local government areas. Two sets of questionnaires, using the Likert five points rating scale was used to test the attitude of the respondents and the open-ended questionnaire were also used to test other areas. This was complemented with the use of a structured Key Informat Interview (KII) for community organization leaders and Focus Group Discussion (FGD) for government officers, NGOs, community development agents and other stakeholders in community's development. The statistical methods used to test the two hypotheses generated for the study were descriptive statistical tools of simple frequency count and simple regression statistics was used to analyse the research questions.

From the study, findings showed that there were joint impacts of community education, integration of different groups, provision of development information, teamwork, and change –agent methodologies on partnership for sustainable community development. Based on the findings, it was recommended that project initiation should always be with the knowledge of community people who are the direct beneficiaries of the projects. Also efforts should be geared towards building the spirit of team work, social networking and adequate enlightening programme should be engaged for community people to partner with the government to develop their community.

Introduction

Nigeria is the largest country in the continent of Africa with her complex political background. It is divided into six geo-political zones namely: North West, North-Central, North East, South-West, South East and South-South. Northern part of Nigeria is dominated by Hausa and Fulani tribes; the Southern part is occupied by the Ibos tribe; while the Southwestern is mainly occupied by the Yorubas. Southwestern Nigeria is comprises of six states namely: Oyo, Osun, Ondo, Ekiti, Ogun and Lagos states. This research work was carried out in Oyo and Ogun states in Southwestern Nigeria. The community people in the area of study need to be mobilized and partners with other community developers in order to have a sustainable community development in their communities. Therefore, apparently because of the large population, mainly comprising of rural people, mobilization becomes highly essential for the programming process for development, particularly in the area of change in the knowledge, attitude and behaviour of project communities. Mobilization involves the pooling together of local resources for an effective operation. Mobilization for community work involves getting the citizens to actually engage in activities designed for ensuring better living for the whole community. The idea is rooted in the context of getting people to work themselves out of the limited circumstances of life such as impoverished physical and spiritual environment, poor health, bad road network, and low standard of living and so on. Mobilization of citizen in the community toward the development of their community is social (Anyanwu, 1992). In addition, the right mobilization strategies must be put in place in order to have sustainable community development in Southwestern Nigeria.

In community development, different resources are available for implementing programmes of development. These are material and non- material resources. The material resources include things like money, raw materials, manufactured goods, technical equipment like factories, lorries, caterpillars among others while the non – materials include combination of time, knowledge, official position, energy, popularity, social status etc, all of which are built around human element. (Cordian, 1984; and Dairo, 2004). Most times, all these resources have been found to be inert and remain unutilized due to some reasons like lack of leadership, lack of societal cohesion, poverty, lack of awareness, illiteracy, low self-concept of ability, opposition by individuals or groups, over – conformity, lack of trust, general apathy and rehabilitating traditions among others. In order to overcome all these obstacles, there is need to apply effective mobilization strategies.

Community people will even be more importantly aware of their rights and of their responsibilities. Through mobilization, we can make people aware of the problems of their society, what they are as individuals and as groups, and what they can do towards relieving these problems. According to Anyanwu, mobilization in its true and authentic meaning according to him, involves:

- i. The process of including self-consciousness and self-awareness in the people as to their own objective conditions;
- ii. The appreciation and realization of their potentialities to change things around;
- iii. The process of empowering the people to undertake their own development to self, direct their own destiny, and to restructure their own prepared life-style; and finally;
- iv. To process transformation (Anyanwu 2002).

The process of self-consciousness and self-awareness in the people as their own objective condition is one of the process of mobilization. It also involves the process of empowering the people to undertake their own development and to process transformation (Anyanwu, 2002).

In mobilization process in Southwestern Nigeria, different groups and levels of the society need to be involved. Those groups that need to be engaged in social mobilization include: decision and policy makers, service providers, communication and media channels, education systems, non-governmental agencies, the community, and Individuals (Osuji, 1995). In order to change this trend, there is a need to outright intensify and justify effective mobilization strategies to enhance community people partnership in developmental processes. These mobilization strategies include: community education, integration of different groups, provision of development information, teamwork and change agent methodologies. There is need for community people to realize that government and other community development agencies alone cannot develop their community for them. Rather, they need to partner with them so as to achieve sustainability of community development projects in their communities. This is done through measures of:

- (i) Establishing appropriate framework for the positive mobilization and education of community citizen toward partnering with the government;
- (ii) Inculcating in citizens the value and spirit of civic responsibility;
- (iii) Commitment to social justice and economic self-reliance through mobilization;
- (iv) Propagating the virtues of handwork, honesty, self-reliance, commitment to, and promotion of national integration in the life of community citizens;
- (v) Empowering community citizen to demand satisfaction of their needs; and
- (vi) Modifying the behaviour of individuals for the adoption of appropriate practices and technologies (Osuji, 1995)

However, community people needed to be mobilized effectively by ensuring partnership for sustainable community development when they realized that the development work is their joint effort. Community people needed to be mobilized and set ready to make themselves available for any community development programmes that come on their way and be ready to provide both the material and human resources while government provides the technical assistance, funds to empower the community people.

Some agencies of mobilization in Nigeria include Mass Mobilization for Social and Economic self-Reliance (MAMSER)(1987), Directorate of Food, Road and Rural Infrastructures (DFRRI)(1986), National Youth Service Corps (NYSC)(1973), National Orientation Agencies (NOA)(2000), to mention a few. They are to mobilize community people on mass literacy, mass education as well as political education in their programmes of self – awareness.

They all work closely together in the interest of the deprived and the disadvantaged. The works of the agencies of mobilization include programmes for the economic welfare of the groups, facilities for their educational development which will make their participation in development a practical possibility. And finally, their work also include programmes of consciousness and awareness raising that open their eyes to the socio-cultural factors which determine their present realities to power and inherent responsibility to change and transform those realities (Akinpelu, 2002).

Some of the mobilization strategies that will bring effective partnership between the community people, the government and other community development agencies include: Community Education; Integration of different groups; Provision of development information; Team work; and Change-agents methodologies. These change Agents methodologies also include: the open method, the rural forum, the instructional group method; non formal learning method; the participatory group method and the direct information given method. All these mobilization strategies will enhance sustainable community development projects when they were well adopted.

Statement of the Problem

Community development projects in Nigeria have been observed to be based on a top-down approach where most of the projects were imposed on community people. The community people were not involved from the project initiation to the last stage of evaluation. And most of these projects were abandoned and some die prematurely at the stage of planning.

And community people perceive that it is the government responsibility to provide those infrastructures and develop their communities for them the problem of funding those projects are still another challenge.

It is becoming increasingly clear that government cannot meet the ever-growing demand for water, waste management, road, energy and other infrastructural services acting alone. The mobilization strategies that are on ground are not effective enough to mobilize the community people. The mobilization drive is so low and this has been hindering the effective mobilization of community people to partner with the government and other community development agencies in order to have sustainable community development programmes in their communities.

Objectives of the study

The main objective of the study was to examine mobilization strategies as determinants of partnership in sustainable community development projects. However, the specific objectives are to:

- i) determine the joint impact of identified mobilization strategies on partnership for sustainable community development projects;
- ii) determine the relative impact of identified mobilization strategies on partnership for sustainable community development projects;
- ii) suggest ways through which partnership can foster sustainable community development.

Research Questions

Precisely, in order to provide answers to the objectives of the studies, this study tried to find answers to the following questions:

- (i) What are the joint impacts of mobilization strategies on partnership for sustainable community development?
- (ii) What are the relative impacts of mobilization strategies on partnership for sustainable community development?
- (iii) In what ways can partnership foster sustainable community development?

Methodology

The design for the study is descriptive survey of the ex-post facto type. The choice of the descriptive research design was as a result of influence of mobilization strategies for community partnering in the provision of infrastructure which had already occurred in its various manifestations and, thus, required no manipulation or control of variables. This design enabled collection of data directly from participants. Also, Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and Key Informant Interviews (KIs) were also adopted to complement the descriptive survey research design

Population of the Study

The target population for this study comprises of Community people, Community Based Organization leaders, Community Development Association leaders who are political, religious, youth, opinion, and NGOs leaders', Change-agent officers and Community development officials in the selected communities of the selected local governments in Oyo, Ogun and Ondo states. The total population for the study is estimated to be 12,442.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

This study adopted multi-stage sampling procedure comprising cluster, purposive, stratified and simple random sampling techniques.

The three states of Oyo, Ogun and Ondo were stratified along the three existing senatorial districts, using the cluster sampling techniques in each state. The nine senatorial districts in the three states include: Oyo North, Oyo Central, Oyo South, Ogun East, Ogun Central, Ogun West, Ondo North, Ondo Central and Ondo South. The second stage involved the selection of one local government purposively from each of the three senatorial districts. The choice of these local government areas was based on the greater numbers of community development projects that were executed. The selected local government areas in Oyo State include: Kajola, Ibadan South East and Ogbomosho South; and in Ogun State were: Sagamu, Ifo and Ipokia; Ondo State: Akoko North West, Ondo West and Ileoluji/ Okegbo.

From the selected areas, the following number of leaders was selected: 331 political leaders, 244 religious leaders, 272 youth leaders, 102 NGOs officers, 155 change-agent officers and 133 community development officers.

In all, the population size was made up of 12,442 respondents and 1,242 samples which were stated in the table below:

Table 1: Population for the study

| State | Senatorial district | L.G.A's | Pol. leaders | Rel. leaders | Youth leaders | NGOs | change agent officers | C.D officers |
|-------|---------------------|-------------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|------|-----------------------|--------------|
| Oyo | North | Kajola | 314 | 217 | 197 | 66 | 94 | 87 |
| | Central | Ibadan S.E. | 348 | 246 | 284 | 57 | 74 | 79 |
| | South | Ogbomosho South | 374 | 334 | 394 | 96 | 114 | 96 |
| Ogun | East | Sagamu | 371 | 193 | 192 | 174 | 107 | 86 |
| | Central | Ifo | 401 | 244 | 253 | 125 | 164 | 132 |
| | West | Ipokia | 391 | 374 | 314 | 122 | 176 | 126 |
| Ondo | North | Akoko N.W | 256 | 246 | 294 | 113 | 215 | 186 |
| | Central | Ondo West | 465 | 324 | 383 | 142 | 276 | 275 |
| | South | Ileoluji/ Okeigbo | 386 | 274 | 432 | 174 | 344 | 242 |
| Pop | | | 3304 | 2452 | 2744 | 1069 | 1564 | 1309 |
| Total | | | 12,442 | | | | | |

Source: Field-work

The sample of the population is 0.1, that is 10% of the population, and it was stated in the table as thus:

Table 2: Sample of the population for the study

| State | Senatorial district | L.G.A's | Pol. leaders | Rel. leaders | Youth leaders | NGOs | Change agent officers | C.D officers |
|--------------|---------------------|------------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|------|-----------------------|--------------|
| Oyo | North | Kajola | 31 | 22 | 20 | 7 | 9 | 9 |
| | Central | Ibadan S.E | 35 | 25 | 28 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| | South | Ogbomososo South | 37 | 33 | 39 | 10 | 11 | 10 |
| Ogun | East | Sagamu | 37 | 19 | 19 | 17 | 11 | 9 |
| | Central | Ifo | 40 | 24 | 25 | 13 | 16 | 13 |
| | West | Ipokia | 39 | 37 | 31 | 12 | 17 | 13 |
| Ondo | North | Akoko N.W | 26 | 25 | 29 | 11 | 22 | 19 |
| | Central | Ondo West | 47 | 32 | 38 | 14 | 28 | 28 |
| | South | Ileduji/Okeigbo | 39 | 27 | 43 | 17 | 34 | 24 |
| Sample (0.1) | | | 331 | 244 | 272 | 107 | 155 | 133 |
| Total | | | 1,242 | | | | | |

Source: Field-work

FINDINGS

Table 3: Sample Regression Analysis of Joint Impact of Mobilization Strategies and partnership on Sustainable Community Development

| R= 0.341 * R ² = 0.116 R ² adjusted = 0.116 Coefficient of determination (R ² x100%) = 11.6 Standard error of estimation = 1.10303 | | | | | |
|---|--------------------|------|------------------|---------|---|
| Analysis of Variance | | | | | |
| Source of variation | Sum of square (SS) | Df | Mean square (MS) | F-ratio | |
| Regression | 501.676 | 5 | 100.335 | 36.119 | * |
| Residual | 3811.277 | 1212 | 2.778 | | |
| Total | 4312.952 | 1217 | | | |

Significant at P < 0.05

Interpretation and Discussion of Findings

Table 3 shows the linear combination of Community Education, Integration of different groups, Provision of Development Information, Teamwork and Change Agent

Methodologies on Partnership for Sustainable Community development. The result further establishes that the composite effect of the mobilization strategies did not occur by chance, as it gave the F-ratio value of 36.119 which signifies the effectiveness of the independent variables in predicting the dependent variable.

The linear coefficient (R) between mobilization strategies on partnership for sustainable community development is 0.341. Typically, a correlation coefficient of 0.5 is taken to indicate a strong positive relationship between the two variables or strong influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable. R value of 0.341 indicates that there is a strong influence of mobilization strategies on partnership for sustainable community development. The coefficient is significant at $P < 0.05$; this means that influences of mobilization strategies on partnership for sustainable community development is not a mere statistics change. Since R is significant at the specified probability, the above stated null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis adopted 1.10303.

The R square value of regression analysis of mobilization strategies on partnership for sustainable community development is 0.116, its coefficient of determination, which is derived from it is 11.66% and the F-ratio of 36.119. The coefficient of determination 11.66% indicate that 11.66% of variation in sustainable community development is explained by mobilization strategies on partnership. This means that 11.66% of the observed sustainable community development in the selected communities is explained and contributed by partnership of community developers. There are other variables and factors that explain the remaining 88.44%. However, the sum of squares due to regress (501.676) is less than the some of squares due to residual (3811.277). This implies that the linear regress model does not give good account of sustainable community development.

Also, about 986 or 81% of the respondents that were used for FGDs agreed that there is a strong relationship between partnership and sustainable community development. One of the participants of FGD in Oyo state responded that:

"Nobody imposed any project on us. We were involved in the project initiation and we do it together. I am one of planning committee member, and we use to meet monthly with community development officials from the local government and at the state level at secretariat. Before we embark on any project, we will agree and see how we will go about it. All responsibilities were taking care of by all community developers"

Male FGD Participant in Oyo State/ 65years (March, 2009)

Another participant in Ogun state also said that:

"We work together as development partners with the government. Initially when we started a project, we use our resources and communal efforts to start it. And if we could not continue with it in the area of funds, government will intervene and the projects would be successfully executed".

Female FGD Participant in Ogun State/52years (April, 2009)

The finding emphasizes the view that partnership of community developers must be inclusive and not exclusive. This will bring about total commitment of all the people concerned and it will help towards the realization of the goals and objectives of such projects. The finding also shows that community developers tend to mobilize one another and partner together in initiation, implementation monitoring and evaluation of projects for sustainable community development projects. They should work together as a team and be one in decision-making whenever there is need to do so.

One of the participants used for FGD in Ondo state said:

"You cannot do the work of community development alone, but work together as a team. We do the planning, execution and implementation of the programme together with the change-agents and community development officers"

Male FGD Participant in Ondo state/ 54years (May 5, 2009)

Another KII participant responded in Ogun said that:

"Community development projects were been executed and been successful based on the solid teamwork among the development workers. We see ourselves as one big family and we work as a team. Different groups and community development associations work together and see the need why we must partner together to have sustainable community development projects. For example, the provision of electricity at "Ajebandele" community at Sagamu local government area in Ogun state was as a result of strong teamwork among the community developers in the area"

Male KII Participant in Ogun State/49years (June 28, 2009)

On the impact of community education on partnership for sustainable community development, one of the participants of FGD in Ondo also said:

"We used to have enlightening programme on radio, television and newspapers. The change agents used to bring film show for us to watch in order to motivate community people to develop their

communities when they partner with the government and we used to enjoy it"

Female FGD Participant in Ondo State/46years (July 16, 2009)

Also, 876 or 72% of the people used for the FGD agreed with the fact that integration of different groups and social networking encourages unity and corporation among the development partners. One of them in Ogun responded that:

"We see ourselves as one and we are united to partner and develop our communities together, since we are going to benefit from it all together". Our community belongs to us and our children, so we must develop it to the betterment of the whole communities"

Male FGD Participant in Ogun State/ 56 years (June 11, 2009).

Table 4: The Relative Contribution of Mobilization Strategies on Partnership for Sustainable Community Development

| Relative Contributions | Unstandardised Coefficient | | Standardised Coefficient | F | Sig. | Rank |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|--------|------|------|
| | B | SE(β) | Beta contributions | | | |
| (Constant) | 8.366 | .591 | | 14.155 | .000 | Sig |
| Community Education | 2.622E-.02 | .023 | .035 | 1.123 | .262 | N.S |
| Integration of different groups | .114 | .017 | .208 | 6.536 | .000 | Sig |
| Provision of Development Information | 3.387E-02 | .024 | .052 | 1.418 | .156 | N.S |
| Teamwork | -.167 | .023 | -.271 | -7.330 | .000 | Sig |
| Change Agent Methodologies | 9.703E-02 | .012 | .249 | 8.288 | .000 | Sig |

Interpretation of Findings

Table 4 shows that among all the independent variables, Integration of Different Groups ($\hat{\alpha} = .208$, $P < 0.05$), Teamwork ($\hat{\alpha} = -.271$, $P < 0.05$); Change Agent Methodologies ($\hat{\alpha} = .249$, $P < 0.05$) were significant, with varying contributions while, Community Education $\hat{\alpha} = .035$, $P > 0.05$) and Provision of Development Information ($\hat{\alpha} = .052$, $P > 0.05$) were not significant to the study.

Table 4 reveals at a glance, the significant relative effect of the three independent variables on partnership for sustainable community development projects. The result shows that teamwork made strongest relative contribution ($\hat{\alpha} = -.271$), followed by Change Agent Methodologies ($\hat{\alpha} = .249$), followed by Integration of different groups ($\hat{\alpha} = .208$). Community Education and provision of Development Information were not significant to the study.

Teamwork has the strongest relative contribution on partnership for sustainable community development. Change-agent methodologies also has strong contribution since they give opportunities to various ways of educating and empowering the community developers to partner and developed their communities. When different groups such as youth, religious, political groups were integrated together for partnership, people will be mobilized and sustainable community development projects will be assured. When the finding shows that community education and provision of development information were not nor significant to the study, that did not means that they were not relevant. Community people cannot be effectively mobilized without having strong community education programmes on ground and without development information network, effort of partnership for sustainable community development will be in vain.

Conclusion

All mobilization strategies discussed above were essential in order to have sustainable community development projects in our communities. These strategies, when they were well approached will encourage and mobilize community people to partner with the government and other community development agencies in order to have sustainable community development projects.

Since mobilization for community work involves getting the citizens to actually engage in activities designed for their better living as a community, the idea is rooted in the psychology of getting people to work themselves out of limiting circumstances of life. Success must depend on the cooperative effort of difference groups working together as a team. This is because success in community work demands that whatever is done to improve the welfare of a people must endeavour to elicit their enthusiasm and wholehearted participation (Anyanwn 2002).

Effective communication enables people to exercise control over their environment. It constitutes a dynamic process that involves constant change of ideas and information among people for the solution of problems and the spread of understanding. Through development information, community people will be effectively mobilized on how they can partner with the government and other community developers in their community. All the age groups, social clubs, religious organization and others will be feed with information that are necessary for effective partnership between community people and the government.

When people have to work closely together to achieve a common task, they naturally develop feelings toward-each other. There will be mutual trust, mutual support, communication and conflict resolution among the team members. There should be group leadership needs and member resources should be adequately utilized.

In mobilization of community members to partner with the government and other

community development partners, he has a lot of methods to adopt and those strategies must be effectively adopted in order to have sustainable community development projects in their communities.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were suggested in order to have sustainable community development:

- ◆ Community people must be always consider in any community development project since they are the number one beneficiaries of the projects, starting from the project initiation to the final stage of evaluation of the project.
- ◆ There must be transparency among the community developers in order to protect the spirit of trust in each other for effective partnership. This will enable them to work together on trust.
- ◆ There should be equal sharing of the benefits among the community developers, since they all partner together to make the project come to reality. Hence, there shouldn't be partiality in sharing the benefits when they come.
- ◆ The funding of the community development projects should be the joint effort of the community developers, as this will give them all the sense of belonging to such projects that they executed on partnership with other community developers.

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I, Dr. Madan Singh, hereby declare that the particulars given above are true to the best of my knowledge and belief.

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Revolution in Cuba: It's Measure on Rural Education

M.C.Reddeppa Reddy

"Cuba's achievements in social development are impressive given the size of its gross domestic product per capita. As the human development index of the United Nations makes clear year after year, Cuba should be the envy of many other nations, ostensibly far richer. [Cuba] demonstrates how much nations can do with the resources they have if they focus on the right priorities - health, education, and literacy."

— **Kofi Annan, Secretary General of the United Nations, April 11, 2000.**

Abstract

The present paper describes the national literacy campaign in Cuba, different forms of education viz., formal education - primary through further education; non-formal education - adult education, rural education, women education, youth movement schools, independent libraries, which are imparting rural education in Cuba. The experiments, innovations in methods, structures and forms, which appear more revolutionary in the field of rural education, will be explained. The factors for the achievement and overall impact of rural education on social development will also be presented.

Introduction

As per UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2006), the total population in Cuba is 11.3 million. Of which 25 per cent of population live in rural areas. The population growth rate is 0.2 per cent. Education in Cuba has been one of the great successes of the revolution in Cuba. Before the revolution in 1959, there were few schools in Cuba, one quarter of the population in Cuba received no education and was illiterate;

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the illiteracy rates were high (25 per cent overall: 9 per cent in Havana, 40 per cent in the country), and those who had been to school had very little education. After the revolution, President Fidel Castro came to power in January 1959; and announced the Cuban social policy, which is characterized by its emphasis on universal coverage and reach for all programs and for all educational, health, and social benefits. These are seen as part of a "social wage" that workers accrue in addition to their monetary wage (Uriate Miren, 2002). Social policy has also favored the development of equity across society, including the equitable distribution of benefits across all sectors of the population, sometimes favoring the most vulnerable. In the last 50 years, Cubans have greatly reduced differences in income between the lowest and the highest paid persons.

Cuban social policy is also characterized by the exclusive participation of the public sector in its development and execution. The government assumes responsibility for financing social programs and for providing all social benefits. Thus, the literacy levels have soared due to comprehensive education policies introduced in Cuba. Because of the comprehensive education system in Cuba, the literacy rate stands at 94 per cent. This comprehensive education system is considered one of the best in the world. Cuba joined UNESCO in August 1947. Its capital, Havana, is home to the Regional Bureau for Culture in Latin America and the Caribbean (ORCALC), which in February 2005 celebrated its 50th anniversary.

National Literacy Campaign of 1961

Shortly after President Fidel Castro came to power in January 1959, he has taken steps to implement a mass literacy campaign in 1961, which had thousands of middle-class youths volunteer to go into rural areas to teach. The National Literacy Campaign, which mobilized every political or mass organization, abolished illiteracy within one year. The literacy campaign began in 1961, and that year was designated Education Year in Cuba. The initial goal was to teach everybody to read and writes; schools for adults were opened, and lessons were given in factories and on farms. The Campaign was recognized as one of the most successful initiatives of its kind, mobilized teachers, workers, and secondary school students to teach more than 700,000 persons how to read.

The Campaign has reduced the illiteracy rate from 26 per cent to 4 per cent in the space of one year i.e., by 1962; the illiteracy rate in Cuba has remained under 10 per cent and today it stands at 6.8 per cent of the population. Thus, the Cuba's record on literacy and education is noteworthy: 99.8 per cent of Cubans aged over 15 are literate, a rate that reaches 100 per cent for those in the 15 to 24—age range. Cuba has managed to maintain its high literacy rate. In 2004, the Central Intelligence Agency reported the island's literacy rate was 97 per cent. Only a small minority of Cubans are illiterate.

By 1980, Cuba could claim that every adult had reached at least elementary level, and most children were completing secondary level. The Cuban campaign is impressive at first sight. The Cuban model is now being used in several countries worldwide. In the wake of the 1959 revolution, in Bitten court's view, the natural result of a policy of universal and free education for all Cubans, which began by reducing illiteracy in the country to 3.8 per cent in just one year (1961).

There had been progress in Cuba in post-literacy area that was nothing less than fantastic. Battles of the sixth Grade and of the Eighth Grade were almost behind them; and a parallel system of education for working adults during their spare time had come into being. On the other hand, post-literacy materials were available in a large variety and at very low costs. A book or an education record could be bought more cheaply than a bottle of soda pop.

Formal Education

Before revolution in 1959, the educational attainment of Cubans stood at third grade. Forty-five percent of primary school children did not attend school, and 26 per cent of the population over 10 years old was illiterate. The first nine years of school education are compulsory in Cuba. Students who are interested and qualified go on to prep school and university. As of 1959, almost 630000 people have graduated from higher education institutions in various fields in Cuba, while several millions have graduated from high school. Education became a priority for the new government, and the results of that dedication can be seen all over Cuba today. Since the revolution, Cuba has maintained high standards of educational development (Lowery Nelson, 1971).

In the 1960s and 1970s, schools were constructed, and a system of scholarships was instituted that assured that all children, regardless of where they lived or the economic situation of the family, would be able to attend the school. The number of children in the labor force, low even in 1960 when compared to Latin America as a whole, first decreased and then dropped to zero as the availability of schools led to dramatic increases in the rates of enrollment in primary, secondary (high school), and tertiary (university or professional school) education.

Education is considered a right of every citizen and is provided free of charge at every level i.e., from elementary school up to university and compulsory until 9th grade. The Cuban educational system includes pre-primary, primary (1 to 6), secondary (7 to 9), and pre-university or technical/professional education (10 to 12). University education is also available. The evolution in this area is similar. In 1961, the government nationalized all private schools and introduced a state-directed education system. It includes a combination of programs in pre-school, 12 or 13 grades, higher education, teacher training, adult education (notably literacy campaigns and continued study by working people), technical education (which is parallel to secondary

education), language instruction, and specialized education. Besides free education at all levels, supplementary scholarships were provided to cover living expenses and medical assistance. Primary education is compulsory for children between 6 and 11 years of age. Courses involving technology, agriculture, and teacher training are emphasized.

There are 1115 day-care centers in the country, with a total enrolment of 145 100 children, thus benefiting 135 000 mothers. Cuba maintains 9487 primary schools, 1943 high schools and 48 higher education centers. More than 170 scientific research centers work on the island. Primary school enrolment adds up to 1289000 children; secondary school enrolment was 778 000; while university enrolment was 127 000. It has 17.8 teachers per one thousand inhabitants, and education costs in relation with the GDP amount to almost 6.3 per cent. As of September 2006, Cuba has 62 schools participating in UNESCO's Associated Schools. A 1998 study by UNESCO reported that Cuban students showed a high level of educational achievement. Cuban third and fourth graders scored 350 points, 100 points above the regional average in tests of basic language and mathematics skills. The report indicated that the test achievement of the lower half of students in Cuba was significantly higher than the test achievement of the upper half of students in other Central and South American countries in the study group.

As per UIS (2006), 97 per cent of the children (6-11 years) were attending primary schools. Only 3 per cent of children of primary school age are out-of-school. The gross intake rate to last grade of primary school is 92. The survival rate of children to grade five is about 97 per cent and all the children are proceeding to secondary level. Only one per cent of children is repeating the same grade at primary level.

Secondary Education

Secondary education is divided into basic secondary education and pre-university secondary education. The curriculum in primary and secondary schools is based upon principles of "hard work, self-discipline and love of country". At the end of basic secondary education, pupils can choose between pre-university education and technical and professional education. The students, who complete pre-university education, are awarded the Bachillerato. Technical training leads to two levels of qualification - skilled worker and middle-level technician. Successful completion of this cycle gives access to the technological institutes.

Most secondary school students in Cuba go to schools in the countryside, where about 500 students per school live in integrated schools, returning home at the weekends. They spend half the day in the classroom and the other half in agricultural work, usually on citrus plantations. Vocational schools combine study with work in factories. In addition, students are responsible for maintaining the schools and keeping

them clean. Sports schools exist for those who show special interest and skills in sports and these students do their share in agriculture.

School attendance is compulsory from ages 6 to 15 or 16 (end of basic secondary education) and all students, regardless of age or sex, wear school uniforms with the color denoting grade level. Schools are considered a basic cultural institution. All graduates from elementary, secondary, pre-university and technological schools have the guarantee of continuing to upper levels and university graduates are guaranteed access to employment. Thus, the enrollments in secondary education also climbed from 14 per cent in 1960 to a high of 87 per cent in 2006.

The level of education and the number of teachers available meant that Cuba by the 1980s was able to assist other developing countries to develop education and literacy programmes. About 15,000 Cuban teachers worked in the literacy campaign from 1981 to 1983 in Nicaragua (where some were killed by Contra rebels). By 1987, Cuban volunteer teachers, doctors, nurses, technicians, engineers and other skilled workers were working or had worked in Mexico, Nicaragua, Colombia, Guyana, Jamaica, Grenada, Algeria, Libya, Mali, Guinea-Bissau, Zaire, Cape Verde, Angola, Mozambique, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Iraq, Yemen, Afghanistan, Mongolia, Laos, and Viet Nam. In addition, Cuba built special schools on the Isle of Youth to teach children from Africa and Latin America.

The Training of teachers

The training of teachers is at present the center of greatest effort. Teacher training includes study and research on educational subjects, active participation in the educational workshops, participation in People's Cultural Circles, and in literary and scientific seminars. The circles and seminars are part of a governmental effort to make Cuban education an integrated and continuous process. However, Cuba had deliberately avoided the institutionalization of training of literacy teachers. Initial training was no more than one week and further training took place as part of working on the job of being a teacher. Teachers were kept out of the 'capitalist maze of accreditations'.

Further education/University education

University education is free to all students in Cuba. The education provided at the universities of Cuba is of a high standard and the teachers are often Doctorate degree holders. Many students from other countries come to receive their further education in Cuba due to the cheaper costs and good standards of education on offer. University graduates in Cuba are expected to serve two years community service in the discipline in which they received their education, usually in poor rural communities in Cuba, and for a very low wage.

Enrollments in higher education increased from a low of 7 per cent of the population of tertiary age in 1970 to a high of 88 per cent in 2006. However, these enrollments were strongly affected by the economic crisis of the 1990s, dropping to 12 per cent in 1996. As of 1959, university studies acquired a massive character and up to the present university graduates add up to 700000, that is to say, there is one university graduate out of seven Cuban workers. Further, the educational attainment of Cubans has translated into a highly educated workforce: of all Cuban workers, 14 per cent have a university degree.

Resources for Education

The total expenditure on education as percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is 9.1 and as of total government, expenditure of 14.2 per cent goes to education. The distribution of public expenditure as per UIE (2006), for each level is 9 per cent at pre-primary level, 32 per cent at primary level, 37 per cent at secondary level and 23 per cent at tertiary level. Juan Casassus study also shatters another pre-conceived idea: that good education requires substantial resources. While the results do not imply that funding is unnecessary, they strongly suggest, adds Casassus, "that socio-cultural factors affect good achievement more than economic factors."

Non-formal education

Nonformal education is an integral part of Cuban society at the national, provincial, and municipal levels and is strongly linked to the education system. Contributing sectors include Public Health, Culture, and Sports, as well as organizations such as the Federation of Cuban Women, Neighborhood Watch Committees for the Defense of the Revolution, People's Councils, Pioneer Youth groups (similar to Boy and Girl Scouts), and the National Commission for Prevention and Social Care (Ministry of Education 1996).

Adult education

Another nonformal sphere in Cuba is adult education. Adult education is offered in elementary education, secondary course of worker education, worker-farmer faculty, language teaching, and youth movement. Classes are held in almost any location, and sessions are adapted to the industrial or agricultural area (Tapanes and Tomes). Adult and Lifelong education in Cuba is seen in a socio-economic context. The characteristics of adult and lifelong education in Cuba are implicit in its revolutionary setting, and the task of carrying it through has become an obligation and a right affecting every citizen. Adult education covers almost 100 000 people in middle- and higher-level tutorial courses.

Adult education also provides learning opportunities for workers, farmers,

housewives, and undereducated adults at three levels: *Educacion Obrera y Campesina* or EOC (a four-semester basic instruction course sequence); *Secundaria Obrera y Campesina* or SOC (a four-semester mid-level course); and *Facultad Obrera y Campesina* or FOC (a six-semester higher level instruction) (Ministry of Education 1999). The matriculation rate of these programs has remained high, and course materials are frequently refined. From 1962 to 1974 about 650,000 adults graduated from these adult education programs, with a record number of 95,000 matriculating in 1974 (Paulston 1976). Participation remains high (Ministry of Education 1999). According to the United Nations, the rate of literacy among people 15 and older in Cuba was 97 per cent, compared to 99 per cent in Canada and the United States, 96 per cent in Costa Rica, and 83 per cent in the Dominican Republic.

Rural education

Prior to the revolution in Cuba, very few inhabitants of the rural areas of Cuba received any sort of education. After the revolution, the education of the rural masses of Cuba became a top priority, and for eight months all schools in the city were closed down, teachers and students were sent into the rural areas en masse to provide education to rural communities of Cuba. Today in Cuba, special rural schools have been set up to cater for the rural communities of Cuba. These schools are located amongst the local communities making it easier for children to receive their education while living at home. In addition, the education provided at these schools in Cuba takes into account the rural lifestyle of the students and provides time for them to work on agriculture in the fields at the same time as receiving an education.

The Cuban government has been a leader in the use of media for nonformal/rural education. Starting in the 1960s, radio has served an important function in making education available to all citizens. As of 1996, eleven of the fourteen provinces offered local radio instruction at important work centers. Increased use of television has also offered opportunities for distance learning. For example, in 2000, "University for All" was introduced on state television, offering telecourses in English, Spanish, and other topics. Distance learning is offered through institutions of higher education, with periodic meetings held between students and professors; approximately 25,000 participants were involved as of 1996. The use of computers and Internet technology is limited, although Cuba is working to increase this resource for its populace.

Women Education and Empowerment

The empowerment of women is an important tool within development cooperation. Capacity building and training for women are an important necessity. Women need space and opportunities to develop their leadership skills and assertiveness, to establish an action agenda that focuses on their needs. It also shows that women can only be self-confident and autonomous in their economic activities if no cultural

restraints hold them back. Education / Training are an important tool to promote women's equality in the economy and for their empowerment.

Women have benefited significantly from the revolution as they have educated themselves and entered the labor force in large numbers. The differences among Cubans of different races have been reduced. The government is active in facilitating the incorporation of women into the political, economic, and social development through special literacy, technical and other educational programs (Jellema/Hernandez, 2002).

Women are guaranteed equal educational opportunities and account for more than half of university graduates. Education expenditures receive high priority, and the number of students enrolled has increased sharply from pre-Revolutionary days. Nevertheless, the economic upheaval after 1991 strained the state's long-standing efforts to ensure access to quality educational services.

After traditional secondary or higher education, women would require opportunities to re-train and upgrade their skills, and to continue their access to vocational and career guidance. This was mainly due to organising through mentoring, networking and training. Until the revolution, a combination of these factors does not exist within the empowerment of women. Within the changing process of the Cuban economy, it is time to take the opportunity to acquire new skills to improve the position of women in the labour market. The representation of women in the labour market is about 40 per cent. The representation of women in management is about 10 per cent.

The educational challenge in Cuba is no longer increasing enrollment of females, who outnumber and outperform males in school, but ensuring gender equity. Fifty-five percent, of those who learned how to read and write in that first year i.e., 1959 were women, who were able to begin bringing about changes in a patriarchal society according to which marriage and motherhood were their natural roles in life. In the 1960s, new schools trained some 150,000 rural women to become promoters of social change in their communities. "A number of studies have found that the educational level of mothers' acts as a variable directly associated with the educational levels of their children, which indicates the importance of special attention being granted to the education of women," states an official report.

Milene Burgos, who began working as a lawyer, feels it "very necessary" to start focusing on keeping boys in school, because "Cuba is still a sexist society," and there are still many families who see education for their sons as a means of "bringing in the bread" rather than to excel in their chosen professional field. "Among my group of friends, which included boys and girls from different schools, all the girls continued to graduate from the university. Only one of the boys did, while the rest got jobs. It seems to me that the boys were not interested in studying," said Burgos.

According to the Ministry of Education, in the nineties, more young women have been incorporated into agricultural specialties in vocational and technical education, in which women now account for 43 per cent of the student body at the national level. Some 4,000 women have registered in vocation-technical schools to become skilled workers. An estimated 8,300 women are also enrolled in adult education classes, and trying to finish primary school (up to grade six), while 9,000 are working on graduating from middle school (grade nine) and as many as 10,000 of these women are homemakers.

Youth movement schools

As per the UIS (2006), the literacy rate among adults (15 +) is 99.8 and 100 per cent of youth (15-24) are literate. However, the regional average for the same year is slightly varied from male to female. Among adult population, 92 per cent of male and 90.7 per cent of female population are literate. While the literacy rate among youth population, about 96.5 per cent for male and 97.4 per cent for female. To promote and organize the education of adolescent youth above the age for elementary schools, youth movement schools were established and offered various courses to broaden or improve their knowledge and skills.

Independent Libraries

Making a public appearance at the Havana International Book Fair in February of 1998, Castro explained, "In Cuba there is no banned books, rather there is no money to purchase them." It was the excuse utilized by Berta Mexidor Vásquez, an economist in the eastern province of Las Tunas and mother of two, has established an independent library in her own home, a place where Cubans without the money to purchase books could access any literature. Mexidor and her husband, Ramón Humberto Colás Castillo, established the Biblioteca Independent Felix Varela to offer their neighbors the opportunity to reach opinions freely without being bound to one belief. Donations of reading materials poured to their home.

By end of 2002, there were 103 independent libraries operating in Cuba with 182,715 registered readers. While most independent libraries have been named after Cuban luminaries of the formative nineteenth century, some have defied censorship even further. The interest Cubans have manifested for the independent libraries has exposed the search for alternative ideas and free information of individuals in a Marxist-Leninist society.

Factors for the achievement

Despite its poor economy, Cuba's education record is outstanding (Harvard Graduate School of Education, 2002). This can be attributed to a number of factors,

including: the continuity in its education strategies, sustained high levels of investments in education and a comprehensive and carefully structured system. Some of Cuba's accomplishments include:

- Universal school enrollment and attendance
- A 98 per cent adult literacy rate
- A strong scientific training base, particularly in chemistry and medicine
- Consistent pedagogical quality across widely dispersed classrooms
- Equality of basic educational opportunity, even in both rural and urban impoverished areas

The record of Cuban education is outstanding: universal school enrollment and attendance; nearly universal adult literacy; proportional female representation at all levels, including higher education; a strong scientific training base, particularly in chemistry and medicine; consistent pedagogical quality across widely dispersed classrooms; equality of basic educational opportunity, even in impoverished areas, both rural and urban. In a recent regional study of Latin America and the Caribbean, Cuba ranked first in math and science achievement, [UNESCO, 1998] at all grade levels, among both males and females. In many ways, Cuba's schools are the equals of schools in OECD countries, despite the fact that Cuba's economy is that of a developing country.

However, Cuba is one of the poorest countries in Latin America, but it shows the best results in basic education. In addition, by a long shot. Scoring 350 points (around 90 percent correct answers), Cuba is 100 points ahead of the regional average. Argentina, Chile and Brazil follow, with scores close to 250 points. "These scores have profound implications for the region and call for a major shift in policy development," says Juan Casassus of the Latin American Laboratory for Evaluation and Quality of Education at UNESCO Santiago, who conducted the study. For him, Cuba's performance is no accident. "Education has been a top priority in Cuba for forty years. It is a true learning society: all Cuban parents have at least completed secondary education; they work hand-in-hand with the school and formal pre-schools are excellent." After three years preparation, it was conducted between June and November 1997. It focused on language and mathematics in third and fourth grades in 1,400 schools and among 56,000 students of 13 countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Chile, Honduras, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Dominican Republic and Venezuela). "The methodology used is the most sophisticated that exists," claims Casassus, before going on to explain that the study compared learning achievement not only across countries, but also across large cities, middle-size towns and rural areas as well as across public and private schools. "It is this refinement of analysis that gives such solid and unexpected results," he adds. Consider this example. What has allowed Cuba's education system to perform so well, even under the severe resource constraints of the past decade, is the continuity in its

education strategies, sustained high levels of investments in education, and a comprehensive and carefully structured system, characterized by:

- ◆ quality basic education and universal access to primary and secondary school
- ◆ comprehensive early childhood education and student health programs (established as part of the commitment to basic education);
- ◆ complementary educational programs for those outside school—literacy, adult and non-formal education (again as part of the basic education commitment);
- ◆ mechanisms to foster community participation in management of schools;
- ◆ great attention to teachers (extensive pre- and in-service training, high status and morale, incentives, transparent system of accountability, strategies for developing a culture of professionalism, rewards for innovation);
- ◆ low-cost instructional materials of high quality;
- ◆ teacher and student initiative in adapting the national curriculum and developing instructional materials locally;
- ◆ carefully structured competition that enhances the system rather than the individual;
- ◆ explicit strategies to reach rural students and students with special needs; and
- ◆ Strategies to link school with work and emphasis on education for social cohesion.

Most importantly, perhaps, the Cuban case demonstrates that high quality education is not simply a function of national income but of how that income is mobilized. A highly-mobilized people can realize high quality education by ensuring the necessary inputs, paying attention to equity, setting and holding staff to high professional standards, and caring for the social roles of key stakeholders—teachers, community members, children (Lavinia Gasperini, 1999)

UNESCO (1998) report noted that the results of a study show the differences among countries, both in levels and distribution of test achievement. The Cuban scores stand out significantly among countries in the region... (p. 12); and the test achievement of the lower half of students in Cuba is significantly better than the test achievement of the upper half of students in the countries that fall immediately behind Cuba. (p. 21)

Impact of Rural Education on Social Development

The post-Cuban Revolution provided a picture to the world that the education system was good. Cuba has attained the goal of literacy and started sending teaching brigades to Angola and Nicaragua and physicians, and engineers the world over. The country has proved to be an educational power. At home, by maintaining its initial

strategy of reaching everyone, literacy was a reality throughout the island and schooling through the ninth grade was available to all.

Cuba's achievements in the field of education have been widely recognized by both critics and supporters of the Cuban Revolution. Since 1959, support for education at all levels—pre-school, primary, secondary, post-secondary, and adult—has been one of the highest priorities of the Cuban government. A 1998 UNESCO assessment of educational achievement in Latin America rated Cuban students far above their peers in other nations in the region. The 1999 Human Development Index (H.D.I.), which measures basic dimensions of human development — longevity, knowledge, and a decent standard of living — ranked Cuba 58 out of 174 countries. Primary indicators for Cuba were - life expectancy at birth (75.7 years), adult literacy rate (95.9%), combined enrollment in school (72%), and per capita income (est. \$3100).

A study published by the World Bank begins with the following summary: The record of Cuban education is outstanding in relation to universal school environment and attendance; universal adult literacy; proportional female representation at all levels including higher education; a strong scientific base, particularly in chemistry and medicine; consistent pedagogical quality across widely dispersed classrooms; and equality of basic educational opportunity, even in impoverished areas, both rural and urban (Vocke, 2001).

The work of transformation and social and economic construction has also logically included an educational effort, the success of which can be measured by such achievements as the literacy campaign of 1961 and the doubling of school enrolment during the decade. The first fruits of this drastic educational effort were the establishment of mass education groups in 1961, since the old structures and concepts have been rejected and an action programme has been emerging with ever-greater forcefulness aimed at shaping and adapting education to the characteristics and needs of a socialist society (Raúl Ferrer Perez, 1973).

Carlos Alberto Torres (1990) has presented the educational situation of three revolutionary and socialist-oriented nations in Latin America with particular reference to Cuba, Nicaragua and Grenada has focused the adult education systems and the success of literacy campaigns in comparison with other Latin American nations. He has reported that Cuba consistently ranks higher on several measures in comparison with other Latin American countries. The measures include:

- More women have access to higher education and are enrolled in post-secondary institutions in Cuba than in any other nation in Latin America
- Cuban students outperform other students in Latin America in math, science, and literacy

The Human Development Index (HDI) measures the average progress of a country in human development. The Human Poverty Index for developing countries (HPI-1), focuses on the proportion of people below a threshold level in the same dimensions of human development as the human development index - living a long and healthy life, having access to education, and a decent standard of living. By looking beyond income deprivation, the HPI-1 represents a multi-dimensional alternative to the \$1 a day (PPP US\$) poverty measure. The Human Poverty Index (HPI-1) value of 4.7 for Cuba, ranks 6th among 108 developing countries for which the index has been calculated.

Cuba's Gender Development Index (GDI) value, 0.839 should be compared to its Human Development Index (HDI) value of 0.838. Its GDI value is 100.1% of its HDI value. Out of the 156 countries with both HDI and GDI values, one country has a better ratio than Cuba's. The gender empowerment measure (GEM) reveals whether women take an active part in economic and political life. It tracks the share of seats in parliament held by women; of female legislators, senior officials and managers; and of female professional and technical workers- and the gender disparity in earned income, reflecting economic independence. Differing from the GDI, the GEM exposes inequality in opportunities in selected areas. Cuba ranks 26th out of 93 countries in the GEM, with a value of 0.661.

Conclusion

Before the Cuban revolution, the literacy rate in Cuba was at best 60 per cent. Since the revolution, Cuba has maintained high standards of educational development. In 1995, the literacy rates were 96 per cent. This was second after Argentina of thirteen Latin American countries surveyed. By 2006, Cuba has attained the adult literacy of 99.8 per cent.

Today in Cuba schools are short of basic materials, such as pens and copybooks, and when equipment breaks down it is often not possible to repair or replace it. However, in recognition of Cuba's commitment to education at home and abroad, many governments, trade unions, support groups and individuals all over the world are now sending donations of essential school materials to Cuba to help it maintain its standard of education.

To conclude, the paper has covered the issues such as formal education – primary through further education; non-formal education - adult education, rural education, women education, youth movement schools, independent libraries; and the various experiments, innovations in methods, structures and forms that are more relevant for countries fighting against illiteracy and reforming the education system. The factors for the achievement and overall impact of rural education on social development were also discussed.

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Communicative Openness and Job Satisfaction among Faculty Members of S.V. University, Tirupati

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Abstract

The communicative system of an organization is an increasingly powerful determinant of the organization effectiveness. Absence of healthy communicative system may have a limiting effect on the ability of the organization to perform efficiently or to survive. From the administrative point of view organizational behaviour seeks to improve the people and organizational relationship. Keeping this in view, the present study was conducted to find out the degree of satisfaction with the sub-components of communication in the organization and also job satisfaction among faculty members.

The study was conducted in S.V. University, Tirupati. The total sample size was 125. Among them 25 were professors, 44 readers and 56 members were lecturers. It is interesting to find that all the categories of the respondents reported to have spent more time in holding discussions and attending meetings within and outside the organizations. The time spend by professors on correspondence is fantastically high.

Majority of the faculty members were satisfied with their jobs. The degree of satisfaction of the faculty members in the organization differ considerably as per their hierarchy and status in the organization.

Introduction

Organization is a process of dividing and combining efforts of a working group for making such joint efforts more productive, effective and fruitful. It

adds certainty and promptness to the work to be done. It establishes a neat pattern of relationships among efforts to be put, jobs to be done and work to be performed. It ensures team work. Organization thus is a framework for the fulfillment of common aims.

Organizations are held together by communication. Dennis Fry in his book, *Homoloquens Man the talking animal* says that humans developed the ability to speak in order to form and sustain organization.

An organization is a stable system of individuals who work together to achieve through a hierarchy of ranks and division of labour, common goals (Roger and Aggarwals Rogus, 1976). The relationship among the members of an organization are relatively stable. The structural stability enables an organization to function effectively in accomplishing certain objectives. A proper understanding of the role of communication would therefore, make it possible to structure the organization and control its activities in a way that the organization becomes more productive (Jain, 1982). Health and productivity of organization climate and its work environment are conditioned predominantly by communicative openness, job satisfaction and resultant satisfaction derived inter employee communication (Samantha, 1985).

Statement of the problem

It is against the backdrop, the present study was undertaken with a view to find out the degree of satisfaction with the sub-components of communication in S.V.University as perceived by its faculty. The study is also aimed at knowing the degree of satisfaction with the sub-components of job satisfaction by the faculty members.

Methodology

Locale of the study

The study was conducted in Sri Venkateswara University, Tirupati. The college has 40 departments functioning as sub system of College. All the teaching and scientific staff were included in the sample for the data collection. The total sample size finally comes to 125 as detailed below:

| | | |
|------------|---|----|
| Professors | - | 25 |
| Readers | - | 44 |

| | | |
|------------------------|---|-----|
| Lecturers & Scientists | - | 56 |
| Total | - | 125 |

Variables used

The variables included in the present study were selected on the basis of extensive scanning of literature in the field of organizational communication. The data were collected by supplying the well structured questionnaire to each respondent personally by the researcher herself. The data thus collected were subjected to different statistical analysis, and the information was processed, tabulated and analyzed.

Results and Discussion

Out of 125 respondents, 25 belonged to the cadre of Professors, 44 Readers and 56 were Lecturers (Table 1).

Regarding the educational background of the respondents, 95 percent of the respondents possessed Ph.D degrees, 25.6 percent had M.Phil, 12 percent had Diplomas and an equal percentage 8.8 percent had double postgraduation degrees and B.Ed / M.Ed degrees respectively (Table 2).

Out of 125 faculty members, 60.8 percent belonged to Arts faculty and the remaining 39.2 percent belonged to sciences faculty (Table 3).

The necessary information were collected from the three categories of faculty members asking their degree of satisfaction with each of 5 sub-components of communication in their organization (Table 4).

From Table-4 it can be inferred that 32 percent of Professors, 61.36 percent of Readers and 57.15 percent of Lecturers were 'satisfied' with 'freedom to exchange ideas' in their organization. The table also reveals that 40 percent of Professors, 52.28 percent of Readers and 55.36 percent of Lecturers were "satisfied" with 'programmes are well informed' in their organization. But, 68 percent of Professors, 40.90 percent of Readers and 14 percent of Lecturers are not satisfied with the 'feedback facility'. 28 percent of Professors, 45.46 percent of Readers and 50 percent of Lecturers were "satisfied" with the 'method of communication in their organization'.

The results strongly reveals that most of the faculty members belonged

to "satisfied" and "somewhat satisfied" categories and a few of the faculty members belonged to "not satisfied" categories about most of the sub-components of communication in their organization.

Analysing all the findings of the table, it may be clear that faculty of S.V. University are not fully satisfied with the communication system pertaining to research, personnel and administration prevailing in the organization. It may be further said that if the communication systems are not improved as per the expectations of the faculty members, the research productivity will obviously suffer giving rise to discontentment among the teaching staff and the resultant loss of organizational effectiveness. Similar findings were reported by Samanta et al., (1994).

Table-1:
Distribution of faculty members in different cadre (As on 1996).

| Sl.No. | Cadres | Number of faculty members | Percent |
|--------|--------------|---------------------------|---------------|
| 1. | Professors | 25 | 20.0 |
| 2. | Readers | 44 | 35.2 |
| 3. | Lecturers | 56 | 44.8 |
| | Total | 125 | 100.00 |

Table-2:
Distribution of faculty members of different cadres according to their educational qualifications.

| Sl. No. | Educational qualifications | Different Cadres | | | Total | Percent |
|---------|----------------------------|------------------|---------|-----------|-------|---------|
| | | Professors | Readers | Lecturers | | |
| 1. | Ph.D | 25 | 44 | 50 | 119 | 95.0 |
| 2. | M.Phil | 2 | 8 | 22 | 32 | 25.6 |
| 3. | Diplomas | 3 | 6 | 6 | 15 | 12.0 |
| 4. | Double P.G | 3 | 4 | 4 | 11 | 8.8 |
| 5. | B.Ed / MEd | 2 | 4 | 5 | 11 | 8.8 |

Table-3:
Distribution of faculty members into two categories according to their disciplines.

| S.No. | Faculty members as per cadre | Arts Faculty | Sciences Faculty | Total |
|-------|------------------------------|------------------|------------------|-------------|
| 1. | Professors | 13(52) | 12 (48.0) | 25 (100.00) |
| 2. | Readers | 26(59.09) | 18 (40.91) | 44 (100.00) |
| 3. | Lecturers | 37 (66.07) | 19 (33.93) | 56 (100.00) |
| | Total | 76 (60.8) | 49 (39.2) | 125 |

Table-4:
Percent distribution of three categories of faculty members indicating their degree of satisfaction with sub-components of communication in organisation.

| Sl. No. | Level of satisfaction of faculty members in different cadres | Sub-components of communication | | | | |
|---------|--|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|------------------------|------------------------------|
| | | 1 Programmes are well informed | 2 Freedom to exchange ideas | 3 Clear and complete messages are sent | 4 Feedback facility | 5 Method of communication |
| I. | Professors (N=25) | | | | | |
| | Satisfied (%) | 40 (10) | 32 (14) | 32 (8) | 8 (2) | 28 (7) |
| | Somewhat satisfied (%) | 36 (9) | 32 (18) | 52 (13) | 24 (6) | 44 (11) |
| | Not satisfied (%) | 24 (6) | 12 (3) | 16 (4) | 68 (17) | 28 (7) |
| II. | Readers (N=24) | | | | | |
| | Satisfied (%) | 52.28 (23) | 61.36 (27) | 43.19 (19) | 34.09 (15) | 45.46 (20) |
| | Somewhat satisfied (%) | 36.37 (16) | 25 (11) | 38.63 (17) | 25 (11) | 36.36 (16) |
| | Not satisfied (%) | 20 (5) | 13.64 (6) | 18.18 (8) | 40.90 (18) | 18.18 (8) |
| III. | Lecturers (N=56) | | | | | |
| | Satisfied (%) | 55.36 (31) | 57.15 (32) | 53.58 (30) | 37.5 (21) | 50 (28) |
| | Somewhat satisfied (%) | 37.5 (21) | 25 (14) | 39.28 (22) | 37.5 (21) | 35.72 (20) |
| | Not satisfied (%) | 7.14 (4) | 17.85 (10) | 7.14 (4) | 14 (25) | 14.28 (8) |
| IV. | Total faculty members (N=125) | | | | | |
| | Satisfied (%) | 51.2 (64) | 58.4 (73) | 45.6 (57) | 30.4 (38) | 44 (55) |
| | Somewhat satisfied (%) | 36.8 (46) | 26.4 (33) | 41.6 (52) | 30.4 (38) | 37.6 (47) |
| | Not satisfied (%) | 12 (12) | 15.2 (19) | 12.8 (16) | 39.2 (49) | 18.4 (23) |

Table-5:
Percent distribution of three categories of faculty members indicating their degree of satisfaction with sub-components of job satisfaction in organisation.

| Sl. No. | Level of satisfaction of faculty members in different cadres | Professional Social Prestige | Incentives and Rewards | Salary | Promotion | Job Authority | Prof. Office Prestige | Service Security | Work Distribution | Allowance like P.F. | Leave Facility |
|-----------------------------------|--|------------------------------|------------------------|------------|------------|---------------|-----------------------|------------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------|
| | | I. Professors (N=25) | | | | | | | | | |
| | Satisfied (%) | 76 (19) | 28 (7) | 64 (16) | 60 (15) | 56 (14) | 52 (13) | 84 (21) | 80 (20) | 60 (15) | 52 (13) |
| | Somewhat satisfied (%) | 16 (4) | 32 (8) | 32 (8) | 28 (7) | 32 (8) | 40 (10) | 12 (3) | 12 (3) | 32 (8) | 28 (7) |
| | Not satisfied (%) | 8 (2) | 40 (10) | 4 (1) | 12 (3) | 12 (3) | 8 (2) | 4 (1) | 8 (2) | 8 (2) | 20 (5) |
| II. Readers (N=24) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Satisfied (%) | 75 (33) | 38.64 (17) | 88.64 (39) | 54.55 (24) | 59.09 (26) | 68.19 (30) | 75 (33) | 72.73 (32) | 68.19 (30) | 68.19 (30) |
| | Somewhat satisfied (%) | 22.73 (10) | 29.54 (13) | 6.81 (3) | 25 (11) | 29.55 (13) | 27.27 (12) | 15.91 (7) | 15.91 (7) | 25 (11) | 20.45 (9) |
| | Not satisfied (%) | 2.27 (1) | 31.82 (14) | 4.55 (2) | 20.45 (9) | 11.36 (5) | 4.54 (2) | 9.09 (4) | 11.36 (5) | 6.81 (3) | 11.36 (5) |
| III. Lecturers (N=56) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Satisfied (%) | 83.93 (47) | 28.58 (16) | 83.93 (47) | 50 (28) | 57.15 (32) | 76.79 (43) | 73.22 (41) | 8.36 (45) | 58.92 (33) | 85.71 (48) |
| | Somewhat satisfied (%) | 16.07 (9) | 19.64 (11) | 7.15 (4) | 17.85 (10) | 28.57 (16) | 17.85 (10) | 17.85 (10) | 16.07 (9) | 26.79 (15) | 8.93 (5) |
| | Not satisfied (%) | 0 (0) | 51.78 (29) | 8.92 (5) | 32.15 (18) | 14.28 (8) | 5.36 (3) | 8.93 (5) | 3.57 (2) | 14.29 (8) | 5.36 (3) |
| IV. Total faculty members (N=125) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Satisfied (%) | 79.2 (99) | 32 (40) | 81.6 (102) | 53.6 (67) | 57.6 (72) | 68.8 (86) | 76 (95) | 77.6 (97) | 61.6 (77) | 72.8 (91) |
| | Somewhat satisfied (%) | 18.4 (23) | 25.6 (32) | 12 (15) | 22.4 (28) | 29.6 (37) | 25.6 (32) | 16 (20) | 15.2 (20) | 28 (35) | 16.8 (21) |
| | Not satisfied (%) | 2.4 (3) | 42.4 (53) | 6.4 (8) | 24 (30) | 12.8 (16) | 5.6 (7) | 8 (10) | 7.2 (10) | 10.4 (13) | 10.4 (30) |

Figures in parenthesis are the number of respondents.

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Common School System or Quality Education to Society

Hitesh Sharma

Abstract

The term 'common school' was coined by Horace Mann and refers to the fact that they were meant to serve individuals of all social classes. Common schools were funded by local taxes, did not charge tuition and were open to all children. Common school system, if implemented, it could have changed the very face of school education in India. It was one of the most powerful recommendations of the Kothari Commission (1964-66). It received scant attention both at the level of policy and implementation. The result is before us: a majority of the schools are still in the same situation of deprivation and deficiency as they were 30 years ago. There has been expansion and up gradation in quality and efficiency, but only sporadic visibility could be claimed. The dropout rates remain alarming, non-enrolments are substantial and failures at the matriculation level remain pegged at around 50 per cent. While everyone from policy planners to teachers are contributing to this failure, the blame is put squarely on the 'child'. Books may be in short supply, teachers may not be available or may not be teaching due to other assignments, but the failure is the learner. The common school concept whereby all types of schools adopt a non-negotiable quality education would have not just ensured equitable education for all children but kept away commercialization at bay. The concept which was mooted in the National Policy on Education way back in 1986 seems to be long forgotten. Nearly two decades later, the concept has remained on paper because the political leadership and bureaucracy found an escape route for their own children — the private school system.

One concern that has emerged over the years is — what are our children learning in schools in the first five or eight years? Those putting their children in high-fee charging air-conditioned schools may just not be aware of such a concern. More than 50 per cent of children drop out before completing eight years in school. Needless to say, most of these children are from the weaker sections of the society, from rural areas and urban slums. This was the group that deserved special attention not only at the policy and planning stage but also at the implementation level. The solutions to the national concerns and problems have to be searched within the nation. The search becomes acute when an alien system thrust upon us takes root firmly and gets support from the select beneficiaries who may be just few but who 'matter' and

make all the difference. They wield power and authority. The traditional Indian system of community ownership of education was destroyed by the British in a planned manner. Can India limit its good quality education in schools and in higher education sector only to those few who were born in the right side of economic affordability? Kothari Commission on Education roundly condemned this separate, unequal school system. At the primary stage, the free schools to which masses send their children are maintained by government and local authorities and are generally of poor quality. Some of the private schools are, on the whole, definitely better, but since many of them charge high fees they are availed of only by the middle and higher classes, which are normally beyond the means of any but the top ten percent of people, though some of the middle class parents make great sacrifices to send their children to them. There is this segregation in education itself — the minority of private fee-charging, better schools meeting the need of the upper classes and the vast bulk of free, publicly maintained, but poor schools being utilized by the rest. What is worse, this segregation is increasing and tending to widen the gulf between the classes and the masses," commented the report of the commission. A common school system requires every neighbourhood to have access to a good government school equipped with all the facilities available in private schools — qualified teachers, infrastructure and quality education. If children from rich and poor households attend the same school, its management and teachers would be accountable, as at least the rich will be a pressure group for quality education. Such institutional up gradation will result in an overnight transformation of government schools. The reason why common school system is not implemented is economic and social disparities; the well-to-do communities send their children to schools with better infrastructure, teachers and teaching standards; ordinary schools are not sought after and in turn this results in low investment in them, in government schools, the quality of education dispensed has remained poor. Lack of political will and public schools, privately managed English medium schools, schools charging capitation fees and those offering expensive coaching have proliferated. Currently we have a four-five tiered system of government, government-aided, slum and shanty private schools, private schools affordable by the middle class and super private schools plus the unique Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya schools. Common school system fully funded by government and compulsory for all will definitely bring quality in school education for all.

A common school was a government managed school in the USA, Canada and in other developed countries. The term 'common school' was coined by Horace Mann and refers to the fact that they were meant to serve individuals of all social classes often went to the common school from ages six to fourteen. Common schools were funded by local taxes, did not charge tuition and were open to all children. It received scant attention both at the level of policy and implementation. The result is before us a majority of the schools are still in the same situation of deprivation and deficiency as they were 30 years ago. Several misconceptions about the Common School System have been systematically promoted by private school lobbies. For instance it is the very important thing from a uniform school system. Advanced

economies of the world, including USA, Canada, several European countries or Japan, were built on the foundation of a publicly-funded efficient school system that ensured education of equitable quality for all children. This sociological principle of educational planning being ignored in India is the basis of the Common School System. There has been expansion and up gradation in quality and efficiency, but only sporadic visibility could be claimed. The dropout rates remain alarming, non-enrolments are substantial and failures at the matriculation level remain pegged at around 50 per cent. While everyone from policy planners to teachers are contributing to this failure. Books may be in short supply, teachers may not be available or may not be teaching due to other assignments, infrastructure facility is very poor in government school, Management is not proper by state education departments, peoples associated with education programmes are not sensitive towards their accountability the failure is the learner. Government's CMP (common minimum programme) promises to double national expenditure on education to 6 percent of GDP within the next five years and specifically makes a commitment to providing access to quality basic education to all child citizens. The common school concept whereby all types of schools adopt a non-negotiable quality education would have not just ensured equitable education for all children but kept away commercialization. Common schools in many developed countries have a special status as producers of values, perspectives, knowledge, and skills that are fundamental to community and society. The present school system structurally promotes discrimination, In common school system it does not matter whose children studying were Prime Minister or a Peon, senior government official or a sweeper, corporate executive or a clerk. If one had a child, he/she has to go the neighbourhood public-funded school. Today, the multi-layered government school system has not benefited to the weakest, mostly the marginalized dalits, tribal's, extreme OBCs and Muslims, particularly girls in each of these sections of society. Education has become a commodity, rather than an entitlement or a Fundamental Right (Sadgopal, 2008). Those who can afford to buy education do and those who can't are compelled to accept government system. Middle class started shifting to private unaided fee-charging schools, primarily in pursuit of English-medium education and career-oriented curriculum. No one can blame this section of society since the government policies had failed to establish the relevance of either the Indian languages or the prevailing school curriculum for entry into, Defence academy, civil services, judiciary, business or industry, Management Institute and professional services. The present system based upon paying capacity, education system based upon poor infrastructure, multi-grade teaching, parateachers and availability of school. It has meant exclusion of at least two-thirds of our children from quality education, thereby suppressing their inherent potential for contributing to social or national development. A common school system requires every neighborhood to have access to a good government school equipped with all the facilities available in private schools that are qualified teachers, infrastructure and quality education. If children from rich and poor households attend the same school, its management and teachers would be accountable, as at least the rich will be a pressure group for quality education. Such institutional up gradation will result in an overnight transformation of government

schools. The free pupil must wear the same school uniform as the others, they will get books, notebooks and stationery and all other facilities like other children's belongs to rich community. In common school system all schools have to fulfill a set of minimum Norms and Standards with respect to the infrastructure, teacher quality and status, pupil: teacher ratio, non-teaching staff, pure drinking water, electricity and telephone, toilets, supporting systems for the disabled, teaching aids, ICT facilities, library and laboratory, playground and play equipment, facilities for fine arts and performing arts, curriculum and pedagogy and all other parameters for ensuring quality education. All schools to follow the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) that would be reviewed from time to time. NCF will define a core curriculum that would be common to all schools except that the regional diversity will be appropriately reflected in the elements of the Core Curriculum. Gradually, the major 'sector' in getting impoverished and the greatly-hyped privatization and self-financing in education is creating its impact on all stages of education right from the pre-school stage. Can India limit its good quality education in schools and in higher education sector only to those few who were born in the right side of economic affordability? Education can't be made a vehicle to divide people as is becoming increasingly evident. More than 50 per cent of children drop out before completing eight years in school. Needless to say, most of these children are from the weaker sections of the society, from rural areas and urban slums. This was the group that deserved special attention not only at the policy and planning stage but also at the implementation level.

Common School System in United States and Other Developed Countries

Americans today count on their public schools to be free of expense, open to all. Although families are permitted to enroll their children in private schools at their own expense. In the United States, the percentage of private school students has been stable at about 10-12 percent for half a century. The great majority of students attend public schools, from the first to the twelfth year of schooling. It was called "the Common School Movement, free schools open to all children did not exist in colonial America. In the British colonies of the 17th and 18th centuries, schooling was not compulsory, not free of charge, not secular, not open to all. As the modern common school system began to acquire a clear shape in the North between 1837 and 1853, The amount of control retained to this day by local, elected school boards in the United States is unique among the industrial nations of the world, and testifies to how dearly the concept of local control of school curricula and of their budgets still appeals to the average American. Both sexes were ultimately seen as entitled to equal educational opportunity. Horace Mann declared in 1848 that in America, common, public schools would be "the balance wheel of the social machinery," and the idea of equality of opportunity, Americans have consistently believed that common public schools are necessary to teach common values, common knowledge of the political system, respect for institutions, respect for property, and other values that are needed to keep a democratic system from flying apart.

Private Schools in India

Private school's in India mostly commercialized which have a purpose like an industry that is low input and high output. In small town so called public schools have not adequate facilities and quality teachers who are usually underpaid. Middle class parents are sending their children's in such so called public schools just because of English medium background and for maintaining social status. Private schools enjoy many facilities from government but never fulfil their constitutional obligations. Apart from land, the government extends additional subsidies to private societies by exempting their income and donations from income tax; and other taxes, providing highly subsidised professional teacher training, duly recognising their schools, syllabi and examinations through government-subsidised CBSE or State Boards of Examinations, NCERT/SCERT academic support. Yet, such schools have been allowed to go Scot free without fulfilling their constitutional obligations. Although some private schools are maintaining good standard and providing quality education to children's whom parents have capacity to pay heavy fee of that schools. Parents and students select schools that they feel best meet their personal needs, while administrators and school managers seek to make decisions that allow their schools to compete with other private schools and hike the fee per year. The present school system, inherited from the colonial ruler. Those putting their children in high-fee charging air-conditioned schools may just not be aware of what child learning in school or preparing just for throat cutting competition race. Public schools are not merely service providers, or places where an individual's or society's economic needs are met like preparing students for the job market. One of the major reasons of sending children to these schools is that the standard of education in government schools is so poor that even a poor parent does not wish to send his child to a government school.

Common School Recommendations of Education Commissions

The crisis was foreseen by the Kothari Education Commission (1964-66) which recommended the Common School System with genuine neighbourhood schools as the National System of Education. The most critical feature of a Common School System is equitable (not uniform) quality of education for all types of schools. Parliament has expressed its unambiguous commitment to the Common School System thrice in its resolutions on the National Policy on Education in 1968, 1986 and 1992. Yet, the concept could not be translated into practice because the political leadership and bureaucracy at all levels along with the intelligentsia found an escape route for their own children viz. the private school system. The objectives of the common school system are to acquire equality. The National Policy for Education (NPE) (1986) also talked about the uniformity in school curriculum. One Navodaya Vidyalaya established in each district of the country, assuming that such schools would be a pace setter to all the schools of the district. How can a Navodaya Vidyalaya, which spends Rs 12,000 per student per year on an average, contradictory to a

Government school which spends Rs 350 per child annually it is also low in some states is that it become a pace setter? Besides, a Navodaya Vidyalaya gets at least Rs 3 crore for the construction of school building, whereas a Government school hardly gets more than Rs 20,000 at a time for the same purpose (Sadgopal 1998:5-19). The Kothari Commission's recommendation of a common school system (CSS) across the country was endorsed by the National Education Policies of 1986 and 1992. However the recommendation has never translated into action. In 1990, the apex Central Advisory Board on Education (CABE), which appraises the extent to which the National Education Policy is implemented by the Central and state governments and other agencies appointed a committee to review NEP 1986. The CABE constituted Acharya Ramamurti Committee in its analysis outlined the reasons for the common school system proposal not having made headway that are economic and social disparities; the well-to-do communities send their children to schools with better infrastructure, teachers and teaching standards; ordinary schools are not sought after and in turn this results in low investment in them, The constitutional protection given to minorities to establish and administer their own educational institutions is incompatible with a common school system, in government schools, the quality of education dispensed has remained poor, Lack of political will, Public schools, privately managed English medium schools, schools charging capitation fees and those offering expensive coaching have proliferated, Proliferation of exclusive Sainik schools and Kendriya/ Navodaya Vidyalayas in the government schools sector. The government lack of political will often leads to the detriment of the weaker sections of society. Parallel systems of low quality education started as a substitute to the Common School System the parallel stream of non-formal education became the dominant policy imperative. This effectively marginalised the concept of common school system and the constitutional principle of equality. Quality education rapidly became the preserve of the privileged, making education a commodity. Yet, the past decade played havoc with the idea by instituting a variety of parallel, low quality educational streams, such as non-formal centres, alternative schools and EGS centres, essentially through World Bank-sponsored school interventions. When "equal opportunity" is applied as a standard there is still much improvement needed in public schooling. The "rich, privileged and powerful classes" never took interest in government schools, despite accepting the commission's recommendations on the common school system in 1968, and later in the 1986 national education policies. The resources required to upgrade government schools to an acceptable level mountainous. The Tapas Majumdar Committee, constituted in 1999 observed that if an additional outlay equivalent to only 0.7 percent of GDP is allocated to education every year, the government will be able to provide education of satisfactory quality to all children in the six-14 age group within ten years.

Quality of School Education Improved by Common School System

Currently we have a four-five tiered system of government, government-aided, slum and shanty private schools, private schools affordable by the middle class and

super private schools plus the unique Jawahar Navodaya Vidyalaya schools. Breaking this system down will result in chaos. However it is possible to devise a long-range plan to upgrade and improve government schools and eliminate at least three of the five tiers over a decade. As parents witness improved infrastructure and academic standards in government schools, the demand for admission into private will decrease. Nevertheless, government public schools are providing more education to greater numbers of students than at any time in our nation's history. In the present system the officials are not concerned about the quality of education in Government public schools, if their children went to common schools, they would be more concerned about the quality. There will be an overnight transformation in public schools then." The Government, composed of by the upper caste and upper class bureaucrats and political leaders, never showed any sincerity to introduce common schools in the education system. A neighbourhood school will provide good education to children because sharing life with common people is an essential ingredient of good education. The establishment of such schools will compel rich, privileged and powerful classes to take an interest in the system of public education and thereby bring about its early improvement. CSS does not mean a uniform type of education across the country. The instrumentality of CSS is the neighbourhood school funded solely by the government but controlled by the neighbourhood. The school decides budgets which are dutifully paid by the state; the community has a say in the hiring of teachers, the curriculum content and other issues critical to the running of the school. Most important, the quality level in each neighbourhood school in CSS is such that ordinarily a parent does not feel the need to send her child to expensive private schools outside the system. The neighborhood school needs to be envisioned as a common public space where children of diverse backgrounds can study and socialize together. This is a pre-condition in a society like ours for forging a sense of common citizenship without which a healthy democracy cannot function. A decentralized practice of designing of curriculum, syllabi, textbooks, teaching-learning process and assessment such that the process would appropriately reflect the rich geocultural diversity of the country while maintaining a balance with the concepts critical for developing a national and global vision.

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Education of the Tribal Children as perceived by the Community Members

D. Uma Devi

India is the seventh largest country in terms of area and second in terms of population. It has been described as a melting pot of races and tribes by many of the anthropologists and researchers, due to its multi-cultural and racial characters. The tribal population constitutes 8 percent of the total population spread over in the country. It is estimated that the pre-dominant tribal areas comprise about 15 percent of the total geographical area of the country. Their main concentrations are the central tribal belt in middle India and in the Northeast. Further, about 50 percent of the tribal population of the country is concentrated in the states of Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand and Orissa. In addition, a sizeable tribal population is located in the states of Maharashtra, Gujarat, Rajasthan, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Kerala. The tribals of India live in forests, hills, hillocks and naturally isolated areas which made them geographically isolated, economically weak, socially and educationally deprived and far away to enjoy the fruits of development programmes. Yet they are rich in cultural aspects and behaviour-wise simple and trustworthy.

The tribals are lagging behind in education which envisaged as an instrument for all kinds of development of the human beings when compared with other social groups and the formal education has very little impact on them. Since most of the tribal people are living in abject poverty under subsistent economy, the children of the tribals have to supplement to their families' economic development. As a result, education becomes a luxury, which they can hardly afford. Even though, the Government has established many schools in the tribal areas, the tribals prefer to send their wards to work rather than to send them to the schools as the child's income supplements their family income.

Further, the rules and regulations followed in the formal schools, food provided in the hostels etc., are entirely different from the rules observed and the food consumed by the tribal children. Added to this, the medium of instruction is different from their own language and dialect. In addition, lack of adequate schools and facilities in the existing schools, mismanagement, lack of interest to work in a tribal area among the non-tribal teachers, usage of the tribal children for their personal works by the functionaries, stagnation and wastage etc., are the some of the major constraints for the promotion of education among the tribal children.

In order to inculcate interest among the children and to enroll and retain them in the schools, community will play a pivotal role. Keeping this in view, the Government of Andhra Pradesh has taken initiation to involve the community participation in the enrollment of the children even at tribal habitations. But, in spite of these efforts, it is necessary to identify the perceptions of the community members towards the the environment prevailing in the school which includes teaching, their attitude towards their teacher, teaching learning materials, residential accommodations, facilities available in the schools etc. This will go a long way in re-structuring the existing policy of education of the tribal children and administering the schools effectively which were established exclusively for them by involving the community participation. Keeping in view of this, the present study is undertaken with the following objectives.

Objectives of the Study

1. To assess the socio-economic background of the community members in the sample area.
2. To identify the perceptions of the community members towards the teachers working in their habitations, teaching-learning material, extra and co-curricular activities undertaken in the schools etc., and
3. To assess the infrastructural facilities that are available in the schools of selected areas.
4. To analyze the opinions of the community members towards problems of the tribal children in attending the schools and solutions for improvement of the education among the tribal children.

Research Design and Plan of the Study

The study was conducted in the state of Andhra Pradesh. In Andhra Pradesh, the tribes are located mainly in the districts of Srikakulam, Vizianagaram, Visakhapatnam, East Godavari, Khammam, Adilabad and Nizamabad. For the purpose of the present study, based on the presence of tribes, three districts i.e., one each from each region having the second highest tribal population i.e., Vizianagaram, Chittoor and Adilabad were chosen as the locale of the study in the first stage of sample selection.

In the second stage, three blocks from each district having the highest, average and the lowest tribal population were chosen. From each village, five community representatives i.e., one village headman, two village education committee members, one woman and one SHG leader and one educated youth were selected purposively. Thus the total (135) community representatives comprised as sample of the study.

Tools and Techniques

For the purpose of the present study, the information was drawn from primary and secondary sources. The information relating to the presence of tribals and the status of education of the tribals of the state was drawn from the secondary sources, viz., the records maintained at the mandal / block, district and state level.

The primary data was collected from the community leaders on the education of the tribal children etc., from the sample area by developing the following tools.

1. A Schedule to identify the constraints in promoting the education among the tribal children. The schedule consisted of the following sections..

Section A : Family background of the sample.

Section B : perceptions of the community representatives

Data Processing

For the purpose of the present study, the data was gathered from primary and secondary sources. The secondary data collected from the records maintained at different levels was pooled and tabulated. The tabulated data revealed the different levels of literacy rate, gender-wise, area-wise and stage-wise. Further, the secondary data has also yielded information on the enrollment, absenteeism / dropouts, performance of the tribal children in the selected districts.

The information collected from the primary sources was pooled and analyzed keeping in view the objectives of the study. The data was analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively by using computer assistance.

Findings of the Study

The findings of the study were presented in two sections viz., section I with profile of the community members where as section II deals with the perceptions of the community members towards education of the tribal children.

Section – I

Profile of the Community Members

The community members were classified into different groups based on their socio-economic and demographic characteristics and presented in the following table and interpreted accordingly.

Table No. 1
Profile of the community

| S. No. | Variable | Group | Frequency | Percent |
|--------|----------------|-------------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| 1 | Gender | Men | 98 | 72.59 |
| | | Women | 37 | 27.41 |
| 2 | Age | Less than 30 years | 28 | 20.74 |
| | | 31-40 years | 67 | 49.63 |
| | | 41 and above | 40 | 29.63 |
| 3 | Caste | Forward castes | 7 | 5.19 |
| | | Backward castes | 3 | 2.22 |
| | | Scheduled Tribes | 125 | 92.59 |
| 3 | Education | Illiterate | 69 | 51.11 |
| | | Primary education | 57 | 42.22 |
| | | High school | 6 | 4.44 |
| | | College education | 3 | 2.22 |
| | | Technical education | 0 | 0.00 |
| | | Others | 0 | 0.00 |
| 4 | Occupation | Agriculture | 46 | 34.07 |
| | | Labour | 77 | 57.03 |
| | | Artisan | 4 | 2.96 |
| | | Business | 3 | 2.22 |
| | | Employment | 5 | 3.70 |
| 5 | Sub-occupation | Labour | 61 | 45.19 |
| | | Rearing of cattle | 15 | 11.11 |
| | | Shifting cultivation | 22 | 16.29 |
| | | Collection of Minor forest produce | 11 | 8.15 |
| | | Skilled labour | 15 | 11.11 |
| | | Developmental programme functionary | 9 | 6.67 |
| | | Business | 2 | 1.48 |
| 6 | Type of family | Joint | 24 | 17.78 |
| | | Nuclear | 111 | 82.22 |

constitutes that 72.59 Percent are men whereas 27.41 Percent are women this indicates the low representation and backwardness among the women. Further, the age-wise distribution of the sample shows that less than half of them belong to 31-40 years age-group followed by 41 and above and less than 30 years of age groups. The caste-wise classification of the community representatives shows that the persons from scheduled tribes outnumbered the other castes as the sample areas covered were tribal habitations and the other caste groups are very less in number. The education-wise classification shows that more than half of them are illiterates followed by primary education (42.22%), high school education (4.44%) and college education (2.22%).

The occupation of the sample community representatives shows that majority of them (57.03%) belongs to labourers (57.03%) followed by the agriculture (shifting cultivation for the tribals from Vizianagaram district), employees (3.70%), artisans (2.96%) and business (2.22%). With regard to the sub-occupation of the sample shows that 45.19 Percent of them have labour itself as their sub-occupation (mud work, stone cutting, NREGP etc.), followed by shifting cultivation (16.29%), rearing of cattle, skilled labour (11.11% respectively), collection of minor forest produce

(8.15%), working as developmental programme functionaries (mid-day meal cooking, sarpanch, village panchayat member etc.) (6.67%) and petty business (1.48%).

With regard to the type of family, more than 80 Percent of the representatives are from nuclear families whereas less than 18 Percent are from joint families. A further probe with regard to the family members was made and the information obtained is provided hereunder.

1. Elders in the family

Table No. 2
Number of elders in the family

| S. No. | Particulars | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|-------------|------------|---------------|
| 1 | 1-2 members | 102 | 75.56 |
| 2 | 3-4 members | 26 | 19.26 |
| 3 | 5 and more | 7 | 5.18 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 |

The information provided by the community representatives in Table No.22 discloses that more than three fourths of the sample have 1-2 members followed by families with 3- 4 members (19.26%) and those with 5 or more (5.18%).

2. Children in the family

Table No. 3
Number of children in the family

| S. No. | Particulars | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|-------------|------------|---------------|
| 1 | 1-2 members | 63 | 46.67 |
| 2 | 3-4 members | 62 | 45.93 |
| 3 | 5 and more | 10 | 7.40 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 |

With regard to the size of the children in the family Table No.23 reveals that 46.67 Percent of the representatives have 1-2 children then come representatives having 3-4 children (45.93%) followed by those with 5 or more than 5 children (7.40%).

An attempt was made to find out the total size of the family and the obtained information regarding this revealed that majority i.e., more than two thirds of the sample, possess 4-5 members whereas more than one fourth of the sample are having 6 or more members and only about six Percent of the sample possess 2-3 members in their families.

Table No. 4
Size of the family

| S. No. | Particulars | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|-------------|------------|---------------|
| 1 | 2-3 members | 8 | 5.92 |
| 2 | 4-5 members | 91 | 67.41 |
| 3 | 6 and more | 36 | 26.67 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 |

3. Literacy rate

In order to identify the literacy status among the community members, a probe was launched to identify the number of total literates and illiterates, number of female literates and illiterates and male literates and illiterates. The information provided by them is presented in Table No.25.

Table No. 5
Total literates and illiterates in the family

| S. No. | Particulars | Total literates | | Total illiterates | |
|--------------|----------------------------|-----------------|---------------|-------------------|---------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| 1 | No literates / illiterates | 8 | 5.93 | 12 | 8.89 |
| 2 | 1-2 members | 40 | 29.63 | 88 | 65.19 |
| 3 | 3-4 members | 72 | 53.33 | 30 | 22.22 |
| 4 | 5 and more | 15 | 11.11 | 5 | 3.70 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 | 135 | 100.00 |

The responses presented in the above table regarding literates reveals that more than half of the families have 3-4 members as literates in their families followed by families with 1-2 members (29.63%) and those with 5 or more number of family members (11.11%). However, nearly six Percent of them accepted that there are no literates in their families. Whereas in the case of number of illiterates, more than two thirds i.e., 65.19 Percent of the families, possess 1-2 illiterates in their families followed by 3-4 members (22.22%) and 5 or more members (3.70%). About 9 Percent of the community members revealed that there are no illiterates in their families.

4. Women literates in the family

The Government has initiated several programmes in order to promote the status of women linking them with the literacy component as the literacy is one of the basic requirements for the development and empowerment of an individual. Hence, in order to find out the number of literates and illiterates that the community members' families possess, an attempt was made and the findings are presented in the following table.

Table No. 6
Women literates and illiterates in the family

| S. No. | Particulars | Literate women | | Illiterate women | |
|--------------|----------------------------|----------------|---------------|------------------|---------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| 1 | No literates / illiterates | 17 | 12.59 | 29 | 21.48 |
| 2 | 1-2 members | 101 | 74.81 | 102 | 75.56 |
| 3 | 3-4 members | 15 | 11.11 | 3 | 2.22 |
| 4 | 5 and more | 2 | 1.48 | 1 | 0.74 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 | 135 | 100.00 |

From the above table it is clear that about 12.59 Percent of the families do not possess literates whereas in the case of literate women. About three fourths of the families possess 1-2 women literate members in their families followed by families with 3 - 4 members (11.11%) and those with five or more members (1.48%). In the case of number of women illiterates in the families data collected reveals that more than three fourths of the community representative's families possess 1-2 women illiterates in their families followed by the no illiterate families (21.48%), those with 3-4 illiterate women (2.22%) and families with five or more women illiterates (0.74%).

5. Men literates in the family

In order to find out the number of literates and illiterates among men in the families, the community representatives were asked to provide information and the information obtained revealed that among the literate men, about ten Percent of the families do not possess literate men in their families. Further, 72.59 Percent of the families possess 1-2 men literate members in their families followed by families with 3-4 members (13.33%) and those with five or more (4.44%).

Table No. 7
Men literates and illiterates in the family

| S. No. | Particulars | Literate men | | Illiterate men | |
|--------------|----------------------------|--------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| | | Frequency | Percent | Frequency | Percent |
| 1 | No literates / illiterates | 13 | 9.63 | 40 | 29.63 |
| 2 | 1-2 members | 98 | 72.59 | 84 | 62.22 |
| 3 | 3-4 members | 18 | 13.33 | 10 | 7.41 |
| 4 | 5 and more | 6 | 4.44 | 1 | 0.74 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 | 135 | 100.00 |

In the case of illiterate men, more than one third of the families do not have illiterate men in their families and less than two thirds of the sample families possess 1-2 male illiterate members followed by families with 3-4 members (7.41%) and those with five or more (0.74%).

6. Particulars about the School aged children

In order to find out the particulars about the school aged children in the families of the community representatives, an attempt was made by the investigator to provide the information about the classification total school aged children, school going children and the dropouts and presented in the following.

7. School aged children

With regard to the school aged children, more than 14 Percent of the families do not have the school aged children. About two thirds (63.70%) of the community representatives revealed that their families have 2-3 school aged children. They are followed by families with one child (13.33%) and those with 4 and more children (8.89%).

Table No. 8
School aged children in the family

| S. No. | Particulars | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|---------------------|------------|---------------|
| 1 | No children | 19 | 14.07 |
| 2 | 1 child | 18 | 13.33 |
| 3 | 2-3 children | 86 | 63.70 |
| 4 | 4 and more children | 12 | 8.89 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 |

8. School going children

In order to find out the information regarding school going children in the families of the community representatives, they were asked to provide the same and the obtained information was pooled together and presented in the following Table.

Table No. 9
School going children in the family

| S. No. | Particulars | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|---------------------|------------|---------------|
| 1 | No children | 18 | 15.52 |
| 2 | 1 child | 25 | 21.55 |
| 3 | 2-3 children | 61 | 52.59 |
| 4 | 4 and more children | 12 | 10.34 |
| Total | | 116 | 100.00 |

The information provided in the above table reveals that 15.52 Percent of the families do not possess the school going children whereas more than half of the families possess 2-3 school going children followed by those with one child (21.55%)

and families with 4 or more children (10.34%). A further probe with regard to number of boys and girls attending the school revealed that 22.41 Percent of the families do not possess the school going boys at their houses. About half of the families possess one school aged boy in their houses followed by families with 2-3 children (21.55%) and those with 4 or more children (6.89%).

Table No. 10
Number of boys attending the School

| S. No. | Particulars | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|---------------------|------------|---------------|
| 1 | No boys | 26 | 22.41 |
| 2 | 1 child | 57 | 49.14 |
| 3 | 2-3 children | 25 | 21.55 |
| 4 | 4 and more children | 8 | 6.89 |
| Total | | 116 | 100.00 |

In the case of girls, less than half of the families possess one girl child followed by families with 2-3 children (18.10%) and those with 4 or more children (13.79%). Whereas 23.28 Percent of the families do not possess the school aged girls.

Table No. 11
Number of girls attending the School

| S. No. | Particulars | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|---------------------|------------|---------------|
| 1 | No girls | 27 | 23.28 |
| 2 | 1 child | 52 | 44.83 |
| 3 | 2-3 children | 21 | 18.10 |
| 4 | 4 and more children | 16 | 13.79 |
| Total | | 116 | 100.00 |

9. Dropouts in the family

However, an attempt was made to identify the number of dropouts among children these families possess and the obtained information with regard to the total dropouts, number of boys and girls who dropped out from the schools etc., is presented in the following tables and interpreted accordingly.

10. Social status

In order to identify the social status of the community member, an enquiry was made with them to indicate their social status in terms of the panchayat member, village elder, member in a DWACRA etc., and the obtained information was presented in the following Table No.32

The information provided in the table revealed that majority of the community

representatives who responded to the questionnaire are SHG members followed by other groups such as Anganwadi worker, common man, housewives, anchayat members, Village Education Committee members, panchayat elders, mahila mandal members and youth club members etc.,

Table No. 12
Social status of the community members (multiple)

| S. No. | Particulars | Frequency | Percent |
|--------------|----------------------|------------|---------|
| 1 | Panchayat elder | 13 | 9.63 |
| 2 | Panchayat member | 21 | 15.56 |
| 3 | Village head | 14 | 10.37 |
| 4 | Youth club member | 4 | 2.96 |
| 5 | VEC member | 18 | 13.33 |
| 6 | Mahila mandal member | 12 | 8.89 |
| 7 | SHG member | 38 | 28.15 |
| 8 | Others | 32 | 23.70 |
| Total | | 135 | |

Section – II

Perceptions of the Community towards education of the tribal children

The majority of the developmental programmes initiated by the Government are being inspected by the community, making the activities of the programmes transparent.

Hence, an attempt was made by the investigator to elicit the opinions of the community regarding the education of the tribal children, as they are also involved in the programme to oversee its performance.

1. Did the villagers have the good opinion towards school education?

For the success of a programme, peoples' participation is necessary. Further, the people should have a good opinion regarding the programme and then only the programme will be successfully implemented with their participation.

Hence, in order to find out whether the villagers have a good opinion of the school education or not with the community representatives were questioned and the obtained information provided in the following table it shows that more than 80 Percent of the community representatives stated that their villagers have good opinion of school education and more than 14 Percent of the sample felt that their villagers do not have good opinion of school education. Though, their number is small, it is necessary to create awareness among them and to convince them.

Table No. 13

Did the villagers have the good opinion towards the school education?

| S. No. | Response | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|----------|-----------|------------|
| 1 | Yes | 116 | 85.93 |
| 2 | No | 19 | 14.07 |
| N | | 135 | 100.00 |

2. Do you feel that these opinions are barriers to education of the children?

The community representatives were asked whether the negative opinions of the villagers would become barriers to the education of the children or not. The obtained information revealed that more than seventy Percent are of the opinion that their negative opinion will not show any impact on the education of the children whereas more than 28 Percent opined that the villagers' negative opinion will definitely have an impact on the education of their children. Hence, there is a need to change the negative opinions of the villagers towards education immediately so as to promote education among the tribal children as the majority of the sample belong to tribal community.

Table No. 14

Do you feel that the negative opinions of the villagers would become barrier for the education of the children?

| S. No. | Response | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|----------|-----------|------------|
| 1 | Yes | 38 | 28.15 |
| 2 | No | 97 | 71.85 |
| N | | 135 | 100.00 |

3. Discrimination of the teachers towards tribal children

In order to find out the perceptions of the community representatives as to whether the teachers practice any discrimination against the tribal children or not, an enquiry was made. The obtained information is presented in the following table.

Table No. 15

Discrimination of the tribal children by the teacher

| S. No. | Response | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|----------|-----------|------------|
| 1 | Yes | 18 | 13.33 |
| 2 | No | 117 | 86.67 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 |

Majority of the community representatives informed that the teachers are not discriminating against the children belonging to the tribal community. However, a few of them stated that the teachers are discriminating against the tribal children. When questioned about how they were discriminated they stated that in language issues there is discrimination.

4. Whether the teachers are assigning the students their own work?

An enquiry was made with the community representatives to find out whether the teachers are assigning their own works to the children or not. The information obtained from them is presented in the following table it revealed that more than eighty Percent of the community representatives opined that the teachers are not assigning their own works to the children. However, more than 17 Percent stated that the teachers are assigning their own works to the children.

A further probe with regard to the type of work that has been assigned to the children by the teachers revealed that more than three fourths of the sample informed that the teachers will assign the task of fetching of water to the children, whereas more than half reported that cleaning of school premises followed by small works are also assigned to the children. However, more than 20 Percent of the sample could not provide the information.

Table No. 16
Assignment of the own work to the children by the teacher

| S. No. | Response | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|----------|-----------|------------|
| 1 | Yes | 24 | 17.78 |
| 2 | No | 111 | 82.22 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 |

Table No. 17
Type of work assigned by the teacher to the children

| S. No. | Response | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|-----------------------------|-----------|------------|
| 1 | Cleaning of school premises | 13 | 54.17 |
| 2 | Fetching of water | 16 | 66.67 |
| 3 | Small works | 11 | 45.83 |
| 4 | I don't know | 5 | 20.83 |
| Total | | 24 | |

5. Services of the community representatives in providing facilities to the school

In order to find out the services rendered by the community representatives in providing the facilities to the schools, an enquiry was made with them and the obtained information revealed that more than half of the sample have rendered their services to the schools in providing facilities for it.

A further enquiry with regard to the type of service that they have rendered that all the community representatives helped in constructing a road to the school while some helped in providing building, goods and land.

Table No. 18
Services rendered by the community representatives in providing facilities to the school

| S. No. | Response | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------------|----------|------------|---------------|
| 1 | Yes | 68 | 50.37 |
| 2 | No | 67 | 49.63 |
| Total | | 135 | 100.00 |

Table No. 19
Incentives (N = 68)

| S. No. | Type of facility | Frequency | Percentage |
|--------|--------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| 1 | Building of road to the school | 68 | 100.00 |
| 2 | Building facility | 5 | 7.35 |
| 3 | Provided Goods | 7 | 10.29 |
| 4 | Providing land | 2 | 2.94 |
| 5 | Uniform | 0 | 0.00 |
| 6 | Books | 0 | 0.00 |

Conclusions

From the above study, it is clear that there are certain hindrances that are coming in the way of education of the tribal children. Hence, to promote education among them, there is a need to inculcate awareness among the tribal people towards the importance of education. Further, it is necessary to introduce the vocational courses along with the formal schooling which are suitable to their day-to-day needs as well as global needs so as to equip them with the employable skills suitable to the globalization era. Further, it is essential to start more crèche centres in the localities of tribal habitations not only to promote educative environment in the locality but also to facilitate the children to attend the schools as both the parents of the tribal children have to go for work for their family sustenance and the children need to look after their younger siblings.

Community Participation: An Instrument For Achieving Equality In Education With Special Reference To Diasadvantaged Groups

Meenu Kirar

Abstract

In the recent years, steps have been taken to achieve equality in all spheres mainly in education. Education is the fundamental right of every child. It entails that every child of any caste, gender etc must be in school. There are disparities associated with sub-population groups defined by spatial and socio-economic characteristics where children living in rural settings, who are females and who are belonging to socially backward (SC and ST) are relatively the most deprived sections of the society. On this premise, the present paper explores the role of community participation for disadvantage group in education. This paper is divided into three sections. The first section presents the context within which the concept of disadvantage groups can be understood in a meaningful way. The second section draws upon significant community-based initiatives in India for disadvantaged groups which can be termed as instrument for achieving equality in education. The third section pulls together the analysis of these initiatives & depict conclusion with some recommendations for managers of education and could help move towards equality in a coherent framework.

Key words: Disadvantaged groups (SC/ST) Lambada /Sugali Tribe community, Community- based organizations (CBO) & Community-based initiatives for girls & minorities.

1.1 Introduction

Over the years, equality has emerged as a central concern in developmental discourse. Equality means that people are given equal opportunities in relation to access to education, employment and different services. The concept of equality includes providing the same opportunities for everyone regardless of their citizenship, ethnic origin, caste, age, gender, disability or illness. It is important to acknowledge that providing the same treatment doesn't always guarantee equality, because different individuals are in different situations and have different opportunities.

More recently, there is significant policy pressure to incorporate it in planned interventions. A necessary implication has been in terms of evaluation indicators

woven around equality. While most programmes have incorporated this agenda in their plans, operational confusion prevails at multiple levels. It is a widely shared impression that this confusion stems from a deeper discomfort at the theoretical level. Is issue of equality a central 'objective' or just a 'strategy' for better implementation of a sectoral objective? The former would place it as an intrinsic value that is essentially luminous in character – not needing any further justification. In this sense, it would derive its strength from a human rights framework. The latter position would make it an instrumentality for effective management of a sectoral initiative.

In this view, community participation can be one of the answers for this, since it is a way of shaping the type of society we live in. It is underpinned by desire to stimulate change and is used as an intervention to redress disadvantage and inequality. It is based on collective action and a belief in the value and effectiveness of building people's capacity to take an active part in the development of their communities, localities and regions. In this view it is said that community participation can be instrument for achieving equality.

1.2 Who is the Disadvantaged?

Disadvantaged groups are composed of those who, because of their economic situation, gender, ethnic, or linguistic origin, religion, or political status (refugees) have less chance of being integrated socially and economically. They invariably have no access to land or other forms of income-generating activities, and are generally deprived of basic social services such as health, proper housing and education.

The term socially disadvantaged refers to a group of populations which differ from each other in a number of ways, but have in common such characteristics as low economic status, low social status, low educational achievement, tenuous or no employment, limited participation in community or organizations, and limited ready potential for upward mobility. Variously referred to as the "culturally deprived", the "socio-economically deprived", the "socially and culturally disadvantaged", the "chronically poor," the "poverty-stricken", the "culturally alienated", and so on, these are the people who are handicapped by depressed social and economic status. In education, the disadvantages are all those who either have no access to education or those who, after a few years of schooling, drop out without having acquired the minimum level of skills needed to manage adult life in the specific local and national context.

Most of them are likely to be disadvantaged in several of other above-mentioned criteria. For example, girls in remote rural areas, children from ethnic and cultural minorities, children living in the urban slums who work are most likely to be amongst the educationally disadvantaged or excluded. The profiles of the disadvantaged actually vary from country to country.

The definition of who is disadvantaged is therefore relative and depends on the specific national context. It depends, in particular, on the level of education attained by the majority and on the definition of who is functionally literate in a particular economic and social environment. In many African countries, the disadvantaged are all those who do not have access to at least four or five years of primary education. In countries having developed mass secondary education, and where obtaining a job and finding one's way in a fairly complex, highly literate or computerized society requires a higher educational level, the disadvantaged are likely to be those who did not finish secondary education and left the system without a certified qualification.

2. Community –Based Initiative for Achieving Equality

Education is the most important instrument for human resource development. Efforts have been made over the four and half decades of planned development to enroll more disadvantages including girls in schools to continue their education as long as possible. The National Policy on Education (NPE) & National System of education envisages that education would be used as a strategy for achieving a basic change for the any group. Community based initiative programmes introduced as strategy for achieving equality in education. Therefore this section of the paper attempts to distil some lessons in this regard from such initiatives, designed for the most marginalized groups in India. All these initiatives have demonstrated that even among the most disadvantaged communities, there is a keen desire to learn and to educate children.

2.1 Community-based initiative for SC/ST

“Child Schooling in a community in transition” A case of Scheduled Tribe community in Andhra Pradesh” stress on position of the community participation for achieving equality. It is observed that consistent relative disadvantageous position of particular social groups, the state has initiated a protective policy against such discrimination to serve effectively the educational and economic interest of the weaker section of society.

In this context, one is reminded of the Education Commission's (1964-66, known as kothari commission) comment on education development of the Tribal people: “These groups have to be assisted in developing settled way of living.....It needs fundamental reorganization in their economy and their life” (p.242) and “It needs development of communication and transformation of the present system of shifting cultivation into a developing agricultural economy”. (p. 242)

The Following case study demonstrates dynamics of transformation¹, development in economy and educational progress in A.P. The focus is on the **Lambada /Sugali Tribe**, a scheduled Tribe community. It is observed that despite social backwardness,

development mediation operates through perceptive changes even most backward social groups like STs and translates into educational development through Neighborhood Effect and the Commercialization Process, providing infrastructure to primary school of village. (pucca school building, transportation facilities etc.) It illustrate a special case of inter-play of infrastructure development and its consequent economic influence resulting in changed aspiration, and increased demand for schooling for ST children through active participation of the community.

"Walking the last mile" Meeting the learning needs of the marginalized populations in Andhra Pradesh, India. also highlighting on the community participation as an device for achieving equality by addressing the learning needs of one of these two groups- the isolated ethnic tribal groups in the state. It broadly traces the counters of two initiatives taken by the state Government to provide educational opportunities to all children in these remote, inaccessible tribal habitations. The first set of interventions relate to enhancing access and improving governance and the second set of issues relate to contextualizing curriculum design through a process of empowering communities. Various studies show that the process of community involvement has strengthened the institution of the school in these areas and there is considerable demand for education among tribal parents. The community schools in Andhra Pradesh have been able to involve the community in a very significant manner. As Sujatha (2000) points out in her excellent study of these schools:

"As a mechanism to overcome these difficulties, associated with teacher and community, decentralization of the school system was developed, where the establishment of community schools teacher management and effective participation were entrusted to the community". The new approach has evolved out of a very meaningful dialogue of the tribal communities and tribal teachers with experts, researcher and academics drawn from diverse disciplines. The choice of opting for new curriculum and instructional material has been left entirely to the tribal communities, underscoring the democratic principle of empowering communities.

"Incentives in Elementary education" Do they make a difference? also focuses on function of the community based organizations (CBO) for the most deprived & marginalized groups. For example, the selection in both the districts of Andhra Pradesh is done through CBOs. They focus on school-based & community level activities, teacher support and training, providing additional teachers, activating and motivating the statutory school committees and on remedial education. *Kishori sanghas* or youth clubs & *Bal Jatras* gets benefited from such organization. This paper also focused on importance of the structural relationship between the three-community, school and children-could enable the community to both access government services/incentives (textbooks, uniform for SC and ST children, girls; scholarship, monitor quality of the mid-day meal and the functioning of the school with the children playing a key role in their education and empowerment.

2.2 Community based initiatives for gender equality in education.

Shiksha Karmi Project (SKP) was started in 1987 as an innovative educational intervention to address the factors sustaining educational backwardness in the State of Rajasthan. The Shikshakarmi Project document (1986) noted that "a major problem in the universalisation of education is the enrolment of girls. To encourage enrolment of girls and to develop awareness among women, it is imperative that women are trained as *Shikshakarmis* in as large number as possible. Preparing *Mahila* (women) Shikshakarmis, therefore became a priority in the project. For this Mahila Prashikshan Kendras were visualized as an intervention for increasing the number of women teachers and through them, affecting an increase in the enrollment of girls in the project schools.

The **Aangan Pathshala (AP)** is an additional initiative to provide easy access of girls to primary education, within a reasonable distance from their homes. In many of the Aangan Pathshala villages, the community members have contributed money, time and labor for various activities in the Pathshala (school). In other villages, the community members have donated various items like chairs, doors and clocks, besides construction material to improve the facilities in the Pathshalas. Other supportive groups are the *Mahila sahyogi* and *Mahila task force* to provide regular support to the women.

The **Mahila Samakhya (MS)** programme, started by the Government of India, Ministry of Human Resource Development in 1989, was initiated to translate the goals of the National Policy on Education into a concrete programme for the education and empowerment of women in rural areas, particularly those from socially and economically marginalized groups. The assumption in the design of the project was that women should first question gender stereotypes seriously and the solutions accepted by the community. Mahila Sanghas as forums for such a questioning emerged as a strategic choice in the programme. Its objectives were delineated by the National Policy of Education and its Programme for Action and initiated under the banner of "Education for Women's Equality" The narrow sense of literacy was de-emphasized as the possible means of allowing women to participate as equal citizens. In fact, women were encouraged to "plan and monitor their own education, to reach out to a new body of knowledge".

This programme also organized a legal course for women to strengthen the '*Nari Adalat*' concept. Moving towards a deeper understanding of what 'hurts' and humiliates a woman, *Sangha* women have also responded to 'violence' at the basic human level. Therefore the focus of Mahila Samakhya is empowerment of women and children in respect of education, health, medicine, economic activities and legal assistance. Its alternative learning centers include literacy camps, Bal Kendras (children's literacy centres), Kishori Kendras (study centers for teenage girls), and Mahila Shikshan

Kendras (women's residential education centers). These centers provide a supportive environment for the needs of girls and women.

Lok Jumbish (people's movement) was founded in 1992 on the principles of autonomy, decentralization and gender sensitivity. It is an area-based approach, addressing the learning needs of rural children in Rajasthan. For Lok Jumbish (LJ), every single child in the village is important; and the ones who have been marginalized for centuries are the first priority. Girls of deprived groups, therefore, emerge centre-stage in a clear focus.

The uniqueness of LJ design consists in creating space for experimentation and contextually relevant planning, cutting across all these is the issue of focusing on girls as a priority and on equal participation of women at all levels of decision making.

At the state level, LJ has created a forum '*Samvadika*' for ensuring focus on girls, women's participation and making informed decisions on operational issues of the project with gender sensitivity.

At the operational level of this, the assumption running through LJ management is that shifts in gender attitudes have to be created and nurtured at all levels of the planned intervention.

At the middle level, LJ has created Adhyapika Manch (Women Teachers' Forum): a collective of women school teachers in each block. Adhyapika Manch activities were initiated in 1994 on an experimental basis, with the purpose of enhancing women teachers' participation in residential teacher training camps and to encourage them to develop themselves as trainers.

For addressing the learning needs of rural (oppressed) women and girls who have not been able to access education, two freshly designed innovative programmes have been initiated. They are the Women's Residential Institute for Training and Education (WRITE) and Residential Camps for Adolescent Girls.

WRITE was established with the objective of providing necessary training and education up to class VIII to young women coming from difficult situations (belonging to backward communities and separated, divorced or deserted by husbands).

Residential Camps for Adolescent Girls (*Balika Shikshan Shivir*)

These are short term residential camps for adolescent girls, many of whom are married and have missed the opportunity of schooling at the normal age of school entry, due to lack of access and family compulsions. Lok Jumbish had first experimented in 1997, with spectacular results, this alternative mode of providing primary education to these girls who had just 'missed the bus' to receive formal

education. It can conclude that LJ as a design of educational intervention has had significant validation with respect to gender issues. It has seriously attempted to keep a balance between treating gender equality as a goal as well as a strategy.

3. Conclusion and Recommendations

Rights can be declared and policies can be formulated to express our collective liberal and humanistic concern, but unless the real life of the disadvantaged child in the family and community is touched by tangible efforts and actions, nothing can be achieved. Therefore, a climate has to be created in which they can exercise their rights freely and fearlessly. One has to work for the transformation of those social and cultural values that shackle and constrict the disadvantaged group and mould them into stereotypical roles. For this, every forum and every platform should be used to create awareness and stimulate positive action. Along with this, effective implementation of the laws for protecting their and provision of opportunities for their to benefit from them has to be insured.

The issue of achieving equality in society through community participation has been one of the most complex challenges for educational management. Therefore Educational administrators should not overlook the fact that part of the community has been excluded, especially since their role is precisely to work for equal opportunity in education for all school-age children. If there is any group that deserves to receive favors from them, it is precisely those children coming from the poorest strata of the community. They are the ones who encounter the most educational problems, who attend school least regularly, and who drop out earliest, usually for economic reasons.

Paulo Freire has looked into the problem of how mankind has been subjected to oppression and become dehumanized. He claims that the great human and historical work of the oppressed is to free them while also freezing their oppressors.

These disadvantaged strata, who often constitute the majority of the population, are also the people who have the fewest opportunities for spontaneous participation in educational administration. Conversely, if initiative comes from the top down, or from the outside, how can these disadvantaged groups be led to participate in decision-making just at a time when education is creating so many problems of ever-increasing complexity? In addition, how can decisions be implemented once they are made, if they are not supported with enthusiasm and action by the groups for whom they are intended? This is certainly a hard problem to solve, but experience stands to show that it is far from insoluble. When one starts to wonder who can or might participate, one sees that there are much potential participation. But they must be sought out through the structures of the community itself. Of course, that means parents' associations, for they are concerned right away, but an administrator must undertake a systematic search for all those individuals and especially those groups capable of providing a contribution, including organizations representing social classes and

sectors, youth organization, etc. The most successful programmes for disadvantaged groups are those that emphasize communities' and learners' responsibility through decentralized and participatory approaches. When generalizing and going to scale, attention has to be paid to leaving operational autonomy and flexibility to those operating at the grass-root level, while maintaining an overall coherence of the system and putting into place mechanisms for monitoring and ensuring transparency and accountability.

At last, any efforts to bring equality entail effective community participation that are expected to make the democratic governance of educational systems by more inclusiveness of various socially, economically and culturally stratified groups. Hence, broadening the basis of participation is the best way to ensure that the entire community is represented then only we can achieve the equality not in education but in any area.

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(Footnotes) ¹ The term 'transformation' indicates phenomenal change observed in this community in terms of education & economy.

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The provisional data of the Census 2011 has been released on March 30, 2011 by the Census Commissioner of India. The full report with final figures is expected to be out by 2012. The provisional data has brought out interesting revelations about the population and literacy rate.

The total population of India as per 2011 Census is 1210 million in comparison to 1029 million in Census 2001. In absolute terms the population of India has increased by more than 181 million during 2001 – 2011. For the first time since 1921 India has added fewer people in 10 years than in the previous decade. It is significant that the percentage decadal growth during 2001 – 2011 has registered the sharpest decline since independence. It declined from 23.87 percent for 1981 – 1991 to 21.54 percent for the period 1991 – 2001 a decrease of 2.33 percent. For 2001 – 2011 the decadal growth has become 17.64 percent, a further decrease of 3.90 percent.

India now makes-up 17.5 percent of World's population while 19.4 percent of World's population lives in China. India has more people than Bangladesh, Brazil, Indonesia, Japan, Pakistan and United States put together.

The effective literacy rate for India in Census 2011 works out to 74.04 percent with male literacy at 82.14 and female literacy at 65.46 percent. Thus three-fourth of the population of aged 7 years and above is literate in the country. An extremely positive development in the present decade is that the gap of 21.59 percent recorded between male and female literacy rates in 2001 has reduced to 16.68 percent in 2011.

A significant milestone reached in Census 2011 is that the total number of illiterates has come down from 304,146,862 in 2001 to 272,950,015 in 2011 showing a decline of 31,196,847 persons.

Community Radio for Rural Advancement

Arpita Sharma

India's agricultural system, the largest in the world caters to the technology needs of more than 100 million farm families. Its normal task of transferring and disseminating appropriate technologies and agronomic practices would not be sufficient for the empowerment of farming community. In this regard, Community radio (CR) caters to location specific need of farming community. Defined as the radio owned by community and airs programs designed and produced by it for its own developmental needs. CR is a significant departure from the primary centralised radio broadcasting paradigm that India has been following for decades.

Potentialities of Community Radio (CR) Indian Agricultural Research Institute (ICAR)

- It is expected that the next leap of ICT will be in agriculture sector, together with traditional inputs & interventions farmers.
- Radio plays a vital role in passing on information to farming community as quickly as possible. Among various modes of radio broadcasting, Community Radio (CR) is a powerful medium for education and development. CR is 'characterised as a mouthpiece for socially, economically, politically and culturally marginalised people & as a tool for development of society improved input for agriculture, education and would encourage members of the community to associate together to design, produce and air programmes' (Srivastava, 2007).
- The experience of a number of developing countries in using community radio for such purposes has clearly demonstrated its tremendous potential for strengthening grass-roots democracy.

Community Radio: Specific Initiatives in India Indian Agricultural Research Institute (ICAR)

CR, owing to its multifarious responsibilities to the farming community on agriculture production, information on rural development schemes, credit facility, education, health, sanitation, cooperatives etc., it is becoming very popular in the developing countries including India. The country's first community radio station has been operational since 1st February 2004 at Anna University, Chennai. Some of the important examples of community radio projects and audio initiatives working in India are:

- The Deccan Development Society (DDS) Audio Initiative at Pastapur (AP)
- Namma Dhwani, the *VOICES* initiatives in Budikote, Karnataka
- Chala Ho Gaon Mein By AID – Bihar
- Kunjal Panchchi Kutchji, Bhuj
- Mana Radio
- CRS in UAS, Dharwad

Use of Community Radio

Community Radio can in fact start a revolution if used effectively. It can be used for education, farming and livelihood generation by broadcasting programs in coordination with the local communities in their own languages and dialects, on following themes:

- Development of effective innovative education approaches to translate knowledge gained from science into public health and community applications
- Dedicating the farmers and seasonal farm workers in rural areas, organic farming, and livelihood generation
- Innovative educational programs intended to motivate biomedical and other health science students to pursue cancer/HIV/AIDS related careers;
- short courses to update in new scientific methods, technologies and findings
- Training of health care clinicians and community health care providers
- Better informing and motivating Indian masses with regard to priority HIV/AIDS interventions and services; supporting and reinforcing

positive HIV/AIDS behaviors; improving HIV/AIDS information on the radio;

- Training and counseling to women who are socially and economically disadvantaged,
- Counseling and technical assistance in the areas of finance, management, procurement, and marketing to the rural masses,
- Helping communities to get reward for their talent in the ethnic field such as Madhubani Paintings, Warli paintings, Phad Paintings, Thanga Paintings, various forms of murals, sculptures etc.
- Health, hygiene, drug abuse, vaccination, child care etc.

Social Impact on Community Radio

Frampton et al. (2007) reported that the power of community radio to mobilise groups and bring change to societies is well recognised. This power can, however, also be manipulated and used to spread hate and violence, as was the case in Rwanda in 1994.⁵ Cautioning against the negative potential of community radio, Carole Frampton of Search for Common Ground demonstrated how her organisation relied on community radio to prevent the spillover of violence from Rwanda to Burundi by focusing on bringing people together and fostering dialogue and peace. By bringing journalists from each of the two ethnic groups that were in conflict and building on their collaboration, Search for Common Ground helped establish the first independent radio production studio—Studio Ijambo—in Burundi, she said. Eleven independent radio stations followed. According to Frampton, not only did this small and grass-roots effort show that ethnic collaboration and finding solutions based on dialogue was possible, it also helped develop new standards and balanced reporting skills, representing all the voices of the community that other radio stations later emulated. After the initial objective of creating dialogue was successfully achieved, Frampton said, Search for Common Ground's focus shifted from the core of the conflict to capacity-building through skills training and providing direct assistance. The stations also helped improve the level of the public's media literacy, as people could "compare the good stations to others and see what real media should look like," she said. Listening and discussion clubs and other initiatives to engage the community beyond radio made the impact of the latter even stronger, she added. Frampton said that community radio developers must have a clear strategy and vision of what they want to achieve. With community radio, "the focus is on dialogue, on finding solutions, on the future rather than who did what to whom... , on bringing all the stakeholders together and

through the radio trying to calm situations down and move the society toward peace and democracy," she said. Donors should consider creating, supporting, and strengthening networks such as the Independent Radio Network (IRN) in Sierra Leone, she said, as an effective way to help amplify the impact of this proven and practical tool for social change. Her colleague Paul-André Wilton demonstrated the important role IRN played in the 2007 elections in Sierra Leone by providing a model standard of reporting for its 20 stations and leading the media response. IRN, which started in 2002 with eight member stations, united 420 reporters from 20 stations by the 2007 elections in Sierra Leone. They produced independent, trust-worthy, and timely programming and information by having local voices on air from all over the country—from the most remote areas to large polling stations, said Wilton. Through live interviews and analyses, the reporters provided context to help listeners understand the complexity of the elections, through shadow vote counts, helped monitor election results. IRN makes local radio national. Through collaboration and coordination, these 20 membership radio stations conduct national broadcasts through the local radio stations. According to Wilton, success came from the credibility the stations gained through the gradual and strategic evolution of the network's capacity over five years, their commitment to become a credible platform for information by providing both national and local news, and the expert technical and editorial assistance IRN received from Search for Common Ground in partnership with Developing Radio Partners. The potential of community radio to bring about social change is not a matter of mere observation but, as Population Media Center President William Ryerson demonstrated, an empirically proven fact based on quantifiable and statistically analysed results. Focusing on women's rights promotion, HIV rates reduction, family planning, reproductive health issues, and prevention of child trafficking, the Center uses community radio to produce behavioral change among large audiences in 15 countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, educating through entertainment, including with soap opera characters. The highly significant results of pre- and post-broadcast random-sample surveys, Ryerson noted, indicated positive changes in the behavior of those who listened to the programming. In Ethiopia, for example, those who listened to special programming on HIV were more likely to be tested for the virus than non-listeners. This approach builds on the power of media to create high emotional contexts that help make information more memorable, and the Population Media Center relies on community radio as the most appropriate and cost-effective medium to reach its target audiences. According to the estimates of a project in Tanzania, for example, the cost of getting people to

take steps to avoid HIV infection was eight cents per listener. William Siemering, president of Developing Radio Partners and founding member of National Public Radio's Board of Directors, described the work of community radio developers as "scattering seeds"—alluding to the original meaning of "broadcast"—the results of which take time to ripen. Like a vaccine capable of reducing preventable diseases, he said, community radio is "a simple, effective solution" to achieve development goals, to prevent "fragile states from becoming failed states," and also to help people celebrate their own culture. The approach recommended by Developing Radio Partners, Siemering observed, is to first build the capacity of individual community radio stations that evolve out of necessity on the grass-roots level, then create an association to develop professional standards and increase the likelihood of sustainability, and finally, help individual stations unite into a network. Showing donors the effect these operative stations are having on their communities will attract more investment for Like a vaccine capable of reducing preventable diseases, community radio is a simple, effective solution to achieve development goals, to prevent fragile states from becoming failed states, and also to help people celebrate their own culture. 10 Center for International Media Assistance CIMA Working Group Report: Community Radio community radio development, Siemering concluded. George Papagiannis of Internews Network shared what he called "a story of hope, a story of replacing fear with information" in the establishment of three community radio stations to reach refugee camps in eastern Chad for Sudanese refugees who fled Darfur. With funding from USAID's Office of Transition Initiatives, the U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Population, Refugees, and Migration, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) and a number of private sources, the three stations with a mixed staff of 25 local Chadians and refugees from Darfur target their primary audience—refugees from Darfur—by broadcasting in local, unwritten languages that have never been on air before, as well as in Arabic and French. In constant communication with the audience, the stations have managed to air discussion on sensitive and formerly taboo issues such as gender-based violence, child marriage, and female genital mutilation. The impact of their flagship program "She Speaks, She Listens," which aims to empower women—an essential aspect for promoting an open and democratic society, many participants agreed—is further augmented by a drama program dealing with the same subject. Surveys conducted by UNHCR have indicated that the information conveyed to the audience during eight to 10 hours of daily broadcasting is being incorporated into people's lives, Papagiannis said. Having heard the accounts of the presenters, a long-

time community radio activist emphasised the importance of bringing the accomplishments of community radio—especially in post-conflict areas—to the attention of the international development community, as the Rwandan example of spreading ethnic hatred through the airwaves has long haunted the reputation of community radio, forcing media developers to resort to commercial models of radio development instead, as was his experience in Kosovo. Based on lessons learned, the participants stressed the need to inform donors of the best ways to use community radio's potential. One representative of an international organisation said that donors should abandon their approach of "looking for a quick fix" and regarding community radio simply as a means of getting development messages across through short-term projects. They should develop a long-term vision for investing in community radio as an institution and "be prepared to stay in for the long haul," since real change, she continued, should come from within the community, with community radio playing a "microcosmic" role by helping the community acquire a sense of ownership and empowering people to see their impact on society. The impact of community radio is most evident in areas having practically no other access to information, and donors should, therefore, realise the significance of investing in it as a means of making information available without necessarily having a realistic vision of achieving sustainability over a short time. Center for International Media Assistance 11CIMA Working Group Report: Community Radio. is most evident in areas having practically no other access to information, and donors should, therefore, realise the significance of investing in it as a means of making information available without necessarily having a realistic vision of achieving sustainability over a short time, a representative of one donor organisation added. Donors should also avoid imposing models for individual stations to adopt, since the best models are those that develop naturally and out of necessity, a participant observed. Community radio is generally the best tool for getting information to illiterate and poor communities, as it requires neither reading skills nor money to buy newspapers, a radio developer said. Since in many countries most media are concentrated in capital cities and heavily populated areas, and even national media fail to reach remote areas, community radio provides the opportunity of "reaching powerless communities and giving them a voice," he added. Even in areas where national media broadcast, the impact of a community radio broadcasting in a local language or languages is incomparable, an implementer observed. The participants also considered contexts where community radio development is infeasible or inadequate. A government's lack of understanding of the importance of reaching out to

and communicating with marginalised or rural sectors of the population can hinder community radio development, a number of participants observed. One implementer suggested engaging appointed and elected officials as part of community radio projects to create a strong link between governments and local media. Another implementer cautioned that the guidelines outlined for donors will prove irrelevant in regions where governments and the legal and regulatory environment hinder community radio development. In the Middle East and North Africa region, he said, discussions on the impact of community radio will matter only after there is legal reform allowing for the licensing and establishment of independent community radio stations. In terms of inadequacy of community radio development, one implementer strongly cautioned against supporting initiatives where there is clear evidence that the majority does not protect the rights of the minority within the community and will take advantage of community radio to further reinforce the disparity, be it on ethnic, political, or social basis.

Challenges to Sustainability and Funding Perspectives of Community Radio

In 2001-07, Creative Associates International carried out a community radio strengthening project in Haiti, where—according to Kim Mahling Clark, senior associate with the company's Communities in Transition Division—community radio developed its own identity after UNESCO's initial setup of six stations in 1991. When Creative Associates' project started, 40 stations were already operating. In assessing the capacity of the stations, Creative Associates looked at criteria such as their organisational development, equipment maintenance, financial management, and programming content. Just months after the capacity-building project ended, however, approximately a quarter of the stations started experiencing serious problems hindering their ability to broadcast, leading to the closure of eight stations. Major factors that led to the station closures included lack of financial sustainability and inability to maintain equipment, along with other factors beyond the control of radio station personnel, such as intermittent electricity. A number of stations were not able to meet monthly operational costs—which ranged from \$200 to \$1,000—as most funds were used to pay full-time staff. Sustainability, many agreed, seems the biggest challenge for community radio. Some stations manage to generate revenue through paid announcements, such as thank you messages, birthday wishes and funeral announcements; through funding from side businesses, such as a

restaurant; or through a barter system, allotting priority air time to an advertisement for a local company that has provided goods or services to the station. Active participation by volunteers, however, is the key to success for many community radio stations. As a representative of an organisation that provided initial operational funding to a community radio station in northeastern Congo put it, "part-time radio volunteers who are full-time community members" can successfully maintain a station's sustainability after donor funding ends. "If people invest their time and resources in something without any pay, it is an indication of commitment and sustainability," a participant added. Volunteerism, nevertheless, is not universal, and there are cultures and places where it is impossible to rely on volunteers, another participant cautioned. With community radio development, some participants observed, ensuring the financial sustainability of stations should not be the primary objective. "When I start worrying about sustainability and stop worrying about my listeners, that's when my stations get into trouble," an implementer with vast experience in community radio development commented. According to others, however, all aspects of sustainability—social, institutional and financial—should be incorporated into the overall strategy of community.

Ensuring an Enabling Environment for Community Radio Development

Kuttabet al. (2007) *Community Radio* enhanced possibilities for community radio development. The interaction of community radio and the Internet has great potential and should be further explored, an implementer noted. Even for existing radio stations, the Internet can help them provide local news and "keep in touch with community members scattered for political or economic reasons," said the implementer. Another participant pointed out that cell phones with radio functions that are widespread in most developing countries should also be considered for transmitting community radio programming. Even in places with no legally licensed community radio stations, "people are going to use whatever means available to them"—be it through private and commercial licensing, public service broadcasting, or pirate radio—to carry out a community radio mission when there is such a need, said an academic with research interests in alternative media. According to her, this puts pressure on governments and policymakers to open up space for the sector, as happened in Hungary, for example, after pirate stations emerged in the post-Soviet era. Currently, community radio accounts for 25 percent of radio broadcasting in the country. The discussion that followed focused on the legal and regulatory environments enabling community radio development. Kreszentia Duer, co-author of the newly published book

Broadcasting, Voice, and Accountability: A Public Interest Approach to Policy, Law, and Regulation, which examines existing good practice in the field of community broadcasting, outlined the essential legal and regulatory elements enabling community radio development. In addition to the general constitutional framework supportive of free, independent, and pluralistic media, Duer emphasised that the national legal system regulating the media sector should guarantee a subcategory of community broadcasting supported by adequate regulations and arrangements. The best approach, she continued, is to reserve 10 to 15 percent of FM frequencies for community radio, as is the case in France, Australia, and Germany. Given the proliferation of commercial stations that occurs as economies open up, there should be incentives for community broadcasters to carry out and maintain their mission of community development, Duer said. Community radio stations thus should not be subject to the same licensing fees required for commercial broadcasters, and there should be sanctions—suspension of a community radio license, for example—for stations that become purely commercial. Transparency and independence of procedures regulating community broadcasting, as well as transparency and clarity of licensing regimes and eligibility criteria, which—as Duer stressed—should be determined in consultation with civil society groups, are absolutely crucial.

Importance of Public Consultation Kreszentia Duer noted a positive example of the public consultative mechanism was recently implemented in Nigeria. In 2006, Nigeria's minister of information set up a committee that is partly governmental and partly nongovernmental in nature. The committee's objective is to establish guidelines governing the licensing regime of community radio stations. Duer also pointed out that there should be no restrictions on content as long as programming aims at the social development of the community, nor should there be limitations on proposed sources of revenue. The licensing regime, she said, should instead encourage multiple sources of funding, including subsidisation by stations themselves, leading to their sustainability in the long run. According to Duer, transmitting power should not be limited on the basis of a general regulatory guideline; the footprint of broadcasting should rather be context-specific and defined by the needs or interests of the particular community the station is targeting. Even though the number of countries coming close to having an ideally enabling environment for community radio is very small and constrained to a few Western states, the regulatory regimes in an emerging number of developing countries, such as Mali, Ghana, and Liberia, that are "leapfrogging over old practices" is encouraging, she concluded. Putting

the above mentioned guidelines in country-specific contexts, Kate Coyer from the Annenberg School of Communication at the University of Pennsylvania, highlighted aspects of regulatory policies in India and the United Kingdom—two countries where community radio has been recently recognised as a sector for regulation. In India, implementation of the state policy for community radio adopted in 2006 and the government's promise to license 4,000 new stations by 2008 is yet to be witnessed. Only nonprofit entities that have been registered for at least three years and have a community-based management board are eligible for licensing. In terms of content, licensed stations are required to produce half of their programming locally and in local languages. Entertainment is not forbidden per se, but not encouraged, whereas news reporting is banned, as is the case with commercial radio. According to Coyer, funding will be one of the biggest challenges, since with no central source of funding, the system allows five minutes of advertising and sponsorship of programs only by the government. Lack of clarity and transparency of application and licensing processes is also one of the disadvantages of the new policy. In the United Kingdom, on the other hand, the 2004 Community Radio Order foresees a transparent online application process that favors stations based on the social gain they propose to accomplish. In fact, applicants can specify the area they want to reach with an option of either FM frequencies with a four–six kilometer range or AM frequencies for wider reach. The Community Radio Fund has a £500,000 (\$1 million) annual budget, with a board responsible for allocation of funding that is separate from the one making licensing decisions. The regulations also specify that more than half of the funding cannot come from a single source, including advertising and program sponsorship, thus fostering diversity of funding sources. Concluding the discussion on legal and regulatory regimes enabling community radio development, the participants agreed that even with the most favorable laws, implementation is crucial. "The intent of good laws can be subverted by uneven and inconsistent enforcement or cumbersome and overly bureaucratic regulation and reporting requirements," one participant summarised. A veteran community radio activist with experience both in the United States and abroad cautioned against time-consuming and complicated regulations, including accounting and auditing requirements, which shifts the focus away from the work of a community station to compliance. Implementation of regulations, he continued, should be simplified so that "a station trying to get a portion of public funding does not forget the duty to serve the community."

Center for International Media Assistance (CIMA) (2007)

Colin Fraser and Sonia Restrepo-Estrada (2002) reported that illustrate the role of a radio station, owned and run by a community, in providing the forum for the participatory, public dialogue which is essential for social change. The radio station is a platform for identifying and analysing problems and their solutions, thereby determining development inputs that truly meet local needs. Open access to on-air complaints from the audience can pressure local authorities to adopt practices of good governance and transparency. Cheap and easy to install and operate, community radio can also be the interface between poor communities and the Internet.

Functions of Community Radio

The earliest experiences of community radio go back more than half a century, to the Miners' Radios of Bolivia, which were instrumental in pressing for better working conditions for tin miners. Poverty and social injustice were the stimulus for that initiative. This was the first recorded case of radio broadcasting being used by a sector of society to improve its socio-economic status. Since the early 1980s, UNESCO has been actively promoting community radio as an important agent for change and development. Its activities in many countries have often been financially supported by DANIDA (Danish Agency for Development Assistance). The principal functions of community radio are:

- To reflect and promote local identity, character and culture by focusing principally on local content. Culture is how the people of a community talk about their past and their future. It is what they care about. Like life itself, culture is infinitely variable and constantly evolving. Community culture is also artistic expression through local music, dance, poetry, theatre and story telling. Local performers are encouraged to go on air uninhibited by considerations of the 'professional standards' they may have acquired from mainstream media. Culture is also language, so programming includes the languages of any minority groups in the community.
- To create a diversity of voices and opinions on the air through its openness to participation from all sectors. Some discord is present in all communities, but the acknowledgement of conflict is necessary for democracy and for democratic communities. Community radio tries to air objectively all sides of a discussion without itself taking sides.

- To encourage open dialogue and democratic process by providing an independent platform for interactive discussion about matters and decisions of importance to the community. In essence, the core of democratic process is the ability of people to hear and make themselves heard. Community radio provides the forum for that to happen. This is consonant with the decentralisation process in many countries that aims to bring democratic decision-making closer to the people concerned. And what is happening at the grassroots level – as portrayed by the community radio programming – can be heard by local government and private institutions, as well as being relayed to policy makers, thus making it possible to design development initiatives that best meet the aspirations and needs of the people.
- To promote social change and development. In marginalised communities people all have their individual perceptions about their situation, but what is required for change and development is a collective perception of the local reality and of the options for improving it. This collective perception can only be achieved through internal discussions to analyse specific problems, identify possible solutions, and mobilise the appropriate people or groups for action. Community radio provides the perfect platform for this internal discussion.
- To promote good governance and civil society by playing a community watchdog role that makes local authorities and politicians more conscious of their public responsibilities. The marginalised and the oppressed normally have no way to complain when authorities take advantage of them, but community radio gives them a voice to air their grievances and obtain their due rights. Some other functions of community radio include: sharing of information and innovation; giving a voice to the voiceless, especially to women and young people in some societies; and providing a social service as a replacement for the telephone.

Conclusion

On the basis of above research studies it can be concluded that Community Radio can play a very important role in social change of country. People listen community radio for information as well as entertainment. Community Radio is truly a people's Radio that perceives listeners not only as receivers and consumers, but also as active participants and creative producers of content. Community Radio covers all developmental and rights based issues and updates listeners on the latest developments in

environmental, policy related and other issues. Community Radio has the responsibility to help sustain the diversity of the local cultures and languages and thus should be supported through legislative, administrative, and financial measures.

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The Role of Idiomatic Expressions in Second Language Development: A Wealth of Proficiency and a Strategy in Communication

Rajakumar Guduru

Abstract

For a long time the role of idiomatic expressions in L2 development has not been recognised and even underestimated (Peters, 1983). Recently, these idiomatic expressions within the fields of linguistics, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics is gaining much importance as much as productive rules (Weinert, 1995). It is also said that fluency is possible without grammatical accuracy but not without idiomaticity. So, this paper brings awareness and educates learners as well as teachers on the researcher's assumption that the idiomaticity plays a major role in second language proficiency at advanced levels. With a brief introduction, this paper, defines idiomaticity, discusses its salient features that are a part of spontaneous connected second language discourse and presents the role of idiomaticity as a means of strategy to achieve second language proficiency. Thus, learners are motivated to move beyond literal language and to focus more on 'figurative language' which helps them achieve command over the language and sound like 'native' in their speech. In conclusion, a few suggestions, for the L2 teachers and learners, are offered on how to teach and learn idiomatic expressions.

Introduction

It has been observed by Peters (1983) and Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) that, for a long time the role of formulaic sequences of L1 and L2 development has not been recognised and even underestimated. Recently, it is said that the area of phraseology has evolved from its peripheral status in Chomskyan linguistics to having a fundamental role in second language description and acquisition (Weinert, 1995). According to Weinert (1995), the ready made chunks of unanalysed language or the formulaic language within the fields of linguistics, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics is gaining much importance as much as productive rules.

Second language learners, as they advance, should aim at learning beyond literal language i.e. "figurative language". This figurative language helps learners sound natural when they speak. Today, the use of figurative language or idiomatic expressions by the adult second language speakers has been felt very much in all walks of life. These learners use it in their speech after fashion and for various other purposes to show that their language is highly polished and also to sound very natural in their speech. Therefore, idioms are considered as the 'felt need' by the advanced second language learners. These idiomatic expressions are even used in the textbooks and the students are tested on them in the examinations of secondary schools, colleges and even at the university level. So, it is not quite surprising to find the adult second language learners trying to use them more frequently in both written as well as spoken discourse. On these lines, it is quite interesting to look into some observations by the well known linguists in the area concerned. In the process, the terms such as idiomaticity, conventionalised language, formulaic sequences (FSs) have been used interchangeably.

According to Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), formulaic sequences are frequently found in language use and they also make up a large proportion of any discourse. Erman and Warren (2000), (cited in Schmitt and Carter, 2004) calculated that formulaic language of various types constituted 58.6% of the spoken English discourse they analysed and 52.3% of the written discourse. Foster's raters judged that 32.3% of the unplanned native speech they analysed was made up of formulaic language (Foster, 2001; cited in Schmitt and Carter, 2004). If the formulaic sequences are so widespread in English discourse, it shows that proficient speakers must have knowledge and mastery of these sequences at some level.

Defining Idiomaticity

Most of the linguists consider the issue of conventionalised language (idioms, formulas, prefabricated patterns, etc.) has been a problem in linguistic theory and is not a widely researched area. Therefore, it is said that there has not been an integrated theory on idiomaticity yet. In the opinion of many linguists, this lack of a coherent theoretical and empirical background creates serious definitional problems. Thus, in general "conventionalised language" has been used by many as the operational cover term; and 'idiomaticity' as an umbrella term for all the formulae and fixed expressions.

According to Wray (2000), formulaic sequence is "a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other meaning elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated; that is stored and retrieved whole from the memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar."

The simplest definition of idiom, according to Cowie and Mackin, (1975; cited in Liontas, 2002) is, 'an idiom is a combination of two or more words which function as a unit of meaning.' Ellis (1996) is of the opinion that formulaic sequences are 'glued together' and stored as a single 'big word.'

From the above definitions we can say that there is not one single common definition for idiomaticity. It is all the more obvious from the fact that Wray (2002) found over fifty to describe the phenomenon of formulaic language. For example; chunks, collocations, conventionalised forms, formulaic speech, formulas, holophrases, multiword units, prefabricated routines, ready-made utterances and so on. The scope of this list made it difficult to even decide on a cover term. Thus, the term 'formulaic sequence' has been used based on the Wray's (2002) definition.

The salient features and functions of idiomatic expressions

We have seen briefly in the earlier section the definition and the terminology by which the formulaic language is known and used such as "ready-made utterances" and "schemata", "prefabricated routines", "prefabricated patterns", "units", and "formulaic speech". These terms show that formulaic language is being recognised very much in various texts and genres.

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) describe 'lexical phrases' as 'the very centre of language acquisition'. It is claimed that formulaic language is so integral a feature of language that it is 'difficult or impossible to draw a line between a formulaic and a non-formulaic expression' (Hopper, 1998; cited in Prodromou, 2007).

Experts are of the opinion that idiomaticity is important to L1 fluency. They also believe that it is unquestioned and uncontroversial transition from L1 to L2 fluency via idiomaticity. In the empirical study of the idiom principle,

it was found that as much as 50 per cent of the language may be explicable in idiomatic terms (Erman and Warren, 2000; cited in Prodromou, 2007).

It is said that fluent language use is not based on rules all times (Dreyfus and Athanasiou, 1986; cited in Weinert, 1995). All studies distinguish between entirely fixed strings (*How are you?*) and sequences with open slots (see *you* ———). This view is taken a step further by, for instance, Pawley and Syder (1983) who suggest that language is a continuum of the formulaic and the creative speech represented in dual form (analysed as well as unanalysed forms).

It has been found that recurring situations in the social world require certain responses from people. These are often described as functions, and include speech acts such as apologising, making requests, giving directions, and complaining. These functions typically have conventionalised language attached to them, such as *I'm (very) sorry to hear about* ——— to express sympathy and *I'd be happy/glad to* ——— to comply with a request (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992). Since members of speech community know these expressions, they serve a quick and reliable way to achieve the related speech act.

Idiomatic expressions as a means of 'Strategy' in SL proficiency

Although language is not entirely rule governed, idioms are considered a problem for Chomskyan grammar (Chafe, 1968; cited in Weinert, 1995). According to Yorio (1980) native speakers use conventionalised formulas extensively in their language such as large stretches of memorised discourse in songs and prayers, routine greeting formulas, proverbs, euphemisms, idioms and collocations. It is assumed that these sequences which cannot be easily accounted in terms of generative rules are may be more pervasive than generally acknowledged. It is also said that native speakers do not seem to use all the possible rules available in their language. Rather, in many contexts particular functions are realised by particular forms, suggesting much closer link between forms and usage (Pawley and Syder, 1983; Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992).

a). **Formulaic language as a communicative strategy:** Formulaic language allows L2 learners entry into minimal communication (social routines – greetings). This is due to lack of competence in terms of target language rules (Krashen and Scarcella, 1978; Bohn, 1986). It is said that, under this

strategy, imitation and formulaic language are widely-documented phenomena in SLA. There can be complex sentences and pre-fabricated routines with open slots to smaller chunks which are not always recognised as units in linguistic analysis.

b). **Formulaic language as a production strategy:** Formulaic language as automatic sequences free the processing time. As a result, they allow the fluency in production and comprehension of second language (Raupach, 1984; cited in Weinert, 1995). They also make creative speech possible. Raupach's (1984) study discusses the role of formulas in L2 production. He has tried to establish measures of formulaic language as an L2 production strategy. He provides some empirical evidence to suggest that L2 advanced learners make use of formulas in their speech production.

c). **Formulaic language as a learning strategy:** It implies that learners analyse memorised sequences and derive rules from them. In turn, learners use them productively. It was noted by various linguists in their experiments on the children's natural acquisition of English, where these children employ creative construction process which are independent of previously learnt chunks of language, i.e. learners segment or break individual familiar words and reassemble these into single and two word utterances. Studies show that imitation appears to have been more spontaneous than rule formed utterances.

Teaching and learning idiomatic Expressions

The teachers and learners should be aware of the difficulties in learning idioms as there is lack of suitable materials for teaching them. So they should pay more attention to teaching strategies to help learners deal with both comprehension and production of idioms and also to help them to acquire more idioms outside formal classroom instruction.

- Teachers should have knowledge that idioms generally appear in introductory reading or dialogue, a definition, translation or example will be provided in the margin or notes, and the idiom will then appear again in the vocabulary list of the lesson.
- Teachers should provide additional exercises and practice.
- Teachers should know that some exercises which do involve understanding usually require comprehension only and do not ask students to produce the idioms. For example matching the

- idiom with its definition or substituting one for the other, multiple choice exercises where the correct definition or phrase is chosen.
- Teachers may teach idioms which are most frequently used in ordinary reading and conversation.
 - Teachers may teach learners the transparent idioms as they are easy to understand.
 - Idioms in simplicity of form and vocabulary may be preferred to those of low frequency vocabulary, in the passive, in the negative and are unusual in form.
 - Idioms can be added to the vocabulary being learned by including them in dialogues and stories which are created to supplement regular materials, and by providing idiomatic synonyms for vocabulary words which the students are learning.
 - Learners may be asked to maintain their own idiom notebooks when they encounter more idioms in their reading and conversations.
 - Teachers and learners can bring in idiomatic expressions found in comics and advertisements.
 - Teachers may teach those idioms which contain the same vocabulary words students are learning.
 - For advanced learners special lessons may be designed specifically to teach idiomatic expressions.
 - Teachers can devote either one class period per week or a few minutes each day to teaching idioms.
 - Teachers may provide necessary context for practicing idioms for advanced learners. So that they will be able to guess the meanings from the context.
 - The learners as well as teachers may have access to a good idiom dictionary when needed.

The classroom practices may encourage the use of formulaic language. But only few studies have addressed the issue of imitation and formulas in classroom SLA directly. Ellis (1984) from his study of formulaic language uses in the language one Portuguese and two Punjabi ESL learners of English, opines that formulas enable the learner to perform a small range of communicative functions. He says that this may lead to increased input for more analytic processes, therefore contributing indirectly to acquisition.

Formulaic sequences may also provide language learners with more than an expedient way to communicate; they might also facilitate further

language learning. It is interesting to note that for L1 learners, it has been proposed that unanalysed sequences provide the raw material for language development (Peres, 1983). If that is so, according to Bardovi-Harling, (2002) (cited in Schmitt and Carter, 2004), it is possible that these sequences serve the same purpose for L2 learner.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to define and discuss the salient features of formulaic language that are part of spontaneous connected second language discourse. We have seen that the criteria used to identify formulaic language vary according to the focus of research, i.e. linguistic, psycholinguistic, first and second language acquisition. It seems in the usage of these criteria there is considerable overlap across the studies. It is possible to integrate the study of formulaic language into a larger theoretical framework which includes both linguistic and a learning perspective and which sees learning, knowledge, and production as closely related. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) suggest that 'lexical phrases' which exist somewhere between grammar and the lexicon may be given a more central role in language teaching and may provide a suitable compromise between approaches which rely too heavily on either the notion of linguistic competence or communicative competence.

Finally, it is said that fluency is possible without grammatical accuracy but not without idiomaticity. In the opinion of the researcher, while learning a second or a foreign language, knowledge about grammar is important from the point of accuracy only. One should be aware of the fact that in the era of communicative language teaching and learning (CLT/L), less importance is given to teaching grammar. It is because, second language learners are threatened by conscious learning or formal teaching of grammar. Hence, all the emphasis is laid on the communicative performance rather than communicative competence. Under this phenomenon, learners are encouraged to communicate more and more and in the process, errors are seen as stepping stones for acquiring fluency. So, learners tend to be choosy and stick to the formulaic sequences or lexical chunks which aid them in their communicative performance. Thus, idiomaticity becomes an excellent indicator of bilingual system proficiency and, as such, it is to be studied and understood.

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Processes and Products Influencing Extension in Universities

Jai Prakash Dubey

"... Adult education is not something, which can deal with just 'agriculture' or health or literacy or mechanical skills etc. All the separate branches of education are related to the total life a man is living... This means that adult education will permeate changes in men, and in society. And it means that adult education (extension) should promote changes at the same time as it assists men to control both the changes which they induce, and that which is forced upon them by the decisions of other men or cataclysms of the nature... In that case, the first function of adult education is to inspire both a desire for changes, and an understanding that change is possible. It is for critical thinking."

- Julius Nyerere

The universities in India responded positively to the enormous changes at work both in India as well as outside by initiating intervention programmes targeting the social, educational and economic needs of the community, thereby, creating a new role for them as it was consistently being questioned at places (Planning Commission, India, 1951, Ashby 1971) and others. The question of such influences as far as introduction of literacy programme has been examined by several authors (Dubey 2006). But the general influences slowly working towards a definite direction towards Universities taking up extension function has not found the same favour. In this paper such incidents, thought, processes has been collected and collated for the purpose. As has been quoted above the Julious Nyere finds the scope of such intervention at the level of higher education as extension universities cater to needs of society which are not only mundane but also cultural, social, ethical and developmental

Before entering into such exercise an attempt has been made to contextualise the work by defining and categorising the extension system at a rudimentary level in order to help develop the work. Based on the nature

and character of extension education, Dubey (2006) has categorised and defined extension as agricultural extension and other need specific extension services provided by the general universities which have few commonalities in intention and goal:

1. Extension is no longer associated with the sporadic lectures by the university's 'low rank' professors; other senior professors willingly associate with the extension endeavor. It includes multitude of activities ranging from adult basic literacy to provide necessary life skill and techniques to solve ones problem.
2. Extension carries with it a developmental urge, suggesting an initiative on the part of those agencies, which has an obligation to the society. It advocates a formative action by the university, with its resources at its command in form of students, functionaries and its gamut of knowledge, for those who need such services in order to lead a better life.
3. Extension is perceived as a mechanism for the university to reach out to the community and work for the common good of the people. Based on the insight gained out of the process, it introduces the dimension of "intension" of creating a force to bring changes within the formal system of knowledge, hopefully, extension of academic curricula. This can only be possible with the increased and sustained interaction between university and community.
4. The extension can be defined in terms of its objectives with which it goes to the community; it broadens the socio-cultural perspectives of the students and teachers through an immediate exposure to the conditions in real life, which may not otherwise be available to them in traditional form of education system; it provides a functional opportunity for both the participants to gain knowledge simultaneously while exchanging education and service. Based on the context it can be multidisciplinary and may adopt multiple approaches.
5. It's a two way process where community gets its service and university gets an insight into the real life situation of the people.

Agricultural Extension as the precursor

Extension as a movement has had its roots in the societal concern for transfer of technology, processes and practices - from those who have access to such knowledge and skills to those who could gainfully use the same in their daily lives - with a view to improving the quality of their livelihoods on the one hand and development of the society in general on the other.

It is, basically, interacting with the people in such a manner that new knowledge and skills become a part of their lives. A Chinese proverb exemplifies the phenomenon in the following words:

“... Tell me and I will forget, show me and I will remember, involve me and I will understand.”

Such initiatives were usually planned for people, who were not enrolled in a university or any other educational establishment on a full-time basis; it also referred to the addition to one's own work or courses of study at a University or any other educational establishment.

In its original meaning, **Extension as a practice** focused on dissemination of messages relating to **Agriculture and Health**; it has, over a period of time found roots in **Home Science or Community Resource Management Colleges and Institutes**, and, in the teaching and practice of **Social Work. Indian Universities and Colleges providing General Education Programmes** through processes that included Teaching and Research added Extension as their “Third, yet equally significant or important function” in the second half of the twentieth century.

Agricultural Extension has been a precursor to extension of knowledge and practices in all other disciplines. It grew from cajoling the farmers to adopt new knowledge and farming practices (with the specific aim of enhancing productivity levels) that became available to society through a process of initial documentation of best practices to problem-specific research studies. The new knowledge and practices so obtained were mediated through communication processes utilised to bring the new knowledge and practices within the grasp of the farmers and their families. It has finally graduated to recognising the farmers and their families as powerful storehouses of knowledge and practices in their own right.

Both technology transfer and transfer of skills, along with other services, are now chosen by the farmers and their families; the communication process has thus tended to become farmer-led as against the earlier top-down practice of information and skills transfer.

The **Extension System** in India is essentially driven by the State Governments through departments such as Agriculture, Horticulture, Animal Husbandry, Fisheries and Sericulture. The structures created for agricultural extension have been in response to the kind of emphasis accorded either to the government-led extension activities or to the farmer-led agricultural extension activity. However, both the structures created – for the government-driven extension system, and, the farmer-driven extension system – have tended to somewhat ignore the contribution of women in farm production. Farm production by women is estimated to about 55-65%, with higher percentage in certain regions and farming systems. The extension systems have not done much to understand their roles and the challenges that they face in the process. All that the systems have so far done is to allocate 30 percent of funds for extension activities exclusively for women.

The State-level Departments of Agriculture, Horticulture, Animal Husbandry, Fisheries and Sericulture have their own **Training & Visit (T & V) Systems** that specialise in specific crops. These **T & V Systems** undertake the following activities:

- Transfer of improved varieties (technology dissemination for production agriculture),
- Transfer of proven management practices, and
- Input distribution in terms of quotas and deadlines, sometimes free or subsidised input, services and/or other incentives.

A **World Bank paper (2005)** points out that the strategy suffers from many limitations:

“— The top-down approach and limited participation of farmers in shaping the extension services delivered have limited their accountability in view of the Government of India’s pre-occupation with food self-sufficiency since independence, the State-level Department of agriculture (DOA) extension systems generally concentrated on cereals, particularly rice and wheat, with an emphasis on the transfer of improved varieties and management practices. The weak coordination between the state DOAs

and the other line departments and the limited staff capacity beyond the Department of Agriculture also often translated to limited extension activities beyond cereals. The weak coordination with research at the central level further increased the difficulty of ensuring effective research-extension-farmer linkages at the state level. The main focus of extension continues to be technology dissemination for production agriculture, although marketing; post-harvest handling, and enhancing livelihoods are emerging as key concerns of the rural communities. In many states, tight fiscal constraints contributed to the breakdown of the state extension (Hanumantha Rao 2003)”

A New Policy Framework for Agricultural Extension, formulated by the Government of India in 2002, advocated a shift from the earlier primary focus on “increasing the productivity of staple food crops” to “a new farming system-approach that concentrates on increasing the farm household income through agricultural diversification”.

The New Approach is said to have made Extension “more market- or opportunity-driven”; its primary aim is to make farmers “more competitive in both domestic and international markets”. It has encouraged greater “public-private partnership” that ushers in a “multi-agency extension system” with Private Sector institutions taking over responsibility for some research in some areas and corresponding services.

The farmers and other residents in the villages are encouraged to participate directly in the tasks of assessing local needs, setting extension priorities, evaluating system performance, and in improving the accountability and transparency of public extension. This approach is known as the farmer-driven approach working through the **Agricultural Technology Management Agency (ATMA)**, a registered Society of all stakeholders involved in agricultural activities and a governing board at the district level, farmer advisory committees and block technology teams at the block level, and producer/self-help groups at the village level. These are quasi-government registered legal entities working with more flexibility than the line Departments in the State governments.

Their funding sources are diverse, including those accessible from the government. They have the freedom to “enter into contracts, maintain revolving accounts, charge for services, and, recover costs from farmers or other service recipients”.

This mechanism helps to institutionalise “**bottom-up planning**” with a view to laying down their own priorities in terms of needs of the farmers; the mechanism of formulating, through participative processes, Strategic Research and Extension Plan (SREP). Such Plans are approved by the District Governing Boards. Grassroots democracy is built into the process with the Block Technology Teams preparing Block Action Plans within the framework of the SREP and approved by Farmer Advisory Committees. The District Plan thus comprises the aggregation of the Block Plans. They have the freedom to enter into contracts with NGOs to provide extension services in selected blocks/areas.

The ATMA appeared to have brought the focus back on the farmers, their traditional knowledge systems, acquisition of new knowledge being absorbed and assimilated by the farmers, and, adopted by the farmers if it appealed to them. The NGOs have the freedom to use **Farmer-to-Farmer Extension Services** through individuals or through farmer organisations; in some cases, partnership is sought with input providers for demonstrations and farmer training.

The **National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD)** launched the **Agriclinic Scheme** in 2002 to make “available new, commercial sources of inputs, services and technical advisory services to farmers”. The **Agriclinics** attract a 25 percent investment grant from the Central Government with the balance of 75 percent financed through Bank loans. The **Agriclinics** are expected to provide testing facilities, diagnostic, control services and other consultancies on a fee-for-service basis.

The Scheme of **Agriclinics** has made it possible to provide extension services to farmers through technically skilled graduates at the village level. They supply **inputs** (including seed, fertilizers, agrochemicals, feed and medications), **technical services** (including artificial insemination, vaccinations, and soil testing), and **advisory services**. The costs of such services are “bundled with the sale of farm inputs and/or other technical services, and made available to farmers on a commercial basis.”

Agriclinics have the potential of growing, over a period of time, into a mechanism that can provide specialised services in crop production/protection, animal husbandry/veterinary services, and/or agricultural marketing and farm management services. This structure provides the Graduates in Agricultural Sciences a chance to share their knowledge and

skills with the farmers in the village and become an important human resource for the village economy. They could even develop the capability of providing/linking to services such as

- Access through internet connection to specialised technical or marketing information,
- Crop insurance,
- Information on sanitary and/or phytosanitary regulations that farmers may need to know in successfully marketing their products in niche or international markets,
- Promote high-value commodities (e.g. banana, pineapple and papaya, via tissue culture procedures, seed or feed processing units, and
- Plants to produce bio-fertilizers (e.g. vermiculture or composting) or bio-pesticides.

Extension is essentially a **knowledge-intensive activity**; it generates knowledge, packages it in the language of the farmers, and, disseminates it.

It could also be described as an activity in "**knowledge management**". The model of extension adopted in India is one that comprises the following stages:

- Knowledge generation through research in agricultural systems,
- Simplification and documentation of insights generated from research,
- Planned communication and interface among a chain of stakeholders – researchers, extension workers, farmers cropping for specific crops in their respective farming systems-based agro-ecosystems, and
- Identification of new research issues that surface during the planned communication and interface with the various stakeholders.

The planned communication involves problem-specific engagement with the farmer in his/her field; it has so far been

- Commodity-centric (with emphasis on rice and wheat, for example),
- Community-development-centric (with attention to a whole range of social, cultural and economic problems),
- Technical innovation-centric (carrying the new knowledge from Lab to Land), and
- Farmer-centric, though so far in a somewhat weak form.

The communication model would continue to hold its ground insofar it places central emphasis on the farmers:

"The most important challenge for the future extension managers would be the Management of Knowledge. The success of a farmer in the years to come is going to be primarily dependent upon his level of knowledge. The real prices of agricultural products are falling, because knowledge makes it possible to produce products with less land, labour and other resources. In many countries, farmers, who are farming at a knowledge level a good farmer had 10 years ago, have to go out of business because they can no longer compete with more competent farmers."

The diverse models utilised in agricultural extension over a period of time have involved communication between various stakeholders; the number of stakeholders and the status that they occupied would depend on the process of that communication and the criticality of communication.

The process of communication, right from the period of the **experimental stations** to the phase of **Training & Visit System**, involved "senders" of messages and "receivers" of messages. This communication model – **the transmission model of communication** - represented an authority-led communication process with the senders standing for government planners, researchers, and the field level extension workers; the receivers were the farmers on the ground. The kingpin of this communication was the Extension Worker since she/he carried the messages (designed by the researchers) to the receivers (farmers).

Some scholars have preferred to call the "transmission model of communication" as "paternalistic", or, "top-down". The "participatory model of communication" is beginning to gradually replace the "transmission model of communication"; the farmers in this later model have the freedom to add their "knowledge", even "opinions" with the provision that based on "information-sharing" initiated by them they will have the right to participate in "decision-making".

This has resulted in not only of increasing agricultural productivity through transfer of technology and improved agricultural practices but also making provisions of **human resources development** of those involved in **agriculture** and encourage them to participate in upgradation and modernisation of their knowledge and skills as well. In India, the initial

demands made on the Agricultural Research and Extension Systems has also grown from the concern of food grains shortage to the **New Approach** of making agriculture and extension "more market- or opportunity-driven". It has also encouraged greater "public-private partnership" that ushers in a "multi-agency extension system" with Private Sector institutions taking over responsibility for some research in some areas and corresponding services as has been elaborated in the preceding pages. .

University-based Extension

The **Policy Frame. on Development of Higher Education (1977)** provided the necessary impetus for the UGC to formulate Guidelines for operationalisation of extension in 1983 and 1985. The resolve of the UGC is reflected in the paragraph stated below:

"University system has a responsibility to the society as a whole. All universities and colleges should develop close relationships of mutual services and support with their local communities, and all students and teachers must be involved in such programmes as an integral part of their education. The National Service Scheme (NSS) programme should be expanded and improved. Ultimately to cover all student programmes should be to implement a spirit of co-operation and social commitment inter-related to moral development. It should be the obligation of the teaching community to give extension lectures to interpret recent trends in their fields to community, to create scientific awareness, to participate in adult education and workers' education programme etc. Universities can also help in the preparation of development project for the community around them, including the rural community. Such involvement will also help in bringing relevance into the courses at the under graduate and the postgraduate level and into the research programme".

For the institutions of Professional Education, where teaching-learning-examination system is not like general education, it was clearly stated in the UGC guidelines of 1983 that these should be asked to contribute in special ways.

The UGC policy led to the massive expansion of university extension at a very rapid pace during 1980s when these agencies grew in terms of number, programme content and personnel and a huge involvement of the universities and colleges in the National Adult Education Programme. This

generated renewed interest in the nature of relationship between not only the university/college and its surrounding community, but, also between the agencies directly responsible for this programme as well as others in the university.

In pursuance of this decision, the UGC gradually introduced several extension programmes including the

1. National Adult Education Programme (1978),
2. Removal of Adult Illiteracy under point No. 16 of the new 20 Point Programme of the Government of India (1982),
3. Continuing Education Programme (1982),
4. Population Education Programme (1984),
5. Population Education Resource Centers (1985) and
6. Area Development Approach to Extension (1988).

The universities developed other programmes like National Integration, Science for the People, Rural Development, Remedial Teaching/Coaching for the Weaker Sections, Legal Literacy, Environmental Education, and Development Advocacy with support from other agencies.

Eradication of illiteracy should probably be viewed as the first step towards this intervention strategy not only as a welfare activity for the deprived social groups but also as an important means for making higher education relevant to the needs of the society as a whole and in increasing its effectiveness in solving existing societal problems.

The **University Grants Commission** as the Apex body of Higher Education, charged with the responsibility of laying down and maintenance of standards, formally acknowledged the significance of Extension in its Policy paper titled **Development of Higher Education (1977)** by describing extension as an instrumental mechanism responding to the societal concern for people's right to enhancement of their knowledge and skills through the technocratic resources available in the Indian Universities.

Extension "is Universities' out-reach to the community". It is an educational process (**Esminger 1967**) "to change the attitude, knowledge and skills of the people". It is basically working with men & women themselves as an enabling exercise. It is also 'learning by doing' and practicing the

concept of 'seeing is believing'. Extension is for development, welfare and happiness, and harmony with the culture. Extension is: to allow access and have access to and to open the university to the community and community to the university, to interact with the people in order to learn and generate new knowledge and to effect changes in curriculum and instruction.

Bhatia (1980) viewed 'extension' as a learning modality that refers to "a range of terms or concepts as measured by the objects, which it denotes or contains as opposed to its internal content often contrasted with intension. "...It means reaching fruits of knowledge, research and new skills to millions of people. It also means the choice of 'appropriate technology for a people oriented development'" .

Extension is for creation of 'consciousness and knowledge' for the 'liberation of people', which cannot be by, means other than their own (**Bonda 1991**). But consciousness in itself is not sufficient to warrant liberation as the communication process and theory building has been arrogated by a small group of four percent, which is termed (**Das Gupta 1979**) as 'Grand-coalition'; such groups often conveniently blame the victims and find fault with them and work for social action designed to change not the society but rather the victims.

Extension performs the role of education, rather than the role of transfer. But **extension, in practice, conducts both education and service and links it with the selected practices and technologies**. This is done in a participatory manner with the understanding of it not as a fringe benefit that authorities grant as a concession, but every human being's birth right that no authority may deny or prevent.

However, **Friere (1973)** felt that 'extension' tended to work contrary to 'communication'; it tended to enslave and domesticate the learners in the package that it had created for itself as 'the only solution' to the development constraints that people faced in their day-to-day lives. It involved transplanting of pre-packaged knowledge; in that sense, it appeared to be in direct contradiction to a truly humanist outlook. Such pre-packaged knowledge is often "static"; meaningful education is neither static nor absolute. He argued that when communication imposed some pre-packaged knowledge, it often became the substance of extension. Extension is also anti-dialogical. To him education is not permanent; at best it is a permanent process working

towards a constant process of liberation He assumed that both the educator and the learner would prefer to enter into a dialogue as a learner.

Some Extension Programme Initiatives

The **National Adult Education Programme (NAEP)** comprised of three constituent elements – Literacy, Functionality, and Social Awareness. This Extension Education initiative by the Universities usually involved a survey of the tribal clusters, rural periphery areas, or urban slums largely with a view to identifying the adult illiterates; the process included the creation of a database on the adult learners and their families, their socio-economic background, and, the extent of access to education enjoyed by their families.

The survey process of identifying adult illiterates gave the students an opportunity to acquaint themselves with the living conditions and the nature of learning environment that existed in the community where they were expected to work.

The University-based Department of Adult, Continuing Education & Extension organised training programmes that acquainted the student-instructors with the learning environment in the community, the reasons why many adults had remained illiterate, the learning materials that they could use, and the instructional methodologies they could follow in the process of facilitating teaching-learning.

This process of facilitation of acquisition of literacy skills entailed a great deal of reliance on Oracy, or the oral skills that the adult learners already possessed. The emphasis laid in such situations related to the use of communication skills whereby the student-instructors could seek the wisdom that the adult learners possessed in plenty.

In many such situations, the student-instructors recognised that their own teachers in the University or in the Colleges did not encourage them to share their own perceptions of life in the classroom interaction. The activities under the Extension Education process were thus giving rise to learning situations wherein the student-instructors were beginning to recognise the limitations of use of the Lecture Method in the classroom. They were, in a way, beginning to internalise the shortcomings of the instructional strategies of their own teachers.

The problem-solving techniques of encouraging oral interaction were encouraging the student-instructors to build up their store of folk culture of the tribe, village or the urban slum. The learning content thus drawn from the local contexts appeared to be generating tremendous interest among the learners. This could be directly seen in terms of gains in social awareness on the one hand and the resolve to effect social change on the other.

University youth participation in the NAEP created opportunities among the adult learners of recognising the commonality of their problems or constraints or handicaps in achieving some vertical mobility in their lives. The adult learners appeared to be shifting from the state of being alone to the status of being a group with shared characteristics. This change in status – from an individual to a collective identity – combined with the capability of putting their aspirations in writing – appeared to be bringing them closer to negotiating with the governance systems their right to be heard, their right to be given the resources planned for them, and, their place within the democratic governance systems.

There appeared to be widespread recognition of the fact that the National Adult Education Programme may not have generated earth-shaking results in acquisition of literacy skills, it did however, enhance levels of social awareness to a point that the extent of their participation, as against the earlier exclusion, in the process of governance appeared to have gone up. Adult learners in the Dindigul District in Tamil Nadu, for example, registered a much larger participation in the electoral process than what was the practice earlier. The polling percentage recorded a 20-percentage points rise at the time of the General Elections.

Similarly, the adult female learners in Andhra Pradesh collectively recognised that the local of Toddy shops outside the village had the effect of depriving them of the share of income of their male family members for the maintenance of the household needs. They realised that the toddy shops were swallowing a large part of their husbands' weekly wages by encouraging them to be addicted to alcoholism. The story in the Literacy Primers had drawn their attention to this possibility; the drowning of some of their drunken family members in the Village Lake or water body had converted this possibility into a reality. This awareness gave rise to the Anti-Arrack movement in Andhra Pradesh that virtually rocked the stability of the elected government in the State.

The NAEP had given rise to levels of awareness among both the adult learners and the student-instructors to a point that had become embarrassing to the unjust governance processes based on inequity, bias against the poor and the backward, and siphoning of public resources by the vested interests.

The embarrassment of the governance processes grew to a point that the government of the day had to withdraw from the modality of an Adult Education Centre and switch to an Each One, Teach One modality of literacy instruction. Letting the poor to acquire a group identity appeared to be triggering very frightening prospects for the governance systems that tend to thrive on, among others, the lack of awareness among the people.

This programme, funded by UGC, was not merely intended to be a literacy programme but a programme of linking universities and colleges more closely with the community; the community was a kind of an Experimental Station where both the university and the community found opportunities to learn to understand better the problems of inequity and injustice being experienced by the people.

Prof. Satish Chandra, and Dr. (Mrs.) Madhuri R. Shah, two former Chairpersons of the UGC, provided very meaningful leadership to laying solid foundations of extension activities in the general university system. The Policy Frame provided not only the ideas and concepts but also the much-needed mechanisms of bringing the university and community closer. Such endeavor was needed not only in the area of literacy and other social development issues but also in other sectors like industry (community) as well as economy.

The NAEP triggered situations among the illiterate groups where women learners appeared to be more eager to seek literacy, functionality and awareness skills than men; it was probably the large gap in female literacy that enhanced the level of literacy among women learners. Women appeared to respond to the need of adopting the scheme of house-based or community-based toilets in a more enthusiastic manner; they would even be willing to provide the required labour for constructing a toilet as a matching contribution to the resources provided by the local governance processes in the form of a toilet seats, bricks and some cement. The male members in such situations wanted the local governance processes to build the toilets for their families.

The **Universalisation of Immunisation** initiatives again found more willing leaders among the women than the men; women saw the far-reaching effects of not having their infant children immunised so far. The same responses were elicited by the scheme that facilitated access to clean drinking water.

The NAEP thus created multiple opportunities for the youth to share with the adult learners the manner in which such life-coping skills could help build an environment of security and assured growth in the lives of their family members. Student-instructors with good communication skills, knowledge of the local idiom, and, constraints that the residents encountered in their day-to-day lives seemed to enjoy the challenge of interaction with the adult learners and the opportunity to transfer effective communication skills that included skills in negotiation between two unequal partners.

The repeated visits of the University youth to urban slums, rural periphery areas and the tribal clusters acquainted them with the spate of disruptions that dislocated the lives of the poor through such phenomena as anti-encroachment drives by the local Municipal Authorities, fire in the neighbourhood, floods, and storms. Such situations called for formulation and implementation of **Life Skills Programmes**.

The youth realised that the poor did not have any stable shelter system, access to clean drinking water, access to reliable sanitation systems, and access to some modicum of security in the neighbourhood for the female members of their families. The governance processes evoked for them bitter memories of the high-handedness of the Police Force, the Municipal Administration, and, the empathyless bureaucracy that dealt with the poor through the middlemen in the form of local goons and mafia dons. Access to development information had not yet become a right of the citizen; the bureaucracy enjoyed oppressive power by virtue of exclusive control over development resources in the name of the poor.

The local Municipal or Panchayat level governance processes had provision for resources meant for rehabilitation and resettlement of the poor in the context of such dislocations. However, such resources did not seem to flow to those who genuinely needed them.

The student-instructors/volunteers or the community programme managers from the Department of Adult, Continuing Education & Extension

including the teachers from other Department of the university acquainted the affected people in the community with the methods of generating information concerning the local governance programmes for relief and rehabilitation, the kind of documentation support (e.g. ration card, names in the local area voters' list, etc.) required for obtaining such relief and rehabilitation, and the extent of relief required. Women usually appeared to emerge as natural leaders among the dislocated groups.

The student-instructors that went to the community realised that mere learning of literacy skills did not appear to motivate the adult learners. The adult learners wanted the literacy skills in a manner that enabled them to make literacy a way of their lives; they wanted literacy skills linked with development concerns. The Primers and Supplementary Readers that the State Resource Centres in Adult Education prepared appeared to be "sermonizing" in nature in regard to the values of good citizenship. There was clearly a high demand for **Knowledge- and Skills-based Courses**.

The universities stepped in and responded to the aspirations of the adult learners in tribal clusters, rural areas and urban slums by introducing Continuing Education Programmes in the form of Short-Term Courses for the Adult Learners alongside the literacy skills acquisition initiatives. The following three types of Continuing Education programmes are an illustrative list:

(a) Community-based Programme

Awareness and Population Education activities are intended to generate awareness and motivate people on issues of developmental concerns like education, health, political processes, and, economic endeavors. The courses offered in this category are for that group of people for whom these organisations were mandated initially and continue to work for those even today. The organisations have been active in Population education programme by organising lectures, health awareness programmes, advocacy on delayed marriage, prohibition of child marriage, immunisation, HIV/AIDS awareness, general health check-up, etc in both colleges and communities through Population Education Clubs (PECs).

The programmes under these two categories include the following:

- Health, Hygiene,

- Micro-credit and Self Help Groups,
- Celebration of important Days and Events,
- Extension Lectures,
- AIDS Prevention,
- Nutrition,
- Inculcation of Scientific Temper,
- Child Labour,
- Pollution Control,
- Environmental Conservation,
- Poverty Alleviation,
- Adolescence Education,
- Leadership Development,
- Women Empowerment,
- Human Rights,
- Negotiation Skills for Development Rights,
- Celebration of International Literacy Day, No Tobacco Day, Health Week, World Population Day, Consumer Day, etc.
- Immunisation,
- Yoga & Living,
- Legal literacy for women,
- Environmental Conservation & Enrichment,
- National Integration,
- Legal Literacy,
- National Integration,
- Drug Addiction,
- Meditation & Learning', and
- Religion and Tolerance.

(b) Adult Continuing Education for university groups:

From 1997 onwards the organisations have engaged themselves in organisation of multiple types of courses for that group of people, which can be categorised, as student group. The activities are-

- Certificate Course in Fashion designing,
- Computer Applications,
- Computer hardware,
- Training in Panchayati raj,
- English Communication,
- Entrepreneurship Development for youth,

- Computerised office management,
- Office Procedures and Computer Usage,
- Research Methodology in Adult Extension Education, Population Education,
- Reproductive Health,
- Fundamentals of Computer and Basic Programming,
- Women and Law,
- Micro-enterprise Development,
- Refresher Courses for Science Teachers,
- Refresher Courses for Teachers Working for Handicapped Children,
- Legal literacy for Field Workers,
- Training in Accounts Management,
- Office Management for University Employees,
- Orientation in Population Education, and
- Refresher Courses for Professionals and Para-professionals in Population Education.

(c) Adult Education for those not eligible for university based courses:

The organisations have focused on skill-training and knowledge-based courses with a view to improve the productivity of that category of beneficiaries, which are not eligible for regular university-based courses. These are organised either at the institution or in the community; such courses include the following:

- Sewing & Cutting,
- Detergent-making,
- Candle making,
- Jams & Pickles making,
- Photography,
- Screen Printing,
- Apparel Designing,
- Beautician,
- Welding,
- Fabrication,
- Interior decoration,
- Jute Craft,
- Bamboo craft,
- Vegetable and fruit preservation,
- Book binding,

- Remedial coaching for 5th, 8th and 10th classes,,
- Knitting,
- Chalk making,
- Agarbatti Preparation,
- Papad Preparation,
- Food Preservation,
- Tie and Dye,
- Mosquito Coil making,
- Hand Pump/Bore well repairing,
- Wireman course,
- Motor winding,
- First aid,
- Carpentry,
- Advanced Carpentry,
- Operation and maintenance of 16 mm projector,
- Doll making,
- Embroidery,
- Plumbing,
- T.V repairing,
- Repair of electrical appliances,
- Legal literacy,
- Home nursing,
- Fabric painting, and
- Inverter making, etc.

However, the University-based extension initiatives continue to suffer from the same top-down process of communication that initial attempts at agricultural extension suffered from. Rarely has there been an attempt on the part of the Universities to undertake a Needs Assessment initiative prior to planning their Educational Extension enterprise. The confidence of having knowledge or technocratic resources within its campuses has tended to blind the Extension Managers within the Universities to the priorities that people in the community cherish despite not having had the privilege of going to these institutions of higher education.

The culture of sharing pre-packaged ideas with the poor and the disadvantaged, with the youth hoping to gain greater educational capabilities through non-Degree programmes, and, initiatives that boast of supporting the nationally-cherished values (e.g. the small family norm, scientific temper, environmental protection and enrichment, etc.) continues unabated. This is

done without any attempt at finding the traditional sources of knowledge that tribal and rural community, and now the urban slum communities, have utilised to articulate their solidarity with the same nationally cherished values.

Discussion and Conclusions

Has an early “academicisation” of Educational Extension done damage to the knowledge-based engagement of the University with the Community? Has it tended to dilute the commitment and vitality of the Extension movement based on transfer of knowledge and provision of other services to the community? One would like to think that the jury is still out on the subject; universities are often led by leaders and merely survive as systems. There is a good chance that leaders with a vision would once again become allies with those academicians who continue to work towards “socialising” the university as an ally of the community.

The socio-economic development planning in India has tended to play to the gallery of “resource-plus” citizens; it goes through the routing of paying lip service to the development needs, if not rights of the “resource-less” citizens in the last year of the term of governance of the ruling elites. One would have thought that the Universities would undertake rigorous social audit of the widespread perpetuation of inequality and injustice that the poor face in their day-to-day lives.

A part of the blame for such distortions must be assigned to the leadership in higher education, i.e. the University Grants Commission. The various Guidelines formulated by this Apex Body in Higher Education from 1979 onwards did pay attention to the task of university-based technocratic resources developing an outreach to the communities; however, they did not both visualise and operationalise the process of such outreach generating advantageous insights for the traditional work of the university at the levels of teaching and research.

One of the critical questions that need to be explored lies in the nature of impact that the Extension Education Programme has so far been able to make in the institutions of higher education in terms of facilitating social change in three geographies – tribal areas, rural areas and urban areas including urban slums. The next question that remains to be analysed is as

to whether the three decades of Extension Education initiatives and practices beginning from the eradication of illiteracy to the short term human resources development programmes, for people in the community as well as others, organised by the extension services providers have generated sufficient documentation to provide for independent assessment for development of insight into the real life situation and programme intervention or a set of best practice(s) that can be transferred to the large number of Extension Education Departments in the Universities in India as an outcome of knowledge driven extension programmes.

The first positive impact that the institutionalisation of Extension Education achieved could easily be seen in terms of a formal **university-community linkage** through a process of focus of work in a given community or set of communities, or through adoption of communities, i.e. tribal clusters, villages, and semi-urban dwellings or slums for their social mobilisation or transfer of knowledge activities.

Of the three different types of activities organised by the organisations (community-based, university-based for university groups, and, university-based for non- university groups), community based programmes appeared to have received greater attention. The following criteria were put to use while identifying or adopting the communities:

- Geographic proximity to the university campuses,
- Presence of affiliated colleges and their willingness to participate in the programmes formulated by the universities, and
- Interest among the local population to provide space and other resources for the location of the programmes.

The Adult Learners in the identified or adopted communities were keen to establish their association with the institutions insofar demand for certification of the learning initiatives completed was preferred from the University or College working in the area. The Adult Learners were keen to acquire such certification since it appeared to be carrying significant social value both in their peer groups and in dealing with the local governance systems.

The knowledge- or skills transferred through this linkage has been accorded a significant value both by the Adult Learners and by the community

members. The most significant advantage of the University-Community Linkage could be seen in such terms as the following:

- Enhanced participation in the political process by members of the community as reflected in higher voting percentage in the Elections to the Local Bodies, State Assemblies, or the national Parliament;
- Articulation, representation and assertion in the matter of access to the entitled rights and privileges, resources from the planned development programmes, and, a growing desire to undertake social audit of the implementation process of the planned development programmes through mechanisms like Jan Sunwai, Lok Adalats, etc.
- Emergence of new leadership from among the women Adult Learners for enhanced access to learning opportunities at the level of the community;
- Enhanced mobility among the Adult Learners to institutions of learning, institutions of governance, and, institutions that promoted advocacy initiatives in support of the right of the poor to resources that could enhance their life with dignity; and
- Better understanding of the market forces and the manner in which they could equip themselves to more profitable levels of negotiation with the market forces.

The second major national initiative that the institutions of higher education moved towards operationalising could be seen in the introduction of short-term knowledge- or skills-based Continuing Education programmes. These were attempts in moving towards a state of knowledge management that supported generation, codification, documentation, and dissemination of knowledge relating to education of and communication with the rural and other disadvantaged sections of the community in the country.

It has been suggested that each University-based Extension Education initiative would need "to find its moorings in this regard in terms of the evolving priorities in higher education as part of national development." These institutions could, of course, see some guidance in this regard in the creation of the National Knowledge Mission by the government as a response to the national need for having a reservoir of skilled and trained manpower to sustain a high level of economic growth. It was equally important to pay some heed to the advice given by the Union Finance Minister in the Union Budget 2007-

08; he sounded the nation in regard to a "Faster and More Inclusive Growth" as a critical goal for the Eleventh Five Year Plan.

The Eleventh Five Year Plan has laid down the following objectives:

- Growth of 4 percent in the agricultural sector,
- Faster employment creation,
- Reducing disparities across regions, and
- Ensuring access to basic physical infrastructure as well as health and education services to all.

The ideas generated towards introspection are many and some of the had a direct connection to the current state of affairs in extension in Higher Education as has been noted by **Bhatia (2007)**:

"There is a strong case for every University in the country and the Colleges as well, to find a great deal of relevance in these objectives for their own agenda. Like the nation, each University has to evolve strategies that would enable it and its Colleges to create an enabling environment for the youth on their campuses and those in the surrounding communities towards making speedy progress towards attainment of these objectives."

It appears from the above details that acceptance of Extension as the third function of institutions of higher education has helped these institutions to begin to understand the educational needs of the communities within their surroundings. The evolved understanding has been utilised more in terms of formulating responses to the nation-wide problems like illiteracy, containing population explosion, women's empowerment, and empowering the poor to search for sustainable livelihoods. However, it has not pushed these institutions to develop an area development approach to the extent of formulating area-specific socio-economic profiles and identification of needs that could be addressed to achieve measurable changes in the socio-economic conditions of the people in the area.

Has University-based Extension Education become a mere poor copy of the Agricultural Extension processes? Thirty years of the University-based Extension is too short a period to make any decisive statement in this regard. One can at best claim that it goes to the credit of the Indian Universities that these woke up to the need of accepting Extension as the third function of higher education, equal in importance to the other two functions – teaching

and research. Having done that, they did go through the motion of setting up some kind of a "community station", quite akin to what the Agricultural Extension processes did in the early phases in the form of "Experimental Stations", or the "Demonstration Farms".

However, unlike Agricultural Extension which went through a process of introspection of the distortions that had crept into the process – e.g., setback to sustainable agriculture through an excessive reliance on commercial crops, dominant bias in favour of the male agriculturist, neglect of the female agriculturist, neglect of the small farmer who could not afford the new technologies, discounting of the farm family's capacity to sustain itself, and, neglect of other rural livelihoods – University-based Extension Education has not had the time so far to counter the distortions that have plagued it and kept it at substantially higher levels of instability within the institutions of higher education.

Institutions of higher education have tended to play for safety in a preferential opting for Education Extension as an academic discipline as against as a communication practice that provided services to the community. The University-based Extension Managers probably could not stand with erect shoulders next to the dominating presence of teaching personnel within their own system; they opted for the easy option of the popular Western saying: if you can't beat them (in the sense of attaining excellence on their own turf!), join them. They did not realise that traditional knowledge areas that went in for teaching had behind them a substantial phase of knowledge-generation and knowledge-codification.

There appears, however, greater enthusiasm among these institutions to concretize Extension as an academic discipline with Post-graduate Diploma level courses or even MA level course in Extension. The greater enthusiasm for teaching programmes is understandable insofar it places the Departments of Adult, Continuing Education & Extension at par with the other teaching Departments at the post-graduate level.

The promise that the incorporation of Extension in the general education providing universities held in terms of its being an ally of the poor and the disadvantaged, or in terms of its support for the people's right to lifelong education is yet to be fulfilled. These are some of the areas in which an added emphasis in research, reflection and action needs to be initiated in

order to let one of the best experiments at the level of Higher Education not allowed to slide into oblivion.

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Assessment of Impact of Adult Trainers' Training Programme on Watershed Management

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Abstract

The study was an attempt to evaluate the impact of 14 days trainers' training programme on "Scaling up of Water Productivity in Agriculture for Livelihood through Teaching cum Demonstration" sponsored by Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India, organised by Water Management Research Centre (WMRC), Faculty of Agriculture, Chatha of Sher-e-Kashmir University of Agricultural Sciences and Technology of Jammu (SKUAST-J) w.e.f. September 1st –September 14th, 2009. It was conducted among 27 in-service candidates (6 Agriculture Extension Officers, 7 Subject Matter Specialists and 12 Junior Agriculture Assistants of State Department of Agricultural Production and 2 Agricultural Scientists of SKUAST-J) with an objective to create a trained manpower in agriculture sector. A well structured interview schedule was devised to collect the information about trainees' background, extent of fulfillment of expectations, training effectiveness, level of confidence, relevance of course contents, utility of topics covered and opinion of trainees about training programme. Collected information was analysed with suitable statistical techniques. The study revealed that majority of the trainees were male, Junior Agriculture Assistants, up to 37 years of age, had service experience of up to 11 years and were Masters in Agriculture. Nearly half (48.16 percent) of the participants expressed that their expectations were fairly met by attending the training programme. 62.97 percent of the trainees expressed that they have developed high level of confidence after training. 55.55 per cent of the participants felt that the training programme was highly effective. Besides, majority of the topics covered in the training programme were perceived as highly relevant and most useful by the trainees. Moreover, majority of the trainees had favourable opinion towards the training programme.

Introduction

Water availability per capita in India was over 5000 cu.m. per annum in 1950 and now it stands at about 2000 cu.m. and estimated to be just 1500 cu. m. by year 2035. Water availability less than 1700 cu. m. is considered as stress level on account of increasing population. The demand for food items is rising. We have no alternative but to enhance our agricultural productivity by improving and properly utilising resources at hands. In this context, water management will play a key role

in conserving and utilising every drop of water to enhance crop productivity with less water. It is essential to adopt improved irrigation methods, optimum irrigation scheduling, appropriate soil and crop management practices to overcome production constraints for higher yields. Sustainability in agriculture production is now the need of the hour. This can be achieved through proper management of our land and judicious use of irrigation water resources at watershed level.

Training of extension functionaries is one of the important activities in transfer of farm technologies. It primarily addresses the capacity building issues of the extension system. Training is the process of acquiring specific skills to perform a job better (Jucious, 1963). It helps people to become qualified and proficient in doing some jobs (Dahama, 1979). Van Dorsal (1962) defined training as the process of teaching, informing or educating people so that they may become as well qualified as possible to do their job efficiently and perform in positions of greater difficulty and responsibility. In-service training, on the other hand, is offered by the organisation from time to time for the development of skills and knowledge of the incumbents (Halim and Mozahar, 1997).

Evaluation (assessment) is an in-built mechanism in extension and training system. It serves as a tool for efficient operation of training programmes by providing feedback. It assists for taking corrective measures by the course/training coordinator for effectiveness of training programmes (Kumar *et al.*, 2005). The main purpose of assessment is to improve the quality of a training programme/project by identifying its strengths and weaknesses. Evaluation helps us to find out the impact of training programme on trainees. Evaluation provides information for decisions concerning future training programmes. This information is highly useful to fine tune the training programme and is used to communicate important facts to concerned individuals/groups or agencies. Besides, evaluation results are useful for formal reporting (Singh *et al.*, 2007).

Methodology

Water Management Research Centre, Faculty of Agriculture, Chatha, Sher-e-Kashmir University of Agriculture Sciences and Technology of Jammu (SKUAST-J) organised fourteen days "Adult Trainers' Training Programme on Scaling up of Water Productivity in Agriculture for Livelihood through Teaching cum Demonstration" w.e.f. September 1st to September 14th, 2009 with financial assistance from Ministry of Agriculture, Government of India through Indian Council of Agricultural Research, New Delhi. The main objective of training was to create trained manpower in agriculture sector. 27 trainees who participated in the training programme were selected as respondents. The trainees who participated in the training programme were Agriculture Extension Officers (AEOs), Subject Matter Specialists (SMSs) and Junior Agriculture Assistants (JAAs) of State Department of Agricultural Production, Jammu and Agriculture Scientists of SKUAST-Jammu. Keeping in view the objective of study, a

well structured interview schedule was prepared. The topics were chosen very appropriately in the light of Union Government's commitment to improve agricultural productivity per drop of water. For data collection, trainees were interviewed personally. Thereafter, data were analysed, tabulated and interpreted in the light of objective of the study.

Results and Discussion

Participants' background

The participants were Agriculture Scientists of SKUAST-Jammu and Agriculture Extension Officers, Subject Matter Specialists and Junior Agriculture Assistants of State Department of Agricultural Production. The group was heterogeneous in respect of their age, gender, education, designation and service experience.

The data presented in Table 1 vividly corroborate that majority (92.60 per cent) of the participants were male. 51.86 per cent of the participants were up to 37 years of age whereas, 48.14 per cent were above 37 years of age. 51.85 per cent of the participants were M.Sc. (Ag.) while, 40.74 per cent of them were B.Sc. (Ag.) and only 7.41 per cent of them were Ph.D. Majority (44.45 per cent) of the trainees were Junior Agriculture Assistants whereas, 25.93 per cent were Subject Matter Specialists, 22.22 per cent were Agriculture Extension Officers and 7.40 per cent were Agriculture Scientists. 51.86 per cent of the trainees had service experience of up to 11 years whereas, 48.14 per cent had service experience of more than 11 years.

Table- 1
Participants' background

N=27

| S.No. | Variable | Categorisation | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------|-------------|-------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| 1. | Age | Up to 37 | 14 | 51.86 |
| | | Above 37 | 13 | 48.14 |
| 2. | Gender | Male | 25 | 92.60 |
| | | Female | 2 | 7.40 |
| 3. | Education | B.Sc. (Ag.) | 11 | 40.74 |
| | | M.Sc. (Ag.) | 14 | 51.85 |
| | | Ph.D. | 2 | 7.41 |
| 4. | Designation | Junior Agriculture Assistant | 12 | 44.45 |
| | | Agriculture Extension Officer | 6 | 22.22 |
| | | Subject Matter Specialist | 7 | 25.93 |
| | | Agriculture Scientist | 2 | 7.40 |
| 5. | Experience | Up to 11 | 14 | 51.86 |
| | | Above 11 | 13 | 48.14 |

N = No. of participants

Fulfillment of expectations

Expectations, here, refers to the desire of the trainees to acquire new knowledge and skills about watershed management. Trainees were asked to elicit their responses on five point continuum viz. extremely met, fairly met, satisfactorily met, met to some extent and not met with score 5,4,3,2 and 1 respectively.

The data presented in Table 2 reveal that nearly half (48.16 per cent) of the respondents felt that their expectations were fairly met by attending the training programme. Exactly equal number of the respondents 7(25.92 per cent) felt that their expectations were extremely and satisfactorily met. It is interesting to note that none of the trainees felt that their expectations were met to some extent and not met by attending training. Similar findings were reported by Koshti and Vijayaragavan (2007).

Table- 2
Distribution of respondents according to their extent of fulfillment of expectations

N=27

| S.No. | Extent of fulfillment of expectations | Respondents | |
|-------|---------------------------------------|-------------|---------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. | Extremely met | 7 | 25.92 |
| 2. | Fairly met | 13 | 48.16 |
| 3. | Satisfactorily met | 7 | 25.92 |
| 4. | Met to some extent | - | - |
| 5. | Not met | - | - |
| | Total | 27 | 100.00 |

N = No. of participants

Level of confidence

Confidence provides impetus for achieving objectives. Also, confidence is the resultant of gain in knowledge i.e. confidence comes with knowledge. The trainees were asked to state whether they developed confidence after training or not. For knowing the confidence level of trainees, their responses were recorded on four point continuum viz. high confidence, medium confidence, low confidence and no confidence with score 4,3,2, and 1 respectively.

The data incorporated in Table 3 reveal that majority of trainees (62.97 per cent) expressed that they have developed high level of confidence by attending training. However, only 37.03 per cent of them felt that they have developed medium level of confidence. It is interesting to note that none of the participants expressed low confidence and no confidence.

Table- 3
Distribution of respondents according to their level of confidence

N=27

| S.No. | Level of confidence | Respondents | |
|-------|---------------------|-------------|---------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. | High confidence | 17 | 62.97 |
| 2. | Medium confidence | 10 | 37.03 |
| 3. | Low confidence | – | – |
| 4. | No confidence | – | – |
| | Total | 27 | 100.00 |

N = No. of participants

The high confidence level of the trainees was due to the fact that the training programme was well planned and organised effectively. Training had a perfect balance of teaching, practical exercises and field visits to a watershed. The field visits to a watershed provided a first hand experience to the trainees. All these factors enhanced learning of trainees and, therefore, raised their confidence level. Similar findings were reported by Koshti and Vijayaragavan (2007).

Training effectiveness

Training effectiveness refers to the impact of training programme. In other words, training effectiveness means gain in knowledge, increase in confidence level, increase in self motivation, gain in understanding and development of positive attitude and skills. For measuring training effectiveness, the trainees were asked to give their responses on four point continuum viz. highly effective, effective, less effective and not effective with score 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively.

Table- 4
Distribution of respondents according to their level of training effectiveness

N=27

| S.No. | Level of training effectiveness | Respondents | |
|-------|---------------------------------|-------------|---------------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage |
| 1. | Highly effective | 15 | 55.55 |
| 2. | Effective | 12 | 44.45 |
| 3. | Less effective | – | – |
| 4. | Not effective | – | – |
| | Total | 27 | 100.00 |

N = No. of participants

It is evident from Table 4 that more than half (55.55 per cent) of trainees felt that training programme was highly effective. However, only 12(44.45 per cent) respondents expressed that training was effective. Interestingly enough, none of the trainees expressed that training was less effective and not effective. This might be due to increase in their level of confidence as evident from Table 3. Similar findings were reported by Koshti and Vijayaragavan (2007).

Relevance of course contents covered:

A total of 18 items pertaining to relevance of course contents of training were administered to trainees on five point continuum viz. highly relevant, quite relevant, relevant, somewhat relevant and not relevant with score 5,4,3,2, and 1 respectively. It is interesting to note that none of the respondents elicited their response on somewhat relevant and not relevant continuum. Hence, these two continuums were omitted. Data with regard to relevance of course contents covered in training as perceived by trainees have been given in Table 5.

The data incorporated in Table 5 vividly corroborate that the topics such as water requirement of agricultural crops (88.88 per cent), water requirement of horticultural crops (85.18 per cent), concept of watershed and watershed management (81.48 per cent), water harvesting techniques in a watershed programme (77.77 per cent), estimation and prediction of run-off and small watershed (74.07 per cent), importance of meteorological observatory in a watershed programme (74.07 per cent), water resources and their conservation (70.38 per cent), agricultural drought: concept, assessment and management (70.38 per cent), practical exercises during training programme (66.66 per cent) and get fuel and fodder from vegetative check dams and prevent gully erosion (62.96 per cent) were perceived as highly relevant by the trainees.

The topics such as importance of drip/sprinkler irrigation systems, integrated watershed management plan, gap analysis of food grains and field visit to a watershed were perceived as quite relevant by 62.96, 59.26, 55.55 and 51.85 per cent of trainees respectively.

Among the topics covered, alternative crop sequences in a watershed programme and crop choices for sustaining livelihood security were perceived as relevant by 48.15 and 40.74 per cent of trainees respectively.

Therefore, it could be inferred that majority of the topics (57.82 per cent) were perceived as highly relevant by trainees whereas, 27.99 per cent topics were perceived as quite relevant by them. However, a very few topics (14.19 per cent) were considered as relevant by the participants of training.

Table- 5

Distribution of respondents according to relevance of course contents

N= 27

| S.No | Particulars of relevance of course contents of training | Highly Relevant | | Quite relevant | | Relevant | |
|------|--|-----------------|-------|----------------|-------|---------------|-------|
| | | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % |
| 1. | Concept of watershed and watershed management | 22 | 81.48 | 4 | 14.81 | 1 | 3.71 |
| 2. | Estimation and prediction of run-off and small watershed | 20 | 74.07 | 3 | 11.11 | 4 | 14.82 |
| 3. | Gap analysis of food grains | 10 | 37.03 | 15 | 55.55 | 2 | 7.41 |
| 4. | Water resources and their conservation | 19 | 70.38 | 4 | 14.81 | 4 | 14.81 |
| 5. | Crop choices for sustaining livelihood security | 9 | 33.33 | 7 | 25.93 | 11 | 40.74 |
| 6. | Get fuel and fodder from vegetative check dams and prevent gully erosion | 17 | 62.96 | 7 | 25.93 | 3 | 11.11 |
| 7. | Fodder requirement for animals in a watershed programme | 16 | 59.26 | 6 | 22.22 | 5 | 18.52 |
| 8. | Agricultural drought: Concept, Assessment and management | 19 | 70.38 | 5 | 18.51 | 3 | 11.11 |
| 9. | Water harvesting techniques in a watershed programme | 21 | 77.77 | 2 | 7.41 | 4 | 14.82 |
| 10. | Design of a water harvesting pond | 15 | 55.56 | 9 | 33.33 | 3 | 11.11 |
| 11. | Water requirement of agricultural crops | 24 | 88.88 | 2 | 7.41 | 1 | 3.71 |
| 12. | Water requirement of horticultural crops | 23 | 85.18 | 2 | 7.41 | 2 | 7.41 |
| 13. | Integrated watershed management plan | 7 | 25.93 | 16 | 59.26 | 4 | 14.81 |
| 14. | Field visit to a watershed | 10 | 37.04 | 14 | 51.85 | 3 | 11.11 |
| 15. | Practical exercises during training programme | 18 | 66.66 | 8 | 29.63 | 1 | 3.71 |
| 16. | Importance of sprinkler/drip irrigation systems | 6 | 22.22 | 17 | 62.96 | 4 | 14.82 |
| 17. | Alternative crop sequences in a watershed programme | 5 | 18.52 | 9 | 33.33 | 13 | 48.15 |
| 18. | Importance of meteorological observatory in a watershed programme | 20 | 74.07 | 6 | 22.22 | 1 | 3.71 |
| | Total | 281 (57.82) | | 136 (27.99) | | 69 (14.19) | |

% = Percentage; N = No. of participants; Figure in parenthesis indicate percentage

Utility of topics covered:

For knowing utility of topics covered in training, the trainees were asked to elicit their responses on three point continuum viz. most useful, useful and least useful with score 3, 2 and 1 respectively. Data with regard to utility of topics covered in training as perceived trainees have been given in Table 6.

Table - 6
Distribution of respondents according to the utility of topics covered in training programme

| S.No | Particulars of usefulness of course contents of training | Most useful | | Useful | | Least useful | |
|-------|--|----------------|-------|----------------|-------|--------------|-------|
| | | Freq | % | Freq | % | Freq | % |
| 1. | Concept of watershed and watershed management | 23 | 85.18 | 4 | 14.82 | - | - |
| 2. | Estimation and prediction of run-off and small watershed | 4 | 14.82 | 21 | 77.77 | 2 | 7.41 |
| 3. | Gap analysis of food grains | 7 | 25.93 | 16 | 59.25 | 4 | 14.82 |
| 4. | Water resources and their conservation | 10 | 37.04 | 17 | 62.96 | - | - |
| 5. | Crop choices for sustaining livelihood security | 5 | 18.52 | 7 | 25.93 | 15 | 55.55 |
| 6. | Get fuel and fodder from vegetative check dams and prevent gully erosion | 21 | 77.77 | 4 | 14.82 | 2 | 7.41 |
| 7. | Fodder requirement for animals in a watershed programme | 9 | 33.33 | 15 | 55.55 | 3 | 11.12 |
| 8. | Agricultural Drought: Concept, Assessment and management | 22 | 81.48 | 5 | 18.53 | - | - |
| 9. | Water harvesting techniques in a watershed programme | 18 | 66.66 | 7 | 25.92 | 2 | 7.41 |
| 10. | Design of a water harvesting pond | 15 | 55.55 | 11 | 40.74 | 1 | 3.71 |
| 11. | Water requirement of agricultural crops | 26 | 96.29 | 1 | 3.71 | - | - |
| 12. | Water requirement of horticultural crops | 25 | 92.59 | 2 | 7.41 | - | - |
| 13. | Integrated watershed management plan | 19 | 70.38 | 8 | 29.62 | - | - |
| 14. | Field visit to a watershed | 24 | 88.89 | 3 | 11.11 | - | - |
| 15. | Practical exercises during training programme | 20 | 74.08 | 7 | 25.92 | - | - |
| 16. | Importance of sprinkler/drip irrigation systems | 10 | 37.03 | 14 | 51.85 | 3 | 11.12 |
| 17. | Alternative crop sequences in a watershed programme | 5 | 18.52 | 8 | 29.62 | 14 | 51.86 |
| 18. | Importance of meteorological observatory in a watershed programme | 21 | 77.77 | 6 | 22.23 | - | - |
| Total | | 284 (58.44) | | 156 (32.09) | | 46 (9.47) | |

% = Percentage; N = No. of participants; Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage

The data presented in Table 6 divulge that out of 18 topics covered in training programme, majority i.e. 10 topics were perceived as most useful by the trainees. These were water requirement of agricultural crops (96.29 per cent), water requirement of horticultural crops (92.59 per cent), field visit to a watershed (88.89 per cent), concept of watershed and watershed management (85.18 per cent), agricultural drought: concept, assessment and management (81.48 per cent), get fuel and fodder from vegetative check dams and prevent gully erosion (77.77 per cent), importance of meteorological observatory in a watershed programme (77.77 per cent), practical exercises during training programme (74.08 per cent), integrated watershed management plan (70.38 per cent) and water harvesting techniques in a watershed programme (66.66 per cent)

The topics such as estimation and prediction of run-off and small watershed, water resources and their conservation, gap analysis of food grains, fodder requirement for animals in a watershed programme and importance of drip/ sprinkler irrigations systems were perceived as useful by 77.77, 62.96, 59.25, 55.55 and 51.85 per cent of trainees respectively. Interestingly enough, only two topics viz. crop choices for sustaining livelihood security and alternative crop sequences in a watershed programme and were considered as least useful by 55.55 and 51.86 per cent of trainees respectively.

It could, therefore, be inferred that majority of topics (58.44 per cent) were perceived as most useful by the trainees whereas, 32.09 per cent topics were considered as useful by them. However, only a negligible percentage of trainees (9.47 per cent) perceived topics as least useful.

Opinion of trainees on different aspects of training

A perusal of data given in Table 7 vividly corroborate that all the participants (100 per cent) agreed that their knowledge has increased by participation in training. All the participants agreed that attending training was a good learning experience for them and trainers had rich knowledge of subject matter. They expressed that there was an excellent learning environment during training and they would like to participate in another training programme organised in a similar way. Besides, they were fully satisfied by tea and sitting arrangements. 96.30 per cent of trainees agreed that their attitude towards their job has changed by attending training and the time was fully and best utilised during the training programme. 92.60 per cent of trainees opined that they have developed new skills by attending training and were satisfied by lunch. However, 81.48 per cent of respondents agreed that training had perfect balance between theory and practical and their job proficiency has improved by attending training. 85.19 per cent and 70.38 per cent of trainees were, however, undecided that various A.V. aids used by the trainers have enhanced learning and discussion after every training session was interesting and fruitful. Interestingly enough,

nearly three-fourth (70.37 per cent) of respondents were dissatisfied by the duration of the training programme. Similar findings were reported by Kumar et al. (2005).

Table-7
Opinion of trainees on different aspects of training

| S.No. | Opinion | Agree | % | Undecided | % | Disagree | % |
|-------|---|----------------|--------|---------------|-------|--------------|-------|
| 1. | Knowledge has increased by participation in training | 27 | 100.00 | - | - | - | - |
| 2. | Training has changed my attitude towards my job | 26 | 96.30 | 1 | 3.70 | - | - |
| 3. | Development of new skills by attending training | 25 | 92.60 | 1 | 3.70 | 1 | 3.70 |
| 4. | Training has improved my job proficiency | 22 | 81.48 | 3 | 11.11 | 2 | 7.41 |
| 5. | Various A.V. aids used by the trainers has enhanced learning | 3 | 11.11 | 23 | 85.19 | 1 | 3.70 |
| 6. | Full and best utilisation of time | 26 | 96.30 | 1 | 3.70 | - | - |
| 7. | Discussion after every training session was interesting and highly fruitful | 6 | 22.22 | 19 | 70.38 | 2 | 7.40 |
| 8. | Perfect balance between theory and practical | 22 | 81.48 | 5 | 18.52 | - | - |
| 9. | Duration of training was satisfactory | 2 | 7.41 | 6 | 22.22 | 19 | 70.37 |
| 10. | Excellent learning environment | 27 | 100.00 | - | - | - | - |
| 11. | Trainers had rich knowledge of subject matter | 27 | 100.00 | - | - | - | - |
| 12. | Tea was satisfactory | 27 | 100.00 | - | - | - | - |
| 13. | Lunch was satisfactory | 25 | 92.60 | 2 | 7.40 | - | - |
| 14. | Sitting arrangement was satisfactory | 27 | 100.00 | - | - | - | - |
| 15. | It was a good learning experience | 27 | 100.00 | - | - | - | - |
| 16. | I would like to participate in another training organised in a similar way | 27 | 100.00 | - | - | - | - |
| | Total | 346 (80.09) | | 61 (14.12) | | 25 (5.79) | |

% = Percentage; N= No. of participants; Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage

Conclusion

The participants expressed that the training programme on 'Scaling up of Water Productivity in Agriculture for Livelihood through Teaching cum Demonstration' was a good learning experience. 48.16 per cent of the trainees felt that their expectations were fairly met by attending the training programme. After training, 62.97 per cent of trainees expressed that they have developed high level of confidence. Majority (55.55 per cent) of the participants perceived that training programme was highly effective. Majority of the topics covered in the training programme were perceived as highly relevant and most useful by the trainees. The practical exercises and field visits to watershed helped the participants not only to improve their knowledge but also sharpen their practical skills on various aspects of watershed and watershed management. The training has achieved a very high level of benefits in terms of human resource development and improving linkages between SKUAST-J and State Department of Agricultural Production. In general, the trainees have revealed that the training programme was well planned with expert faculty members and organised effectively; satisfying the need and requirements of the participants.

Since the training programme has immensely helped in improving the knowledge and sharpens the practical skills of the trainees, it is recommended that the trainees trained under the present project should apply the knowledge gained and skills developed in their actual field conditions. This would definitely help the farming community in achieving the livelihood security.

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Talking Pen as Multimedia Print Reader (MPR) Technology for Building Literacy Skills and Dialoguing Social Issues: A Pilot Project

**Mridula Seth
Aprana Khanna**

Paper Overview

The Multimedia Print Reader (MPR) technology is a giant leap in educational technology. It allows people to hear the text while reading along. The Talking Books MPR technology uses a digital pen which has inbuilt speaker. For non-literate and neo literate learners, the MPR pen can assist not only the learners but also the volunteer-teachers who are unable to provide personal attention in a group multi level teaching-learning situation. The talking book can build an interactive learning environment. It can be used to train teachers and counsellors minimising losses in transfer of learning.

The Lady Irwin College has developed a literacy primer – part of which has been converted into a Talking Book using the MPR technology. The Primer is intended to serve two groups – non-literate women and adolescent girls in urban slums and resettlement colonies; and field level functionaries engaged in development programmes. The Primer has three components - part 1 imparts literacy through selected meaningful words and phrases; Part 2 strengthens literacy through short real-life stories of empowered women; and Part 3 focuses on numeracy. The visuals introducing the themes have messages recorded that can facilitate the field level functionary or teacher for conducting group discussion and reflection for the learner.

The contents of part 1 are built around three thematic areas: a) Food and nutrition, b) Rights and responsibilities; and c) Physical and mental health. Recognising the importance of enhancing life skills, part 2 has 11 stories of empowered women proactively mobilising others to solve the problem in a peaceful and democratic manner. The issues are related to social evils, healthy lifestyle, HIV and AIDS, legal literacy, consumer awareness, citizenship/social mobilisation, and livelihood issues.

Paper presented at the NIOS National seminar *Transcending Barriers: Inclusive Education in the context of Open Schooling* on March 8, 2011. New Delhi Technology can be very useful for encouraging non-literate and neo-literate learners to enhance

Paper presented at the NIOS National seminar Transcending Barriers: Inclusive Education in the context of Open Schooling on March 8, 2011. New Delhi

their literacy skills and gain knowledge for better living. Sustaining motivation of learners is a big challenge in adult literacy that can be addressed through an audio-visual literacy primer. Managing a multi level group in non-formal education is not easy for the volunteer teachers or praraks. Simple technologies such as MPR pen can help in building an interactive environment for making teaching learning situation enjoyable and meaningful. It can ensure minimum loss in transfer of learning and reaching out to a large group.

The primer has been developed on the basis of several years of field experience. However, the use of the MPR technology needs to be field tested through a pilot study.

Purpose and Process of Primer development

The literacy primer "Padhe Aur Jaane" developed by Lady Irwin College is based on experience of students in the last two decades using the Each-one teach-one and group approach. The primer has been revised keeping in mind the IPCL (Improved Pace and Content of Learning) curriculum recommended by the National Literacy Mission. Multimedia Print Reader (MPR) technology has been incorporated in the form of a Talking Pen.

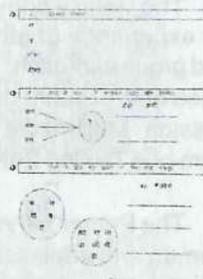
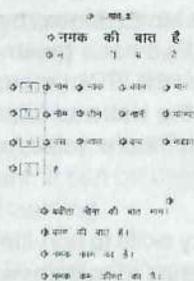
The Primer serves a dual purpose: impart functional literacy skills to non-literate women and adolescent girls; and facilitate field level functionaries to communicate effectively on selected social issues for women's empowerment.

Process of development

Eclectic method, used in the primer, is a combination of the synthetic and analytic methods. In the Analytic method, words, phrases or sentences become the units of learning. These are then analysed into the smallest unit of the language i.e. individual letters or sound symbols. Meaningful words and phrases were selected for initiating discussion. Example, 'Namak ki Baat' (talking about salt) for introducing 'Na' and 'Ba'.

Synthetic or alphabetic method, commonly, known as 'phonic' method, has been used for learning the alphabets. Structure of the symbol is reinforced with the sound. Learner is encouraged to identify words beginning with the symbol to be introduced e.g., 'N' for 'namak' (salt), 'naak' (nose). This method is culturally acceptable and has been used in traditional method of teaching Hindi.

The words/phrases were selected in the context of three thematic areas focusing on women's health and empowerment: food and nutrition; rights and responsibilities; physical and mental health. Appropriate visuals were made to initiate discussion related to the topic.



Stories of change were collected from the field related to common social issues. Adult educators, field level functionaries and faculty members participated in workshops for selecting the stories in eleven domains. The short stories not only strengthen literacy skills but also provide opportunity for reflection and discussion building their life skills.

The numeracy contents developed by the State Resource Centre Bhopal have been included in the primer with their permission.

The MPR technology involves special coding in the print that is read by the Talking pen. Script was written for part 1 of the primer and recorded in the college studio. This was sent to Bhopal (MP) where Adarsh Private Limited converted it into a print-ready Talking book. The effectiveness of the talking book will be field tested shortly.

Outcome – an audio visual primer

The LIC primer has visuals and text that provide the sight component while the messages recorded, in a Talking Pen, accompanying the text and visuals provide

the audio component. Thus, for the learner, reading the text becomes easy when it is reinforced with the Talking pen enabling it to be used for self learning. The visuals introducing the themes have messages recorded that can facilitate the field level functionary or teacher for conducting group discussion and reflection for the learner.

3. अपना जन्म स्थान के अक्षरों को पहचानना सरल लिखिए -

| | | | | |
|----|----|--|----|----|
| भा | पा | | ऐ | ब |
| र | सा | | म | |
| म | नि | | क | पा |
| | त | | | |
| पि | | | मि | न |
| के | ग | | म | |

घरों या घर

केतल- पाया

ऊपर से नीचे

4. खीरे - एक कौड़ी



खीरे.....

- खीरे को खीरेपत्ती क्या कहें ? क्यों खाते ?
- खीरे में क्या सुगंध है ?
- खीरे को खीरेपत्ती क्यों लुट्टें ? खीरेपत्ती क्या फलित ?

संख्याएँ (संयुक्त में हल)

- 100 को - 50 से घटाकर हल में लिखें ।
- 100 को - 20 से घटाकर हल में लिखें ।
- 100 को - 10 से घटाकर हल में लिखें ।
- 100 को - 5 से घटाकर हल में लिखें ।

The Primer has three components: Part 1 imparts literacy through selected meaningful words and phrases that provide opportunity for dialogue on the issues of concern; Part 2 strengthens literacy through short stories of empowered women; and Part 3 focuses on numeracy. Part 1 can also be used as a Talking Book.

Part 1 has twelve lessons in three units. Unit 1 (Food & Nutrition) is focused on mother's role, importance of iodized salt, diet in pregnancy, and supplementary feeding. Unit 2 (Rights & Responsibilities) is focused on crime against women, rights of women, gender discrimination, and civic responsibilities. Unit 3 (Mental & Physical health) highlights domestic violence, personal hygiene, fears & superstition, and mental & physical fatigue.

Part 2 is in the form of 11 stories of empowered women: Recognising the importance of enhancing thinking skills i.e., self-awareness, problem solving, decision making, and creative thinking, there is scope for self reflection by posing questions related to the key characters in each story and issues emerging. For enhancing social skills i.e., communication, interpersonal relationships, some activities have been suggested that can be taken up for dialoguing on the selected issues and hands on experiences. The issues are related to social evils, healthy lifestyle, HIV and AIDS, legal literacy, consumer awareness, citizenship/social mobilisation, and livelihood issues. For improving comprehension of the written text, exercises have been included such as filling in the blanks, building words, multiple choice options, games and crosswords.

For monitoring and evaluation, Assessment tests after every four lessons have been included providing feedback to the learners and the facilitators.

The Primer has been approved by the technical committee of the National Literacy Mission.

Challenges and Way Forward

In today's fast changing high technology world, India is still faced with a mammoth challenge of illiteracy. Despite significant accomplishments of the National Literacy Mission, illiteracy continues to be an area of national concern. Though precise number of non-literates at this stage is not available and will be known only after 2011 census, 2001 census had revealed that there were still 259.52 million illiterate adults (in the age group of 15+) in the country (Saakshar Bharat, 2010). Wide gender, social and regional disparities in literacy also continue to persist. The Government has announced that literacy would be its key programme instrument for emancipation and empowerment of women. Efforts of the Government to give impetus to school education, health, nutrition, skill development and women empowerment in general are impeded by the continuance of female illiteracy.

Technology can be very useful for encouraging non-literate and neo-literate learners to enhance their literacy skills and gain knowledge for better living. Following are some challenges in adult literacy that can be addressed through an audio-visual literacy primer:

- Sustaining motivation of learners – adults tend to get discouraged by their slow progress and often drop out. They are reluctant to show their ignorance by asking the volunteer-teacher or peer educator. Talking pen can be a useful tool for assistive self-learning, providing feedback and thus sustaining motivation to continue learning.
- Managing a multi level group in non-formal education is not easy for the volunteer teachers or preraks. MPR pen can overcome the problem of providing

personal attention to each and every learner in a group multi level teaching-learning situation.

- Training field level functionaries in adult education is quite challenging. MPR pen can ensure minimum loss in transfer of learning and reaching out to a large group.
- Simple technologies such as MPR pen can help in building an interactive environment for making learning enjoyable and meaningful.
- Currently, the MPR pen priced at Rs 4500 seems expensive. However, it can be used in a group situation with learners sharing it and facilitating peer teaching learning process.

Additional Information - What is the Multimedia Print Reader (MPR) technology?

MPR technology allows people to hear the text while reading along. Using such technologies has changed the traditional way of reading a printed book.



The Talking Pen

The Talking Books MPR technology uses a digital pen which has a inbuilt speaker, head phone, re-chargable Lithium Ion Battery, recording function, 2 GB memory, a USB cable for downloading the files and a charger.

The MPR is an assistive technology that allows for an individual with reading problems to use it any time, any place. The issue of keeping and maintaining several CDs or audio tapes, etc can be eliminated. For individuals with learning disabilities, assistive technology is found via computer applications such as spell-check, proof-reading programmes, voice recognition, and optical character recognition systems. Portable devices such as hand calculators, audiotape recorders are also useful. Cost and portability are important features for use of such devices.

The talking book can build an interactive learning environment increasing pleasure as the printed book would no longer be silent. This technology brings a human face through voice in the learning process, increasing the attention span and concentration level helping the student to overcome the absence of a teacher and helping her to

learn on her own, at her pace and convenience, especially in remote and inaccessible areas. This would also enhance the students' ability to study independently.

MPR can help in improving the attention and reading abilities of dyslexic as well as the visually/learning challenged by adding a new aid for learning. MPR will help students especially with learning languages by teaching them improved pronunciation, intonations by countering regional influences (Foreign Tongue Influence).

The Talking Books MPR publications can be printed under any normal printing condition. No extra printing cost is required to print learning material ready for this technology.

For More information: www.AadarshTalkingBooks.com, <http://www.youtube.com/aadarsh Talking Books>

Conclusion

Technology has not been optimally used for the masses. While innovations in technology have benefitted the educated or continuing education at the higher levels, use of self-learning materials is indeed a challenge especially for basic literacy. Most of the courses offered by the National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) are mainly for the secondary level. The Open Basic Education (OBE) programme of NIOS has only recently been initiated. Thus, the need for support material for basic literacy is an important aspect requiring innovative tools and approaches to impart education at all levels.

Talking Books MPR technology is a new form of publication. There is need to explore the scope of this technology for strengthening non-formal and distance learning programmes. The MPR pens can be made available to students at the NIOS Centres. Students may get them issued during Contact Programmes and return them after use. Strategies for issue and return, rent or deposit can be worked out to ensure accountability and monitoring of learner performance.

The MPR Talking Book concept offers tremendous possibilities for NIOS to add versatility and innovation to the design of learning material offered to students taking the advantage of new technology at an affordable price.

Educational Status of Muslim Girls: Evidences from the Select Town of Andhra Pradesh

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A. Vanaja

Abstract

This paper examines the status of Girl child Education among Muslim in select town of Andhra Pradesh. Encouraging girls to remain in school until they complete primary education has increasingly become a priority of many communities across the world. With increases in the educational participation of girls, the national development indicators improve. Muslims like any other community in India, tend to be influenced by the forces of orthodox conservatism and ongoing modernisation process at the national and international level. As a result, the education of girl child is also affected by their forces. The main objectives of the study were to study the status of Girl Child Education among Muslims: To study the opinion of Muslim parents towards Girl Child Education. The study was undertaken in two towns of two districts of Andhra Pradesh namely Nizamabad and Kurnool. Total sample is 50 schools which include primary and secondary schools and 40 families from the two towns. The study concludes that there is a growing realisation among the students and the families of Muslims regarding the value of education particularly to educate their girl children.

(Key words: Girl Child, Muslims, Education, status, Development)

Introduction

Encouraging girls to remain in school until they complete primary education has increasingly become a priority of many communities across the world. With increase in the educational participation of girls, the national development indicators improve. Some important indicators are lowered infant and maternal mortality, longer life expectancy, lower fertility rates and improvements in health, nutrition, literacy and economic growth.

A boy education is generally accepted as a point to increase the earnings and status of the family. The value of daughter's education is gauged in terms of her marriage prospects. Parbathy Baidya (1988) argued that the lack of education is the main cause for which women suffer more than men. Lack of education means lack of self-reliance, self-confidence for which women are not able to come out of their

problem, so, educating a woman means educating a family. In India because of growing awareness of the vital connection between women's education and the national development effort, from VI and VII Plan onwards women are identified as a critical human resource requiring skills training and development inputs.

National Policy on Education, 1986 and the Education for All Initiative of 2003 stressed the need for interventions for women's education and accorded a high priority to girls' education in order to overcome inequalities and disparities. The policy addresses not only the issue of educational opportunity for women but commands the entire educational system to work for women's equality and empowerment. The policy gives overriding priority to the removal of women's illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to and retention in primary education. Further these policies acknowledge education as a pre-requisite of gender equality and advocating the specific interventions for girls and women such as strengthening Anganwadies, life skill camps and gender sensitisation and mainstreaming the gender in education etc.

In developing countries, though the greatest investment returns are derived from primary education returns from secondary and higher education is already started. According to Barbara in USAID's symposium on Girls Education it appears that secondary education may have much larger returns as much as 30 per cent. Therefore ensuring that the girls reach the stage may produce even longer benefits. Education of girls has been a high priority of the Government of India. The National commitment to provide free and compulsory education to all the children in 6-14 years is now a Fundamental Right of every child in India. (86th Constitutional Amendment Act, Dec.2002). Reaching out to the girl child is central to the efforts of universalising of elementary education. Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan or 'Education for All' programme recognises that ensuring girl's education requires changes not only in the education system but also in societal norms and attitudes. A two-pronged gender strategy has therefore been adopted, to make the education system responsive to the needs of the girls through targeted interventions which serve as a pull factor to enhance access and retention of girls in schools on the other hand, to generate a community demand for girls' education.

Though considerable steps have been taken and enrolment of girls has marginally increased, yet social and gender gaps are wide and many of the girls dropout after the initial primary school. The 1983 Report on Minorities, declared Muslims to be a backward community primarily due to the dismal educational and exceedingly poor socio-economic status, Particularly of Muslim women and a high dropout rate at the elementary state of education (Report, 1983).

In rural India, the gender gap in literacy is 22.27% against 16.8% of urban India. Over 34% of girl children are dropout before completing primary education and of the estimated 65 million out of school children, 40 million are girls. According to 2001

census, although illiteracy among Muslims improved between 1993-94 and 1999-2000, the literacy rates (67.66 percent) are still on average 10 percent below that of the Hindus (71.16 percent). In rural areas 48 percent of Muslims above the age of seven could not read or write, compared Hindu it is 44 percent in the same situation. In Urban areas the gap is much wider, 30 percent among the Muslims but only 10 percent among Hindus (Census 2001, Hassan et.al, appendix) According to an ORG-MARG Muslim Women's Survey 2001, among 40 districts of 12 States of India 60% of the Muslim women in the country are illiterate. The enrolment of Muslim girl children is only 40.7%.

Women education and equality

Gore (1994) argues that women's equality cannot be attained without education. Education may be formal or informal, it may be directly dialectic, or merely information based or communicating its message through entertainment but it is a pre-requisite for value change and without value change no new social objectives can take root. Education is seen as a critical factor in breaking the inter-generational cycle of transmission of poverty. The power of education lies not just in imparting formal literacy, but rather in the acquisition of skills that enable access to multiple literacy, economics, legal, health, political and ability to mediate (Report, W&CW, 2005, 17). The neglect of Muslim women's education has been a persistent feature of public policy in many states. There are many reasons for this and the main fault lies in the attitude in the families towards girls' education.

Table No.1
.Literacy level among different religions

| Religion | Male | Female | Total |
|-----------|-------|--------|-------|
| Hindu | 76.16 | 53.21 | 65.01 |
| Muslim | 67.66 | 50.09 | 59.13 |
| Christian | 84.37 | 76.19 | 80.25 |
| Sikh | 75.23 | 63.09 | 69.45 |
| Buddhist | 83.13 | 61.69 | 72.66 |
| Jain | 97.41 | 90.58 | 94.08 |

Source: Census of India 2001.

Review of Literature

Rahman and Bisdwah (1993) argue that education is an important indicator of women's development. It is also an important instrument for attaining economic power and independence. It opens opportunities that are limited with various levels of formal educational attainment.

According to More (1997) the structure of the indigenous social system mitigated against the modern concept of female education. But in Madras, unlike in the other provinces, the purdah system was found only among a certain sections of the people. Muslims of Madras provinces were alone observing the purdah system strongly opposed to co-education even in the primary stage.

Early marriage though common was not to be found among large and important communities and women teachers were forthcoming in comparatively large numbers.

Washim Ahmed (2000) in his study focuses on the Maktabas and Madrasas of Eastern Uttar Pradesh and reveals that the sort of education that these institutions impart must be understood in their historical context, particularly in relation to the British divide and rule policy that resulted in the increasing marginalisation of large number of Muslims, who, in the aftermath of the 1857 Revolt, were seen by the British as potentially subversive, and hence were cruelly suppressed. The study suggested that a radically reformed and modernised syllabus be tried out on an experimental basis, for which well trained teachers should be employed.

In view of the above discussions, the study has been taken up to investigate the status of Girl Child Education among Muslims.

Objectives

- To study the status of Girl Child Education among Muslims
- To study the opinion of Muslim parents towards Girl Child Education.
- To suggest measures for improvement of Education among Muslim Girls.

Education of Girl Child and Muslims

Muslims like any other community in India, tend to be influenced by the forces of orthodox conservatism and ongoing modernisation process at the national and international level. As a result, the education of girl child is also affected by their forces. Besides these, the socio-economic status of parents also influences their education, parents from various social class homes may differ in their nurturing and caring behaviour. The low income of parents affects the will to educate their girl child. Mounting economic pressure generally brings budgetary matter to the forefront which may keep any parent mentally preoccupied with financial issues, hence, low involvement in education of their children

In 2001 only 55% of India's 71 million Muslim males were literate, compared to 64.5% for country's 461 million non-Muslim men. Less than 41% of the country's 67 million Muslim females were illiterate varies 46% of India' 30 million non Muslim women. The percentage difference was greater for Muslim men vary their non Muslim brethren than for Muslim women. A recent study has shown that in India as a whole,

Muslim girls' school enrolment rates continue to be low; 40.6 percent, as compared to 63.2 percent in the case of Hindus. In rural north India, it is only 13.5, in urban north India 23.1 percent and in rural and urban south India, above 70 percent, which is above the all-India average for all girls. Only 16.1 percent of Muslim girls from poor families attend schools, while 70 percent of Muslim girls from economically better-off families do so, thus clearly suggesting that low levels of education of Muslim girls owe not to religion but to poverty. Less than 17 percent of Muslim girls finish eight years of schooling and less than 10 percent complete higher secondary education. In the north, the corresponding figures are 4-5 percent and 4.75 percent respectively, compared to the national female average of 17.8 percent and 11.4 percent. Only 1.5 percent rural Muslims, both boys and girls, and 4.8 percent Urban Muslim children are enrolled in senior Secondary schools. In other words, on the whole, Muslim girls are characterised by a low enrolment rate and a very high dropout rate from the formal schooling system (Hassan, 2005)

These differences in literacy levels existed across almost all States with significant Muslim population. However, Muslim-non-Muslim literacy disparities were far less in the economically advanced states of West and South India compared to Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Assam, West Bengal and Jammu & Kashmir. Unfortunately, these five States with high disparities accounted for over 61 per cent of the country's Muslim population where as the Gujarat & A.P the literacy ratios of Muslim males and females were marginally better than those of non Muslim and in Karnataka and Maharashtra where a slightly greater share of Muslim women were literate compared to others.

Muslims Education

There are three types of institutions which promotes Muslim education.

- 1) Khuranic schools
- 2) Mosque schools
- 3) Madrassas

Khuranic schools

These schools function in mosque only. The mullah teaches the Koran to children both boys and girls. At the basic level, the Koran is taught orally only and no translation or interpretation is provided to students. Khuranic schools offer classes at various times. Evening, morning; after noon to accommodate the timings of both teacher and students. The main objective of this school is that the Muslim child should be able to read the Koran in Arabic even if they do not understand the language.

Mosque Primary School

Because of scarcity of resources and other things such as infrastructure etc. the Government of A.P. started converting Koranic schools into Mosque primary schools in the mid 80s. Particularly in rural areas the plan was to add some additional

subjects such as basic Urdu and maths which would be taught by the local imams. The efficiency of these imams to teach maths and Urdu is of uncertain. During the process some mosque schools closed down, some are sustained.

Madrassas

The mission of most of madrassas is to impart religious teaching. Islamic subjects (Koran, Islamic law, logic and other prospects traditions). Depending upon the level of the madrassa (Primary, middle and high) the concentration of religious teaching increases. I.e. Hafiz-e-Koran, Qari and Alim.

The madrassa student after graduation from grade 10 is qualified enough to declare Fatway – religious edicts. There are five major Islamic schools of thought in Andhra Pradesh. Deobandi, Bareli, Ahle, Hadith, Salafi and Shia. Each sect has their own Madrassas in which they teach their own version of Islam.

Methodology and Study Area

The study was undertaken in two towns of two districts of Andhra Pradesh namely Nizamabad and Kurnool. The selection of the districts and towns was based on the Muslim population (i.e. 30% and more Muslim population.) Total sample is 50 schools which include primary and secondary schools and 40 families, the respondents were students, teachers and Head Masters. Survey method was used to collect the information from the respondents. Apart from the survey method Focus Group Discussions were also conducted along with personal interviews with men, women, community leaders, youth and teachers from the Muslim community.

Results and Discussion

The respondents profile indicates that in Nizamabad town the distribution of sample is 45 % (184), where as in Kurnool town the distribution is 55 % (226).

The class wise distribution of the responds reveals that out of 410 respondents (68) are studying in 9th class, which includes 41 from Kurnool town and 27 are from Nizamabad, where as the 6th class (58), 7th class (57), and 8th class are 53 only. (Table:2)

Majority of the respondent's father's education level is literate. They are 94 (30%) out of 410 followed by Primary education 55 (13.5%) and Secondary education level is 75 (18.5%). Some of the student's father's educational level is of Graduation i.e. 36 (9.5%) out of 410. (Table:3)

Majority of the respondents mothers education level is illiterate. i.e 110 out of 410 (27.0%), followed by primary education level is of 97 (24.0%). Where as 15 (4%) are studied up to Graduation. (Table: 4)

As far as fathers occupation is concerned majority are self employed i.e 97 out of 410(23%), which includes Kurnool town 59(26%) and Nizamabad town 38 (21%). Followed by Private Job i.e 80 out 410 (19 %), Kurnool town represents 50 (22%), Nizamabad town is 30(16 %). Where as 150 respondents had not responded about their father's occupation. (Table:5). The profile of the mothers Occupation revealed that majority of the respondents mothers are housewives 226 out of 410. (56.5 %). It includes Kurnool town 106 (47%) Nizamabd town 120 (65%), followed by 30 respondents mothers are self employed (8.0%) and 20 (5.0%) are doing business. Where as 134(30.5%) respondents have not responded on their mother's occupation. (Table: 6).

Students' opinion regarding school facilities

60% of the respondents revealed that they like very much their teachers. Followed by 27% of the respondents said that they like their friends and are happy with the facilities of library, sports etc. where as remaining 13% have not responded on this.

Parents' encouragement and school attendance

97% of the respondents said that their parents are quite encouraging and insist them to attend the school in spite of work at home. Where as 3% of the respondents said that some times because of work at home parents discourage the school and force them to attend the work.

Facilities provided by the parents at home

65% of the respondents revealed that parents help them in studies and provide facilities like sparing sufficient time to study, providing pens, pencils and books etc. Where as remaining 35% of the respondents said that they are not getting proper support from their parents, because they are illiterates.

Opinion on Assignment of work by the parents

30% of the respondents revealed that their parents assign work at home. Out of these 3% said that they help their parents by attending domestic work, followed by 2% said that they help their parents by working at others houses, where as 1% revealed that they attend the work of beedi-making. 70% of the remaining respondents have not responded.

Parents' attitude towards Girl child Education

45% of the respondent parents are positive in their attitude and supportive to their girl child education followed by 30% of the respondent's parents revealed that they were not much supportive towards girl child education.

Size of the family: 60% of the parents said that their family size comprise one to six members, followed by 20% said that their family size consists of seven to eight members, where as the remaining 20% said that their family consists of more than 10 members.

Type of Family: 70% of the respondents families are of nuclear where as the remaining 30% are of joint family.

Economic status: regarding their income levels 45% of the parents earned between Rs.9000-13000. Where as the remaining 55 % (203) earned below Rs. 9000.

Educational awareness: Educational awareness was studied interms of importance of education, medium of education, distance of school, type of school; facilities availed from the school etc.

1. Lower age group parents (younger) are more aware about the education of their children particularly girl children.
2. Among different sects of Muslims shias are having little higher awareness than Sunnis. There is difference in educational awareness among different sub sects like syeds, pathans and sheiks.
3. Higher income group families are more understanding and aware than those of lower income groups.
4. Educated parents are more aware of their children's education.
5. Nuclear families with smaller size are having better awareness than the joint and larger size families.
6. Decision making: In most of the families men take the decisions regarding their children's school academic matters, the process of education of their children. In higher socio economic status families it was observed that independent decisions were taken by the women of the families.
7. Aspirations: Most of the respondents i.e. 60 % (180) said that they wanted to send their children to English medium school. Where as the remaining 40 % (170) wants to send their children to Urdu and Telugu medium schools.
8. 30% (123) of the respondents felt that they wanted to provide higher education to their children.

Conclusion

In the present study findings suggests that there is a growing realisation among the students and the families of Muslims regarding the value of education particularly to educate their girl children was observed in all the sample schools and families of Nizamabad and Kurnool towns of Andhra Pradesh.

Majority of the students opined that they take their teachers and school and attend the school in spite of work at home. 65% of the students revealed that parents help them in their studies by providing relevant facilities. This was a positive trend observed among different sub sects and even in lower income group families.

Most of the respondent's parents are positive in their attitudes and supportive in their girl child education.

Majority of the parents are self-employed followed by Government employees, and are quite encourage in educating their children.

Irrespective of their family size and type, they are interested to educate their girl children.

In most of the families men take decision regarding their children's schools, where as in few families women in consultation with men take decisions.

Most of the respondents are having high aspirations to give better education to their children with English medium.

The continuation of education among girls with better achievement is a motivating factor among families.

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Table: 2 The class wise distribution of the respondents

| S.No. | Class | Nizamabad town | | Kurnool town | |
|-------|---------|----------------|------|--------------|------|
| | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| 1. | Madrasa | 8 | 5.0 | 10 | 4.4 |
| 2 | 1st | 12 | 6.6 | 15 | 6.6 |
| 3 | 2nd | 09 | 5.02 | 10 | 4.4 |
| 4 | 3rd | 11 | 6.0 | 15 | 6.6 |
| 5 | 4th | 12 | 6.5 | 16 | 7.3 |
| 6 | 5th | 23 | 12.6 | 28 | 12.3 |
| 7 | 6th | 28 | 15.2 | 30 | 13.2 |
| 8 | 7th | 26 | 14.5 | 31 | 13.7 |
| 9 | 8th | 23 | 12.6 | 30 | 13.2 |
| 10 | 9th | 27 | 16.0 | 41 | 18.3 |
| Total | | 184 | 100 | 226 | 100 |

Table: 3 Respondents level o father's Education:

| S.No | Level of fathers education | Nizamabad Town | | Kurnool Town | | Total | |
|-------|----------------------------|----------------|-------|--------------|------|-------|--------|
| | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | | |
| 1. | Illiteracy | 21 | 11.5 | 33 | 14.5 | 54 | 13.50 |
| 2. | Literate | 44 | 24.0 | 50 | 22.0 | 94 | 30.50 |
| 3. | Primary Education | 24 | 13.00 | 31 | 13.5 | 55 | 13.50 |
| 4 | Secondary Education | 29 | 15.5 | 46 | 20.5 | 75 | 18.50 |
| 5 | Intermediate | 28 | 15.5 | 33 | 14.5 | 61 | 15.50 |
| 6 | Graduation | 23 | 12.5 | 13 | 6.0 | 36 | 09.50 |
| 7 | Post Graduation | 15 | 8.0 | 20 | 9.0 | 35 | 09.00 |
| Total | | 184 | 100 | 226 | 100 | 410 | 100.00 |

Table: 4 Respondents level o Mother's Education:

| S.No | Level of fathers education | Nizamabad Town | | Kumool Town | | Total | |
|-------|----------------------------|----------------|------|-------------|------|-------|-------|
| | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | | |
| 1. | Illiteracy | 50 | 27.0 | 60 | 26.6 | 110 | 27.0 |
| 2. | Literate | 20 | 10.5 | 40 | 17.7 | 60 | 14.0 |
| 3. | Primary Education | 50 | 27.0 | 47 | 20.7 | 97 | 24.0 |
| 4 | Secondary Education | 40 | 22.0 | 40 | 17.7 | 80 | 19.5 |
| 5 | Intermediate | 15 | 8.5 | 33 | 14.6 | 48 | 11.50 |
| 6 | Graduation | 9 | 5.0 | 6 | 2.7 | 15 | 4.00 |
| 7 | Post Graduation | - | | - | | - | |
| Total | | 184 | 100 | 226 | 100 | 410 | 100 |

Table: 5 Respondents Father's occupation:

| S.No | Level of fathers education | Nizamabad Town | | Kumool Town | | Total | |
|------|----------------------------|----------------|--------|-------------|-------|-------|--------|
| | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | | |
| 1. | Self employed | 38 | 21.00 | 59 | 26.0 | 97 | 23.0 |
| 2. | Business | 36 | 20.00 | 41 | 18.0 | 77 | 19.0 |
| 3. | Private jobs | 30 | 16.00 | 50 | 22.0 | 80 | 19.0 |
| 4 | No response | 80 | 43.00 | 76 | 34.0 | 150 | 39.0 |
| | | 184 | 100.00 | 226 | 100.0 | 410 | 100.00 |

Table: 6 Respondents Mother's occupation

| S.No | Level of fathers education | Nizamabad Town | | Kurnool Town | | Total | |
|-------|----------------------------|----------------|-------|--------------|------|-------|------|
| | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % | | |
| 1. | House wife | 120 | 65.0 | 106 | 47.0 | 226 | 56.5 |
| 2. | Self employed | 10 | 5.40 | 20 | 9.0 | 30 | 8.0 |
| 3. | Business | 8 | 4.40 | 12 | 5.0 | 20 | 5.0 |
| 4 | No response | 46 | 25.20 | 88 | 39.0 | 134 | 30.5 |
| Total | | 184 | 100 | 226 | 100 | 410 | 100 |

Community Organisation-An approach of Lifelong Learning

Bhounik Deshmukh

The Concept of Lifelong Learning has been adopted first in the more economically advanced industrial societies whereas it is a societal responsibility for creating a learning environment and the necessary resources for all citizens, new and established, young and old. Lifelong learning is an essential condition for being able to manage ourselves well, and to prosper economically. The capacity to learn of nations, their governments and international bodies, as well as of individuals and communities, for civil society and for its citizens-underpins the ability to judge and to manage wisely and efficiently in the public interest.

- ◆ Lifelong learning offers a powerful perspective to widen and transform education systems and make learning as a life-wide and lifelong activity a democratic, accessible and affordable right.
- ◆ Literacy, adult basic, continuing and non-formal education are important parts of lifelong learning, but that the concept applies to all forms of learning and schooling, from family, early years and pre-school learning throughout the formal compulsory school years and on through tertiary education, work and adult life
- ◆ Governments, development stakeholders, regional and international organisations have an essential role and responsibility to play in facilitating learning and creating the necessary conditions for its attainment, including providing for an adequate level of funding to enable all forms of lifelong learning.
- ◆ Cooperation and integration of effort within and across sectors, levels and all ministries, not only Education, is essential, as is local level initiative and coordination of effort, to achieving (EFA) Education for All and other development objectives.
- ◆ Community dimension is as important as the individual, and an essential to achieve EFA goals through lifelong learning for all

Work with Communities

(Community Organisation/Community work is a type of activity practiced by people who are employed to help others to identify problems and opportunities, and to come to realistic decisions to take collective action to meet these problems and opportunities, in ways that they determine for themselves. The community worker

also supports them in the process of putting, decisions they make, into effect, to help them develop their abilities and independence (Baldock, 1974) .

Younghusband defined community organisation as primarily aimed at helping people within a local community to identify social needs, to consider the most effective ways of meeting them and to set about doing so, in so far as their available resources permit (Younghusband Report, 1973). Ross (1955) identified three approaches to community organisation: (i) the 'specific content' approach, whereby a worker or an agency or organisation identifies a problem or set of problems and launches a programme to meet them; (2) the 'general content' approach whereby a group, association or council, such as the Indian Association of Adult Education or the State Social Welfare Board, attempts a coordinated and orderly development of services in a particular area; (3) the 'process' approach, where the objective is not the content i.e. facilities or services of some kind - but initiation and sustenance of a process which will involve people within a community in identifying and taking action in respect of their own problems and needs. Ross has included all these elements in his own definition. Thus, to him community organisation is "a process by which a community identifies its needs or objectives, develops the confidence and will to work for these needs or objectives, finds the resources (internal and/or external) to deal with these needs or objectives, takes action in respect to them, and in so doing extends and develops cooperative and collaborative attitudes and practices in the community".

Kettner et al. (1985) noted that the community interventions lead to creation or modification of policy, a programme, or the initiation of a new project.

Community work is essentially concerned with influencing the course of social change through a process of analysing social situations and forming relationships with different groups to bring about some desirable change. It has three main objectives. The first is the democratic process of involving people in thinking, deciding, planning and playing an active part in the development and operation of services that affect their daily lives. The second relates to the value for personal fulfillment of belonging to a community. The third is concerned with the need in community planning to think of actual people in relation to other people and meeting their needs as persons, instead of, on a series of separate needs and problems. This means working under constant tensions between people's needs and the scarce resources available to meet them, between the conflicting demands of different groups and different ideas about the kind of change that is desirable.

The Gulbenkian study group argued that community work is only one aspect of the far broader issue of how to meet people's needs and give them an effective say: what these are and how they want them met. It is part of a protest against apathy and complacency and against a remote and anonymous authority. It is also part of the whole dilemma of how to reconcile the 'revolution of human dissent' with large-

scale organisation and economic and social planning, which seems to be inseparably inter-woven with the parallel revolution of rising expectations. In short then, community work is seen as a means of giving life to local democracy (Gulbenkian Foundation, 1968). Similarly, Ecklein (1972) felt that community organisers are concerned with advancing the interests of disadvantaged groups, with improving social conditions, with the delivery of needed services, with redistribution of power and influence, with enhancement of the coping mechanisms of target populations and with strengthening community participation and integration.

Others noted that community work involves working with people who have voluntarily come together in community groups and organisations to find answers to shared needs and problems, and promote change, enabling them to achieve a greater degree of control over the conditions of their lives. The main objectives of such work are, developing and sharing skills, knowledge, experience and awareness. Priority is given to the powerless the disadvantaged and the oppressed (Butcher, 1992; Jacobs, 1994; Rivera & Erlich, 1995; Kenny, 1996).

These definitions are more radical, and though they also conceptualise community in terms of a target population, they do not close the options of community workers of induce social change of a wider nature. This widens the scope of community work or organisation. Both these terms are treated synonymously in the liberal as well as in the radical tradition.

Though it is difficult to suggest a definite prescriptive theory for combating the challenges that a community worker confronts in communities in India and other developing countries, it may still be useful to identify whatever explanations are available in the social sciences to make a more logical and systematic attempt at understanding some of the issues.

Leonard identifies four elements in a practice framework:

- (i) community or neighbourhood;
- (ii) local organisational and political context;
- (iii) wider structural variables;
- (iv) process of community work.

Approaches to work with communities

The scope of community work during the 1970's covered a variety of activities. It took note of the fact that when a worker faced deprivation or social problems, this called for the payment of some attention to the larger social and political dimensions of this micro-reality. There came a realisation that all is not well with our society, with its tendency towards technological and materialistic goals, and towards a subordination of the individual by what is often called "the system". On the other

hand, there is a desire on the part of the common man to assert his right to participate in the decisions that affect him and his way of living. This suggests the use of a wide framework to guide a worker as she approaches her task in community work. But this could create confusion for her unless some categorisation, even if it is not a very neat ideological formulation, is available to guide one in practice (Siddiqui, 1989). This would facilitate a conscious choice on the part of the worker on the type of focus she wants to maintain in practice. Consequently, three models of practice similar to the one suggested by Rothman, are outlined below:

1. Neighborhood development model
2. System change model
3. Structural change model.

Neighborhood development model

This is perhaps the oldest form of community work, where the general assumption is that people living in a community (read neighborhood) have the capacity to meet a number of problems through their own initiative and resources. The worker is expected to induce a process which will make the community realise this and consequently make efforts to achieve a greater degree of satisfaction for the of all its members, individually and collectively. Recent changes in this model of community work lay more emphasis on the development of a self-sustaining indigenous organisation within the community to take over this role from the workers or the agency as soon as possible. Thus, the role of the worker is seen as unleashing developmental energies within the community, rather than acting as a provider of services. The value emphasised is self-sustenance, rather than dependence on outside help.

The worker in a neighborhood development model can deal with a variety of issues which may range from developing better relationships within different sections such as caste groups, linguistic groups or religious sects, to changing people's attitudes about women, a small family norm, and making use of available social services. Contrary to the general understanding on the part of workers to generate services to cater to people's needs or improve the physical surroundings of the community by introducing the concept of drainage or proper roads, the neighborhood development model can be employed to develop new ideas. The emphasis here is to encourage thinking on the part of people themselves, rather than to do things for them. The neighborhood development model has often been criticised for making people more dependent on outside help. The fault lies with the manner in which a worker or an agency uses the model, and not with the model itself. However, the limitations of effecting a change with little or no control over macro-realities have already been pointed out. Still, the neighborhood development model will, in all probability, continue to be practiced in India and other third world countries.

The experience of community work in India has provided useful insights into the likely success or failure of different models. One of the insights gained is the difficulty of generating local resources, either for a specific programme or for total development of the community. Hence, an over-emphasis on indigenous resources can lead to frustration. On the other hand, in the changing economic scenario, State funding for community development projects is likely to decline. The main source of community work funding will continue to be non-governmental organisations. A complete withdrawal of workers, even in the best-planned neighborhood model of community work, is not possible. The neighborhood development model should therefore plan for a long-term involvement of the social worker or agency. The fact that change, and peoples' participation in bringing about change, or its acceptance in Indian conditions, is a gradual process, lends additional weight to the need for a long-term perspective of this model. Further, it will not be possible for any community to fully take over and run the development programme without any professional help. Hence, some form of supervision of a programme on a long-term basis will have to be made, even in this model. Therefore although the social worker or agency may plan for a partial withdrawal, which means employing more local resources for day-to-day management, nevertheless they have to continue professional supervision of the programme.

The specific steps in the model are:

1. Identification, location and demarcation of the physical area.
2. Entry into the community
3. Identifying the needs of different sections
4. Programme Planning
5. Resource Planning
6. Developing an organisational network in the community
7. Partial withdrawal within a time frame.

System Change Model

This model of community work has not yet become very popular, but there is ample evidence to suggest that it is beginning to get more acceptance in such diverse areas as environmental issues, women and health-related issues. In this approach, various arrangements in society to cater to basic needs, such as education, health, housing, employment, women's empowerment and environmental protection are considered as independent systems which also have sub-systems. The ultimate rationale for their existence is both social production and social consumption. The basic assumption in this model is that systems can become dysfunctional due to a variety of factors, such as population growth. This means that the demand for consumption may increase. Similarly, a change in values may signify that the quality of a product needs to be changed, or a change in technology may signify a change in the methodology of production. The cumulative impact of these factors may generate a host of strains and pressures on any system. The system may become dysfunctional

either because what it is producing is not relevant for people, or because not many people have access to what is being produced. At times it may produce various categories of product for different sections of the population. This leads to the unleashing of tendencies to maintain the status-quo in terms of disparities between different socio-economic and/or spatial segments of the population, rather than serving as an empowering mechanism.

The example of the education system in India and in other developing countries will help make these formulations clear. The national policy document on education in India noted that the general objects incorporated in the earlier 1986 policy "did not get translated into a detailed strategy of implementation, accompanied by the assignment of specific responsibilities and financial and organisational support. As a result, problems of access, quality, quantity, utility and financial outlay, accumulated over the years, have assumed such massive proportions that they be tackled with the utmost urgency" (Government of India, 1986). It further pointed out that education in India stands at the crossroads today. Neither normal linear development nor the existing pace and nature of improvement can meet the needs of the situation. The policy document asserted that the national education system will play a positive interventionist role in the empowerment of women and scheduled castes and tribes. Subsequent data indicate that the system failed to achieve these objectives.

It is common knowledge that social services in urban areas are far superior to those in rural areas, both in quality and quantity. Similarly, the kind of education or health services one can buy in the market are far superior to state sponsored services. The quality of the product is one of the basic means of maintaining the status quo in society. Thus, all our systems of delivery of developmental/social services for the people are suffering from various deficiencies and are unable to achieve their objectives. Symptoms of this dysfunction are observed by the community worker in the community. She comes across a school which not only lacks basic resources in terms of adequate space, class rooms, furniture, playgrounds and library facilities, but also does not even have properly trained and efficient staff. The drop-out rate is phenomenal. Those who manage to stay are still unable to make it to higher education. They find themselves far inferior in comparison to the products of elite/private schools.

The Community worker would like to reduce the drop-out rate, and would also like to improve the quality of the education being imparted. The resource level of the school, as pointed out earlier, can only be marginally improved through community efforts. Further, the worker or the community can do very little to bridge the qualitative gap between the two different kinds of education. It is at this point that the implications of the system of education and the impact of other systems, such as political, and economic, on it, becomes obvious. Similarly, it is necessary to understand the sub-systems of education, school, the department of education and teacher's training institutes, and their functioning and impact on the whole system, in order to arrive at a useful framework for understanding what one finds at the grass-roots level.

When this realisation dawns on the worker, he/she may decide to collect more facts and to develop a strategy of either restructuring or modifying the system. This is termed as a "system-change" approach to community work. Some of the specific tasks identified with this model are:

1. Collecting relevant facts about the specific deficiencies in the system, e.g. urban bias, disparity in access to services, lack of trained functionaries, inadequate delivery structure, and lack of funding, leading to inadequacy of material, equipment and space.
2. Sharing the findings with the community/communities.
3. Selecting an appropriate strategy to influence decision-making bodies or to focus attention on the issue.
4. Mobilising community and outside support to put the plan into action.
5. Developing an organisation in the community and linking it to similar organisations in other communities, and other voluntary organisations, which can help them in demanding change.

Structural Change Model

The "structural-change" model of community work is viewed as a small cell within the larger body of society. In other words, various tiny communities constitute the bigger whole i.e., a society or a nation-state. The major assumption in this model is that the manner in which the relationship between different sections of the population is structured, formally (constitutional frame work, law, state policies etc.) or informally (customs, public opinion), largely determines the social rights of individuals. This consequently determines the relationship of the State vis-a-vis the individual or a community and intra-community and inter community relations. For example, the way relationships in a society, are structured, provides for maximum autonomy and freedom to the individual. In such circumstances the 'community' also does not have any obligation towards its individual members in terms of need fulfillment. If all members agree to pool their resources to meet some of the problems and needs which they think can be met more adequately through a collective effort, they may do so.

The social structure in some societies is such that the state regulates individuals to control the production and consumption of economic resources, in order to ensure a certain level of need fulfillment for all, or for the more needy section of society. In the structural-change model, therefore, the worker analyses the link between the macro structuring of social relationships and the micro-reality of an unemployed youth, or the general lack of access of people to education or health facilities in the community, etc. The worker tries to mobilise public opinion to radically alter the macro-structure.

This is a far more complex task for an ordinary community worker. It calls for very different kinds of skills from those that an ordinary community worker generally possesses. It requires, above all, an understanding of human society in all its myriad dimensions: economic, political, social and cultural. Most community workers will not be able to explain the relationship between current wage rates and the type of economy, or the concept of state and social development, not to mention the process of formation and legitimisation of the state. Therefore, though a worker may have a vague notion about the possibility of a link between micro-and macro-realities, he is unable to give it a definite shape. He looks at a fragment of the total social reality, which needs change. He pursues a system-change model rather than a structural-change model. A structural change model, has to work out an alternative form of society, which will transform existing conditions at the micro level of community. It means the adoption of an alternative political ideology. The capacity of a nation-State to bring about changes in its own policies are restricted by factors or powers outside the nation-State. For example, in the case of many third-world countries, the influence wielded by the International Monetary Fund, World Bank and big powers is a well-known phenomenon. These organisations sometimes make it extremely difficult for a nation-State to take decisions in respect of various issues which vitally affect the distribution of goods and resources in society. At times, therefore, there is a need to influence the larger world order, to be able to effect changes in either a nation State or a whole group of nations suffering from the international policies.

The complex nature of the structural-change model, a lack of preparedness on the part of the worker, a feeling of lack of faith or relevance within the community, and the conflict such a model is likely to generate, make this by far the most difficult and rarely practiced model of community work. The specific tasks involved in the model are:

1. To develop an understanding of the link between micro-and-macro social realities.
2. To make a conscious decision about an alternative political ideology.
3. To share this understanding with the community, to enable it to make its own decisions.
4. To help the community identify a plan of action to pursue its goal by locating specific issues and consequent action to launch a long struggle.
5. To help the community sustain its interest, enthusiasm and capacity to meet the strain which is likely to arise out of an inevitable conflict with the existing power structure.

The structural-change model of community work many thus originate within a community. But its scope later widens to encompass an entire society or nation-state. Though it many start as community work, it translates itself into another method of social work social action. This may be another reason why community workers traditionally considered to outside the scope of their work.

A form of community work which was termed 'radical' was essentially viewed as an educational process, sharing general aims with other forms of education. This type of community work describes ways of helping people to understand the complexities of modern society, and the kinds of individual and collective action which are available to common people. Naturally, the achievement of any goal, including the attainment of any viable change, is not the real objective. What is important is that people gain in terms of greater self-confidence, organisational and social skills and an understanding of vital issues which concern them in society (Bal dock, 1974). This may help the worker to realise that in the structural-change model he may not succeed in achieving any goal. But what he accomplishes nevertheless is that he sows the seeds for social change to take place later, even though it may take years or decades.

It is also essential for a worker to keep in mind that his or her own understanding, and that of the community, is likely to undergo substantial change in the course of time. Many workers who may previously have believed in the Bolshevik traditions of socialism, may find democratic socialism more functional now, particularly since the collapse of the Soviet block. Similarly, a social worker understands or his change options may not be acceptable to the community, or the community may fail to arrive at a consensus on the issue. In all such situations, the worker is in a rather difficult position. He has the option to withdraw or to continue to support the community. Despite these differences. In Indian or Third-world contexts, the general condition of the masses makes it difficult for the community worker to practice the structural-change model, since there is a strong tendency among common people to remain passive observers.

Similarly, differences are fairly common among social workers operating within community over values, and the consequent prescriptions or strategies for change. In such instances, the personal influence or qualities of workers may act as a vital force. More dominant workers may prevail over their colleagues, or others with equal influence or commitment may decide to leave the project. A recent study, however, indicates that most workers have no commitment to any particular ideology, and lack clarity about any ideological frame work. This may be one reason why discrepancies can be found in the ideological orientation of organisations working in the community, and their programmes and practices (alponse, 1991). Yet, this may be what helps them to continue to work together, despite a lack of consensus. The community-work group identified three levels of community work:

1. The Grass-roots or neighborhood level, which basically refers to the community-development approach.
2. Local agency and inter-agency level community work aimed at establishing and sustaining a secondary group, such as a youth or a women's organisation to co-ordinate local groups with a regional or national organisation, or co-ordinate different agencies with common interests to meet a specific need such as women's education or child care.
3. Regional or national level community work, which is more planning-oriented rather than focused on finding a solution to any specific issue. This type of community work is research-oriented, and many may not even consider it as community work practice. It may be termed as an exercise in social planning, or the formulation of social policies.

However, the thinking on models does help to identify a type of community work which does not belong to the three models mentioned above. The scope of this type of community work is wider than the neighborhood model, where the primary concern seems to be to locate new services or to modify or improve existing ones within a 'community. Here the worker attempts to help the community think of ways in which it can meet a need by collaborating with other communities who may have similar problems or needs. This may be termed as the inter-community model of community work.

Community Organisation & Community Development

| Stage | Community Development or Task Orientation | Organisation or Process orientation |
|-------|---|---|
| i | Identification of the need by Worker/Agency community | Effort at development of a nucleus within the community |
| ii | Enlisting Peoples Participation | Encouraging people to think |
| iii | Resource Mobilisation by Worker/Agency | Need identification by community nucleus. |
| iv | Programme Planning by Worker/Agency | Resource Mobilisation Community/Agency/Worker |
| v | Programme Management | Programme Planning |
| vi | Evaluation by Worker/Agency | Programme Management |
| vii | Effort at developing a community structure | Evaluation by Community/Agency/Worker |

Kramer and Specht (1983) identify the former as task analytic or programmatic goals of community organisations, and the latter as 'process interaction' or relationship goals. Ross, on the other hand, identifies these as specific/general content objective and process objective, though both are trying to meet community needs. Kramer and Specht saw the goal of process-approach as enhancement and the strengthening of the civic, social and political competence of people. They further suggested that-

goals for action on needs frequently compete with and contradict one another. For example, the effort by a worker to integrate children in the slum with the school, and thereby enable residents to move beyond slum boundaries, contradicts the goal of strengthening the solidarity of slum people, and the overall development of the area. This leads us to suggest that before the worker initiates the process of working with a community, a stage of conscious analysis and debate leading to a clear ordering of goals or objectives will help universally, in perceiving subsequent stages of the process. As the chart indicates, the very sequence of stages undergoes a change, with goal-identification in terms of task or process. We would however discuss the process of working with the community both from a task - and process orientation.

Skills in community Organisation

I. Relationship skills

Listening
Feeling/sensing
Clarifying
Referring

Responding
Paraphrasing
Information giving

II. Problem solving skills

Problem identifying
Assessing/goal setting
Selecting and implementing intervention
Terminating

Data collecting
Planning/task defining
Evaluating

III. Political skills

Advocating
Providing evidence
Organising
Demonstrating

Taking legal action
Bargaining
Publicising

IV. Professional Skills

Recording,
Time-management,

Research,
Teamwork.

Rivera & Erlich (1995) has identified some skills along with values and attitudes, the community organiser is expected to possess;

1. Similar cultural and racial identification
2. Familiarity with customs and traditions, social networks, and values.
3. An intimate knowledge of language and subgroup slang.
4. Leadership styles and development.
5. An analytical framework for political and economic analysis.

6. Knowledge of past organising strategies, their strengths, and limitations.
7. Skills in concretisation and empowerment.
8. Skills in assessing community psychology.
9. Knowledge of organisational behaviour and decision-making.
10. Skills in evaluative and participatory research.
11. Skills in programme planning and development and administration management.
12. An awareness of self and personal strengths and limitations.

Apart from these for accomplishing the task in the Community Organisation process there is way of describing skills in community organisation could be as follows.

1. Skills in rapport building
2. Skills in identification of needs
3. Skills in Resource Mobilisation
4. Skills in Programme Planning
5. Skills in Programme Management
6. Skills in evaluation
7. Skills in Recording
8. Skills in encouraging community participation
9. Skills in working with the group
10. Skills in working with individuals
11. Skills in mobilising Community Action

Community organisation as a method of Lifelong Learning

Community organisation as a method is required in each and every situation in which efforts are directed towards meeting the community needs as also towards developing integration within the community.

It is concerned with improvement of social provisions for some disadvantaged population and enhancement of social relationships to develop greater capacity in some target population to deal with common problems.

As a method, it deals the problem of relationship. Its central objectives is to facilitate the actual process of social adjustment of individual people, through the development and constructive use of social relationships within which these human beings can find their own fulfillment and can discharged adequately their social responsibilities.

The philosophy of Lifelong learning preformed faith in human beings in their inherent and inviolable right to choose and to achieve their destiny through social

relations of their own making within the essential framework of a stable & progressive society.

In community organisation we have had the worker who knew the problem and the solution to the problem before he arrived in the community and who proceeded to organise the community around his conception of the need & the goal.

In this method we have used some of the insights and tools of social science to show where and how changes could be made with the least social dislocation & with the greatest support in the community.

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Development of the Right to Education In India

K. Devan

Right to education

The right to education is recognised as a human right by the United Nations and is understood to establish an entitlement to free, compulsory primary education for all children, an obligation to develop secondary education accessible to all children as well as equitable access to higher education, and a responsibility to provide basic education for individuals who have not completed primary education. In addition to these accesses to education provisions the right to education encompasses also the obligation to eliminate discrimination at all levels of the educational system, to set minimum standards and to improve quality.

The right to education is enshrined in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Article 14 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. The right to education has also been reaffirmed in the 1960 UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education, 1st Protocol of ECHR and the 1981 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

Education narrowly refers to formal institutional instructions. Generally international instruments use the term in this sense and the right to education, as protected by international human rights instruments, refers primarily to education in a narrow sense. The 1960 UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education defines education in Article 1 (2) as: "all types and levels of education, (including) access to education, the standard and quality of education, and the conditions under which it is given.

In a wider sense education may describe "all activities by which a human group transmits to its descendants a body of knowledge and skills and a moral code which enable the group to subsist". In this sense education refers to the transmission to a subsequent generation of those skills needed to perform tasks of daily living, and further passing on the social, cultural, spiritual and philosophical values of the particular community. The wider meaning of education has been recognised in Articles 1 (a) of UNESCO's 1974. Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. The article states that education implies: "the entire process

of social life by means of which individuals and social groups learn to develop consciously within, and for the benefit of, the national and international communities, the whole of their personal capabilities, attitudes, aptitudes and knowledge." The European Court of Human Rights has defined education in a narrow sense as "teaching or instructions... in particular to the transmission of knowledge and to intellectual development" and in a wider sense as "the whole process whereby, in any society, adults endeavour to transmit their beliefs, culture and other values to the young."

Fulfilling the Right to Education

The fulfillment of the right to education can be assessed using the 4 As framework, which asserts that for education to be a meaningful right it must be available, accessible, acceptable and adaptable. The 4 as framework was developed by the former UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Education, Katarina Tomasevski.

- Availability – education is free and government-funded and there is adequate infrastructure and trained teachers able to support education delivery.
- Accessibility – the system is non-discriminatory and accessible to all, and positive steps are taken include the most marginalised.
- Acceptability – the content of education is relevant, non-discriminatory and culturally appropriate, and of quality. The school itself is safe and teachers are professional.
- Adaptability – education can evolve with the changing needs of society and contribute to challenging inequalities, such as gender discrimination, and can be adapted locally to suit specific contexts.

Development of the Right to Education

In Europe, before the Enlightenment of the eighteenth and nineteenth century, education was the responsibility of parents and the church. With the French and American Revolution education was established also as a public function. It was thought that the state, by assuming a more active role in the sphere of education, could hold to make education available and accessible to all. Education had thus far been primarily available to the upper social classes and public education was perceived as a means of realising the egalitarian ideals underlining both revolutions.

The Nineteenth century also saw the development of socialist theory, which held that the primary task of the state was to ensure the economic and social well-being of the community through government intervention and regulation. Socialist theory recognised that individuals had claims to basic welfare services against the state and education was viewed as one of these welfare entitlements. This was in contrast to liberal theory at the time, which regarded non-state actors as the prime providers of constitution to recognise the right to education with a corresponding obligation of

the state to provide such education. The constitution guaranteed free and compulsory education at all levels, a system of state scholarships and vocational training in state enterprises. Subsequently the right to education featured strongly in the constitutions of socialist states. As a political goal, right to education was declared in F.D Roosevelt's 1944 speech on the Second Bill of Rights.

Implementation

International law does not protect the right to pre-primary education and international documents generally omit references to education at this level. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that "everybody" has the right to education, hence the right accurse to all individuals, although children are understood as the main beneficiaries.

The rights educations are separated into three levels:

- Primary (Elemental of Fundamental) Education. This shall be compulsory and free for any child regardless of their nationality, gender, place of birth, or any other discrimination. Upon ratifying the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights States must provide free primary education within two years.
- Secondary (or Elementary, Technical and Professional in the UDHR) Education must be generally available and accessible.
- Higher Education (at the University Level) should be provided according to capacity. That is, anyone who meets the necessary education standards should be able to go to university.

Both secondary and higher education shall be made accessible "by every appropriate means, and in particular by the progressive introduction of free education". The only country that has declared reservations about introducing free secondary or higher education is Japan.

Role of the State

Today education is considered an important public function and the state is seen as the chief provider of education through the allocation of substantial budgetary resources and regulating the provision of education. The Pre-eminent role of the state in fulfilling the right to education is enshrined in the 1966 International Covenant of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights. Traditionally, education has been the duty of a child's parents; however with the rise of systems of education, the role of parents has diminished. With regards to realising the right to education the World Declaration of Education for All, adopted at the 1990 World Conference on Education for All states that "partnership between government and non-governmental organisations, the private sector, local communities, religious groups, and families" are necessary.

Compulsory Education

The realisation of the right to education on a national level may be achieved through compulsory education, or more specifically free compulsory primary education, as stated in both the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

Right to Education Act, 2009

What is the act about?

- Every child between the ages of 6 to 14 years has the right to free and compulsory education. This is stated as per the 86th Constitution Amendment Act added Article 21A. The right to education act seeks to give effect to this amendment
- The government schools shall provide free education to all the children and the schools will be managed by school management committees (SMC). Private schools shall admit at least 25% of the children in their schools without any fee.
- The National Commission for Elementary Education shall be constituted to monitor all aspects of elementary education including quality.

Salient features of Right to Education Act, 2009

The salient features of the Right of Children for Free and Compulsory Education act are:

- Free and compulsory education to all children of India in the six to 14 age group;
- Non child shall be held back, expelled, or required to pass a board examination until completion of elementary education;
- A child above six year of age has not been admitted in any school or though admitted, could not complete his or her elementary education, then, he or she shall be admitted in a class appropriate to his or her age; provided that where a child is directly admitted in a class appropriate to his or her age, then, he or she shall, in order to be at par with others, have a right to receive special training, in such manner, and within such time-limits, as may be prescribed: Provided further that a child so admitted to elementary education shall be entitled to free education till completion of elementary education even after fourteen years.
- Proof of age for admission: For the Purposes of admission to elementary education. The age of child shall be determined on the basis of the birth certificate issued in accordance with the provisions of the Births, Deaths and Marriages Registration Act, 1856 or on the basis of such other document, as may be prescribed. No child shall be denied admission in a school for lack of age proof.
- A child who completes elementary education shall be awarded a certificate;
- Calls for a fixed student-teacher ratio;

- Will apply to all of India except Jammu and Kashmir;
- Provides for 25 percent reservation for economically disadvantaged communities in admission to Class one in all private schools;
- Mandates improvement in quality of education;
- School teachers will need adequate professional degree within five years or else will lose job;
- School infrastructure (where there is problem) to be improved in three years, else recognition cancelled;
- Financial burden will be shared between state and central government.

Why is the act important?

The Act is important because it is the first step in the direction of the government's active role in ensuring implementation of the Constitutional Amendment. And as important, the Bill:

- Legislates provision of free and compulsory elementary and secondary education
- Provides for a school in every neighborhood
- Provides for a School Monitoring Committee – elected representatives of the community to ensure proper functioning
- Mandates that no child in the age group 6-14 shall be employed

All this are right steps to lay the foundation for the development of a common public school system that can provide quality education to all the children, thus preventing exclusion of socially and economically disadvantaged population.

Why 6-14 age group is Chosen?

The bill focuses on providing primary to high school education compulsorily to all children and also the education given in this age group would be the ground work for their future.

Conclusion

Free and compulsory elementary education for all children in the age group of 6-14 has at long last become a legal reality with the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 (RTE), being made enforceable from April, 2010. What could have been easily done 60 years ago with massive support from a newly liberated nation and a brand new Constitution has been enacted with much fanfare but little preparation. For implementation, the RTE depends predominantly on the States, many of which are not in a comfortable position, financially and administratively. Anyway, better late than never. The Act is expected immediately to benefit about 9-2 million children in the age group of 6-14 who have never been to school or have dropped out for various reasons.

The Statement of objects and reasons of the Act explains: "The crucial role of universal elementary education for strengthening the social fabric of democracy through provision of equal opportunities to all has been accepted since inception of our Republic. The Directive Principles of State Policy enumerated in our Constitution has laid down that the State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of 14 years. Over the years there has been significant spatial and numerical expansion of elementary schools in the country, yet the goal of universal elementary education continues to elude us. The number of children, particularly children from disadvantage groups and weaker sections, who drop out of school before completing elementary education, remains very large. Moreover, the quality of learning achievement is not always entirely satisfactory even in the case of children, who complete elementary education". Finally they need school of joy, not hate.

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Policies Governing Adult and Continuing Education in Five Year Plans - An Overview

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Introduction

The concept of adult education has been undergoing several but significant changes over the years. It continues to evolve as new groups of people in need are identified, new educational objectives are discovered, new methods and techniques of delivery of services become available.

There were no innovative developments in the field of Indian adult education during the 19th century. The main thrust of adult education revolved around basic literacy. Up to the end of World War I, there had been very little progress in the sphere of adult education in India, which was confined to night schools in metropolitan cities. The interest and involvement of eminent Indian leaders in literacy, however, drew the attention of masses towards the gravity of the problem. During the early decades of twentieth century the colonial rulers adopted the policy of promoting adult education as a non-Governmental activity and focused on elementary education as an effective means of achieving literacy. Such a policy was not very conducive for the emergence of adult education as a distinct field of activity. However, certain international developments during 1920s & 1930s aided the growth of adult education in India.

There was a considerable degree of awareness of the importance of adult education in the pre-independence period though efforts at adult education during this period were modest. This led to the gradual emergence of the view at the policy level that the state must shoulder the primary responsibility in this regard. The strategy followed immediately after Independence and in successive Five-Year Plans to provide education to the masses made a distinction between Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE) and Adult Education.

First Five Year Plan (1951 to 1956)

Eradication of illiteracy has been one of the major national concerns of the Government of India since independence. During the first Five Year Plan, the programme of Social Education, inclusive of literacy, was introduced as part of the Community Development Programme (1952). A new implementation machinery

comprising male and female Social Education Organisers at grass-roots level and a Chief Social Education organiser at the project level was created. A comprehensive training support was provided through the establishment of Social Education Organisers' Training Centres (SEOTCs). Model community centres, rural libraries, Janata Colleges, youth clubs, mahila mandals and folk schools were encouraged.

Second Five Year Plan (1956 to 1961)

The Government of India established a Council for Rural Higher Education for promoting the provision of graduate-level manpower through the scheme of Rural Institutes. These gave fillip to rural development including literacy programmes. A Standing Committee of the Central Advisory Board of Education (CABE) on Social Education was constituted in 1956. A National Fundamental Education Centre was started to provide high-level training facilities and undertake researches related to adult education. Efforts of varied types were made by the States for the spread of literacy. Among these, the Gram Shikshan Mohim initiated in Satara District of Maharashtra in 1959 was one of the successful mass campaigns. It achieved a good deal of success but suffered from the lack of follow-up due to financial constraints and so of its good work was lost as a consequence.

In spite of these varied initiatives the programme of adult literacy did not take much headway. The Community Development Programme got weakened and was soon abandoned. It was assumed that adult literacy would automatically become universal as soon as the universal and compulsory elementary education became a reality. The literacy rate in India, therefore, increased only from 18.37 per cent in 1951 to 24.02 per cent in 1961.

Third Five Year Plan (1961 to 1966)

As sufficient progress was not achieved in promoting adult literacy, the problem was studied afresh with a view to working out means for the rapid expansion of adult literacy. Programmes of the Ministry of Education provided for further development of the National Fundamental Education Centre as a part of the National Institute of Education, production of literature for neo-literates, assistance for voluntary organisations in the field of social education and expansion of library facilities. The main provisions for social education were made under the community development programme.

The Education Commission had observed that "literacy if it is to be worthwhile, must be functional". The launching of the inter-ministerial project of Farmers' Training and Functional Literacy in 1967-68 aimed at popularisation of high yielding varieties of seeds through adult education was a step in this direction. The programme covered 144 districts where nearly 8640 classes were organised for about 2.6 lakh farmer-adults by 1977-78. But in this programme, the clientele remained selective and

several largely illiterate groups viz. artisans, landless labour, SCs, STs, and women got neglected.

Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-1974)

Adult education, centering largely on functional literacy, was conceived in two stages. The first stage was to be in the form of a mass movement, largely dependent on mobilisation of local resources, both personnel and financial. Students and teachers were to be an important asset in this movement, wherein popular leadership would be provided by voluntary organisations and the panchayats. The second stage was to include a regular and systematic education of those who are identified at the first stage as being capable with suitable follow-up. The entire programme should be financed jointly by the State and the local community. Programmes of adult education were to be developed in industrial and commercial undertakings, public and private, and by voluntary organisations. They should, also form an important part of the programme of national or social service for students. All Departments of Government should participate in the programme in a suitable manner, the technical guidance being provided by the Education Department. A State Board of Adult Education was to be set up to coordinate these different programmes.

Fifth Five Year Plan (1974 to 1979)

The Central Advisory Board of Education at its meetings held in 1974 and 1975 lent strong support to non-formal education programmes for adults with emphasis on functionality dimension. The scheme of Functional Literacy for Adult Women (FLAW) started in 1975-76 aimed at enabling illiterate adult women to acquire functional skills along with literacy to promote better awareness of health, hygiene, and child care.

Till date overriding priority was given to primary education on the assumption that the expansion of primary education would automatically take care of problems of illiteracy. It was only in 1977-78 that the government decided to accord due weightage to adult education along with the programme of Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE), and the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) was launched on 2 October, 1978. For the first time, Adult Education was put on the educational agenda of the nation and thereby made central to the development approach that was pursued. However, the NAEP was not very successful because it was traditional, honorarium-based, hierarchical and government-funded and controlled.

Sixth Five Year Plan (1980 to 1985)

This plan emphasised minimum essential education to all adults, irrespective of their age, sex and residence. This was to be achieved by flexibility, inter-sectoral cooperation and inter-agency coordination. These efforts were to be supported by

post-literacy, continuing education through a network of rural libraries as well as instructional programs conducted through mass communication media.

Non-Formal Education for adults, particularly in the productive age-group 15-35 years, was to receive priority in the sixth plan, in view of its potential for immediate impact in raising the level of productivity in the economy.

The programme was designed giving priority to a lot of weaker sections like women, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and agricultural laborers as well as slum dwellers.

Seventh Five Year Plan (1985 to 1990)

Eradication of adult illiteracy and the development of a programme of continuing adult education was a major thrust in the seventh plan. During this plan period, the Planning Commission's objective was to address the needs of 90 million people, ages 15-35, in the Adult Education Program. The network of libraries was to play a role in the development of literature for neoliterates. Library systems were to be strengthened with specific attention given to improvement of facilities at the national-level institutions. The strategy to achieve the goal was through a mass movement involving social institutions, voluntary organisations, students, teachers, employers and the community.

Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-1997)

Universalisation of elementary education, eradication of illiteracy in the 15-35-year age group, and strengthening of vocational education in relation to emerging needs in urban and rural settings were the major thrusts of the plan. These goals were to be achieved by using formal, non-formal, and open channels of learning. The plan stated that in those states with an advanced library system, rural libraries should become the focal points for post-literacy and continuing education programs.

Book promotion was also emphasised in this plan, to be promoted by the organisation of a National Center for Children's Literature, which should produce 3,000 titles annually. Important books were to be translated into the various Indian languages, and books for neoliterates published. Publishers and voluntary agencies were to be given assistance, and the school library program, undertaken as part of the "Operation Blackboard" scheme of the National Policy on Education - 1986, was to continue.

Ninth Five Year (1997 to 2002)

The emphasis during the Ninth Plan was on restoring the lost momentum of the adult education programme and making it more effective by clarifying the administrative

and financing roles of the Centre, the states, Zilla Saksharata Samities (ZSS), Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs), other local bodies and non-government organisations (NGOs). Therefore, the focus was on decentralised and disaggregated planning and implementation of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education programmes. The proposed measures to do this were devolution of power from the National Literacy Mission Authority (NLMA) to the State Literacy Mission Authority (SLMA) for financial sanction to projects under the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) and Post Literacy Campaign (PLC) and empowerment of PRIs and urban local bodies to achieve universal literacy. Other steps included increasing the range and depth of NGOs involvement in literacy campaigns; meeting the special needs of Scheduled Castes/Scheduled Tribes (SCs/STs) and reducing rural-urban and male-female disparities in literacy through the campaign mode.

The National Literacy Mission (NLM) programme was revamped in 1999 to remove some lacunae. While increasing the scope of the programme, the parameters and norms of financial assistance of schemes under NLM were substantially enhanced.

The NLM had covered 96.64 million persons under various adult literacy schemes up to December 2001. Out of 593 districts in the country, 160 districts were covered under TLC, 264 under PLC (including 30 under the Rural Functional Literacy Programme) and 152 under the Continuing Education Programme. NLM was then engaged in the task of imparting functional literacy to persons in the 15-35 age group and had set a medium-term goal for itself to achieve a sustainable threshold literacy level of 75 per cent by 2005.

Literary Scenario as per 2001 census

The literacy rate in the country had increased from 18.33% in 1951 to 65.38% in 2001. Thus in five decades, the literacy % had grown by 47.05% or by an average of 9.41%. According to 2001 census, male literacy was 75.85% and female literacy was 54.16%.

Tenth Five Year Plan (2002 to 2007)

In the field of adult education, the National Literacy Mission was in place with clear focus and medium-term goals. The Tenth Plan targets for adult education were:

- To achieve full literacy, i.e., a sustainable threshold level of 75 per cent by 2005.
- To cover all left-over districts by 2003-2004.
- To remove residual illiteracy in the existing districts by 2004-05.
- To complete Post Literacy Campaign in all districts.
- To launch Continuing Education Programmes in 100 districts by the end of the Plan period.

Illiteracy is largely a problem of social groups among whom literacy rates are low and who also suffer from other handicaps which make it difficult for them to participate in the adult education programme. It is, therefore, most important to ensure greater participation of these groups in future adult education programmes. This requires a focused attention to their needs and problems and to the adoption of specific measures to suit their requirements. The focus in the Tenth Plan was to shift to residual illiteracy and cater to difficult segments of the population. This means that all the left-over districts and the left-over harder-to reach groups were to be targeted specifically.

THE PATH AHEAD - A firm view needs to be taken on the content and the reach of the Adult Literacy programme. Through the schemes of continuing education and distance education it has to be ensured that all the neo-literates do not lapse into illiteracy. Equally important will be the need to enhance the opportunities for their vocational training to enable them to earn a living after they have achieved literacy.

Eleventh Five year Plan (2007 to 2012)

The 11th Plan outlay for Adult Education, fixed at 1.5 billion dollars, represents a very significant enhancement over the combined outlays of 715 million dollars for the 8th, 9th and 10th Plan periods. India's 11th Five Year Plan incorporates the notion of lifelong education. This inclusion has facilitated a very significant reassessment of the programme: from the earlier sequential and fragmented approach of basic literacy The National Literacy Mission is developing a series of instruments/ models to facilitate this process.

There are areas in the country – educationally deprived and isolated – where volunteers may not be available within the village for teaching, because the overall levels of education within that village or area may be very low. These areas would be provided specially trained instructors, from outside the community. The instructors will be especially chosen for their sensitivity to issues of gender and caste equality, and their commitment to constitutional values of democracy and secularism. In India, a second chance would be provided to young adults and adolescents who lost the opportunity for formal schooling. It has been observed that wherever positive stimulation has been provided, adolescents have, undoubtedly, done us proud.

The following are to be ensured in the new approach to Continuing and Lifelong Education as contemplated in the 11th Five year Plan:

- That literacy is combined with skills for the enhancement of livelihood security and purchasing power provided for rural people under India's new legislation, the National Rural Employment Guarantee Act,
- That literacy is synergised with the determinants of good health, namely nutrition,

sanitation, hygiene and safe drinking water under the National Rural Health Mission,

- That literacy is incorporated with political empowerment, particularly of women elected to local self governments,
- That literacy reinforces and augments India's nation-wide campaign for Right to Information and through that process leads to an informed citizenry, crucial to any democracy.
- And that literacy is intrinsically linked with universalisation of elementary education of equitable quality, so that the fresh flow of illiteracy is arrested.

Conclusion

Through the instrument of literacy and education for all, let us work together to ensure that the societies remain enriched by the best traditions of their own heritage and yet remain open to the light of science and progressive thought and that our societies are freed from poverty, from prejudice, from oppression, discrimination, inequality and violence.

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Computer Literacy and Senior Citizens

Avani Maniar
Mitali Shah

Computers are the future whether we like it or not. Some people dislike computers, because of the complications it takes to understand the basics. Computers are not exactly the easiest tools to work with, but they are the most rewarding, and they are the future. Computers find a wide variety of applications in different spheres of life. With an increase in their widespread use and their ever-increasing popularity, computer education has become the need of the day.

Importance of computers for Senior Citizens

Computers can present unique opportunities for older adults to socialise and establish social networks that can help alleviate loneliness and alienation. For senior citizens with mobility problems or senior citizens that live geographically far away from their family members, the computer-based communication such as e-mail or instant messaging, can provide needed "virtual" social support from their family members. What should not be forgotten is that online participation of senior citizens is not only beneficiary to these people, but also to the society. Senior citizens have a vast amount of knowledge and experience in life that they can share by using this technology, by being involved in for example online communities.

Computers and the Internet can become a major part of the lives of the elderly. Computer as a technology is emerging very fast. Learning new computer skills can enhance interest of elderly towards literacy. When we learn something new on the computer the result is a sense of accomplishment and satisfaction that invariably creates a feeling of well-being. The human mind can sense its own growth, and feels emboldened when that growth occurs on a regular basis. Computers have the potential to become a powerful tool in the lives of seniors in need.

Computer as an information technology is emerging very fast. The same enjoyable pleasures that occur when any of us master a new computer skill can have therapeutic value to both young and old. The field of technology use with the old age people has barely begun to be explored. Within a few years there is bound to evolve several subdivisions within the larger field of computer use and the senior citizens.

Computer could become a key instrument in alleviating many of the frailties of old age. The Senior citizens, who would learn computer skills, may show slight elevations in positive attitude toward life and more independent to solve their own problems. It suggests that the learning of computer could bring about revolution in making the lives of elderly more comfortable and more valuable. Online banking and investing give them control of their saving.

Online shopping makes it easier than ever to spend their money, too. Because of the growth of computer technologies, we now live in an information society—where information is considered to be an extremely valuable commodity. Those who control important information, or who simply know how to access and use it, are key players in the information-based economy.

Other benefits are as follows:

- Communicating with their children and grand children.
- Reaching out to their past contacts.
- Using the Internet for entertainment.
- Online railway/air ticket booking.
- Surfing for Senior citizens websites.
- Solving their health related problems online.
- Gaining knowledge in the area of their interest.
- Banking and shopping online.
- Storing important documents.

Looking to the various benefits of learning computer and internet it was decided to undertake an action project on "Promoting computer literacy course with Jan Shikshan Sansthan amongst senior citizens of Vadodara city."

Objectives of the Project

To develop understanding regarding basic computer knowledge among selected senior citizens of Vadodara city.

To develop skills in utilisation of computer in daily life among selected senior citizens of Vadodara city.

To study the reactions of the senior citizens regarding the basic computer literacy course implemented for them.

Implementation of the Project

In order to promote computer literacy for senior citizens it was important to identify an organisation that is involved in the field of computer literacy. "As people grow older, their abilities change; they need more help and attention for learning." (Heller et al., 2000)

The following pre-requisites were felt necessary to promote computer literacy among senior citizens.

- Any centre with good infrastructure facilities like premises place, furniture, light, ventilation, computer lab etcetera was required for smooth running of the project.
- An efficient computer teaching faculty was required under the project, to work as instructor to monitor the project closely.
- Senior citizens must be given some incentive in terms of concession on fees for learning computer as most needed technology in later years of their life.
- Sufficient and suitable time should be provided by organisations for the computer literacy programme.
- Some kind of feasibility should be allowed by the organisation in terms of conducting examination, distribution of certificates, good faculty members and some learning material.

Considering these pre-requisites for the project, it was decided to seek collaboration with the Jan Shikshan Sansthan as it fulfilled all the requirements. The director of the Jan Shikshan Sansthan agreed readily to provide all the facilities required for the project.

A common understanding of the role of the project worker and Jan Shikshan Sansthan was worked out and clarified between the two, as follows:

Role of Project Worker

- Act as a liaison person.
- Promotion of course through publicity.
- Act as a tutor for three days in a week – Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday.
- Distribution of Booklet as reference material for use of Senior Citizens.

Role of Jan Shikshan Sansthan

Fulfillment of all requirements mentioned in the project proposal like facilities at the computer centre with optimum infrastructure, fee concession, conduct of achievement tests and issue of certificates to the participants.

Support and help throughout the project in terms of:

- Extra practice for the senior citizens on computers.
- Time adjustment in case of emergency.
- Hands-on in the computers (Practical training) on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays.

The content was adopted from the manual of Jan Shikshan Sansthan. "Office Automation Course" was decided as a basic computer literacy course for senior citizens. The duration of course was 2 months, daily 1 hour except Sunday.

The programs/components of the content were validated by the experts in the field of computer literacy. Content was suitable in terms of ability of senior citizens to learn new things, Usage and advantages of computer in daily lives. The major programs / components offered under this course were following:

- Introduction to Computer
- Typing
- Microsoft Word
- Microsoft Excel
- Microsoft PowerPoint
- Internet Explorer

Selection of Strategies for Teaching Senior Citizens

It has been proven in various studies that certain biological and physical changes take place as person ages. Senior citizens required time to changing and adapting to new technologies. In order to teach new skill, like computer technology, one must adopt some strategies and teach accordingly. (Worcester, 1990)

Senior citizens often learn differently than younger students, and require more individualised attention. So the strategies for teaching senior citizens also differ from any other group. The following strategies were decided under the project.

Show respect and patience

Repetition of instructions

Demonstration on how to use specific programs

Motivation at each level

Appreciation

Many seniors believe that they cannot learn new things at their age, and view the computer as intimidating. By encouraging them and talking to them about their fears can help them to understand that they can also learn this new technology. Repetition is very essential part for teaching senior citizens.

Demonstration for using specific programs, such as Microsoft Word and Excel etcetera should provide clear understanding. At this age senior citizens need more care, support and motivation at each level to fight with the fears in their mind. So these strategies were selected by the project worker for teaching senior citizens a basic computer literacy course.

Enrollment of Senior Citizens for the Course

Enrollment of senior citizens was based on "first come first serve" basis. The interested senior citizens who enquired earlier for the course were around sixty five. Out of these, forty senior citizens confirmed their admissions for the course. Information related to age and education was required for enrolment. Two passport size photographs were given by senior citizens for the fulfillment of enrolment formalities as Rs.700/- fees were paid by them to undergo for the computer literacy.

Training Session for Faculties in Teaching Computer to Senior Citizens

The centre has two faculties appointed for the purpose of helping the project worker in training Senior Citizens. Both the faculties were experts in the field. Both were highly qualified with the Degree of Computer Application. They had two years experience in the field of computer literacy. They taught computer to almost all age-groups of people except the old age/ senior citizens. So initially they were afraid to teach senior citizens in the absence of the project worker. Hence, a session was held between the faculties and the project worker to take care of their doubts and make them to realise that the work they do will have value for Senior Citizens. At the end of the session the fear about teaching seniors was removed from the minds of the faculties. The project worker provided information to the faculty members for teaching seniors with the different kind of methodology. It was possible for the project worker to create awareness among senior citizens with regards to characteristics, attitudes, learning behavior required on the part of Senior Citizens as learners. Thus, knowledge supported with practical experience proves quite useful in the project and success for final outcome.

Evaluation of Senior Citizens through Achievement Test

After the completion of the course, **Achievement Test** was held at the center for evaluating the learning ability of senior citizens. The examination was categorised in two parts according to the code of conduct of an organisation, which are as follows:

1. Theory
2. Practical
3. Oral

The theory test was conducted with the weight-age of 100 marks and practical exam respectively. Oral test was for 50 marks, So the total marks were 250. The Senior citizens were given grades according to their performance in achievement test. Fifteen percent of the senior citizens obtained OS grade. Half of the Senior Citizens obtained A Grade. Where as little less than thirty percent (25%) of the Senior Citizen obtained B Grade. And only ten percent of the Senior Citizens obtained C Grade.

Problems faced in conducting the project

Project worker faced problems in identification of the organisation ready to provide necessary facilities and provisions for the project.

It was difficult to convince the senior citizens for joining the basic computer literacy course.

Initially it was difficult for the project worker to reach senior citizens because of their ego in learning from younger tutor.

Initially it was difficult for the project worker to develop skills in senior citizens regarding operating mouse.

Conclusion and suggestions

Computer literacy provides an opportunity to the senior citizens to gain competence to live with the digital world. Through the project senior citizens got sensitised towards the computer literacy. Seeing the enthusiasm of senior citizens it was felt that other computer courses like Data entry operator, Designing, Tally also should be taken up for the senior citizens.

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Assessing Drinking Water Safety and Identifying the Gaps - an Epidemiological Study in a Slum Area near Chandigarh

Nair Balakrishan
Goel Naveen
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Introduction

Clean drinking water, one of the basic requirements of a healthy human population has now become a public health challenge, threatening the sustainability of social and economic development across the world. Improper sanitation, pollution and lack of awareness are the main reason of water contamination in developing countries. It has been observed that Asia's major rivers have faecal coliform counts 50 times higher than the guidelines set by WHO¹. Educating people about point of use water purification methods (right before intake) like sedimentation, rapid sand filtration etc, followed by disinfection through methods like boiling, pasteurisation, ultraviolet light, and reverse osmosis can help in substantial improvement of the health of population. Social marketing, community mobilisation, motivational interviewing, communication and education will help in increasing the awareness of drinking water safety, which require an action oriented approach. Therefore, this study was planned with the objectives of assessing the awareness level with respect to the safety of drinking water and its association with the water handling practices and also, providing intervention for purification.

Background

Punjab is one of the northern states of India. Its drinking water sources include 3148 piped water supply schemes provided by the Department of Water Supply and Sanitation (DWSS) and private hand pumps in individual households. About 80% schemes are tube well based and remaining 20% schemes are canal based. Safe water supply is available only in 74 % of the 14,605 total habitations of Punjab². Water supply and sanitation board are responsible for executing various water supplies and sewerage works through the local bodies with specific objectives of investigating and survey of the water requirements and provision of safe drinking water and sewerage facilities. Still, 95% of Punjab's rural population lacks sanitation facilities and this condition contributes to the contamination of runoff water and underground water during the rainy season which causes chronic diarrhea and other water borne diseases which are particularly harmful to the health of infants.²

India is the second most populous country with an alarming figure of 1.21 billion

and Punjab resides 2.29 percent of it³. The literacy rate of Punjab is 76.7 percent and has more literate males than females³. One fourth of the Punjab's urban population lives in slums.⁴ One such urban slum is Janta colony, situated behind PGIMER, Chandigarh. The residents of this slum face conditions which might seem to be deplorable. Most dwellings consist of one room (less than 12sq ft) and have open sewers and drains running along the streets where children play. Pigs, sifting through garbage and sewage, are reared for income. It seems that the high instances of morbidity found here can be attributed to preventable diseases caused by unsafe drinking water such as diarrhea, amebiasis, worm infestation, and the more serious diseases of cholera, typhoid, and hepatitis.

Aim

This study aims at assessing the level of awareness and need of the community with respect to drinking water safety and identifying the gaps so as to educate the residents and provide them with the interventions of point of use water purification.

Objectives

1. To assess the awareness level of the community with respect to importance of safe drinking water.
2. To identify the gaps so as to educate the residents and provide them with the interventions to use different methods of water purification.
3. To generate awareness about the link between safe water and good health.
4. To make the programme as community participatory programme.
5. To assess impact of the programme both from qualitative and quantitative aspects over a period of one year.

Study Setting

The study was carried out in the coolest month of January 2010, in Janta Colony, an urban slum located in the northwestern part of Chandigarh, the capital of Punjab. The area was chosen as a field area for a post graduate dissertation of the Center for Public Health, IEAST, Panjab University, and Chandigarh where the study was conceived. The area has nine equal blocks with an estimated population of 12,500 living in 2697 households (as reported by a local NGO – DIR India).

Study Subjects

People in the age group of 18-40, residing in Janta Colony, were eligible to participate in this study. Women were particularly focused, due to their availability during the interventions and also because they were the individuals involved in handling drinking water.

Sample Size

All the households in the nine blocks of Janta Colony formed the universe of the study. A multistage sampling design was adopted. Three blocks were selected through lottery method and 90 households (30 percent) from each block were included through systematic random sampling which came to 270 in toto. These households have numbers assigned by the administration which formed the baseline for systematic selection procedures. It was assumed that there would be at least one woman in the age group of 18-40 years in each household. If more than one female of the specified age was there in any household, only one was taken by random selection and if found unavailable then the man dealing with the household was included. Study was initiated in mid January 2010 while the protocol development commenced in October 2009 with a cross sectional community based study design. A pilot study was also conducted on 30 households.

A total of 270 households were randomly selected and later contacted to determine their willingness to participate in the study. As a thumb rule, in case of denials, the next household was chosen. Interviews were conducted by the chief investigator assisted by three local members from the community. The purpose of study was explained and written informed consent was received by the individual prior to participation.

Interventions

The intervention part included the following phases:

The first phase involved educating the residents about the importance of water purification and making them aware of various point-of-use purification methods. In this part, one household was selected and the PowerPoint presentation on importance of safe drinking water and different purification methods was delivered, twice a week. People from the neighborhood whether part of the study or not were invited to attend the seminar and a focus group discussion was undertaken afterwards. The group was limited to not more than 25 and the rest were called for the next session.

The second phase involved providing the household with one of the three methods of point-of-use water purification. These methods were the solar disinfection, chemical treatment with sodium hypochlorite candle filtration. Solar disinfection consists of exposing glass bottles filled with water to bright sunlight in an undisturbed area (e.g.: rooftop) for a minimum of 6 hours. The chemical treatment required a small amount of sodium hypochlorite (4-6 drops) for a large amount (20 L) of water while candle filtration method uses a filter which removes and kills pathogens and chemicals by passing water through layers of activated charcoal and colloidal silver. Our design for the filtration system consists of the candle filter in a water-holding bucket on top of a dispensing container with a tap. In the three selected blocks, the pre selected

270 households were assigned the above said interventions. Each of the interventions were provided, giving a distribution of 30 houses to solar, 30 to chemical, and 30 to candle filtration technique per 90 households in a block. Each participating family was required to contribute towards this project, as it is believed that people are more willing to continue a project in which they have invested. The share paid by each household varied based on the method allotted to the household. Solar will cost each family Rs. 50, chemical will cost Rs. 50 and filter will cost Rs. 100. The households will be paying roughly two-thirds of the costs.

Ethical Considerations

This study was undertaken as a part of a post graduate dissertation under Center for Public Health, IEAST, Panjab University, and Chandigarh. Each subject signed an approved informed consent form prior to entering the study. A registered NGO named DIR-India was already working in this area and they agreed for undertaking this activity as one of their upliftment projects. They have also incorporated this study in their annual reports.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data was collected from individual study participants at their homes using a pre-designed semi-structured Performa containing the items of socio-demographic data; water source, storage and handling data and disease pattern. Household water storage samples were collected randomly and samples from all the main reservoirs were also collected for physiochemical and biological testing under APHA guidelines by Eureka Forbes Ltd. Data was entered and analysed in Microsoft Excel 2010 and SPSS version 12 for windows.

Results

There were 267 respondents found willing to participate in the study which accounts to a response rate of 98.8 percent. Total number of females were 231 (86.4 percent) with their mean age group 28.3 years while that of males was 29.5 years. Half of the females had never gone to school while one third of the total had a chance to study above primary level. More than half of the families were living in a one room house (*KHOLI* or *JHUGGIE*. Hindu Community (96.3 percent) dominated the sample size following Muslims and Sikhs with nearly two third falling in the lower socioeconomic group as per Kuppusamy Scale. The mean no. of members per family was 4.67 with an average per capita income of a household ranging from 1000 – 5000 rupees per month. Most of the females were homemakers.

Two-third of the total population had their own taps while the rest shared their taps with others for drinking water. Commonly used method of storage was plastic buckets used by 45 percent of the population (most of the illiterates) and all of them

used a lid to protect the water from getting contaminated. Water handling methods included dipping a tumbler into the storage container to draw water or using cup with long handles. Some of them also drew water by immersing the glass held in their hand. Both the groups i.e. educated and uneducated cleaned the storage containers at least once in a month (84.3 percent). Soap and water were the most widespread method of cleaning (62.5 percent) followed by detergent (23.2 percent). Few of them preferred using ash/soil with dry grass for cleaning (11.8 percent).

The prevalent purification methods were candle filters, cloth filters, alum/chlorine tablets and boiling out of which boiling was the most common one with a total percentage of more than 80 and the illiterate percentage of 26.7. Most of the literates practiced purification in rainy season and during epidemics which was less in the other category. Boiling was the most common method of purification used by most of the educated respondents (36.4 percent). Even though uneducated, 81 percent practiced carrying water bottles when they were away from home.

More than one fourth of the respondents were having an opinion that the water supplied to them was not good for drinking but still can be used for washing food items and dishes. Half of the population did not consider purification as an important affair and had never practiced purification ever. Majority of the respondents (259 out of 267 respondents) knew the importance of safe water and of half considered unsafe water as the cause of illness. Half of the uneducated population was not aware of this fact. When their history of illness was undertaken, it was found that around 19 adults and 18 children had suffered with diarrhea in the last six months and there were incidents of worm infestation in 22 members of different households which is again a water related condition.

Discussion

Education is a necessary means not only to increase awareness but also to understand the implication of certain actions and the necessity of implementing certain practices into our daily routine which would help make lives better. Majority of the respondents fell in the age group of 21 – 30, an effective category for health education, making it easier to spread awareness regarding water purification, its necessity and importance. These age groups being on the crux of adulthood adapt and learn newer practices along with easier understanding of rights and wrong. Very few respondents came within the age group of 50 and above, but have been given maximum importance because as per the Indian social system elders play an important role as mentors, counselors and advisors to the youngsters in society and will therefore help to improve the drinking water quality and storage practices among the residents of Janta Colony. Most of the females were housewives with more than half only having primary schooling or no education at all. The right method of water storage has an important role in water safety. Wider the mouth of the storage container, more are the chances of contamination. Out of the total number of children affected by

diarrhea in the past 3 – 6 months, 40 percent were found to use bucket as a storage container. Bottles were less commonly used. Most of the bucket users practiced cup in hand method to draw water out of the container. This practice allowed easy contamination of water as children dipped their hands in it for both consumption or just for fun. This increases the chances of faecal contamination.

We know that literacy has a direct relationship with the hygiene practices but here in Janta Colony in spite of the major population being illiterate, most of them cleaned the storage container, though not very frequently. Soap and detergent were the two most preferred ways of cleaning. For Better health of the population, improvement in storage behavior and compliance of good cleaning practices need to be ensured through health education and awareness.

Water purification was found mandatory in this scenario as chances of contamination were high⁵. According to the data collected, half of the children affected by diarrhea fell into the category of non-purifiers signifying the need to incorporate behavioral change in the community while the other affected half in the purifying category emphasised that the purification methods adopted by them were not effective enough to clear out bacterial contamination.

Water intake ranges differently in different seasons. One needs more drinking water in summer as compared to other seasons which has a direct relation with purification behavior⁶. Slum residents are supplied with chlorine tablets during rainy seasons and in epidemics. Intake of water along with the chances of its contamination in certain seasons should not be the reason of purification rather the process of purification should be independent and practiced always. Seasonal variations in quality of drinking water may be seen especially when the water is drawn from natural sources. Children under 5 years of age whose families were not using chlorinated water had twice the risk of diarrhea. The use of chlorinated water was associated with a fifty percent reduction in diarrhea cases. These results indicated that the chlorination of water can be successfully carried out locally in rural areas to improve the health of the population.

Mobilisation Activities

The trainings and interventions proved helpful. 15 to 20 seminars were conducted with the help of power point presentations which received a very good response rate. People of the nearby areas also came to attend it. Tools like image of a child drinking dirty water, hospitalised patients etc were used for sensitisation and a focus group discussion was conducted at the end of the session.

The administration of point-of-use water purification method in the second phase showed a different response. The solar disinfection method proved to be a total failure because of the irregular roof tops, leaking bottle caps, glass bottles breaking

easily and water getting warmer in the sun. The chemical treatment with sodium hypochlorite and candle filtration were a success with more supporters to candle filtration method, as it looks like an asset to the households and doesn't produced an alkaline taste which was witnessed in case of chemical treatment. Each participating family contributed the prescribed amount towards this project. It was found on re-evaluation that the usage rate after six months was significantly good.

Conclusion

Since it is possible to get ill from drinking unsafe water and the need for purification is high this analysis was needed to know the percentage of people involved in water purification practices and to understand that the attitude of people pertaining to purification of water, its storage and maintenance. Half of the respondents agreed to the fact or statement that drinking water can cause illness, with an equal percentage disagreeing it. Two-thirds never thought that water purification was important. This can mainly be due to their belief that the Municipal Corporation provides good water which does not require any more purification which is a myth. Therefore, there is a strong need for good purification practice along with advocating and mobilising of the community to practice point-of-use purification methods through health education workshops and trainings setups. So, we it can be concluded that education is the key to making any good decision.

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The average length of a manuscript should normally be between 1500 and 2500 words; in exceptional cases, longer articles can also be accepted. Mimeographed, zeroxed or carbon copies of manuscripts will not be accepted. Manuscript should be typed in double space, on one side, with a 2" margin on A4 size paper. Footnotes and references should come at the end and not on every page. Authors are requested to submit one soft copy along with the CD (MS Word). Article's can be sent by E-mail at iaeaindia@yahoo.com, iaeadelhi@gmail.com

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Ever since the inception of Indian Adult Education Programmes we have immensely benefited from the international dialogues and deliberations initiated by Unesco and other agencies. We have also been able to make significant contributions to the development of various historical declarations and frameworks including the Jomethian Declaration, Dakar Framework, Belem Framework and Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE) strategy.

Indian Adult Education Programmes were implemented in the initial years more as literacy programmes. For the first time the National Adult Education Programme in 1978 recognized awareness and functionality as two additional components alongwith literacy which was followed by the National Literacy Mission in 1988. However, literacy continued to be given priority in the adult education centres and even the terminal evaluations conducted also projected the same as achievements. Over the years the adult education programmes have crossed a long way and now the importance is given for empowerment, inclusion of excluded and sustainable development. Fortunately, the present programme of adult education under Saakshar Bharat gives a lot of importance for inclusive growth and sustainability.

Hence, the National Literacy Mission Authority is going to organize an International Conference on "Literacy for Inclusive and Sustainable Development" in the month of September 2011 in New Delhi. This is a follow-up of Abuja Framework. Apart from the national participants, representatives from E-9 and SAARC countries and International organizations will attend this conference.

To showcase the Indian achievements in the field of adult education, a National Conference on "Saakshar Bharat, Belem Framework and LIFE" was held in June 2011 at Bengaluru in which a number of papers were presented by experts on various topics in six Technical sessions. The topics included Women and Other Excluded Groups in Rural Areas, Improving Access and Inclusion Overcoming the Barriers, Literacy and Empowerment, Improving Quality for Sustainable Literacy, Decentralization and Institutionalization for Effective Delivery, Convergence, Chamba Model of Convergence, Resource Support, Learner Assessment, Management Information System, Benefiting from MIS for Effective Management of Saakshar Bharat, Evaluation, Achieving EFA Goals for Literacy, Rights Perspective, Literacy for Inclusive and Sustainable Development, Saakshar Bharat: Andhra Pradesh Experience, Strengthening India's Adult Education Policy in context of Belem Framework, Allocation of Budgetary Resources for Adult Education, Financing and Budgeting of Adult Education, Need for Strategic Shift in context of Belem Framework, International Models in Contemporary Adult Education and India's New Perspective on Adult Education.

I am sure the report of this conference will be a good reference document for the researchers in the field of adult education.

Sustainable Library Strategies for Adult and Lifelong Learning

M. V. Lakshmi Reddy

Inter-relationship between Libraries and Adult and Lifelong Learning

Lifelong learning is the continuous process that promotes knowledge, skills, attitudes and practices throughout the life of an individual. It occurs through experiences gained in formal, non-formal and informal settings or situations in the course of lifetime of an individual. These learning experiences could be the result of teaching, training, counseling, guiding, tutoring, mentoring, apprenticeship and other educational activities and situations. Adult education is the most productive and longest period of lifelong learning. Literacy is just the essential means for equipping a person to continue to learn throughout his/her life and the sophisticated components of adult education such as continuing learning, compensatory learning, learning for development, etc form integral part of lifelong learning. Adult education, thus, encompasses literacy, post-literacy, continuing education, skill development, and other educational activities meant for development of adults. The international conferences on adult education (CONFINTEA I-VI) held at Elsinore in Denmark (1949), Montreal in Canada (1960), Tokyo in Japan (1972), Paris in France (1985), Hamburg in Germany (1997) and Belém in Brazil (2009) have also laid emphasis, among others, on promotion of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education in the context of adult and lifelong learning.

According to UNESCO Institute for Education, (1984, quoted in <http://springerlink.com/content/p2512022637751qh/>) post-literacy and continuing education takes into account the sum total of measures and actions taken to enable the new literates to practice their skills and widen the knowledge they had gained in the preceding phase. It entails a continuous process of improvement and greater mastery of personal environments for self-advancement in various fields, both academic and practical. According to it, the broad goal of post-literacy and continuing education may be translated into the objectives of remediation, continuation, application and

communication.

- *Remediation* aims at providing an alternative system of educational advancement for new literates, young people and other adults.
- *Continuation* is designed to ensure retention of acquired literacy and other skills and the creation of an alternate environment through rural libraries, rural newspapers, radio and cinema programmes, etc.
- *Application* attempts to improve the adults' knowledge, skills and understanding related to their language, occupation, environment, economy, growth and development, and so on.
- *Communication* develops adults' democratic and co-operative endeavours, leadership skills and attitudes and increases their knowledge about the country's history, culture, polity, etc as well as a wider conception of the world and international affairs.

Lifelong learning needs and interests of adults can be effectively taken care of by the independent and collective or collaborative efforts of libraries and adult education institutions at different levels. The functions of libraries and adult education (institutions) are complementary and supplementary to each other as both aim at bringing the benefits of education to the public or masses. Thus, adult education and library services, with their symbiotic relationship, have identity of aims or unity of purpose, i. e. promotion of continuing education and lifelong learning. While adult education is dynamic in nature and purpose, library is more stable agency and yet can instruct, inform and mould minds and lives of people with its dynamic approaches, latest data and information.

The integral connection between public libraries and adult education was recognised at the international level as early as 1949 when delegates from 29 countries met in Denmark at the International Conference on Adult Education. The Conference supports UNESCO's Manifesto which proclaims its belief in the public library as a living force for education, culture and information, and as an essential agent for the fostering of peace and spiritual welfare through the minds of men and women. UNESCO therefore encourages national and local governments to support and actively engage in the development of public libraries. The public library is the local centre of information, making all kinds of knowledge and information readily available to its users. The services of the public library are provided on the basis of equality of access for all, regardless of age, race, sex, religion, nationality, language or social status. Specific services and materials must be provided

for those who cannot, for whatever reason, use the regular services and materials, for example linguistic minorities, people with disabilities or people in hospital or prison. All age groups must find material relevant to their needs. Collections and services have to include all types of appropriate media and modern technologies as well as traditional materials. High quality and relevance to local needs and conditions are fundamental. Material must reflect current trends and the evolution of society, as well as the memory of human endeavour and imagination. Collections and services should not be subject to any form of ideological, political or religious censorship, nor commercial pressure (<http://www.unesco.org/webworld/libraries/manifestos/libraman.html>).

It is, therefore, essential that the existing public libraries of various categories are enriched, expanded, developed and reorganised to take up the work of adult education by storing and sharing all kinds of books and non-book materials that have relevance to improving social, educational, cultural and economic conditions of adults and the society as a whole. In addition to that, there is a need for institutionalisation of adult education centres with suitable library facilities for enabling the adults to sustain and advance their skills and abilities for reaping the benefits of literacy, adult education, development and welfare programmes. The roles that a library can play or the services it can provide in promoting adult and lifelong education in the local-specific contexts should assume high priority. In general library has three distinct roles (Joshi, 1996, pp.64-65). *First*, as a supplementary aid to other agencies. *Second*, as an independent agency. *Third*, as a stimulating and motivating force taking a leadership role. Basically, a library provides three types of services — provision of books, information service, and referral (reference) service. In the field of adult education, it can play more proactive and dynamic role by extending its services to include much more than just the above three services. For instance, in the United States, a library provides adult education service under six general categories of service (Kaula, 1996, p.5):

- i) Supplying books, films, recordings, tapes and other learning materials;
- ii) Planning educational activities;
- iii) Advising the community on subjects, methods and materials;
- iv) Training the readers and librarians in skills and techniques necessary for adult education activities;

- v) Informing about the opportunities available through men and materials;
and
- vi) Organising all possible activities to further adult education.

But, the factual situation in India is that we have the developed university and college libraries, science and research libraries but inadequate and underdeveloped school, rural and public libraries at the grassroots level for promotion of adult and lifelong learning. It is unfortunate that the grassroots level libraries, which have greater relevance to post-literacy, continuing education and training of the masses in various aspects of life, could not be established on permanent basis — more so in the remote and rural areas.

Adult Education and Grassroots Level Libraries: An Overview of the efforts made in India – Need for Sustainable Library Strategies

An effective grassroots level public library system could go a long way in promoting a literate environment and in meeting the diversified and growing educational needs of adults rural and other remote areas. Grassroots level libraries and community resource centers are recommended as an integral component of literacy and non-formal education programmes as they can also help in demonstrating and providing access to new information and communication technologies. The Government of independent India has recognised the importance of libraries in promoting post-literacy and continuing education of adults and made an attempt to establish libraries at the grassroots level.

— During the First Five Year Plan period, in early 1950s, some efforts were made to establish libraries as a part of Community Development Projects, where a provision was made in the schematic budget of each development block for social education under which old libraries could be supported as well as new libraries could be set up. A number of libraries were set up under this provision and they served a useful purpose. In most of the States the Social Education Workers looked after the task of circulating books and were expected to manage small circulating libraries, and the village level workers were to distribute books to the participating adults. Unfortunately, with the diffusion of social education programmes and abolition of the posts of Social Education Workers in many States, the programme of establishing libraries and providing library services to the community received a major setback.

- The Mohan Sinha Committee on Literacy Among Industrial Workers, in its report submitted in 1964 said that the cheapest and most effective, and even otherwise the most desirable, method of providing the neo-literate adults to keep their literacy skills in working condition is the public library system (See Sachdeva, 1996, p.38. Also see Shah, 1999, pp.79-87).
- Subsequently, other Five Year Plans, Annual Plans, and a number of other policy documents, reports of relevant committees on adult education, etc. also emphasised the need and significance of libraries in promoting post-literacy and continuing education of adults. A few such specific documents/reports are:
- National Adult Education Programme (Government of India, 1978);
 - Report of the National Board of Adult Education's Committee on Post-literacy and Follow-up Programme (1979);
 - Report of the Review Committee on the National Adult Education Programme (1980);
 - Adult Education and Extension through Universities/Colleges: Report of the UGC Working Group on Point No.16 of the 20 Point Programme of the Government of India (1983);
 - National Policy on Education (Government of India. 1986a), National Policy on Education: Programme of Action (Government of India. 1986b);
 - University System and Extension as the Third Dimension: Report of the Review Committee (UGC, 1987);
 - National Literacy Mission (Government of India, 1988);
 - Report of National Development Council Committee on Literacy (1993);
 - Report of the Expert Group on Evaluation of Literacy Campaign in India (1994);
 - Saakshar Bharat (Government of India, 2010).

In spite of the above, unfortunately till date no viable and stable structures of post-literacy and continuing education with adequate library, reading room and other facilities could be established uniformly all over India catering to the growing needs of emerging classes of adults in villages, semi-urban and urban areas. This is all due to inconsistent policies with shifting priorities and inadequacies of implementation strategies that have perpetuated such situation. Look at the following for some such inconsistencies:

- i) As mentioned above, abolition of the post of Social Education Workers in 1960s gave a serious setback to a decade of efforts in development of local libraries and created a long gap of two decades till starting of Jana Shikshan Nilayams (JSNs) with a provision for library facility and a Prerak to each JSN during 1980s.
- ii) Later Jana Shikshan Nilayams also underwent change in the nomenclature into Continuing Education Centres. The Scheme of Continuing Education Centres rekindled the hope for institutionalisation of continuing education. Tenth Five Year Plan (2002-07) (http://www.nlm.nic.in/revamped_programme_for_impacting.html), laid emphasis on establishment and revamping of Continuing Education Centres (CECs) and Nodal Continuing Education Centres (NCECs) with a provision for a reading room, library, audio-visual material and other infrastructural facilities. The efforts of the Ninth (1997-2002), Tenth (2002-07) and Eleventh (2007-12) Five Year Plans (See <http://www.planningcommission.nic.in/...> & http://www.nlm.nic.in/revamped_programme_for_impacting.html) were consistent and thus regenerated hope for institutionalization of post-literacy and continuing education at the grassroots level. Under the revised scheme, it was envisaged that basic teaching-learning activities would be integrated with the post-literacy activities to ensure a smooth transition on a learning continuum from Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) to Post-Literacy Campaign (PLP) and to provide an opportunity to the learner to consolidate his/her learning on a continuing basis through CECs and NCECs. Library facility with interesting and useful reading material, amongst other things, was envisaged within their reach. For this purpose a library was to be set up in every Gram Panchayat for which accommodation will be provided by the Gram Panchayat. The existing continuing education centres opened for a population of 2500 were relocated in such a manner that every panchayat would have one such centre which will function as a library and information centre.
- iii) The Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-12) endeavours to further the efforts of this Scheme of Continuing Education, and conversion of one of the Continuing Education Centres in a panchayat into a Jan Pusthakalaya. So, these centres would be known as Jan Pusthakalayas (JPs). The books and other materials provided to the CECs and NCECs earlier will be transferred to this relocated centre i.e. Jan Pusthakalaya. This centre would act as a Single Information Window and disseminate details of various development programmes to the beneficiaries. In the selection and purchase of books for the library, the Gram Panchayat would have a

choice, depending on the local preference. Jan Pustakalaya will be manned by an instructor who has made the largest number of adults literate. The existing centre will be supported till it has received three years of assistance. Thereafter, it will be transferred to the Gram/Nagar Panchayat. If a district has already completed three years before the start of the scheme, then it will be provided with a Prerak to run the library and information centre (i.e. JP) for three years. The Preraks in charge of these centres will also be responsible for mopping up the remaining non-literates. They will function as focal points for providing learning opportunities and facilities, such as library, reading room, learning centres, sports centres, cultural centres and other programmes catering to individual aptitude (See http://www.nlm.nic.in/revamped_programme_for_impacting.html). These Centres would act as:

- a) centres of convergence of all development programmes in the village/ community;
- b) centres of learner's participation, providing for relevant teaching-learning material, and regular monitoring of programmes;
- c) data banks containing an inventory of traditional and contemporary art and crafts, existing resource / raw material and infrastructural facilities; and
- d) centres for designing and implementing various target-specific programmes which require identification of areas of collaboration with other agencies.

This was all in the initial years of Eleventh Five Year Plan.

- iv) Now, Saakshar Bharat (Government of India, 2010) has become operational from 01-10-2009, and according to it, the National Literacy Mission and its entire programmes and activities stand concluded on 30-09-2009. The objectives of Saakshar Bharat mission are to:
 - Impart functional literacy and numeracy to non-literate and non-numerate adults;
 - Enable the neo-literate adults to continue their learning beyond basic literacy and acquire equivalency to formal educational system;
 - Impart non and neo-literates relevant skill development programmes to improve their earning and living conditions;
 - Promote a learning society by providing opportunities to neo-literate adults for continuing education.

Accordingly, it specifies four broad programmes – Functional Literacy Programme, Basic Education Programme, Vocational Education (Skill Development) Programme and Continuing Education Programme – to be offered as an integrated continuum. The Lok Shiksha Kendra (LSK) will be the operational arm of the mission at the grass root level and responsible for delivering the entire range of activities under the Mission including, Literacy, Basic Education, Vocational Education and Continuing Education. “The programme will provide facility of a library and reading room, which would be gradually provided with other contemporary ICT devices”... “To implement the programme, 1.70 lakh Lok Shiksha Kendras (Adult Education Centres) will be established in Panchayat grams of the districts covered under the programme. It will subsume the already sanctioned Continuing Education Centres (CECs) in a particular district. Existing CECs and the nodal CECs in the districts not covered under the programme will have to be closed down, unless the Government of the States wish to run them at their own cost through public and private partnership or otherwise” (p.13). So, it changes the nomenclature of these CECs into Lok Shiksha Kendras (Adult Education Centres) and some of CECs and NCECs are disappearing from the scene.

- It thus provides for well equipped multi-functional Lok Shiksha Kendra (Adult Education Centres) at Gram Panchayat level to provide institutional, managerial and resource support to literacy and lifelong education at grass root level. One AEC will be set up in a Gram Panchayat having the population of 5000, unlike the earlier existing continuing education centres which were opened for a population of 2500. The AEC will be manned by two paid Coordinators (Preraks) to be engaged on contractual basis. A Prerak should be at least a matriculate. The Preraks will also be assigned with teaching responsibilities besides discharging administrative and academic tasks. Since the LSKs/AECs will not have buildings of their own, Panchayats and concerned line departments may be obliged to allow the centres to function from the Panchayat Ghars, Schools, Aganwadi Centres, etc. Gradually funds will be made available for construction of such centres. In this context, one can only hope that the name of Mission and of these centres are not revised till then!
- A LSK/AEC will be multifunctional, because it will act as a centre for registration of learners for all teaching-learning activities in its jurisdiction. *Nerve centre* for literacy campaign including identification of learners and

volunteers, batching and matching of the learners with suitable volunteers as well as their training, providing literacy kits to learners and volunteers, keeping track of the progress made by each learner-volunteer group; *Nodal centre* for mass mobilization activities; *Technology centre*; *Centre* for thematic courses on behalf of other departments such as agriculture, animal husbandry and veterinary, fisheries, horticulture, sericulture, handloom, handicrafts, health education, rural development, urban development, women and child development, SCs, STs, OBC welfare, Panchayatiraj, science and technology, etc or based on local demand; *Library and Reading room*; venue for group discussion; Vocational and skill development and extension facility for other departments; *Centre* for promoting sports and adventure and recreational and cultural activities; *A comprehensive information window*; and *Data centre* for adult education besides any other activity related to the mission (p.14).

- While basic education and continuing education programmes will be largely LSK/AEC-based, the voluntary teacher-based literacy programme will be run through temporary literacy learning centres in a village. These centres will be roughly equivalent of a school in the formal sector and will be managed by a voluntary Literacy Educator / Resident Instructor on almost same analogy as a single teacher school in the formal sector. More of such centres must be operated within habitats of disadvantaged groups. Based on the number of non-literate adults within each of the villages and hamlets that constitute the gram panchayat, required number of literacy centres will be set up. One literacy centre will cover 8-10 non-literates. The minimum physical learning environment facilities, teaching-learning material, etc will be provided to these learning centres, as per provision in the programme (p.15).

Saakshar Bharat (Government of India, 2010) also places due importance on materials to promote a literate environment in the context of CEP:

- “To ensure uniformly high standards, all the materials for basic education, equivalency and continuing education will be quality-assured by an Expert Committee set up by the NLMA / SLMA”. ... “It will cover the main elements of literacy, skill development, equivalency and lifelong learning, in the context of livelihood, social and cultural realities of the learners and special issue-based and thematic aspects, such as gender parity, NREGS, RTI, PRIs, SHGs, health and hygiene, environment, agriculture, animal husbandry, etc. These materials will lead to attainment of levels of learning specified by

NLMA, and in respect of equivalency, the Open School Norms. NLMA will arrange to maintain a bank of professionally produced prototype teaching-learning materials. Such materials that conform to the prescribed standards will be assigned a logo as a seal of approval. Only such material that are approved by the Committee will be used in the programme. Teaching-learning material will be produced in the language of learners' choice" (pp.16-17).

- "Government agencies like National Book Trust, State Text Book Societies, NGOs and private sector may be involved in the development, production and distribution of the primers and other post-literacy and continuing education teaching-learning material" (p.17).
- "Printed and visual materials in households, neighbourhoods, workplaces and the community encourage individuals to become literate and to integrate their literacy skills in the everyday lives. A significantly large number of adult learners live in impoverished literacy environments, lacking a bare minimum of written script in their home or immediate surroundings, as even basic signage like milestones, bus routes, etc may be missing. The growing learning needs of ever increasing number of neo-literates cannot be met unless a wide range of material relating to their needs and interests are provided. A wide range of newspapers (including a newspaper to be designed exclusively for the use of neo-literates by the SRCs or any other body in respective spoken languages of the area), broadsheets and interesting informative reading material besides short stories, novels, plays, poetry, folk tales, fiction, humour and biographies would be commissioned. Book reading campaigns (jan vachan andolans) will be further promoted as these have been found to promote readability skill among neo-literates" (p.20).
- Policies related to book publishing, the media — print as well as broadcast — and public libraries will be aligned with the requirements of literacy promotion. Collaboration with agencies like NBT will be pursued to promote literature for neo-literates. Library networks, central, state and others, will be approached to provide a neo-literate corner in the libraries especially in rural areas (pp.20-21).

Thus, in the context of Saakshar Bharat, the emerging new classes of adult learners establishment of the public and private libraries, particularly those with free, open and flexible access, assume greater significance in promoting their literacy/functional literacy, basic education, vocational

education (skill development) and continuing education. Further, it is only through a wide network of grassroots level libraries with their expanded roles and functions and innovative approaches to the content, mode and process of adult education, the challenges of access, equality and quality of educational opportunities to diverse groups of adults can be addressed effectively. And, adult educators must play effective role in promoting such a system for the benefit of the entire community in general and its neo-literates and other adults in particular. It calls for mutual assistance, co-operation and co-ordination between writers, publishers, adult educationists, staff and field functionaries of adult education centres/institutions and libraries to realise their common goals and objectives. The library at the grassroots level, if equipped properly with suitable resources and made accessible to semi-literate, neo-literate, literate and self-learning adults in the community, can undoubtedly be the best agency of adult and lifelong learning, because all adults often turn mainly to a dynamic library / learning centre with a library facility for their knowledge, information, instruction, consultation, recreation, self-development, self-actualisation, etc. This is possible only through sustainable library strategies that can effectively take care of continuing education and lifelong learning needs and interests of adults.

Sustainable Library Strategies for Promotion of Adult and Lifelong Learning

LSK/AEC with a library and reading room and ICT facility should act as a place around which cultural life of the community revolved. It must aim at:

- enabling the adults to learn, retain, strengthen, stabilise and apply their literacy skills, knowledge and information for their growth and development.
- organising not only instruction in remedial, fundamental and functional literacy to all the needy and the left outs but also courses related to different groups of self-learners.
- sensitising the community on any issue related to their social, economic, political and cultural development and addressing the same thereby creating a demand for continuing education and harnessing the energy so released for further development of our human resources.

- procuring, supplying and facilitating utilisation of policy documents, books, teaching-learning materials, films, recordings, tapes and other materials.
- generating awareness in adult learners about developmental, welfare and incentive programmes, schemes and activities of the Government and make them pro-active, responsive, participative, responsible and vigilant individuals.
- ensuring training and facilitation to develop their vocational skills, intellectual curiosity, social freedom, tolerance, motivation and mutual capacity building for enriching cultural life and speeding up their development and welfare.
- informing different categories of adults about the opportunities available to them through men and materials and by providing individual guidance for their smooth progression in life in general and for coping with health, vocational, occupational, economic, cultural, religious, familial, leisure and other problems.
- forging viable convergence with different governmental and non-governmental agencies or departments for providing more effective, timely, interesting and useful opportunities services to adults for improving their quality of life.
- providing recreational facilities to adults through in-house games, print, electronic and other media to attract them to the library in their leisure time and organise them into different interest-groups to undertake various activities in the community such as the following:
 - Survey the reading interests of the members of the community and cultivate good reading habits and hobbies in them.
 - Organise study groups of adult readers such as literature study group, art group, social study group, music and drama group, health and hygiene group, food and nutrition group, development and welfare group, medical groups (allopathic, homoeopathic, ayurvedic, unani), etc.
 - Hold poetry symposia, panel discussions, etc with local and outside experts on interesting topics.
 - Arrange for folk programmes including Kirtans, Kathas, etc including audio-visual shows, selected radio and TV programmes, and so on.
 - Hold different types of competitions for different categories of adults to promote their reading, writing, arithmetic, speaking, educational, vocational, occupational and leisure time interests with or without prizes, certificates, etc to winners and others.

- Collect or acquire reading material as gifts from and through resourceful individuals, social groups, institutions, etc.
- Undertake the task of preparing and publishing prototype material for the new reading public in collaboration with the best, available local writers and agencies in the community.

The LSK/AECs must cater to the diverse needs of adult who may be farmers and other rural folk, craftsmen and artists, urban workers, unemployed and underemployed, persons with disabilities, patients, prisoners, local sportsmen/sportswomen, entrepreneurs, petty shopkeepers, and so on with different levels of learning abilities — semi-literate, neo-literate, literate and self-learners. The diversity in terms of their location, physical characteristics, living and working conditions require at most attention. No single library strategy would be uniformly suitable, practicable, effective and sustainable for promotion of post-literacy and continuing education of such diverse categories of adults with specific needs, interests and abilities. It is high time that the Government took a comprehensive view of the existing libraries in the context of Saakshar Bharat to formulate a long-term, comprehensive, sustainable library strategy linked to permanent, viable structures at the grassroots level for promoting basic literacy, post-literacy, continuing education, skill development and lifelong learning of adults. Till then it calls for independent and collective efforts of the individuals, groups, institutions and the Government to look for all possible agencies to which the library facility can be attached. More important and prevalent agencies are:

- a) Primary or Secondary Schools in villages;
- b) Adult and Continuing Education Centres;
- c) Community Centres and other public places;
- d) Public and Private Libraries;
- e) Primary Health Centres;
- f) Hawker's points;
- g) Media Centres;
- h) Any other local agency working for the community.

Keeping the above agencies in view it is essential to resort to diversified, flexible and sustainable library strategies for promoting learning and development of adults in rural, urban and other areas. It is appropriate to follow independent, parallel, convergence as well as multi-faceted approaches to establishment of grassroots level libraries linked to different

local agencies in a given community or area. Some sustainable library strategies discussed by Lakshmi Reddy (2009) can be appropriately considered and adapted in the context of Saakshar Bharat (2010) for promotion of basic literacy, skill development/training, continuous education and lifelong learning.

- i) School-based Libraries, AEC-based Libraries, and/or Specialised Rural/Urban Local Libraries
- ii) Progressive Conversion of Each Adult Literacy/Education Centre into a Grassroots Library
- iii) Gradual Conversion of a corner of a Library or Community Centre into Literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education Centre
- iv) Using selected Libraries as Nodal Libraries-cum-Adult / Continuing Education Centres
- v) Re-organising and Extending the Existing Libraries in Cities
- vi) Single Window Information Centre or Multiple Service Centre
- vii) Adults' Home Libraries in Villages and Towns
- viii) Mobile Libraries for Reaching the Workers at their travel points or work places
- ix) Digital libraries for adults or Internet-based learning resources or open education resources for adults

Each of these sustainable library strategies is briefly discussed below.

i) School-based Libraries, AEC-based Libraries, and/or Specialised Rural/Urban Local Libraries

Every primary or elementary school in every inhabited village of India should be provided with well equipped library and through it open in the evening for adults, with a corner for them. Such effort will alone create, within the shortest possible time, as many rural school libraries as the total number of inhabited villages, which are more than half a million. These school libraries if oriented properly can effectively provide library and reading room facilities to the entire village community. Similarly the urban schools can be made use of for the benefit of the local community in remote urban areas. Simply coordinated efforts of Sarva Shiksha Abhiyaan and Saakshar Bharat at all levels can effectively turn these school libraries into community libraries.

Alternatively, the long pending felt need of institutionalising post-literacy

and continuing education can be met by establishing local libraries or specialised libraries for adults within the rural areas or remote urban areas with appropriate staff and state funding on permanent basis. This can be done by equipping existing Adult/Continuing Education Centres with library facility or by converting an existing Adult/Continuing Education Centre into a Jan Pusthakalaya in each village/urban locality.

ii) Progressive Conversion of Each Adult Literacy/Education Centre into Grassroots Library

At least one of adult literacy/education centres started in a village or urban locality for promoting literacy should be converted into a post-literacy centre, then to a continuing education centre with a library facility there itself. Thus, instead of looking for library to support it from a place elsewhere, a library-cum-continuing education centre can be established by progressively improving library facilities at the adult literacy/education centre itself. In other words, it is wise and economical to continue an adult literacy/education centre (after the literacy phase) as post-literacy centre, later convert it into a continuing education centre with a library facility in it. Had such an effort been made in India since the First Five Year Plan, by now lakhs of such centres with adequate library facilities would have been existence on permanent basis, silencing all voices now demanding adult/continuing education centres with a library and reading room facility, amongst other things. One can hope that hitherto lackluster efforts of the Government will shift in a direction towards systematic, progressive and consistent plans, policies and implementation.

iii) Gradual Conversion of a corner of a Library or Community Centre into Literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education Centre

It is of course expensive to establish extensive network of new libraries exclusively for adult education purpose, that too, outside the implementation machinery/structure of the programme. Therefore, an adult literacy centre can be started in a corner of an existing library, if it is a big one, or the entire local library hall, if it is small. Then the same can be converted into post-literacy and continuing education centre with library facility for adults. It would thus help in converting a corner of the library into an adult education centre to meet the progressive and long-term interests of literacy, post-literacy and continuing education of the entire community around it. This would familiarise

adults with the library system since the day one of their literacy learning and also generate interest in them to use the library when they become neo-literates and grow into independent readers.

In the absence of a library in a community, an adult literacy/education centre can be started in a corner of the community centre, if it exists, and later the same could be converted into a Continuing Education centre with library and reading room facility, amongst other things.

iv) Using selected Libraries as Nodal Libraries-cum-Adult / Continuing Education Centres

At the grassroots level a group of small libraries can collaborate and identify one of them as a Nodal Library-cum-Adult/Continuing Education Centre for literacy, education, vocational training, cultural and other activities plus as a place for holding meetings and talks, screening films or viewing specialised television programmes, organising book exhibitions, displaying charts, publicity materials, etc for the community. For this purpose, it is essential that the identified library/centre is provided with a small auditorium having suitable equipment and other facilities. Such a nodal centre, if properly utilised with collaborative efforts on the part of the library staff and adult education workers in the locality will enable the emerging groups of adult learners to break their social, economic, psychological and mental barriers to visit the library as well as to meet other adults of the community in a congenial environment. Also, it will provide ample opportunities to them for promoting their interaction, mutual understanding, harmonious living and environment, and participation in diverse activities to make their life more attractive and interesting.

v) Re-organising and Extending the Existing Libraries in Cities

The well established public and private libraries are required to take suitable initiative for re-organising and extending their roles and areas of service to the learners emerging from adult and other non-formal education centres. These libraries should become the centres of active learning for them. It may require a comprehensive approach calling for suitable changes in the central library, its zonal libraries, branch/sub-branches, community libraries, braille libraries, mobile service points or mobile deposit stations, resettlement colony libraries, reading rooms, hospital libraries, jail libraries, etc wherever they exist.

In this regard, the lessons from success stories of Delhi Public Library must be a guiding force for the well established public or private libraries, i. e. in revamping or re-organising their roles and services for their long-standing contribution towards a learning society. They can do it in the following broad ways.

- a) Establishing a special cell in the central library to look after post-literacy and continuing education services of the emerging class of learners,
- b) Establishing specialised branch libraries for a specific category(ies) of adults in different areas, and
- c) Converting some of their branch libraries into nodal libraries-cum-adult / continuing education centres.

vi) Single Window Information Centre or Multiple Service Centre

Existing adult / continuing education centres with their library facilities should promote integrated education and training of the entire community by providing comprehensive services to all categories of adults, including those suffering from different disabilities. All the governmental and non-governmental agencies engaged in mass education, training and/or development activities need to pool their resources and co-operate and coordinate with each other for achieving their common and mutual objectives and goals. If they choose or establish one common place / centre from where they all can simultaneously render their collective services that would pave the way for not only promoting continuing education and training to the entire community, but also realising their common objectives and goals. For this purpose these agencies together with the help of the community can acquire an existing building, or acquire sufficient space and construct a room or a building for such common centre by collectively contributing their human, financial and other material resources. Such a place/centre, properly equipped, can effectively act as a single window information centre or multiple service centre attracting the entire community to it with an urge for personal contacts, meeting, interaction, information sharing, reading, recreation, education, training and promoting mutual opportunities for development. This will also promote mutual efficiency of different agencies in providing better services. In the days of economic hardship and resource constraints such co-operative efforts for sharing of information and responsibilities among different agencies in the form of single window for educational, developmental and welfare activities / facilities / services would be the most welcome

endeavour in promoting effective continuing education and lifelong learning among adults.

vii) Adults' Home Libraries in Villages and Towns

Some individuals in towns and even in villages maintain their own collection of interesting and useful books and other materials. They may keep stock of good books, magazines including cine magazines, novels, newspapers including collection of important cuttings from them, copies of popular mass periodicals like Chandamama, Balamitra, Bommarillu and so on containing stories, morals, poems, folk songs, puzzles, etc for youth and adults, among others.

Some may keep books on medicines, health, nutrition, hygiene, history, freedom movement, national leaders, mythology, popular local leaders, literary personalities, artists, etc. These sources need to be tapped properly by the local community. It is essential to identify all such existing sources and use them for the benefit of the community. This calls for proper initiatives providing for some incentives and facilities to the owners of these home collections/libraries to enable them to provide their potential services to the people around them for promoting their literacy skills, reading habits, continuing education and training. Appropriate mechanism for paying suitable compensation to such owners with a view to convert a corner of their homes into small reading rooms for the adults around their houses should be explored.

Alternatively, an effort can be made to gradually convert the house of each learner into a meaningful library with increasing or periodical delivery of useful and standard books, booklets, pamphlets and other materials at his/her house by post or through other means. An effective beginning in this direction could be to give a free kit of such materials to the new literates before they leave the literacy classes or post-literacy centres. Similarly, the young school dropouts when they quit the school can be provided with such suitable material at subsidised prices.

The National Book Trust should undertake publication of such cheap and useful material on continuous basis in co-operation and co-ordination with the adult/mass education centres or suitable resource centres in different States and distribute them to the adults through established network or structures or field functionaries at different levels.

viii) **Mobile Libraries for Reaching the Workers at their travel points or work places**

For various reasons often the working class of adults may not access to materials or do not find time or are not in a position to visit a local library or a special cell available for them at any place or a public library. Particularly, it happens with the workers having rigid/tight work and commuting schedules. In such a case, adult education functionaries in co-operation with those of local libraries, volunteers and co-workers and interested neo-literate adults should take appropriate steps to deliver need-based reading materials, information bulletins, books, pamphlets and other relevant materials at their door steps or at their work places or at any convenient commuting point depending upon their timings, reading habits, interests and abilities.

Wherever library service has not reached the rural areas, circulating library service should be organised by the District, Tehsil, Sub-Divisional, Taluka or Mandal level library as the case may be. The mobile or circulating library service that is best suited to local circumstances needs to be considered. Some ways of doing it are:

- a) A library may develop book delivery stations or book deposit centres in surrounding villages or localities. Youth clubs/centres, primary schools, specified work places, etc may be used as the delivery/service stations. Arrangements must be made for periodical circulation of books and other materials one delivery/service station to another in batches;
- b) Door to door service may be organised for persons with disabilities through volunteers and social service workers. Involving the neo-literates by grouping them into a few service-interest groups to use their leisure time for providing useful materials and service to the community will have more participatory effect on them.
- c) A bell-bicycle or bell-rickshaw service centres according to a scheduled programme can be organised in rural areas. In urban and semi-urban areas, if resources permit, a mobile van or three-wheeler or a scooter or a motor cycle could be arranged to provide mobile services.

Further, the services of the hawkers can be effectively utilised for distributing simple booklets, periodicals, pamphlets, etc. by tying up with them. Thus, reaching the unreached, the needy neo-literates, literates and

other emerging class of learners should be the aim of all libraries working for promotion of post-literacy and continuing education.

ix) Digital libraries for adults or Internet-based learning resources or open education resources for adults

We know how the advanced adults with high academic qualifications, skills and abilities are exploiting the rich resources available in the digital libraries and other open education resources through internet facility available to them in their institutions and/or at home. To provide neo-literate and self-learners with such facility, there is a need to put all the relevant materials suitable for different types of learners of particular language in selected websites and communicate the same to all the Adult/Continuing Education Centres. Also, the websites of electronic versions of all the local newspapers should be provided to them. Further, the important and most useful websites for enhancing their networking with people's representatives, constitutional authorities, and other public servants need to be made known to them. Every Adult/Continuing Education Centre or adults' corner of every local library in every state must be provided with at least one computer with internet facility so that the adult learners can reap the benefits of these digital resources for their learning and development.

Therefore, the adult educators working in any given community, in addition to furthering any initiative of the Governments, should strive to ensure that there is a library or some other structure with library facility or some kind of resource support made available for post-literacy, continuing education, training and lifelong learning of adults in all nooks and corners of the country. It may be a separate/independent/special library for adults or a library facility for them attached to a primary/secondary school, community centre, public library, private library or any other local agency or organization that can provide such support to adults. What is important is that it must be convenient, open and freely accessible to adults in any given locality for promoting their literacy learning, its sustenance as well as educational, vocational, occupational, recreational and leisure time activities centering around their overall development and welfare. If the above library strategies are applied, both collectively and independently, they can play a significant role in promoting not only post-literacy and continuing education but also in training the entire community for fostering a sustainable learning society and for promoting their sustainable development.

Notes

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Learning from One Another – An Extension Education Experience with Stakeholders of Primary Schooling

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Abstract

This paper tries to reveal the extension education experience of the author (as the project co-ordinator) in launching an awareness programme for parents, who willingly came forward to understand how to help their children to learn better both in school and at home. The pilot project of this awareness programme launched in Kerala (India) by the Indira Gandhi National Open University provided many interesting insights into the role of parents in school improvement. It also revealed how parents identified certain areas where they needed help to assist in their children's learning and how they fulfilled these needs through a participatory approach.

The paper describes in detail the entire process of the pilot project - the identification of needs, programme/material development, delivery, implementation, interactive sessions, evaluation etc leading up to certification. The entire paper is conceptualised keeping in view both the roles of parents in school education for the benefit of their children as well as the parent learners' concept of school/home improvement, ultimately aiming at necessary changes in educational policies of government.

Introduction

Learning is a lifelong process – whether formal, non-formal or informal. Each person participates in the learning process with the intention of using his/her learning in a different way to achieve his/her self-determined goals. Even learning which is apparently undertaken as an end in itself, with no stated purpose, often has a 'hidden goal' of achieving a sense of fulfilment or making meaningful use of leisure. This paper describes an unusual learning situation where the learners were motivated by goals which were largely non-personal, in the sense that the learning was undertaken primarily to benefit not the learners themselves, but their children. Here I describe a

case in which adult learners willingly came forward to understand how to help their children to learn better in school and at home. This willing participation of parents was mainly the result of three motivating factors. The prime factor was the natural concern of the parents about their children's learning at school, the second factor was the general awareness that parental involvement with schools are associated with higher achievement (St John-Brooks 1997) of schools in general and children in particular, and the third was the fact that the parents as a group felt compelled to know about the curriculum and methods of teaching/learning which change from time to time in order to effectively help their children at home.

Thus the ultimate motive of the learners was not the achievement of a Degree or Diploma but to help their children to learn better – an ideal example of lifelong learning as defined by Atkin as one which includes “ ‘all programmes of learning’ ... - ‘working together’, ‘anything which helps people move from where they are to where they want to be’ and ‘learning which improves personal performance and preparation for change’ “(Atkin 2000:257). In this paper I analyse and interpret my experiences as an extension educator of a learning programme for school improvement involving all the stakeholders as learners, launched by Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), India, against this conceptual background of lifelong learning.

The Context

As in many developing countries, Universal Elementary Education (UEE) still remains an unfulfilled dream for India in spite of numerous efforts made in the post-Independence period. The first National policy on Education (1968), which emphasised education of girls and women and adult education, the National Policy on Education (1996) which emphasised people's involvement to foster UEE, the Education for All (EFA) programme launched in 1993, the post - Jomtien phase which emphasised the shift from UEE to Universal Primary Education (UPE)- for those in the age group of 6-14 years and finally the constitutional provision to provide free and compulsory education for every child up to the age of 14 years as a fundamental right – all tried to improve the school situation. Despite all these efforts the scenario of school education in India continues to be rather dismal.

To improve the basic strands of primary education namely: quality, quantity and equity, several steps have been taken in the past. At present there are 565,786 primary schools in India providing access to education to

95% of school-age children within a distance of one kilometre of their residence (Sharma 1996) but low achievement levels and lack of proper infrastructure are the main issues affecting quality. Issues such as high dropout rates among girls and children of disadvantaged groups, regional imbalances in resources and facilities, caste and gender differences are factors that continue to affect equity. While most programmes to improve primary education give utmost importance to the role of teachers, the equally significant role of parents is often neglected. This fact became more evident when a new curriculum was introduced in Kerala, in accordance with the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP now known as Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA).

The pilot project on Parental Awareness was launched in the state of Kerala in South India, in response to a request from the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) of the Government of Kerala. When a new curriculum emphasising joyful learning and child-centred learning was introduced in the Government-run primary schools of Kerala, some parents protested against this change, arguing that the new simplified curriculum was 'too light' in the sense of lacking academic content, which they felt would adversely affect the educational standards of their children (Rampal, 2001). Some parents favoured the attitude that children should not be overburdened with the kind of heavy curriculum that was used earlier which gave undue importance to rote learning, written exercises, memorising of mathematical tables etc. or be penalised by physical punishment or any form of punishment and argued that children should be taught in a friendly atmosphere through a child-centred, play-way method, encouraging them to see learning as a joyful experience.

This created a situation where the parents who were seriously concerned about their children's learning were compelled to find out more about new approaches to child learning and how parents could support children's learning at home and school. There was a feeling among many especially parents of school-going children that many problems and issues in primary education such as high drop-out rates, unattractive school environment and curriculum, child labour, gender inequality in education, the pressures on a child in the existing system such as excessive homework, punishment, fear of failure in the examination etc. could be effectively solved through parental involvement. The request from DPEP, Kerala to IGNOU to launch an awareness programme for parents reflected such an actual need voiced by parents rather than a need anticipated by the academic experts.

Parental Awareness Programme

The challenge of designing an awareness programme for parents was taken up by the Centre for Extension Education (CEE) which was established within IGNOU for the purpose of co-ordinating and facilitating extension education programmes of the university for the benefit of those outside the formal educational system. The major steps involved in this awareness programme are described below:

(1) Need Assessment

CEE adopted a new 'bottom-up' approach to develop the programme. Interactive group discussions and structured/unstructured interviews were held to infer parents' opinions and views. The parents were asked to identify in the order of preference the grey areas in which they felt the need for some awareness (Nair 1999). Thus the objectives as well as the content of the awareness programme were largely based on the actual demands of the parents rather than the 'needs' perceived by authorities or experts as in a 'top-down' model. Thus the parents expressed their expectation that the programme would impart the awareness about their responsibilities in providing an appropriately stimulating learning environment at home in order to complement and supplement the efforts of teachers at school. The need-survey also revealed that as the educational, social and economic background of the parents varied considerably, a uniform approach would not be suited or effective for the whole of Kerala. Hence a localised approach was adopted in developing materials and implementing the programme.

(2) Developing Materials

The need-survey identified twelve preferential areas in which parents felt that they needed awareness to help their children at home. It was then decided to bring out a printed module for each area with graphic illustrations, pictures and explanatory notes for parents. The material development of the parental awareness programme adopted a participatory people-centred approach. The stakeholders of this programme - parents, teachers and community workers - all participated in designing the format and content of the twelve print modules that were produced. Interactive group discussions, self-instructional materials (print), activity-based materials, group interaction packages (two or three minute video clippings) to generate discussion among

parents, teachers and community workers, video films regarding curriculum transactions and successful community involvement for the improved function of schools, printed leaflets, and brochures were developed using a participatory method.

Parents, teachers and community workers were involved in every crucial stage of material development such as editing the language and content of the material, deciding the style, design and form of the material. The modules were prepared and presented on the basis of Malcolm Knowles's theory of andragogy (Knowles 1973) which accepts the experience of the adult learner as an asset to be valued and utilised for further learning. Knowles's assumptions that knowledge perceived by adults can be used or created to solve their problems in social life and that adults tend to have a problem-centred orientation to learning, were kept in mind while developing the modules. To convey the message of each module to illiterate and semi-literate parents, graphic artists with the help of parents and teachers created beautiful and attractive illustrations and cartoons which were also included in the modules. The modules were presented in such a way that the parents could initially choose the module that they found interesting and gradually move on to other modules as per the cross-references indicated in each module. In effect the participant was free to use all the twelve modules according to his/her priority and thus individually control his/her own learning. Later, a pre-test of these materials among different groups of parents revealed that the content, language, illustrations and the over-all presentations of the modules were most appealing to them.

Video programmes about actual class-room transactions, about the significance of providing a friendly learning atmosphere at home, on motivating children for self-study, on conducting field trips, etc, which were produced with the participation of parents and teachers in life-like situations were duplicated and distributed by the university. Some of the video clippings were used later in teleconferencing sessions to illustrate the practical aspects of children's learning to a wider range of parents in the state and also as a supplement to the modules.

(3) Implementation of the programme:

In order to provide sufficient flexibility for the participating parents at the local level, a localised approach using open-distance learning strategies was designed and implemented in the selected sixteen centres in Kerala

giving due representation to the DPEP districts in the state. The programme was implemented through Parent Teacher Association (PTA) and Mother Teacher Association (MTA) units of selected schools. In each centre 24 to 30 parents were enrolled as participants on a first-come first-serve basis and a facilitator was appointed on part-time basis to facilitate the awareness programme for three months at each centre. Most of the facilitators were selected from the local group of trained experts of the new DPEP curriculum so that the quality and the innovative and self-directed nature of the programme was maintained in the awareness programme also. These facilitators were given the freedom to organise group discussion sessions, interactive sessions or social events at their centres to suit the convenience of parents.

A package consisting of the twelve modules was given to each parent participant in the centres as basic reading material. Each centre was provided by the university with video cassettes, sufficient funds to run the centre for three months including provision to hire TV & VCR facilities as and when required and honorarium for the facilitator for three months. Each facilitator was supplied with a Facilitator's Manual which contained the activities for the three months, instructions for facilitators in conducting group interactive sessions and schemes for assignments and evaluation.

(4) Interactive sessions

The interactive sessions were an important part of the programme. There were three types of interactive sessions: (i) Group Interaction (ii) Home interaction and (iii) Community interaction. About six to eight sessions were devoted to each type and the parents were given freedom to choose any two types of interaction according to their special interest. Since the group interaction took place in the PTA or MTA of the school it also involved interaction with the schools which the children of participants were attending and if it was a different school, the parents were advised to intervene with the learning activities of the school which their children attended. The facilitators were given special instructions on organising these sessions allowing sufficient flexibility to parents.

Using the twelve modules as basic reading material in the group interaction sessions the parents' group in each centre was asked to utilise them adopting what seemed the best approach, and the facilitators were given special advice about encouraging and facilitating such a free

participation. In almost all the centres, the participants were encouraged to share their personal experiences and use the insights gained through such sharing to address their specific problems. Such discussion and shared experiences became part of the curriculum as well as part of the awareness package. This self-evolving style of building on participants' experiences based on an issue or problem helped the parents in each centre to control and decide the direction of the awareness programme. This is an ideal instance of a course in which 'local control' is successfully practised. It is this aspect which attracted most parents, especially those in the rural areas who could be adequately motivated to solve problems affecting their children's learning in their own way, using their local resources and expertise. This experience revealed to the 'academic team' the ways in which parents tapped the flexibility of the learning process and how their actual experiences could be collectively incorporated into the curriculum of the awareness programme so as to bridge academic and indigenous knowledge to make sense in a particular learning context.

(5) Assignments

Parents were given a choice of assignments- they were free to write observation notes, diary entries, success stories or poems about the involvement of parents in school activities or descriptions of personal experiences. Some of the written work was published in a newsletter for wider circulation. This motivated the parents to come up with original ideas and they were further motivated by seeing some of their own interesting experiences and practical knowledge going into the revised curriculum as course materials for the next batch of participants in the awareness programme. Similar procedures were followed in the cases of home intervention and community intervention.

One of the major objectives of the project was to prepare a plan or strategy to reach the unreached parents in the respective locality based on their felt difficulties. It was obvious that those who were already participants were those parents who had some time and resources to spare for the programme, who were articulate and confident enough to make their 'voices' heard while attending programmes. But there were others who could not do this due to several reasons and it was planned to contact them through the existing participants. It was easier to reach these 'unreached' parents through the 'reached' parents especially in a locality where almost everyone knew each other. The parents who were already part of the awareness programme

could do this effectively as they had local contacts and well established relationships and an awareness of the cultural, social and economical situation of the locality. Also, the 'unreached' parents felt more comfortable with the parents of the locality to frankly and sincerely express their problems and it was obvious that they were more likely to attend to local advice and support than that of the so-called 'experts'.

The strategy/ plan evolved by parents as part of their project work was found to be more suitable than any other ready-made, top-down strategy adopted by experts to reach the unreached parents. This worked out very effectively and at the end of the awareness programme most of the parents came out with wonderful 'plans and strategies' for further extension of the programme to reach the unreached. These plans and strategies are excellent examples of indigenous extension methods which evolved out of the experience of the reached parents and were realistic attempts to get to the 'unreached parents'. What was seen is a "multitude of different interest groups, different cultures, and different voices all interacting with each other" (Rogers, 2002). On several occasions it was seen that those who could not read and write explained their ideas and project proposals orally so that others could write it down and most such occasions proved that even those who lacked such abilities 'displayed great confidence and ingenuity in achieving their goal'(Rogers, 2002).

(6) Evaluation and Certification

As mentioned earlier, the intention of parents in joining this awareness programme was not the achievement of a Diploma or Degree but to progress from a condition of ignorance about child learning and the new curriculum to a state where they could help their children to learn better. At the end of the programme each parent felt satisfied about his/her achievement as expressed in a self evaluation (the parents had the option to evaluate their progress orally or in a written form). Still the university (IGNOU) decided to issue them a 'Certificate of Participation' as motivation for further study.

A minimum level of attendance, submission of assignments, participation in group, home and community interactions, completion of project work and the recommendation of the facilitator based on the overall performance of the individual during the programme period - all were taken into consideration while issuing the certificate.

Impact of the programme on parents

Till date the awareness programme has trained participants of around 2420 parents, its positive impact was perceptible in many ways. The first and foremost positive impact was that this programme successfully established a good rapport between schools, homes and the community through parents, teachers and community workers. Most of the parents understood the importance of home activity and their role in supporting the child in home activities only when they participated more frequently in school activities and interacted closely with teachers. This in turn had a positive effect on the children's learning as well as on school improvement. Most of the facilitators reported that as the programme progressed, more and more parents came forward to actively participate in the PTA and MTA meetings in the school and to offer possible help and make suggestions for the improvement of primary schooling in several ways.

Some teachers also participated in the group interactions of the awareness programmes with parents and the benefit was that the psychological, philosophical and sociological implications of the new curriculum which were incomprehensible to most of the parents in their theoretical forms were made comprehensible and meaningful in their real life situations. In some instances parents realised, to their great surprise that they had been practising the right methods in supporting their children's learning at home without knowing that such practices had a strong basis in educational theories. This self-realisation motivated the parents to share some of their methods in solving problems related to their children's learning with other parents and also made them understand the underlying educational principles behind these methods.

Another positive impact was evident in the changes reported by many parents in their attitude to 'punishing' their children for their mistakes, involvement of children in home affairs, accepting and respecting their children's opinion while making a decision in the family or in providing a suitable atmosphere and support at home for encouraging learning.

One facilitator commented on the visible impact of the programme on the parents' interactive skills and their self-confidence in voicing their opinions and articulating ideas and feelings. In his report he observes how some parents who appeared timid and reluctant to participate actively in group discussions in the early stages had by the later stages of the programme

become confident enough to organise orientation programmes for other parents.

Another notable aspect is the feedback this programme provided for teachers, parents and community workers about what each group expected from other groups with respect to the physical and academic improvement of the school which would help their children to learn better both in school and at home.

There are several other expected outcomes of this programme which are not tangible or which do not become obvious immediately; such results do not become visible in the early stages and become manifest only in the long run. Gradually the stake holders became more and more confident about the efficacy of the programme, as more evidence of the positive impact of the programme became available. Both DPEP (now SSA) and IGNOU are eagerly awaiting clear evidence of the positive impact of the programme in the learning and performance of children both at school and home as a result of their parents' participating in the programme.

Implications of the programme for school educational policies

The most important implication of the parental awareness programme was that it provided an example of bringing about qualitative improvement in primary schools by encouraging parental involvement. Several commissions on educational reform had recommended the involvement of parents in school activities but none of them had suggested practical steps for implementing this idea. The parental awareness programme helped to actualise this idea and make it a reality in schools.

"In many countries parents see their involvement as a democratic right. ... The aim of this shift in policy is to make schools more responsive to the demands and wishes of the parents who entrust their children to them, and to the taxpayers who fund them" (St John-Brooks 1997:31). Such a sense of accountability of schools towards the public and the taxpayer is not common in Kerala even though there are bodies such as PTAs and MTAs in schools which are expected to interact with schools in order to ensure that children get all expected benefits of schooling. Most of these bodies have passive functional roles as far as schools in Kerala are concerned. The parental awareness programme to some extent changed this attitude and

parents are now more aware of their role as decision makers in their child's school.

When the new child-centred, activity-oriented pedagogy and curriculum was introduced under DPEP in Kerala, several measures were taken up to give teachers orientation and training in the new pedagogy and curriculum. A large number of parents who did not know anything about the revised pedagogy and curriculum protested that the new system was "all play and no work" and was "unsuitable for academic achievement".

Those parents who attended the awareness programme later became convinced about the relevance of the curriculum. This indicates the importance of necessary changes in government policy to provide orientation to parents along with teachers. The Department of General Education, Universities, PTAs, MTAs or even community organisations and non governmental organisations (NGOs) could take up such activities for generating awareness among parents (Nair 2002).

During the project period it was noted that schools in certain regions such as coastal areas and areas where certain religious communities were dominant were extremely backward in educational achievement and the teachers in these schools were held responsible for this poor performance. The situation dramatically changed when parents of children in such schools were advised on how to help their children at home for effective learning. Improvements in certain hygiene practices were also noticed among children as a result of their parental influence.

This also has implications for PTAs and MTAs regarding their role in organising similar awareness programmes for the improvement of schools especially in backward regions. To conclude, the pilot project of the parental awareness programme proves beyond doubt that primary school education and its improvement is not the responsibility of policy makers, governments and teachers - parents at home who can effectively and substantially contribute to their children's learning as well as to school improvement are equally responsible.

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Quality of Life and Economic Security of the Aged

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Abstract

The problems of the aged in the unorganized sector, particularly those with low and irregular wage / income was more acute because they were not able to allocate finances for old age support. Directive principles of state policy enshrined in Article 39(a) of the Constitution mentions that the State shall in particular, direct its policy towards security for its citizens i.e., the right to an adequate means of livelihood. The directive principles were not enforceable in the court of law, but the civil society was obligated to the elderly as well. As such the objectives of the present study were – To examine the work-participation rates and economic status of the elderly and the extent to which anticipated contributions from their off spring were received. Data on employment, income and needs of the aged were essential to improve the economic status of the aged. The study was carried out in the Chittoor mandal of Chittoor district (A.P.), India. Sampling unit for the study was elderly of 60+ years and above. 150 respondents were selected through multi-stage random sampling technique of which 75 were women and 75 were men.

Most of the female respondents did not have any land. One third of the males were land holders of 4-7 acres. More than half of the males (55%) had cash ranging from Rs.10,000/- to 50,000+ where as among females 69 percent had e" Rs.10,000/- cash only. More than three fourth of males reported that they did not have any ornaments with them while majority of the women possessed at least 5 tholas. Almost half of the male elderly intended to give their property to their son, where as among females only 16 per cent intended to do so. More than half of the elders did not have cash. 20 percent of males intended to give cash to their sons as against 16 percent of females. Three fourths of male elderly and one fourth of the females (24%) wanted to give their jewellery to

their daughters. More than three fourths of the respondents' children were not employed in any modern jobs. Out of those children of the respondent's who were employed in modern jobs, 85 percent of the children of male elderly and cent percent of the children of female elderly sent money to their aged parents for their livelihood. 92 percent of male elderly reported that the remittances sent by their employed children were sufficient as also 67 percent of the female elderly. Irrespective of employment of children, only 46 percent of males reported that the resources for their maintenance were enough as against 30 percent of females. More than three fourths of male (82.14%) elderly worked on family, farm, industry / business, while nearly half of the female elderly were engaged in household maintenance work.

The data implicates that old age pensions and security along with health care services need to be implemented on an increasing scale. Economic security is the foundation for other forms of security and should be provided to the elderly in the form of old age pensions, small earnings etc. Value education to the younger generation should also be given to improve the familial security for the aged. A small percentage of cess on the lines of educational cess may be imposed. Skill and Vocational based Education should be encouraged as it enables to secure higher remunerative jobs which will enable the younger generation to give better care to their elderly.

Introduction

Old age was accompanied by a number of problems which the elderly had to face and adjust with in varying degrees. These problems ranged from ensured and sufficient income to support the aged and their dependents, to sound health, creative use of free time, social security, love and recognition, social participation, dignity and self respect. The problems of the aged in the unorganized sector, particularly those with low and irregular wage / income were more acute because they were not able to allocate finances for their old age support.

The elderly had to face several problems – familial, social, health, financial and psychological in nature. Some of the problems of the elderly were associated with their old age, like forgetfulness, sleeplessness, confusion, lack of self confidence, emotional out bursts, vulnerability to disease and other health problems. Other problems included loss of

spouse, compulsory / voluntary retirement, loss of income, reduction / loss of status, loss of authority, reduction in social contacts and assumption of "terminal sick role" and disengagement from active social and economic life resulting in a feeling of meaninglessness and loneliness. Absence of common interests and lack of extensive and regular interaction with the younger members in the family resulted in social isolation and loneliness for the aged.

The effects of aging populations at the individual level brought into focus issues related to the provision of physical, economic and social services to the elderly. Besides the need to ensure an adequate and regular post retirement income, access to basic health care services and exposure to proper health and nutritional education, was also necessary, including homes for the aged, personal care services at home for those with physical disabilities, social support in alternative living situations, counseling and social or leisure time services and activities.

Thus, a vast majority of the elderly, belonging to the unorganized sector, particularly those belonging to lower income, lower middle income, middle income, upper middle income classes were exposed to miserable problems. Some of the reasons for this situation were (a) break down of joint family system, (b) low level of income and custom dictated family responsibilities and (c) fatalistic philosophy. Many of the elders in this sector continue to work, until their last breath and pray for their early exit from the world. Their conditions are pitiable. The so called obligations enjoined on the states in the constitution, remain untouched. For example, Directive Principles of State Policy enshrined in Article 39(a) of the constitution mentions that the state shall in particular, direct its policy towards security of the citizens i.e. the right to an adequate means of livelihood. Since the Directive Principles are not enforceable in the court of law, the responsibility lies on the civil society that they have an obligation to elderly as well. In this background, the study entitled "Quality of Life and Economic Security of the Aged" was undertaken.

Methodology

The objectives of the study were –

- ✓ To study the work-participation rates and economic status of the elderly

- ✓ To examine the extent to which anticipated contributions from offspring were received

The study was carried out in the Chittoor mandal of Chittoor district, Andhra Pradesh. Chittoor is one of the quartets of Rayalaseema districts. Chittoor is predominantly an agricultural district. This district is continuously affected by droughts. Sampling unit for the study was elderly of 60 years and above. 150 respondents were selected through multi-stage random sampling technique. Out of the 150 respondents selected, 75 were women and 75 were men. This classification was done purposefully to understand the problem, needs and requirements of the elderly men and women respondents. Data was collected using schedule through personal interview method. The collected data was posted into various contingency tables. One-way, two-way tabulations were carried out. Percentages were applied to study the association between different components of Economic security for the aged and their quality of life.

Results & Discussions

One of the basic problems for a large number of aged all over the world, is protection against insecurity – economic, social and psychological – during the later years of life. Old age has always been accompanied by handicaps but their nature has become complex and extensive due to liberalization, urbanization and globalization. The inadequacies were becoming apparent and the succeeding discussion focuses on various aspects of economic security for the elderly.

Table 1:
Percentage Distribution of Elderly Males and Females by land holdings

| Land holding of the aged | Male | | Female | | Total | |
|--------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Not applicable | 15 | 20.00 | 53 | 70.67 | 68 | 45.33 |
| 1-3 acres | 22 | 26.33 | 5 | 6.67 | 27 | 18.00 |
| 4-7 acres | 28 | 37.33 | 10 | 13.33 | 38 | 25.33 |
| 8-10 acres | 8 | 10.67 | 5 | 6.67 | 13 | 8.67 |
| 10 and above acres | 2 | 2.67 | 2 | 2.66 | 4 | 2.67 |
| TOTAL | 75 | 100.00 | 75 | 100.00 | 150 | 100.00 |

It is evident from the data that most of the female respondents were not having any land (70.67%), as compared to males (20%). 37 per cent of males were holders of 4-7 acres of land where as among females it was 13 per cent only. There is no significant difference between males and females holding land above ten acres (2.67%).

Table 2:
Percentage distribution of Male and Female Elderly by cash holding

| Cash (In Rs.) | Males | | Females | | Total | |
|------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Not applicable | 41 | 54.67 | 11 | 14.67 | 52 | 34.67 |
| 1-10 thousands | 13 | 17.33 | 52 | 69.33 | 65 | 43.33 |
| 11-20 thousands | 11 | 14.67 | 3 | 4.00 | 14 | 9.33 |
| 21-30 thousands | 2 | 2.67 | 8 | 10.67 | 10 | 6.67 |
| 31-40 thousands | 4 | 5.33 | 1 | 1.33 | 5 | 3.33 |
| 41-50 thousands | 1 | 1.33 | -- | -- | 1 | 0.67 |
| 51 and above | 3 | 4.00 | -- | -- | 3 | 2.00 |
| TOTAL | 75 | 100.00 | 75 | 100.00 | 150 | 100.00 |

Table 2 showed that more than half of the males (54.67%) did not have any cash, whereas more than 56 percent of the males had cash with them. 4 per cent of the males were having 50 thousands and above cash. Among females, one tenth did not have cash. Those who have 1-10 thousand rupees of cash constituted about 69 per cent for the females. None of the females had cash above 40 thousands. A large proportion of the elderly women had low cash reserves with them.

Table 3:
Percentage distribution of Male and Female elderly by possession of ornaments / Jewellery

| Ornaments | Males | | Females | | Total | |
|----------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Not applicable | 62 | 82.67 | 18 | 24.00 | 80 | 53.34 |
| 1-5 tholas | 5 | 6.66 | 31 | 41.33 | 36 | 24.00 |
| 5-10 tholas | 4 | 5.33 | 11 | 14.67 | 15 | 10.00 |
| 10-15 tholas | 2 | 2.67 | 12 | 16.00 | 14 | 9.33 |
| 15-20 tholas | 2 | 2.67 | 1 | 1.33 | 3 | 2.00 |
| 20 and above | -- | -- | 2 | 2.67 | 2 | 1.33 |
| Total | 75 | 100.00 | 75 | 100.00 | 150 | 100.00 |

From Table 3 it is evident that there was wide disparity between the males and females as regards ornaments with them. More than three fourth of males have reported that they did not have any ornaments / Jewellery with them as against a quarter of the females. The second striking contrast was that 41.33 per cent of females had 1-5 tholas of ornaments. A small percentage of females had 20 tholas and above ornaments, where as none of the males had above 20 tholas of ornaments / Jewellery.

Table 4:
Percentage distribution of male and female elderly by intention of giving property

| property | Intention to give Property | | | | | |
|-----------|----------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|
| | Not applicable | | Sons | | Daughters | |
| | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| land | 20.00 (165) | 70.67 (53) | 52.00 (39) | 16.00 (12) | 4.00 (3) | 2.67 (2) |
| Cash | 54.67 (41) | 52.00 (39) | 20.00 (15) | 16.00 (12) | 6.67 (5) | 9.33 (7) |
| Jewellery | 82.67 (62) | 25.33 (19) | 2.67 (2) | 14.67 (11) | 8.00 (6) | 24.00 (18) |

| Equal to all | | | | Both | | Total | |
|---------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|----------------|----------------|
| Sons | | daughters | | | | | |
| Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| 18.67 (14) | 9.33 (7) | 2.67 (1) | 1.33 (1) | 2.67 (1) | -- | 100.00 (75) | 100.00 (75) |
| 19.33 (7) | 14.67 (11) | 6.67 (5) | 4.00 (3) | 2.67 (2) | 4.00 (3) | 100.00 (75) | 100.00 (75) |
| 2.67 (2) | 9.33 (7) | 1.33 (1) | 22.67 (17) | 2.67 (2) | 4.00 (3) | 100.00 (75) | 100.00 (75) |

Table 4 showed the distribution of elderly males and females and their interest to give their property to their off springs.

Land: A higher proportion of females (70.67%) did not have land as compared to males (20%). More than half of the male respondents intended to give their property to their son, where as among females

only 16.0 per cent intended to do so. Negligible percentage of males and females intended to give their property to their daughters.

Cash: More than half of the respondents did not have cash. 20 per cent of males intended to give cash to their sons as against 16 per cent of females. There is no significant difference between males (6.67%) and females (9%) in their intention of giving cash to their daughters. 9 per cent of males and 15 per cent of females intended to give their cash equally to all their sons.

Jewellery: More than three fourths of male respondents and one fourth of the females did not have any jewellery. 3 per cent of males and 15 per cent females intended to give the jewellery to their sons. A higher percentage of females (24%) wanted to give their jewellery to daughters as compared to males (8%). Negligible percentage of males wanted to give an equal share to their sons and daughters.

Remittance of Children Employed in Modern Jobs

Table 5:
Percentage distribution of male and female elderly Son(s) / Daughter(s) employed in modern jobs Children's Employment Status

| Children's Employment Status | Males | | Females | | Total | |
|------------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Employed | 14 | 18.67 | 18 | 24.00 | 32 | 21.33 |
| Not-employed | 61 | 81.33 | 57 | 76.00 | 118 | 78.67 |
| Total | 75 | 100.00 | 75 | 100.00 | 150 | 100.00 |

The remittances made by the children employed far-off from home is an important source of financial support for the aged. Table 5 presented data on the distribution of respondents by the employment of children in modern jobs. There was no significant difference between males and females regarding their children's employment. The children of 19 per cent of male elderly were employed in modern jobs as against children of 24 per cent of the female elderly. However, the data showed that more than three fourths of the respondents children were not employed in any modern jobs.

Table 6:
Percentage distribution of male and female elderly by employed children's remittances

| Remittances | Males | | Females | | Total | |
|--------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Remit | 12 | 85.71 | 18 | 100.00 | 30 | 93.75 |
| Do not remit | 2 | 14.29 | -- | -- | 2 | 6.25 |
| Total | 14 | 100.00 | 18 | 100.00 | 32 | 100.00 |

Data provided in Table 6 gives details about the remittances by the respondent's children who were employed in modern jobs. 86 per cent of the children of males, and 100 per cent children of females, employed in modern jobs were sending money to their aged parents. Only 2 per cent of children of male elderly employed in modern jobs did not send money to their parents.

The data suggested that a large proportion of the younger generation who were earning better than those not employed in modern jobs were quite aware of their responsibilities towards the elderly.

The respondents were further asked to state whether the remittances made by the employed children were sufficient or not.

Table 7:
Percentage distribution of male and female elderly by sufficiency of Children's remittances

| Sufficiency of remittances | Males | | Females | | Total | |
|----------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Sufficient | 11 | 91.67 | 12 | 66.67 | 23 | 76.67 |
| Not sufficient | 1 | 8.33 | 6 | 33.33 | 7 | 23.33 |
| Total | 12 | 100.00 | 18 | 100.00 | 30 | 100.00 |

Data in Table 7 showed that 92 per cent of male elderly reported that the remittances sent by their employed children were sufficient as also 67 per cent of the female elderly. One third of the female elderly reported that money sent by their employed children was not sufficient.

On the whole, in spite of living away from home and having their own families to take care off, a higher proportion of the younger generation were taking care of their aged to a certain extent.

Pattern of Employment

All the aged persons may not be able to perform economically productive work due to numerous reasons. As such, an examination of the employment pattern of the male and female elderly would be worthwhile.

Table 8:
Percentage distribution of male and female elderly by employment pattern

| Employment pattern | Males | | Females | | Total | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|------------|---------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Mainly do productive work | 21 | 28.00 | 6 | 8.00 | 27 | 18.00 |
| Mainly do household maintenance work | 2 | 2.67 | 24 | 32.00 | 26 | 17.33 |
| Mainly do direction to supervision | 39 | 52.00 | 34 | 45.33 | 73 | 48.67 |
| Unable to work on health grounds | 9 | 12.00 | 11 | 14.67 | 20 | 13.33 |
| Not at all working | 4 | 5.33 | -- | -- | 4 | 2.67 |
| Total | 75 | 100.00 | 75 | 100.00 | 150 | 100.00 |

The data revealed that males and females differed significantly in their work pattern-productive work, household maintenance work. 28 per cent of males and 8 per cent of females were engaged in productive work. One third of females were engaged in household maintenance work as against 3 per cent of males.

More than half of the male respondents (52%) and 45% of females were mainly doing direction and supervision. 5 per cent of males and none of the females reported that they were not working at all.

The aged workers may also be divided into family workers and wage workers.

Table 9:

**Percentage distribution of male and female working for wages
and on own farm / enterprise / business (workers only)**

| Working condition | Males | | Females | | Total | |
|--|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|-----------|---------------|
| | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| Mostly worked for pay | 2 | 7.14 | 6 | 9.37 | 8 | 8.69 |
| Mostly worked on family farm / industry / business | 23 | 82.14 | 27 | 42.19 | 50 | 54.35 |
| Other | 3 | 10.71 | 31 | 48.44 | 34 | 36.96 |
| Total | 28 | 100.00 | 64 | 100.00 | 92 | 100.00 |

The data in table 9 showed the details of wage labour and family labour among the male and female elderly. There was no significant difference between males (7.14%) and females (9.37%) who reported that they mostly worked for pay. More than three fourths of males (82.14%) worked on family farm industry / business as against 42.19 percent females. Half of the females were engaged in other works against a tenth of the male elderly.

The findings of the study indicated that, in general the elderly were dependent on their children for their support. Majority of the male elderly were engaged in family farms / business while the female elderly were engaged in household maintenance. The children of the respondent's who were engaged in modern jobs, were able to provide better care to their parents.

Implications of the Study

- The data implicates that old age pensions and security along with health care services need to be implemented on an increasing scale.
- Economic security is the foundation for other forms of security and should be provided to the elderly in the form of old age pensions, small earnings etc.
- A small percentage of cess on the lines of educational cess may be imposed.

- Value education to the younger generation should be given to improve the familial security for the aged.
- Quality associations may be initiated by the Government where in the services of the elderly may be utilised economically.
- Small savings for old age security may be started by the Government which may be utilized after the age of 60+ and amount saved can be matched by the Government.
- Skill and Vocational based Education should be encouraged as it enables to secure higher remunerative jobs which will enable the younger generation to give better care to their elderly.

Will They or Will They Not Change? Application of Games Show Method to Attitudinal Change among Trade Union Leaders in Nigeria

K. O. Kester
O. A. Shadare

Abstract

One major challenge facing the trade union movement today in Nigeria, just like it obtains within the national body polity, is that of leadership. As a result of leadership problem, schism had always plagued the organized labour for decades. Therefore, in order to solve these leadership problems in our trade union movement, it becomes exigent to improve upon the quality of leadership in the unions. However, researches has shown that attempt to collect data on leadership behavior is hindered in the past by research techniques that have low involvement from the respondents.

Therefore, there have been suggestions from Gaming researchers that the optimal technique to increase the level of respondents' involvement with a scenario is an elaborate simulation game method of enquire. It is on this basis that this paper therefore, examines how the Games show method can be used to accurately elicit realistic cognitive, emotional and behavioural leadership responses towards attitudinal change among trade union leaders in Nigeria.

Introduction

Researchers have stressed the importance of leadership in an organisation as being fundamental to the success of any organisation (Beach, 1980; Cole, 1996; Bolman & Deal, 1997 and Chathoth & Olesen, 2002). There are therefore, indications that leadership as a concept has fascinated researchers and mankind generally for centuries. The trade union movement in particular is complex, dynamic and global; as a result it becomes challenging for trade union organisations to sustain their primary objective of protecting, promoting and improving upon the general well-being of their members.

However, the crux of achieving the primary goals and objectives of any trade union movement lies in the capacity of whoever that holds the leadership position to secure the commitment of the members to the objective of the union. This, according to Cole (1996) is another way of saying the need to exercise appropriate leadership in the trade union movement.

It is essential therefore, to identify ways by which the quality of leadership in the trade union movement can be improved upon, particularly in a developing country like Nigeria where so much has been said about the dismal picture of trade union leadership. This paper is an attempt by the researchers to see the extent to which the Games show training method can help to bring about realistic attitudinal and behavioural change among trade union leaders in Nigeria. For this purpose, the paper is divided into the following sections: (i) literature on issues in leadership; (ii) the leadership problem and trade union movement in Nigeria; (iii) methodology; (iv) findings and discussion, and (v) conclusion.

Issues in Leadership

According to Karolia (2006) the contemporary debates on leadership see the institution of leadership as a symbolic speculation of power, and the capacity to manage and control the desires and emotions of mankind. This symbolic speculation of power and capacity to manage and control has also been seen as the process of influencing others to act to accomplish certain specified objectives (Cole, 1997 and Beach, 1980). However, Tennenbaum, Weschler and Massarik (1961) as cited in Bolman and Deal (1997) succinctly defined leadership as:

Consisting of interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed, by means of the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals (p. 296).

On this basis, leadership is thus seen as a subtle process of mutual influence fusing thought, feeling, and action to produce cooperative effort in the service of purposes and values of both the leadership and the followership. On his own part, Cole (1996) sees leadership essentially as a human process at work in organisation. It is more or less a dynamic process in a group whereby one individual influences the others to contribute voluntarily to the attainment of group tasks in a given situation. Therefore, leadership

has though been distinguished from both authority and management but universally offered as panacea for almost every social problem (Bolman and Deal, 1997). This is because leadership responsibilities do not limit itself to position of authority or management alone.

Although, knowledge is limited on what types of leaders are needed; but there are a number of assumption about leadership. For instance, leadership has been recognised as a complex concept and at the same time established as critical in the life of an organisation. Beach (1980) commenting on the foundations of leadership research opines that for centuries, the general notion held by researchers, scholars and the public is that leadership was primarily exercised by great men, who are born with such qualities. This notion holds that it is not possible to achieve such great leadership qualities either by education or training except you are born as such. But today, evidences abound in modern scientific researches that effective leadership is not only derivable from superior birth, ability or personal magnetism. Over the years, researchers have therefore attempted to examine the concept of leadership from a variety of perspectives.

For instance, early leadership researchers from 1900s to 1950s attempted to differentiate between the characteristics of the leaders and that of their followers. But no single trait or combination of traits was discovered to fully explain the differences. Therefore, by 1970s and 1980s, there was shift in focus to distinguishing between effective and non-effective leadership. The general conclusion that arose from these researches was that leaders and leadership are crucial but complex components of organisation.

Obviously in contemporary leadership researches, it could still be ascertained that no single characteristics can distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Moreover, no identified combination of personality characteristics (leaders' behaviour and situational variables) is seen to be more effective. But according to Bolman and Deal (1997) it is the general belief in literature that effective leaders exhibits certain behavioural traits which has been categorised into two common dimensions.

These are: (i) initiating structures (i.e. concern for organisational task which include such activities of planning, organising and defining the tasks and people; and (ii) consideration for the individuals and interpersonal relations (social and emotional needs of individuals).

However, Hersey (1984) combining task and people into two by two charts gave four possibilities of leadership styles: Telling, Selling, Participatory, and Delegating. Using this model, Hersey (1984) assumed four basic levels of subordinate attitudes and therefore argues that each level requires different style of leadership.

**Figure 1:
Situational Leadership Model**

| | | Task | |
|--------------|------|---|---|
| | | Low | High |
| Relationship | High | Leadership Through Participation <i>Use when followers are able but unwilling or insecure</i> | Leadership Through Selling <i>Use when followers are unable but willing or motivated</i> |
| | Low | Leadership Through Delegation <i>Use when followers are able but willing or motivated</i> | Leadership Through Telling <i>Use when followers are unable but unwilling or insecure</i> |

Source: Adapted from Hersey (1984)

For subordinates at the lowest level (unable and unwilling to do a good job), the model counsels managers to "tell": such people need direction from their boss. At the next level up (willing but unable), subordinates want to do the job but lack skills. The model tells leaders to "sell" in such situations: explain their decisions and provide subordinates with an opportunity for clarification.

At the next level, when subordinates are able but unwilling, the leader should use "participating" to increase motivation: share ideas and have a participative discussion. At the highest level, with subordinates who are both able and willing, the leader should simply delegate: the subordinates will do fine without leader's input (Hersey, 1984).

On the other hand, Bolman and Deal (1997) reframing the leadership role, identified four frames of leadership; each highlighting and offering significant possibilities and distinctive image on the leadership process.

But the duo were quick to point out that depending on the leader and circumstance, each frame can lead to compelling and constructive leadership, but none is right for all times and seasons.

Figure 2:
Bolman and Deal's Frames of Leadership

| Frame | Effective Leadership | | Ineffective Leadership | |
|----------------|----------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | Leader | Leadership Process | Leader | Leadership Process |
| Structural | Analyst, architect | Analysis, design | Petty tyrant | Management by detail and fiat |
| Human resource | Catalyst, servant | Support empowerment | Weakling, pushover | Abdication |
| Political | Advocate, negotiator | Advocacy, coalition building | Con artist, thug | Manipulation, fraud |
| Symbolic | Prophet, poet | Inspiration, framing experience | Fanatic, fool | Mirage, smoke and mirrors |

The structural leadership most often than not evokes images of petty tyrants and rigid bureaucrats who never met a rule they did not like. To the structural leaders, leadership can be powerful and enduring; so they do their homework and focus such much on the implementation. The human resource leaders advocate openness, mutuality, listening, coaching, participation and empowerment. They view the leader's role as a facilitator and catalyst that motivate and empower subordinates. The assumption of human resource leaders is that the leader's power comes from talent, sensitivity and service rather than position or force. They believe in people and communicate their belief to others. The third frame of leadership is the political leadership. The political leader uses a combination of personal artistry and political maneuvering. A political leader is a realist, who avoids 'what they want' to cloud their judgment about 'what is possible'. They map the political terrain by thinking carefully about the players, their interests, and their power. Their focus is on building relationships and networks. Thus, recognising the value of personal contact and face-to-face conversations. An average political leader recognises that power is essential to their effectiveness. The symbolic frame provides the fourth type of leadership. The symbolic leaders see organisations as both the theater and temple. The organisation is seen as a theater because every person in the organisation is an actor who has certain roles to play and tries to communicate the right impression to the right audiences. As temple, the organisation is seen as a community of faith, bounded by shared beliefs, traditions, myths, rituals and ceremonies. Symbolic leaders are story tellers who capture people's attention by sharing experiences. They are always visionary leaders' who follow a consistent act of practices and roles. Often they embody their vision in story – a story about us and about our past, present and future.

Given the above analysis of leadership and its significant importance to an organisation, two things have been accepted as common and essential to good and effective leadership. These are: (i) all good leaders must have the right qualities like vision, strength and commitment, and (ii) that good leadership is situational – what works in one setting may not work in another. Therefore, Beach (1980) opines that the effective leader is the one who can appeal to his constituents in a meaningful way. He speaks their language by getting the followers to act, using any of the numerous devices: influence, power, threat of force, persuasions and appeal to legitimate right. Summarising the above, Quigley (2000) therefore concludes that:

Effective leaders are guided by a holistic understanding of their entities, which is accomplished by keeping one's eye on the future, reviewing and monitoring the commitment to purpose and direction and ensuring this purpose is shared through effective communication (p. 17)

The Leadership Problem and Trade Union Movements in Nigeria

In Nigeria before the emergence of the trade union movements, there existed social institutions such as the guild and craft societies, who performed the same duties as the contemporary trade unions (Fashoyin, 1992). However, with the introduction of wage employment by the Europeans, there came the introduction of trade unionism. According to Fashoyin (1992) and Yesufu (1984) the history of unionism in Nigeria indicates that the first union was formed in 1912 and known as the Southern Civil Service Union. However, the union changed its name in 1914 to Nigeria Civil Service Union (NCSU) after the amalgamation of the Northern and Southern protectorates. Though, the NCSU was not a typical trade union, because it was not formed with all the ideals of modern union. The union was to provide primarily a forum for social interaction among African officers in the colonial services as was the case in the other British West Africa Colonies. However, between 1914 and 1932, there existed four unions altogether. Though, these unions were operating illegally because they were not recognised by the colonial administration.

The crucial year in the development of trade unionism in Nigeria was 1938 when the Trade Union Ordinance was passed on the British Colonies. This period saw the beginning of a coherent public labour policy; which formally legalized the existence of trade union movements. The spread of trade unions between 1945 and 1979 was a symptom of the increasing

class – consciousness of the Nigerian people during periods of agitations and wage awards. The Nigerian workers tended to develop a positive disposition towards unions. This explains the significant increase in the number of unions from 4 in 1932 to over 1,000 in 1977.

There were subtle but important changes in unionisms between 1978 and 1998 as a result of successive government interventions in the control and administration of Trade Union in Nigeria; particularly under the military regimes. For instance, there were restructuring exercises which bring about compulsory mergers along industrial lines for the union movements. First in 1977/1978 the unions were restructured along industrial axis (a deviation from the existing craft unions) from over 1,000 to 42 industrial unions and secondly in 1996 the unions were restructured still along industrial lines from 42 to 29 industrial unions. This has serious implications on the unions, their membership and finances. However, today the trade union movement is structured as thus:

| | |
|---------------------------|----|
| Central Labour Movement | 2 |
| Industrial Unions | 30 |
| Senior Staff Associations | 25 |
| Employers Associations | 13 |

Source: Office of the Registrar of Trade Unions.

Obviously, a major problem plaguing the trade union movement in Nigeria since the early 1900's has been the problem of leadership. Most scholars writing on the Nigerian trade unions have observed that it is largely the absence of commitment to those core values and ideals of good and effective leadership that has landed the trade union movement where it is today (Adesina, 2002; Adewumi, 2004 and Bassey, 2005). The unions had been seriously plagued with divisible acrimonious and chameleonic characteristic of leaders. Okunade(2008:2) writing generally about the leadership problem in Nigeria opines: "One thing that is evident is the recognition of leadership deficit as an important factor in understanding Nigeria's predicament".

Thus, Omolewa (1992) avers:

Our major problem... is leadership. We usurp power: we take what does not belong to us, and in the process we do not enjoy the stolen positions. We comment and lament and we suspect everyone...

...The vicious circle continues until we are removed from office in ignominy only to discover that those who have flattered us and failed to tell us the truth are really not committed to us or to our cause. We have been deceived all along (p. 106).

Buttressing this further, Adewumi (2004:93) was of the opinion that:

This is the setting that has turned some trade union leaders into big time traders and contractors, currying the favour of government and employers for patronage. It is also this setting that would make top union officials leave the employment of a trade union and pick up employment with an employer in the same industry.

Furthermore, Fashoyin (1992) avers that the trade union movements severally were:

Embroiled in leadership and factional disputes. These disputes... usually arose as a result of competitive struggle for leadership and control, either between appointed general secretaries and elected officials, or among the latter. In many cases, disputes of these types manifested because of the failure to adhere strictly to union constitutional procedures on the division of labour between the officers and more often, over the process of changing the leadership through the electoral process (p. 55).

Suffice, it to say that over the years many issues led to leadership misbehaviour (poor leadership) in the Nigerian trade union movement. The problem of ideological stances; delegates' representation at conventions; financial impropriety; lack of accountability, involvement in partisan politics; government's divide-and-rule tactics. All these have exposed the union leaders to various charges of abuse of office, corruption, over zealotness, exuberances, extravagances, ineptitude and insensitivity to members' opinions and views. Adesina, (2002) once opined the top echelon of the Nigerian trade union movement remains vulnerable to cooptation and corporatist politics that weakens union leadership without empowering their membership. According to Bassey (2005) cases of abuse of office, leadership tussle, and overriding interest in the prerequisites of office and inconsistency and possible cooptation by the state have undermined the sustainability of the positive leadership of the trade union movement in Nigeria. As a result of leadership problem schism had always plagued organized labour for decades. Above all, this has led to unprecedented dissolution of the trade

union movement by the successive military government (Oluyemi – Kusa, 1992).

Currently, what exists in the trade union circles in terms of quality of leadership is in shortfall of the expected standard when compared with what exists in most developed countries. Researchers have shown that many trade union leaders are not committed to their jobs, and their sense of efficacy is low. Low job performance has been found among Nigerian trade union leaders (Sonubi (1987); Oluyemi-Kusa (1992); Olaniyan (1999); Adesina (2002); Ajaja (2004); Adewumi (2004&2005); & Bassey (2005).

Evidences have shown that the attitudes of the Nigerian trade union leaders to jobs, roles and expectations after being elected into offices are negative. This lack of commitment and unwillingness to effectively carry out their duties could be attributed to overzealousness, insensitivity, and extravagances by many of them in the recent time. Most of them have resorted to paying only lip services to genuine union matters while expending a great deal of energy on womanizing and drunkenness. Trade union leaders subscribe to different ideological belief, which in turn shape their perception of their roles as trade union leaders. This explain the tendency to distinguish, within the Nigeria context, between the democrats and the radicals however, it would appear that many a Nigerian trade union leader who openly subscribe to the radical ideology have failed to measure up to the demands of the ideological tradition. As such, this ideological posturing has ended up creating a false impression in the minds of the Public (Adewumi, 2004). This contrasted sharply to the novelty and dignity accorded the crops of union leaders in the 1950s and 1960s.

It has been proved that without good leadership the cause of the labour movement can hardly be achieved and whatever achievements recorded can hardly be sustained (Bassey, 2005). In order to meet the expectation of the objectives of the union, something positive has to be done. Thus, there is the need for a general reorientation of trade union leaders in order to engender quality leadership in the trade union circle. The severity of the outcomes of poor leadership highlights the necessity of understanding and managing leadership misbehaviour in the trade union movement in order to lessen its social impacts.

Till date, the trade union leadership remains a highly demanding and intense job that requires full commitment and confidence. A trade union

leader must believe in his/her ability and capacity to perform effectively and deliver to the best expectation of his/her members. Therefore, the challenges of modern trade union movements require the objective perspective of leaders as well as the brilliant flashes of vision and commitment that wise leadership provides. The Nigerian trade union movement needs more people in leadership roles who can find simplicity and order amid organisational and social confusion/chaos. More importantly, such leaders must be versatile and flexible leaders who love their work, their organisations – the union, and the people whose lives they affect. The Nigerian trade union movement needs leaders who appreciate the leadership role as a moral and ethical undertaking. Leaders who provoked or guided their unions to change have been seen to have vision, shared the vision with their members and valued the union workers and members alike. They are proactive and they take risks. The Nigerian trade union leaders need to combine hardheaded realism with passionate commitment to larger values and purposes.

The question that needs to be answered at this point is one that pertains to how we could encourage and nurture such qualities and possibilities. What can be done to ensure congruence between members' aspirations and the union leaders? If the leaders learn and practice new ways of thinking and responding would they exhibit good leadership behaviours? Would the introduction of Games method in teaching leadership courses help to enhance the effective leadership ability of trade union leaders in Nigeria?

Methodology

A pretest, post-test, control group quasi-experimental design was adopted for the study. The population of the study consisted of leaders of Non-Academic Staff Union (NASU) of two purposively selected research institutions in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. The two institutions were: University of Ibadan, Ibadan and Nigerian Institute for Social and Economic Research (NISER) Ibadan. A sample of thirty NASU Leaders were randomly chosen from each of the two House Unions; making a total of sixty NASU leaders.

The following criteria were used to select the 60 participants for the study: (i) Volunteerism – participants must be willing and ready to participate in the study without any coercion; and (ii) full participation – (participants must be ready to attend and actively participate in all the treatment sessions. The participants were divided into two groups: treatment and control groups. The participants from the university of Ibadan were taken as the treatment

group while those from NISER were taken as the control group. The participants in the treatment group were exposed to different leadership video films. These films include annotated documentaries on life and times of great leaders, with the hope of enhancing their leadership qualities. Though, traditionally the games method has been created solely for entertainment, but serious games are increasingly being developed for a number of significant purpose. These include military games, government games, educational games, corporate games, healthcare games, political and religious games (Michael and Chen, 2006). The purpose of the application of games method for this research is to provide a controlled environment that will ethically responsible and support the investigation to elicit realistic behavioural responses from the trade union leaders used for the study. There are evidences to show that the application of the method can have far reaching effects for social functioning and the quality of individual life.

The study was conducted for duration of three weeks. During this period, the researchers and the participants interacted very well. This was in four phases: recruitment, pretest, treatment and post-treatment evaluation. The therapeutic sessions hold for two days in a week for about one hour each day.

This study was experimental in nature and it involved the manipulation of independent variables by the researchers to determine their effects on the participants. The researchers made sure that observed differences in the study were not due to extraneous variables within or outside the participants' environment. In essence, extraneous variables were controlled effectively. The therapists were the only ones involved in the treatment of the participants to ensure that uniform treatment was given to all members of each group.

The research made used of Trade Union Leadership Scale (TULS) with a reliability co-efficient (r) of 0.89. The TULS is a self Likert-like structured 35 – items inventory which is meant to measure and ascertain the level of effective leadership traits among the trade union leaders.

The pre-test data for the two groups: treatment and control groups were analysed using mean and standard deviation to help in establishing the similarities and prove that the groups are similar in behaviour before the commencement of the treatment. While the Analysis of Co-Variance (ANCOVA) was used to determine the effect of the treatment on the

experimental group. The MCA was also used to ascertain the direction of the difference and to determine the amount of variations in the independent variable.

Discussion of Findings

Table 1:

Summary of ANCOVA Results

| Source of Variation | Sum of Squares | DF | Mean Square | F | Sig of F |
|---------------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|----------|
| Covariates | 209.782 | 1 | 209.782 | 4.649 | .036 |
| PRETEST | 209.782 | 1 | 209.782 | 4.649 | .036 |
| Main Effects | 355.994 | 1 | 355.994 | 7.890 | .007 |
| TRTGRP | 355.994 | 1 | 355.994 | 7.890 | .007 |
| Explained | 565.776 | 2 | 282.888 | 6.269 | |
| Residual | 2346.334 | 52 | 45.122 | | |
| Total | 2912.109 | 54 | 53.928 | | |

The results of the findings show a significant difference between the behavioural change of participants in the experimental group and the participants in the control group ($F(2,52)=7.890, P<0.05$). This clearly shows that the games show method was very effective in enhancing behavioural change among trade union leaders. The means of the two groups were 65.04 and 59.52 for the treatment and control groups respectively. This therefore, demonstrated that the experimental group was superior to the control group in responding to behavioural changes as a result of their exposure to games show training method.

From the above, it could be deduced that there could be behavioural change among trade union leaders (and leaders in general) by using appropriate treatment techniques. The assumption by gaming researchers (Sweetser & Wyeth, 2005; Greenberg & Eskew, 1993 and Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) that behavioural changes can be brought about by games show training method could be the possible reason for the findings above. The fact that the participants in the treatment group performed better in the post-

test scores than the control group revealed that the treatment programmes employed were effective. More importantly, the low scores of the participants in the control group are not surprising because no treatment was given to them. While the experimental group was receiving treatment that would enhance their leadership abilities, participants in the control group were engaged in various activities that were not capable of enhancing their effectiveness. The findings of this study agreed with Drennan, Drennan and Keeffe (2008), and Michael and Chen (2006) who found a significant positive relationship between the games method and behavioural change. So, when people are exposed to a game show method of training, it has a strong and unique impact on their behaviour. The resultant effect of the games show training method on trade union leaders was an improvement in their leadership effectiveness.

Quite a number of studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of games show training method in modifying behaviours (Drennan, Drennan & Keeffe, 2008; Drennan, Keeffe, Russell – Bennett & Drennan, 2007; Stratx Simulations, 2007; United States Army, 2007; Nintendo, 2007; Michael & Chen, 2006; Sweetser & Wyeth, 2005; Young 2005; Sweetser & Johnson, 2004; Taylor, 2002; Greenberg & Eskew, 1993, and Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

However, the study further shows that there was a significant difference between the behavioural change of participants with long and short leadership experience. The MCA result show an unadjusted Dev'n Beta value of 2.91 and -2.61 from a Grand mean of 62.13 for both long and short leadership experience respectively. The result of this study was in harmony with the findings of Olaniyan (1999) and Ajaja (2004) that length of leadership experience significantly predicted effective behavioural change among trade union leaders. The findings of the study also agreed with Oluyemi-Kusa (1992), Adesina (2002), Adewumi (2004) and Bassey (2005) who all found that years of experience as a leader in a union is the most important factor in moulding one's responsiveness and effectiveness as a union leader. Therefore, leadership experience is a significant factor to be considered in training programmes that is out to mould and change the behaviour of trade union leaders.

Similarly, in line with the submission of Sonubi (1987) and Okunade (2008), this study agreed that the years of general leadership experience of leaders have a significant impact upon their effectiveness. Therefore, it is critical that effective leadership, particularly in an organisation like the trade

union movement, depends on the length of experience as a leader in the union. The longer the experience, the more effective the leader is. His/Her vision and commitment to the objectives of the union as well as to the well-being of the members will be getting stronger by the days.

On the basis of the above, the increase in the effectiveness of a trade union leader as a result of increase in leadership experience could be understood from the fact that the more experienced a person is in performing a task, the more confident and effective he/she would be given the same task to perform repeatedly.

Conclusion

In this paper, the researchers investigated the effect of Games show training method on the enhancement of attitudinal change among trade union leaders in Nigeria. The results of the finding show that the games show method was very effective in enhancing behavioural change among trade union leaders. Practically, the treatment group was superior to the control group in responding to behavioural changes as a result of their exposure to games show training method.

The findings of this study have far reaching implications. With the games show method which gave a better understanding of trade union leadership behavior will assist the trade union movements to develop suitable policies to deal with incidences and/or escalation of leadership misbehavior (leadership problem); as well as creating more effective leadership training systems for the rank-and-file of the union members. Further, this game training method could be modified to act as job training tool for newly elected leaders; so as to help them think positively and rationally, avoid negative self-esteems and distorted thoughts, and be more realistic in their job expectations as trade union leaders.

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Net-Working in Distance Education: Problems and Prospects

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Introduction

Modern distance education has two attractive features that have contributed to its immense growth in popularity in recent times. First, it frees instruction from time to time and place, expanding the market for education to a clientele not previously served. And second, it has economies of scale reducing per student's costs or increasing profits in entrepreneurial education as the number of student's enrolled increases (Calvert 1998) Akintayo (1998), Dodds (2000), Ansere (1992). As instruction is separated from instructor, the incremental cost of delivery to increasing numbers of students is relatively small.

Development of a unit of instruction for distance delivery however is more costly than classroom or extended classroom instruction. This investment may be justified by the economies of delivery in large scale operations where the cost of face-to-face instruction would be prohibitive. However, many distance teaching institutions serve relatively small numbers of students in each course and operate with small budgets. Acquisition of courses produced elsewhere can enhance a curriculum at less cost than original production and elsewhere can enhance a curriculum at less cost than original production and sale to other institutions can help to amortize the cost of development.

Daniel (1996) observes that the ultimate aim of cooperation in Distance Education institutions should be to give students the benefit of better courses or a wider range of courses. Cooperation here is perceived to be collaboration between one Distance Education Institution and another. The collaboration will involve risks as well as benefits. For example, effective cooperation as identified by IEC/CET (2000) lead to the following opportunities for the institutions involved in collaboration:

- ◆ Sharing information
- ◆ Exchanging experience
- ◆ Exchanging advisers and consultants
- ◆ Collaborative staff training
- ◆ Accepting and/or exchanging external materials
- ◆ Acquiring and/or exchanging external materials
- ◆ collaborating on evaluating external materials
- ◆ collaborating on adaptation of materials
- ◆ cooperating on development of related course units
- ◆ Establishing credit transfer arrangements
- ◆ creating a common open learning system.

Despite the logical appeal of course sharing, it has until recently been confined to wishful discussions among certain distance education administrators who approach the subject with a sense of futility. Faced with numerous perceiv3d obstacles, many find it easier simply to follow the traditional pattern of local development.

Our focus in this paper is to determine the benefits, problems and prospects of Net-working otherwise called collaboration among distance education institutions through the adaptation of the courses that are used in one institution to another. This will reduce the overhead costs of paying for the scripting, editing and other costs involved in the production of the courses.

But what are the possibilities of making the collaboration effective and operational? Issues serving as constraints of Net-working in course adaptation are examined also in this paper. These constraints are in two categories; the Academic barriers and the Institutional references. Let us take each of these major constraints especially how they can frustrate Net-working activities.

Academic barriers

Curriculum requirements

Traditional, academic institutions or their growing authorities have prescribed their own curricular. In many cases, detailed outlines of what academic material must be covered in specific courses are on record and no course that does not fit an approved course description may be added to the curriculum. In practice this is not generally so serious an obstacle as it

may appear to be; most institutions within countries and even internationally have similar curricular in core subjects, and in any case, course outlines are often sufficiently vague to permit some flexibility in content.

Style of instructional design

Anyone who has surveyed courses produced by different institutions has recognized the imprint of the institution on the design of instruction and the variety of instructional styles. Some institutions have strict requirements concerning what must be included in a course and how the instruction is presented (for example, objectives, self-testing exercises with answers and the division of course work into lengths appropriate to a single study session).

While research suggests that students use study materials in as many different ways as there are students, and by extrapolation that some of our heartfelt criteria may lack the pedagogical merit we ascribe to them, we bring our bias to any course assessment. In a visit paid to a class on design of instruction for distance education where students had been reviewing materials from different institutions; they were vociferous in their criticism.

We were able to compare their ratings of the materials with an objective measure of the success of the materials in the contents for which they were designed.

Academic quality

Academics reviewing courses written by others typically are critical as they do to articles for journal publication.

Testing the notion that there are degrees of academic acceptability with a minimum tolerable standard, we have sometimes asked a critical reviewer whether he or she would deny employment to a colleague who taught a course similar to the one rejected, or alternatively, whether offering the course would reflect badly on our institution in the academic community.

When such questions are posed, rejections are sometimes abandoned in favour of acceptance. We have concluded that reviewers sometimes reject courses on the grounds that they would not teach them that way.

Regional and institutional references

In this new age of distance education, writers and institutions have taken to heart the dictum that they should speak to their students' experience and be very clear about requirements. This has led to incorporation of local examples and to interspersing of institutional administrative jargon in instructional materials.

Vocabulary also varies from country to country. The use of unfamiliar terms could interfere with student learning, but our own experience suggests that vocabulary differences will seldom be grounds for rejections of a course for adoption. Where important differences exist, a short glossary is all that would be needed.

Institutional administrative jargon and instructions specific to the systems for which the course was designed can also confuse students. With adopted courses, one is often faced with having to write extensive explanations and alternate instructions into course manuals and then content with the fact that students do not read these instructions carefully.

Production quality

The new institutions dedicated to distance teaching have normally opted for professional printing systems, and for a time this separated them from correspondence programmes that relied on reproduction of typed manuscripts and amateur graphics. This even led to debates about whether there were any instructional values in 'pretty' courses.

The current widespread use of word processors, laser printers and high quality photo-reproduction systems has resulted in a general improvement in the quality of print materials, and we hear far fewer criticisms of print quality than we did some years ago.

Audio tapes and video materials are also being produced with greater care than in the past. Audio recordings of lectures produced by an academic while sitting in the bath are becoming rare, as are telecourses consisting of talking heads. The models provided by institutions valuing quality and the availability of technology for production at declining cost have had the effect of improving standards across the board.

Technological and physical requirements for delivery

Distance teaching institutions vary tremendously in the range of facilities they employ for course delivery. A course delivered at one institution may incorporate many courses of other institutions. Clearly the option to acquire parts of a course and develop alternatives to the rest is important. In the section on marketing procedures we address some of the problems associated with piecemeal distribution.

Institutional barriers

Course ownership

Who owns a course is a question that was not always clearly addressed with institutional policy, and many institutions that have been teaching at a distance for a long time have been forced to face the question when they receive requests to purchase

In this case, it is the absence of a clearly defined ownership policy that is the greatest barrier to course sharing, though it is also important to have a common agent for an institution's materials.

Pricing

New to the business of materials marketing academic institutions have been slow to develop common pricing conventions. For print materials, the policies we are familiar with include a flat fee for a course regardless of length and a variable price based on page count. Added to this may be per student fee, annual course adoption fee and/or annual consortium membership fee.

Unit pricing is generally the major element of cost assigned for other types of course materials, and aside from inconsistencies in pricing and confusion concerning relative cost arising from the application of different sizes. However, technological advances may soon make the sale of printed study guides, audiotapes and computer-assisted learning materials obsolete. For example, we could easily obtain a computer tape of print materials or feed printed copy through an intelligent optical scanner, make minor modification to suit our own delivery system and student population, and print it out without glossaries, errata and contradictory instructions. This

method will force us to consider pricing policy again, and the unconsidered decision may well be to charge an acquisition fee, again discouraging small markets.

Marketing procedures

Pricing policy is certainly part of marketing, but there are other marketing considerations that may be barriers to course sharing. The first and simplest is that many institutions do not have a marketing arm and are unsure whether they can justify one. One option is to contract with a private company; this will work only if the private company understands the product and the market and we are a little pessimistic about this after observing how some of the private marketers of distance education materials operate. Another option is to form a marketing consortium.

A suggestion has been under consideration by the International University Consortium, which does not normally adopt courses produced by member institutions, to serve as a facilitator for exchange among members or a publisher of materials available from its members.

Whatever the marketing agency, it should be able to provide for review a full set of the materials that the original institution provides to its students. Nothing discourages purchase so much as having to wonder about the nature of the course elements referred to but not available. Some institutions use different agencies to market video and print materials and in many cases marketing only a few elements of an entire course. An institution should look at what it sends for review from the viewpoint of someone who knows nothing about how the institution operates and prepare notes explaining the things that might be confusing.

Many times we have reviewed courses without knowing whether we have the whole package, what 'size' it is meant to be, or even what level it is designed for. This lack of information may affect a decision about whether to contract for an academic review of the course.

Copyright

Countries vary in their copyright regulations and institutions vary in the extent to which they observe copyright policies. Institutions should give serious thought to obtaining world copyright clearance for reprinted materials.

Funding Allocations

In the choice between local development and purchase institutions are often constrained by the way in which they allocate funds, and this may be affected by internal political consideration. If courses are written by faculty as part of their regular workload, assisted by various technical and support staff, the funds consumed by their salaries and use of facilities are not available for purchasing course materials. Even when the student fees cover the cost of purchase, faculty in particular may dispute the loss of work as a threat to expansion of their departments.

Advanced countries like the British Columbia, the provincial government attempts to overcome this problem by making funds available specifically for the development or acquisition of distance education materials, and proposals must pass review of a committee with representative from different institutions. In our institution we still must make decisions about whether to devote resources to development or purchase, and in cases where fronted actuation costs are high, these decisions may have an impact on staffing.

This is really an administrative matter, whose decisions are what prompt an institution to purchase courses; the decision seldom comes from faculty members. Furthermore, these administrative decisions are sometimes prompted by financial incentives such as government grants for additional students.

Adaptation policies

Assuming that a purchasing institution may want to make modifications, we must have clear policies on whether changes are permitted and who must approve them. Course writers may understandably object to changes that leave their names associated with a particular institution or environment. Yet most modifications proposed would not affect quality but simply make the course appropriate for another situation.

The most extreme negative we have heard expressed (and we quickly dropped all ideas of acquiring the course in question) was one that stated that the entire original course must be used exactly the same way as in the original institution, including assignments, schedule and examinations. A more reasonable approach is to be require an opportunity to review and

approve the changes, coupled with the attitude that modifications that do not compromise the academic quality of the material should be permitted. This issue will arise more often as we stop selling books and replace them with electronic signals.

Conclusions and prospects

Barriers to course sharing are rooted in traditions of institutional insularity and individual academic autonomy. They are fortified by both lack of policies and mutually accepted conventions for sale and purchase. And they are overcome by the assertion of administrative will.

Administrators of distance education programmes who wish to promote course exchange can examine their institutions policies in the light of the issues raised in this write-up. Analyzing institutional obstacles, they can seek solutions that are sensitive to context but effective in their application. Working with interested colleagues at other institutions, they develop common standards and conventions that recognize differing institutional requirements. Assessing the results of their efforts, they can share their experiences, setting models for exchange that other may follow. In some future utopia, we may be able to transmit course materials electronically, adapt them to our particular circumstances, expand our curricula, and all profit by the exchange.

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Vocational Training Programmes and Interest Perceptions of the Women

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Recognizing that education, skills, competencies, attitudes and health are the basic components of human resources, the Government of India has launched a number of programmes for the promotion of the above among the masses. The implementation of these programmes has resulted in the growth of literacy, increase in health indices, promotion of skills and competencies, enabling the population to play a larger role in the growth of the economy of the country. In spite of these developments, there are certain sections of the population who could not utilize the above and have become marginalized in the society. The prominent marginalized groups include poor, women, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and rural population.

Half of our population constitutes women. Among them half of them are illiterates. Nearly two thirds of them are rural women, lagging behind in literacy and with low income level. They work approximately 15-18 hours in a day both inside and outside the house. Their contribution was accounted as domestic and not considered as economic. However, their contribution to the GDP is about half and they receive only one tenth for the work that they do. In spite of the several obstacles in their way, they are surging ahead in contributing their might for the economy of the country by participating in all the sectors of development.

Recognizing their competencies and potentialities and to empower them to make them as partners of the development, they were provided opportunities to improve their competencies and vocational skills through vocational courses organized by the various Non-Governmental and Governmental Agencies. However, most of these programmes are pre-conceived, designed at the top level and option was not given to these agencies while implementing these programmes. Due to this, majority of the women have participated in these programmes half heartedly and could not practice them leading to the wastage of resources invested in

implementing them. Hence, in order to make the vocational training programmes a success, there is a need to identify the opinion and interests of the women towards the vocational training programmes.

Review of literature

The available studies have been classified into two groups as vocational education and vocational training needs and interests of the different groups of the people, Thongpleae (1985), Ismael Silve afuenzalida et al. (1987), Daya A pererta (1988), Aswashi (2001), Misra (2002), Gupta (2002), Dimri Anil Kumar (2003), Rao (2003) Srivastava Madhu (2005), Awasthi (2006) and Agrawal Rashmi (2006) have studied various aspects of vocational education.

Pradeshi (1967), Braginsky et al (1974), Dixit (1975), Mehta (1980), H. Bhatnagar (1983), Mathur (1984), Tomar (1985), Sodhi (1988), Robert (1988), Sungoh (1988), Intodia (1993), Maruthi and Venkatesha (1998), Hamingthazuala (2001), Paintal, Majeet, Sharma and Anuradha (2002), Mahes (2005), Madhusudhana Naidu (2005), Adinarayana Reddy (2005), Agarwal Rashmi (2005), Gopi (2005) and Srivastava Madhu (2006) have identified the vocational training needs of the beneficiaries. The review shows that very few attempts have been made to study the opinion of the women towards the vocational training programmes and their interests.

Need of the Study

Realizing the need for improvement of the status of the women and to empower them to raise their voice and help them to claim their rightful share in the development, the Government of India has initiated and implemented a number of programmes. One of the areas, which was given more prominence, is equipping women with employable skills through vocational training. The empowerment of the women is possible only through helping them to participate in the programme effectively to acquire the skills and abilities needed and to make use of them in improving their quality of life in their day to day life.

The vocational training programmes will be successful only if they are based on the needs and interests of the women. Knowledge of the vocational training interests, opinion of the women towards various aspects of these courses, practical utility of the programmes will help the programme

administrators to know to what extent these programmes have helped in realising the objectives for which they were formulated. Further, the knowledge of these factors provides tips to the programme administrators to re-structure the existing programmes based on the needs of the people, to improve the quality of the programme and to make use of them to enhance the participation of the target.

The promotion of vocational skills/income generating programmes depends on the extent of participation of the target, acquisition of skills, practical utility of the skills for enhancing their economic status and their contribution in the production process. All these, in turn, depend on the relevance of the vocational training courses to their needs and employability of these skills in the local market. Further, it also depends on the background characteristics of the participants. In view of the above, it was felt that there is a need to identify the background characteristic of the targets, their opinion towards the vocational training programmes and vocational training interests of the women etc. However, the specific objectives of the study are as follows:

Objectives

The major objectives of the study are given below:

1. To identify the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the women attending continuing education centers
2. To identify the perception of the women attending continuing education centers towards vocational training programmes; and
3. To find out the vocational interests of the women attending continuing education centers and to prioritize them;

Methodology

Locale and sample of the study

The study was conducted in the Rayalaseema region of Andhra Pradesh. The intended sample of study was drawn from the continuing education centres of this region. Hence, the locale of the study is Rayalaseema Region.

The study is intended to identify the vocational training needs of the women attending continuing education programme. For the purpose of the selection of the sample, the investigator has adopted the Multistage Random Sampling method. In the first stage, out of four districts, two districts viz., Kadapa and Chittoor, were selected randomly. In Chittoor district the continuing education programme is in operation through 1,000 continuing education centres to cover 5,80,674 beneficiaries. In the case of Kadapa district the programme is in operation through 562 centres covering 3, 87,667 beneficiaries. In the second stage of the sample selection, among the revenue divisions of the districts, one Revenue Division from each district was selected randomly. In the third stage of the sample selection, from among the mandals of the Revenue Divisions, three mandals were selected randomly. In the fourth stage, from among the Continuing Education Centres functioning in the selected mandals, five Continuing Education Centres were selected randomly from each mandal. In the last stage, from among the women beneficiaries attending the Continuing Education Centres, 10 women were selected randomly. Thus the study covers two districts, two Revenue Divisions, 6 mandals, 30 Continuing Education Centres and 300 women.

Research devise

As the aim of the study is to identify the profile of the sample, opinion regarding vocational training programmes, and to identify vocational training interests, there is a need for a research tool for eliciting the required information. The review the studies clearly demonstrated that there is no readily available and suitable tool that can be adopted for the present study. Hence, the investigators has developed a tool with three sections for eliciting the responses from the sample.

In order to elicit the background information of the sample, the investigators have devised a simple tool with the items Viz., Name, Sex, Caste, Age, Education, Marital Status, if married, number of. Children, Occupation of the family and self, self income, family income, exposure to the mass media, Urban Contact etc. The vocational training programmes organised are of different kinds in terms of target, content, duration, purpose etc. In order to understand the preferences of women towards various aspects of vocational training programmes opinions of the women were collected. The items included are the duration of the vocational training programme i.e fulltime and part-time, the type of training i.e., service oriented, production oriented, their preference etc., was sought. The benefits expected

by them by attending the vocational training programmes, i.e., personal, social, occupational, economic status, social status were included. In order to elicit the responses of the sample, multiple responses were given to all the items. The respondents are expected to check one of the alternatives given against each item. In order to identify the vocational training interest of the women a set of 22 vocational courses were provided with a request to check the interested courses on a five point scale.. The final format of the inventory consists of 3 sections. The section I is intended to identify the background of the sample. The section II was devised to study the perceptions of the women regarding vocational trainings programme. The section III is intended to identify vocational training interests.

Data Collection

As a first step in the process of data collection, the investigator has contacted the Deputy Directors of adult education of Chittoor and Kadapa districts and sought their permission for collecting the data. Further, from the list of Continuing Education centres organised at the selected three mandals, five Continuing Education Centres were selected randomly. Later, the investigator visited all the selected continuing education centres and established good rapport with the Preraks of respective continuing education centres.

The investigator, with the assistance of the Preraks from among the women attending the Continuing Education Centres, selected 10 women randomly, contacted all the selected women and explained to them about the objectives of the study and the way in which they should respond to the schedules. The investigator administered the Schedules individually to the selected sample and, wherever necessary, the investigator has helped the sample to record their responses. While administrating the schedule, the information about the background of the sample was collected first. Later the section B Perception towards vocational training programmes was administered. Later the vocational training interest inventory was administered. It has taken about one hour for the investigator to collect the required information

Data Analysis

The data thus collected was pooled and analyzed keeping in view the objectives of the study by using appropriate statistical techniques. The

personal background of the sample was pooled and a profile of the sample was prepared. The opinion scores regarding vocational training programmes were pooled and the opinions held by the sample were arrived at. In the case of vocational training interests, item-wise means were calculated and classified them into three categories viz popular, moderate and not very popular vocational interests.

Findings of the study

The present study was taken up with an objective to identify and profile the characteristics of the women participants of the continuing education programme, their opinion towards the vocational training programmes and to identify the vocational training interest of the women attending Continuing Education Centres. In view of the above, the findings of the study are presented in three sections. Section – I describes the profile of the sample of the women selected for the present study and participants of continuing education centers. Section – II describes the opinion of the sample towards vocational training programmes in terms of sectors, duration, benefits, relevance etc. The section III provides an insight into the vocational interest areas of the women.

Section - 1: Profile of the women attending continuing education centers

The characteristics of the sample

The back ground characteristic of the women show that half of the women participating in the continuing education centers belongs to forward castes followed by backward castes and SC/ST. In terms of age, about sixty percent of them are above 26 years, 30% of them are between 21-25 years and 9.33% are younger in their age group. The educational background of the women discloses that one third each belongs to illiterate and primary educated group. One fourth of them are high school educated and 8.33% have inter (12 years of schooling) and above education.

The marital status of the sample shows that 58.67% of the women selected for the study is married and 41.33% are unmarried. Among the married, 56.89% have two children, followed by three children (22.16%) and one fifth of them have one child and two of them are issueless. The type of family of the women shows that 70.97% of them are from nuclear families

and 29.33% are from joint families. The family occupation of the women shows that 43.00% of them are from agriculture background followed by collies (39.33%) and self employed (17.67%). The self occupation of the women shows that majority of the sample are from cooli, house wives and others. The individual income of the of the women per annum shows that 62% have below Rs. 8000 income, approximately an equal women sample have Rs. 8001 to10,000 and 10,001 and above income. The family income of the sample shows that 73% of them are from middle income group and14% are from high income group and rest of them are from low income group.

The profile of the women participating in the continuing education centres shows that majority of them belongs to forward castes, above 26 years, illiterate and low educated, married with two children, nuclear families, coolies low individual income and middle income families. In other words the continuing education programme designed and implemented was able to rope the target effectively.

Table-1
Personal Characteristics of the Women attending Continuing Education Centers

| S.No | Character | Group | N | % |
|------|-----------------------------------|-------------|-----|-------|
| 1. | Caste | OC | 153 | 51.00 |
| | | BC | 96 | 32.00 |
| | | SC/ST | 51 | 17.00 |
| 2. | Age | < 20 | 28 | 9.33 |
| | | 21-25 | 91 | 30.33 |
| | | 26 > | 181 | 60.33 |
| 3. | Education | Illiterate | 102 | 34.00 |
| | | Primary | 97 | 32.33 |
| | | High school | 76 | 25.33 |
| | | Inter and > | 25 | 8.33 |
| 4. | Marital status | Married | 176 | 58.67 |
| | | Unmarried | 124 | 41.33 |
| 5 | If married, number of Children | 0 | 2 | 1.14 |
| | | 1 | 35 | 19.89 |
| | | 2 | 100 | 56.82 |
| | | 3 | 39 | 22.16 |

| | | | | |
|-----|-------------------|---------------|-----|-------|
| 6. | Type of family | Joint Nuclear | 88 | 29.33 |
| | | | 212 | 70.67 |
| 7. | Self occupation | House wife | 80 | 26.67 |
| | | Cooli | 155 | 51.67 |
| | | Others | 65 | 21.67 |
| 8. | Family Occupation | Cooli | 118 | 39.33 |
| | | Self employed | 53 | 17.67 |
| | | Agriculture | 129 | 43.00 |
| 9. | Individual Income | Below 8000 | 186 | 62.00 |
| | | 8001-10000 | 58 | 19.33 |
| | | 10001> | 56 | 18.67 |
| 10. | Family Income | Below 12000 | 39 | 13.00 |
| | | 12001-20000 | 219 | 73.00 |
| | | 20001> | 42 | 14.00 |

Exposure to the Mass Media

The mass media agencies viz., Newspaper, Radio, T.V and Cinema play a predominant role in education, dissemination of information, entertainment, creation of awareness etc. The regular exposures to the media enable the audience to acquire the latest and current information and also equip them with up to date knowledge. Keeping this in view, an attempt was made to study the extent of exposure of the women for the mass media. The consolidated information is presented in the following table.

Table-2
Exposure of the women to the media

| S.No | Media | N | Percentage |
|------|------------|-----|------------|
| 1 | News Paper | 107 | 35.67 |
| 2. | Radio | 197 | 65.67 |
| 3. | T.V | 287 | 95.67 |
| 4. | Cinema | 231 | 77.00 |

From the table it is evident that majority of the women participating in the continuing education centers are exposed to the television (95.67%), followed by cinema (77%) and two thirds of them also exposed to the radio. In addition, 35.67% of them are exposed to the print media i.e., the newspapers. On the whole, it shows that the sample selected for the study have been exposed to the one or the other mass media. In other words, the women are aware about the important role played by the media in their day to day life. Further, it also demonstrated that TV and cinema were found to be the popular media among the women. Hence these two media can be utilized effectively to

promote and develop positive attitude among the women not only for the promotion of information development issues and education.

Participation in Social Institutions

For furtherance of the society, the members of the community have been trained by the social institutions. These institutions are created to organize the individuals into groups so as to protect themselves and to lead a life which will be mutually beneficial to all the members of the society. This is also so in case of the women who is considered as marginalized groups. Majority of the women attending the continuing education centers disclosed that they are participating in activities of social institutions. On the other hand 23% of the women were found to be not associated with any social institutions. The further information collected also shows that 93.51% of the women are actively associated with the DWCRA (Development of Women and children in Rural Areas Programme) and about 6.49 % are the members in Velugu programme. Both the programmes are designed for the welfare of the women.

Exposure to Vocational Training

The exposure of the women to the Vocational Training Programmes shows that nearly two thirds of them have not been exposed to the vocational training. On the other hand one third of them have undergone the training. In case of those who have been trained, 43.36 % of them have attended the programmes of one month duration followed by three months (30.97%) and two months duration programmes (25.66%). The trades of the training undergone shows that, most of them are related to dress designing. To be specific, half of them have undergone training in tailoring followed by araya work (36.28%), embroidery (31.86%), computers (29.20%), painting (25.66%) and stitching (20.35%). The responses also indicate that those who have undergone the training are using the skills mostly for self consumption and have not used it commercially.

Urban Contact

Exposure of the selected women to the urban areas is proof of their mobility and modernization. The frequent visitor to urban areas will have more awareness about the latest know how in the social issues and will be able to communicate effectively. The information presented in the table shows

that all the women except a few are found to be visiting the urban areas. Among them, more than half of them visit urban areas twice a month followed by once a month (29.37%) and 4 times in a month (11.54%). About 6.99 percent visit thrice in a month. This is an indication that the women are adequately exposed to the urban areas.

Table-3

Exposure to Vocational Training Programmes

| S.No | Item | Group | N | % |
|------|--|------------|-----|-------|
| 1. | Earlier Exposure to Vocational Training | Yes | 113 | 37.67 |
| | | No | 187 | 62.33 |
| 2. | Duration of the Vocational Training Programmes | 1 Month | 49 | 43.36 |
| | | 2 Months | 29 | 25.66 |
| | | 3 Months | 35 | 30.97 |
| 3. | Trades of Training Programmes | Tailoring | 61 | 53.98 |
| | | Painting | 29 | 25.66 |
| | | Embroidery | 36 | 31.86 |
| | | Araya work | 41 | 36.28 |
| | | Stitching | 23 | 20.35 |
| | | Computers | 33 | 29.20 |

Table-4

Urban contact and its frequency

| No | Groups | Groups | N | % |
|----|---------------------|--------|-----|--------------|
| 1 | Urban Contact | Yes | 286 | 95.33 |
| | | No | 14 | 4.67 |
| 2 | Frequency of visits | 1day | 84 | 29.37 |
| | | 2 days | 149 | 52.10 |
| | | 3 days | 20 | 6.99 |
| | | 4 days | 33 | 11.54 |

Section - 2: Preferences of the Women towards the Vocational Training

The opinion of the stake holders will go a long way in organizing the Vocational Training Programmes. The opinion in terms of the area of the training, duration of the program, timings of the program, their utility to the individual or the society, sectors of training will govern the type, nature and performance of the programmes to be organized. Hence in this section an attempt has been made to study the opinions of the women towards the various aspects of the vocational training programme.

Sectors of Vocational Training Programmes

The vocational programmes are of various types and the sample women's opinions were elicited on four sectors of the programmes viz., service, production agriculture and entrepreneurship. The responses of the sample were presented in the following table.

Table-5
Preferred sectors of vocational training programme

| S.No | Area | N | % |
|------|-------------------------|-----|-------|
| 1. | Service | 39 | 13.00 |
| 2. | Production | 75 | 25.00 |
| 3. | Agriculture development | 41 | 13.67 |
| 4. | Entrepreneurship | 145 | 48.33 |

The response pattern of the women shows that half of them have preferred to undergo training in entrepreneurship. One fourth of the sample preferred the training in production area. Further an equal number of them chosen the service and agriculture sectors as their preferred areas of training respectively. The response is an indication to show that majority of the women are willing to undergo training in entrepreneurship.

Duration and Length of Training

The participation of the trainees in the training programmes depends upon the duration, timing and period of training programmes. If the above are not suitable, the participation of the trainees will be low and if it is suitable,

extent of participation will be more. Keeping the above in view, the opinions of the sample were collected and presented in the table.6.

Table-6

Preferred duration and timings of the training programmes

| S.No | Duration | Length | N | % |
|------|----------------|----------------|-----|-------|
| 1 | Duration | Long duration | 105 | 35.00 |
| | | Short Duration | 195 | 65.00 |
| 2 | Long Duration | 12 Months | 45 | 42.86 |
| | | 6 Months | 28 | 26.67 |
| | | 3 Months | 32 | 30.47 |
| 3 | Short Duration | 30 days | 62 | 31.80 |
| | | 15 days | 56 | 28.72 |
| | | One week | 38 | 19.48 |
| | | 6 days | 39 | 20.00 |
| 4 | Timings | Full Time | 63 | 21.00 |
| | | Part Time | 237 | 79.00 |

The information presented in the table shows that 35 percent of sample preferred long duration training programmes and majority of the women preferred short duration training programmes. Hence short duration training programmes will be more appropriate for women. With regards to the length the long term training programme 42.86% preferred one year programme followed by three months (30.47%). In the case of short duration programmes, an equal number preferred one month and fifteen day training programmes respectively. Further, women with 20% each preferred one week training programme and less than one week training programme respectively. In case of timings of the training programmes, majority of them preferred part time programmes. On the other hand, one fifth of the women preferred to have full time training programme. Hence, it is suggested that vocational training programmes to the women will be successful only if they were organized on part time basis

Benefits of Vocational Training Programmes

The participation of the trainees in an education programme depends upon their opinion on the anticipated benefits of the programme. The knowledge of the above will help the programme administrators to

restructure of the programmes according to the needs of the clientele. Keeping the above in view, the opinion of the sample women have been collected on four possible areas of benefits and presented in the following.

Personal Benefits of Vocational Training Programmes

The opinion of the women towards the possible benefits of the vocational training programmes for an individual in enhancing his/her status is socio-economic development of the family followed by personal efficiency (44%), occupational satisfaction (38.33%), Personal popularity (26.67%) of the sample women. Further, 19 % of them felt that the vocational training programmes will be useful in enhancing their occupational popularity. On the whole the women are of the opinion that the vocational training programmes will enhance their socio economic status and personal efficiency.

Table-7

Benefits of vocational training programme

| S.No | Area | Item | N | % |
|------|-------------------|---------------------------------------|-----|-------|
| 1 | Personal Benefits | 1. Personal efficiency | 133 | 44.00 |
| | | 2. Personal Popularity | 80 | 26.67 |
| | | 3. Occupational Popularity | 57 | 19.00 |
| | | 4. Occupational Satisfaction | 115 | 38.33 |
| | | 5. Economic Development of the Family | 225 | 75.00 |

Social benefits of Vocational Training Programmes

The opinion of the women towards the social uses of the vocational training programs presented in the table shows that more than half of them felt that the vocational training programs will enhance the opportunity for growth in the society and 55 percent felt that it increases their status in the society (51.67%). In addition, women were also of the opinion that the acquisition of vocational skills will enable them to gain respect in the society and to attain the stature of a great personality. Further, it also helps them to attain new connections in the society. The opinion of the women clearly demonstrates that vocational training enables the individual to get social

respect and opportunity for new interactions. It clearly shows that women possess a positive attitude towards the vocational training programmes. Hence, they may be encouraged to undergo training in vocational skills.

Table-8

Social Benefits of Vocational Training Programmes

| S.No | benefits | N | % |
|------|---|-----|-------|
| 1. | Increase in status in the society | 155 | 51.67 |
| 2. | Social popularity | 59 | 19.67 |
| 3. | Enjoys the respect | 133 | 44.33 |
| 4. | Improve the opportunity for development | 165 | 55.00 |
| 5. | Attain the stratcher of a great person | 134 | 44.67 |
| 6. | Establish new contacts | 84 | 28.00 |

Use of Vocational Training for Production

The pattern of the preference of the women shows that majority of them perceived that Vocational Training Programmes will help them to prepare popular products followed by required products for the society. In addition they also felt that the vocational training programmes help them to produce the products with low cost and high quality.

This clearly indicates that women are conscious about the products required for the country, the quality of products and the pricing of the products hat they can produce.

Table-9

Use of Vocational Training for Production Purpose

| S.No | Production | N | % |
|------|--|-----|-------|
| 1. | Increases production in the country. | 111 | 37.60 |
| 2. | Generates required material for the society. | 163 | 54.33 |
| 3. | Helps Manufacture quality products | 110 | 36.67 |
| 4. | Helps develop low cost materials | 97 | 32.33 |
| 5. | Helps Prepare popular products | 196 | 65.33 |

Relevance of the vocational training for the service sectors

The opinion of the sample women regarding relevance of the vocational training programmes to the service sectors shows that the vocational training programmes will help to satisfy the needs of the community, help to earn additional income and to earn name and fame through service sectors. This clearly indicates that the women are aware about the usage of the vocational training programme.

Table-10

Relevance of the Vocational Training for the Service Sectors

| S. No | Service | N | % |
|-------|--|-----|-------|
| 1. | Provides required services to others | 147 | 49.00 |
| 2. | Gain additional income through services | 130 | 43.33 |
| 3. | Attain name and fame through service sectors | 83 | 27.67 |

Section - 3: Vocational Training Interests of the women

In order to promote the inclusive growth through vocational training, a number of Governmental and Non-Governmental agencies have conceived a good number of vocational training programmes. These programmes are of long term and short term courses relating to the promotion of skills in service oriented and production oriented sectors. The success of these programmes largely depends on the participation of the clientele for whom the programmes were designed. A review of the performance of these programmes shows that developing and equipping the target with required skills and abilities were found to be not successful, as these programme are not based on the need and interests of the target.

The continuing education programme, which is in operation, is being used for organise vocational training programmes continuously for the benefit of the participants. Majority of the participants of the vocational training programmes were found to be women. Hence, in order to support and strengthen the programme, there is a need to identify the vocational interests of the participants viz., the women. Hence, an attempt was made in this section to identify the vocational training interests of women and prioritized them.

Classification of the vocational interests

In order to classify and prioritize vocational interests of the women, the vocational interests were classified into three groups based on the criteria of mean, interests score $\pm \frac{1}{2}$ SD as more popular vocational interests, popular vocational interests, and less popular vocational interests. As per the classification, out of 22 vocational interests, 5 items were found to be more popular vocational training interests and 7 were found to be popular vocational interests and 10 items found to be less popular vocational interests among the women. The details are presented below.

More popular vocational interests of the women

The more popular vocational interests of the women along with the mean, SD are presented in the following table. The vocational training interests of the women presented in the table show that cutting, tailoring, dress making and designing were found to be the popular vocational training interests among the women followed by knitting and embroidery. Both the items are found to be closely related to each other. In addition to the above, computer and information technology was ranked third under vocational training interests among the women. Further, beauty care, health care and printing technology were also rated as more popular vocational training interests of the women. Hence, while organizing the vocational training programme for women, the above items may be given priority.

Table-11

More popular vocational training interests of the women

| S.No | Items | Mean | SD |
|------|--|------|------|
| 1 | Cutting, Tailoring, Dress Making & Designing | 4.00 | 1.40 |
| 2 | Knitting & Embroidery | 3.36 | 1.26 |
| 3 | Computer & Information Technology | 3.08 | 0.92 |
| 4 | Beauty Care & Health Care | 2.88 | 1.13 |
| 5 | Printing Technology | 2.82 | 1.16 |

Popular Vocational Training Interests

The popular vocational training interests rated by the women presented in the table shows that 7 items out of 22 items were rated as

popular vocational training interests by the women. The mean interest rate ranged between 2.33 to 2.70 among the popular vocational training interests. Handicrafts and Art, Drawing and Painting have occupied the top slot among the popular vocational training interests. On the other hand, Health and Paramedical courses and Teacher Training were found to be occupying the bottom slot of the vocational training interests of the women. Courses relating to cottage industries, electronics, cookery, bakery, confectionary and food processing were found to be occupying the middle order of the popular vocational training interests. While designing the vocational training courses, the programme administrators should know the priorities of the women and organise the programme.

Table-12

Popular Vocational Training Interests of the Women

| S.No | Items | Mean | SD |
|------|--|------|------|
| 1 | Handicrafts | 2.70 | 1.08 |
| 2 | Art, Drawing and Painting | 2.56 | 1.02 |
| 3 | Courses relating to Cottage Industries | 2.54 | 0.96 |
| 4 | Electronics | 2.37 | 0.66 |
| 5 | Cookery, Bakery, Confectionary and Food processing | 2.36 | 0.79 |
| 6 | Health & Paramedical | 2.36 | 0.90 |
| 7 | Teacher Training | 2.33 | 0.91 |

Less popular vocational training interests of the women

Out of 22 vocational training interests, 10 items have been rated as less popular vocational training interests by the women with mean vocational training interest rates between 2.15 to 2.32. The less popular vocational training interests are Refrigeration and Air Conditioning, Textile Technology, Mechanical, Automobiles and Electrical Courses. Further, the Courses relating to Agricultural and Allied Technology, Carpentry and Furniture Making, Secretarial Practice, Leather Technology and Building Technology were also rated as less popular vocational training interests. It does not mean that these courses are not relevant to the people. But these courses are preferred by a group of people who want to specialise in them. Hence, these should also be kept in view while organising the vocational training programmes for women.

Table-13

Less popular vocational training interests of the women

| S.No | Items | Mean | SD |
|------|------------------------------------|------|------|
| 1 | Refrigeration and Air conditioning | 2.32 | 0.72 |
| 2 | Textile Technology | 2.32 | 0.82 |
| 3 | Mechanical | 2.29 | 0.68 |
| 4 | Automobiles | 2.27 | 0.72 |
| 5 | Electrical | 2.24 | 0.60 |
| 6 | Agricultural & Allied Technology | 2.24 | 0.80 |
| 7 | Carpentry & Furniture making | 2.22 | 0.78 |
| 8 | Secretarial practice | 2.20 | 0.79 |
| 9 | Leather technology | 2.17 | 0.72 |
| 10 | Building technology | 2.15 | 0.76 |

SUM – UP

The background characteristics of the sample represented in the study show that they are from forward caste, belonging to a productive age group, have low level of education, married, with two children, coolies, nuclear families, agriculturists, have low individual income, and belong to middle income family groups. The characteristics clearly indicate that they can be potential trainees and required competencies can be promoted. The women are aware about the importance of media in their day to day life and TV and Cinema are the popular media. Majority of them are actively participating in the social institutions such as self-help groups. Only one third of them have prior exposure to vocational training and exposed to the urban areas regularly. The women preferred training in entrepreneurship that is of short duration and on part-time basis. They were of the opinion that vocational training helps in economic development, personal efficiency and gives occupational satisfaction. Further, they believe that it increases the opportunities for development, enhances status and personal prestige. It is a means for the popular products, to produce social requirements and provides services to others. Among the various trades, Cutting, Tailoring, Dress Making & Designing, Knitting & Embroidery, Computer & Information Technology, Beauty Care & Health Care and Printing Technology are found to be popular vocational interest among the women attending continuing education centers. Hence, while organizing the vocational training programmes in continuing education centers above trades should be given prominence over the others.

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Capacity Building of Aravanis and Kothies

*K.Vasantha
A. Swarnalatha*

Eunuchs – castrated males – have been in existence since the 9th century BC. They are called in Hindi as Hijras, in Punjab and in much of northern India they are known as Khusra or Khoti or Chakka, while in Tamil Nadu they are called aruvani or aravani (Dutt,N.,2006).

Eunuchs – Who They Are?

They are people born with a male body, but with non-male or female gender identity: transgender, transsexual or androgynous people: individual born with ambiguous genitalia or hormonal differences (inter sex) and individuals who have had castration/genital reassignment surgery performed on them. In India, for instance, a recent study of “eunuchs” revealed that only 8% were actually castrated and less than 1% were intersexed (hermaphroditic) (Wikipedia,2006).

Generally they are physically male or inter sex person who is considered a member of “the third sex”. They usually refer to themselves as female at the language level and become woman by their own will and through life threatening operation and taking several kinds of hormone tablets to change their physical appearance. They like to wear sarees and churidhars, which are very common dresses for Indian women. There are atleast one million eunuchs in India and their number are steadily growing. They call their goddess as Mathaji and god as Aravan. They have several kinds of performances, poojaha and rituals (Mausi,S.,2006).

Social Status

Most of them live at the margins of society with very low status. Few employment opportunities are available to hijaras, who must often resort to begging or prostitution. Removing bad luck also provides part of their income (Nanda,S., 1998).

Most of the young Eunuches are earning by dancing in marriages, birthday parties, temple festivals etc. Older Eunuchs go shop to shop and beg by clapping loudly (Famwal.,2006). Few employment opportunities are available to hijaras, who must often resort to begging or prostitution. Eunuchs are spread all over India, and particularly they live in mega cities. At all cost, they are living without hope of eternal life and they face terrible disease like HIV and all kinds of venereal diseases. Many

of them are dying without proper medical care, as they feel shy to go to doctors. They are among the highest risk groups of people for HIV infection in a country with the second highest rate world wide at five million people (Talwar,R., 1999).

Because of their unaccepted, atrocious behaviors they are not getting any social acceptance at large. But they says "If we don't get jobs that are meant for all human beings, that is what pushes us towards prostitution, dancing, begging and other unusual behaviors. There is no other livelihood for us. Give us an opportunity and see how we blossom" (NESA.,2006).

According to state Government, there are 140,000 "Aravani" in Tamil Nadu but only meager per cent were registered voters. Eunuchs wanted to present themselves in such a way that society will acknowledge them.

Leading a dignified life is a right of each citizen of any community. Development and upliftment of each community will culminate into the right development of the constituency and the nation as well (Narain,S.,2003).

In a move to integrate the eunuchs in the society and in-build their personality, the present study was taken with the following objectives,

Aim of two fold –

- ☞ **To instill a new sense of self-worth and**
- ☞ **To equip the eunuchs with skills they can use to earn a salary.**

METHODOLOGY

More than 100 Aravanis and kothies in Coimbatore districts were approached through Native Medicare Charitable Trust (NGO) who works for the benefits of Aravanis and Kothies. Among them, 45 aravanis and kothies came forward to participate in the study. A questioner was developed to assess the socio economic status of the aravanis and the skill training programmes were planned based on their knowledge and interest.

Results and Discussions

The results and discussion of the study is discussed under the following headings.

- I Profile of aravanis**
- II Capacity building of aravanis**

I Profile of aravanis

The emerged outcomes were discussed under the following headings.

- A. Family background
- B. Educational status
- C. Economic status
- D. Social status

A. Family Background

Table I gives the age and marital status of the selected aravanis and kothies

Table I

Age and Marital Status of the Aravanis and Kothies

| S. no | Particulars | Number | Per cent |
|-----------|-----------------------|--------|----------|
| I | Age group | | |
| 1 | 25-35 yrs | 21 | 47 |
| 2 | 35-45 yrs | 19 | 42 |
| 3 | > 45 yrs | 5 | 11 |
| II | Marital status | | |
| 1 | Unmarried | 19 | 42 |
| 2 | Married | 14 | 31 |
| 3 | Living together | 12 | 27 |

About 47 per cent of the aravanis were in the age group of 25-33 years, followed by 35-45 years (42 per cent) and >45 years (11 per cent). When we see their sexual differentiation, by birth, they were males. But within their groups they called each other with their feminine names. Majority (91 per cent) of them dressed like male and nine per cent dressed like females during the training period. Among them 31 per cent were married to women and living with their children. 42 per cent were unmarried and 27 percent were living together with another male member.

58 per cent of the aravanis followed Christianity, 40 per cent followed Hinduism and the remaining 2 per cent were Muslims. But whatever religion they might be, their god and goddess are mostly related with Hinduism and they perform poojaha like Hindus.

B. Educational Status

Table II gives the educational status of the selected aravanis and kothies

Table II

Educational Status of the Selected Aravanis and Kothies

| S.no | Educational status | Number | Per cent |
|------|-------------------------|--------|----------|
| 1 | Degree | 5 | 11 |
| 2 | Higher secondary school | 6 | 13 |
| 3 | High school | 15 | 33 |
| 4 | Middle school | 12 | 27 |
| 5 | Primary school | 4 | 9 |
| 6 | Illiterate | 3 | 7 |

It was happy to note that 93 percent of them were educated and only seven percent were illiterates. Among them, 33 per cent were completed high school education and 11 percent were degree holders.

C.Economic Status

Occupational Status

Fig I predicts the occupational status of the selected aravanis and kothies

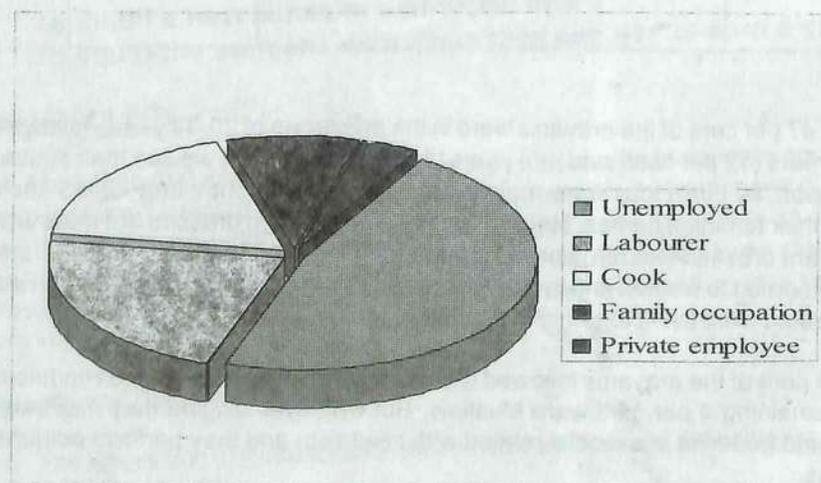


Figure I

Occupational Status of the Selected Aravanis and Kothies

The above figure shows that the economic status of aravanis was found to be very poor. About 47 per cent were found to be unemployed and were struggling to lead their lives. Greatest percent (22 per cent) were employed as cooks in their local catering service centers. Nine per cent of them were involved in their family business namely bakery and agriculture and only 4 per cent were in private sectors.

Majority (82 per cent) of the aravanis were getting below Rs. 4500 per month as their income followed by Rs.4500 – Rs. 7500 per month (18 per cent). Only 38 per cent had own house and the remaining 62 per cent were residing in the rental house.

D. SOCIAL STATUS

Table III illustrates the social relationships of the selected aravanis and kothies

Table III
Social Relationship of the Selected Aravanis and Kothies

| S.No | Particulars | Number | Per cent |
|------------|--|--------|----------|
| I | Attitudes towards their gender | | |
| 1 | Superior than others | 31 | 69 |
| 2 | Inferior than others | 14 | 31 |
| II | Equally treated by the society | | |
| 1 | Yes | 19 | 42 |
| 2 | No | 26 | 58 |
| III | Equally treated with other children in the family | | |
| 1 | Yes | 26 | 40 |
| 2 | No | 19 | 60 |
| IV | Expectation from the society | | |
| 1 | Recognition and respect | 42 | 93 |
| 2 | Love and affection | 39 | 87 |
| 3 | Employment opportunities | 21 | 47 |

When we see the social relationship, it was found to be very poor and 58 per cent expressed that they were not accepted by the society and 60 per cent were not getting proper recognition and respect from their family members. They were deprived of love and affection from the dear and near ones. They were not availed any benefits of government schemes.

They were deprived of several rights under civil law and even do not have the right to vote, marry and own a ration card, a passport or a driving license, or claim employment and health benefits. They also put forth their demand that they be allowed to lead an honorable life and stressed the need for availability of basic amenities entitled to other citizens.

The discrimination and violence that hijaras face shows that it is high time that the government, the human rights movement and other educational organisations in the country begin to take this issue with the seriousness it deserves and find solution for their issues.

II Capacity Building of the Aravanis

In order to enhance the capacity of the aravanis and kothies to undertake economic activities or to get employment in the competitive fields, skill training programmes were planned.

A. Skill Training Programmes

Details about the skill training programmes conducted for aravanis and kothies are given in Table IV.

Table IV

Skill Training Programmes given to Aravanis and Kothies

| S. no | Name of the skill training programme | Number of participants | Per cent |
|-------|--------------------------------------|------------------------|----------|
| 1 | Catering and canteen management | 22 | 49 |
| 2 | Cell phone service and maintenance | 9 | 20 |
| 3 | Basic tailoring | 7 | 16 |
| 4 | Basic Computer application | 5 | 11 |
| 5 | Herbal beauty therapy | 2 | 4 |

Table IV visibly predicts their field of interest. Based on the felt needs the training programmes were organized. Best part (49 per cent) were trained in catering and canteen management, followed by cell phone service and maintenance (20 per cent), basic tailoring (16 per cent), basic computer application (11 per cent) and Herbal beauty therapy (4 per cent).

B. Impact of the Training

The impact of the training programme was evaluated six months after the completion of the training. The results were given on the next page:-

No matter what attitude individuals have towards aravanis, it definitely believes to be true that when they get opportunity to shape their livelihood, they will mould their life in a socially accepted way. This was proved by them through the skill training programmes organized.

The following table V obviously illustrates the positive impact of the training programmes. Greatest per cent of the aravanis applied the learned skills in a constructive way to built their future in a respective manner.

TABLE V

Impact of the Training Programmes

| S. no | Name of the skill training programme | Number employed | Per cent |
|-------|--------------------------------------|-----------------|----------|
| 1 | Catering and canteen management | 11 | 24.4 |
| 2 | Basic tailoring | 7 | 15.5 |
| 3 | Basic Computer application | 3 | 6.7 |
| 4 | Cell phone service and maintenance | 2 | 4.4 |

After getting training in various fields, 51 per cent of trainees were got decent employment in their respective fields such as catering service centre (24.4 per cent), dress designing centre (15.5 per cent), computer centre, (6.7 per cent) and cell phone service centre.

Conclusion

The training programmes proved their thirst to learn new things and their exertion to establish their identity. The post evaluation results showed that the skill training programmes certainly brought improvement in their overall personality. They assured that they would shape the future in socially accepted way with the newly acquired skills and work for the development of their community.

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Social Anxiety among the Adults of Imphal East District, Manipur

*Soubam Kiran Singh
Khundrakpam Sunilkumar Singh
Laishram Niranjana Devi*

Introduction

Anxiety is a psychological and physiological state characterized by somatic, emotional, cognitive and behavioral components. But, social anxiety is the fear of social situations and the interaction with other people that can automatically bring on feelings of self-consciousness, judgment, evaluation and inferiority. Social anxiety is anxiety about social situations, interactions with others and being evaluated or scrutinized by other people. It can occur at different times of life, and for different reasons. Developmental social anxiety occurs early in childhood as a normal part of the development of social functioning and is stage that most children grow out of, but problem or chronic social anxiety may persist until adolescence or may surface adulthood. People vary in how often they experience social anxiety and in which kinds of situations; overcoming social anxiety depends on the person and the situation. In some cases, it can be relatively easy just a matter of time passing for many individuals and yet for some people social anxiety can become a very difficult painful and even disabling problem that is chronic in nature. The reasons are unknown. Social anxiety can be related to shyness or anxiety disorders or other emotional or temperamental factors, but its exact nature is still the subject of research and theory and the causes may vary depending on the individual.

Hence, a study was conducted in Imphal East District to find out the anxiety level of adults which is as per the following:

Study Area

Imphal East District is one of the nine districts of Manipur. It came into existence from the 18th June, 1997 with its Head Quarter is at Porompat. The district is approximately 469.44 sq.km. It is located in the eastern part of the valley. The district is generally a valley, with some hill areas. It is bounded on the north by Senapati district, on the east by Ukhrul district, on the south by Thoubal district and on the west by Imphal West district. For smooth administration Imphal East District is divided into three Community Development Blocks namely Sawombung, Jiribam and Iriblung. There are three Municipal Councils namely Yaikul, Wangkhei and Jiribam and two Nagar Panchayat namely Andro and Lamlai.

Need of the study

The study determines the social anxiety among the adults of Imphal East district. Further attempt was also made to find out the difference in social anxiety between male and female adults and between educated and uneducated adults. It is therefore summarized that the present study makes advantageous contribution in the following manner:

1. The result may assist to find out the degree of social anxiety to the adult persons of Imphal East District
2. The study may further assist in funding out the differences in social anxiety felt by the adult according to their sex and educational level.

Objectives of the Study

The main objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To study the social anxiety among the adults of Imphal East District
2. To study the differences in social anxiety between male and female adults
3. To study the differences in social anxiety between educated and uneducated adults

Hypothesis of the Study

1. Social anxiety is high among the adult of Imphal East District
2. There is no significant difference in social anxiety between educated and uneducated adults
3. There is no significant difference in social anxiety between male and female adults

Delimitation of the Study

The area of the present study was restricted to the Imphal East District and only to the determination of the degree of social anxiety and the differences according to sex and educational level of the adults in the selected area of the study.

Method of the Study

The present study was based on survey method particularly the normative survey research.

Sample Size

For this study, the investigator selected 100 respondents on the basis of random sampling technique. The distribution of adults was 50 each from males and females.

Population of the Study

Adult population living in Imphal East District was the population of the study.

Tools used

For a comprehensive study, the tool used was questionnaire as it is found to be more flexible tool for collecting both quantitative and qualitative information.

Social anxiety questionnaire developed by T.O. Augustine was used. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items of 4 alternatives i.e. absent, occasionally, often and usually.

Scoring system

The alternatives are weighed 1, 2, 3 and 4 going from absent, occasionally, often and usually. If the respondent score is 1-20, social anxiety is absent, if it is 21-40, social anxiety is present at low level, if it is 41-60, social anxiety is present at moderate level and if it is 61-80, social anxiety is high.

Statistical techniques used

In order to analyse and interpret the test scores, the investigator adopted the following statistical procedure:

1. Means and Standard Deviation.
2. 't'-test to compare same sub-groups.

Analysis and Interpretation of Results

In the present study the measure of Central Tendency (Arithmetic Mean) applied to study the nature of the data 't'-test was applied to study the significant difference between males and females and educated and uneducated groups who are living in Imphal East District.

1. Degree of social anxiety among the adults of Imphal East District

The degree of mean in the social anxiety scores of adults of Imphal East District is given in Table-1.

Table-1

| <i>No. of sample</i> | <i>Mean (\bar{X})</i> | <i>Standard Deviation</i> |
|----------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 100 | 50.3 | 17.35 |

It can be observed from the Table-1 that social anxiety scores of adults of Imphal East District found to have mean scores of 50.3 with standard deviation of 17.35. Thus, the hypothesis that there is high social anxiety among the adult of Imphal East District has been rejected on the basis of the mean scores because the social anxiety level of the adults found to be neither too low nor too high.

2. Degree of social anxiety between educated and uneducated adults

The significance of difference in the mean scores of the educated and uneducated groups has been entered in Table-2.

Table-2

| <i>Groups</i> | <i>No. of Sample</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>Standard Deviation</i> | <i>t'-test value</i> | <i>Level of significance</i> |
|-------------------|----------------------|-------------|---------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------|
| Educated | 50 | 41.7 | 16.3 | 6.06 | ** |
| Uneducated | 50 | 58.8 | 11.5 | | |

** stands for significant of 0.05 level

It can be observed from the Table-2 that social anxiety scores of educated and uneducated adults are found to have mean scores of 41.7 and 58.8 with standard deviation of 16.3 and 11.5 respectively. The 't'-test value between the mean scores of two groups comes out to be 6.06 which is significant at 0.05 level. It means that the two groups have differences in social anxiety. The uneducated adults are having higher social anxiety scores than the educated adults. In short, it can be stated that uneducated adults are having higher anxiety than the educated adults. Thus, the hypothesis that there is no significant difference in social anxiety between educated and uneducated adults has been rejected.

3. Degree of social anxiety between male and female adults

The significant of difference in the mean scores of male and female adults is presented in Table-3.

Table-3

| <i>Groups</i> | <i>No. of sample</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>Standard Deviation</i> | <i>'t' test Value</i> | <i>Level of significance</i> |
|---------------|----------------------|-------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|
| Male | 50 | 46.4 | 18.1 | 4.52 | ** |
| Female | 50 | 62.2 | 16.8 | | |

** Stands for significant at 0.05 level.

It can be observed from the Table-3 that social anxiety scores of male and female adults are found to have mean scores of 46.4 and 62.2 with standard deviation of 18.1 and 16.8 respectively. The 't'-test value between the mean scores of two groups comes out to be 4.52 which is significant at 0.05 level. It means that the two groups have difference in social anxiety. The female adults are having higher scores than the male adults. In short, it can be stated that female adults are highly anxious than the male adults. Thus, the hypothesis that this is no significant difference in the social anxiety of male and female adults has been rejected.

Conclusions

From the statistical analysis it is evident that the social anxiety among the adults of Imphal East District was neither too low nor too high but it is moderate.

When comparison was made between social anxiety among the educated and uneducated adults there found to have difference in social anxiety. In short, it can be stated that uneducated adults are having high social anxiety than the educated adults.

Lastly, social anxiety among the male and female adults can be stated that female adults are having higher anxiety than the male adults.

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Education is empowerment and a country's social and economic progress depends much on the empowerment of the people. Eventhough, India has achieved the overall literacy rate of 74.04 percent according to 2011 Census which includes both the literacy rate of the formal and non-formal streams, still there is a wide gap (16.68%) between male and female literacy rate. No one can find fault with the intension of the government as right from the beginning one or the other scheme is brought in the Five Year Plans for the beneficiaries of both the systems of education. Unfortunately, till date we are not able to achieve the desired result.

Very recently, there was an International Conference on Women Literacy and Sustainability in New Delhi in which renowned adult educators from E-9, SAARC countries and International Agencies shared their experiences and opinions. Their experiences are valid but how far we are going to convert those experiences into ours. The greatest tragedy in India is that adult education is purposefully kept outside the main stream of education and treated separately. India may be the only country where massive schemes of adult education programmes have been planned and implemented with no permanent infrastructure facilities. This clearly shows adhocism and with the result the adult education schemes are always changed after few years in the name of improvement. Hence, a time has come that adult education has a permanent infrastructure right from national level to the field level with regular employees to manage so that they supplement and complement the formal educational system.

In order to improve and strengthen the educational system at elementary level, the Right to Education has been brought in which ensures every child to receive minimum education in the school going age. The elementary education already facilitates the students to go up in the ladder without any detention upto 5th standard. This has been specifically done to make the children come out of any psychological problem about the examinations and the related acts of pass or fail. Unfortunately, this is becoming counterproductive now as a recent United Nation`s sponsored study in five states of India has found that 5th standard students are capable of studying only the 3rd standard text books. The study clearly states that the students' learning ability has not improved primarily because of lack of creativity among the teachers. If this situation continues, there will be drop out from the school system and in course of time the dropped out children will become the incoming load of adult education.

Saakshar Bharat, Belem Declaration and Framework of Action (BFFA) and Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE) – Commonality and Differences

L. Mishra

Saakshar Bharat like its predecessor NLM – TLC is a continuation of something which is well tested and proven and yet which needs to be given a drive and momentum for the simple reason that in 21st Century, the age of knowledge, the era of quest for information, communication, modernization and innovation we can ill afford to live with an army of 250 million plus unlettered persons. Selectivity and scientific prioritization is the key note of Sakshar Bharat. It focuses attention on those districts where illiteracy is far more widespread instead of spreading itself too thin. This is an exclusively rural programme and within that focused ambit the thrust is on women, members of SC, ST and minorities. All the strategies of the Mission as spelt out in Sakshar Bharat document – be they in relation to survey, creation of a social environment conducive to literacy, imparting functional literacy and numeracy and continuing education for life long learning have been tailor made for this constituency. In an era of democratic decentralization it is but natural that the Gram Panchayats of educationally backward districts should be the principal implementing agencies of the programme. There is a monitoring mechanism at all levels so that nothing goes by remiss, whatever happens on the ground is faithfully reported in time, critically scanned and correctives follow as part of a two way communication process.

Community, howsoever heterogenous, is the key player in the same mode as Gram Shikshan Mohim of yester years. Sakshar Bharat provides a package in which literacy, basic education, vocational skill development and continuing education have all been rolled into one fold as an integral unity, as a continuum. That is the expected outcome of Sakshar Bharat. Unlike the volunteer based mass campaign approach of 80s and 90s, there is no single dominant approach but multiple approaches relevant to a particular setting to achieve the expected outcome. The approach has to take into account the sensitivities, complexities and specificities of the target groups.

This is the Keynote address delivered in the National Conference on Saakshar Bharat, Belem Framework and LIFE at Bengaluru on June 27, 2011

Let me proceed to Belem Framework for Action or BFFA to establish its complementarity with Sakshar Bharat. The Annexure to the Framework provides a scintillating analysis of the current global setting. There is burgeoning population explosion, there are serious demographic imbalances, conspicuous consumption by a microscopic minority while 850 million people go to bed hungry every night and 750 million are chronically malnourished, 774 million are unlettered adults, 75 million are school dropouts, an all time high environmental degradation and denudation, migration within and between countries, displacement of people from native habitat and unequal access to food, water and energy bringing in their wake untold misery and suffering. The market forces have brought unprecedented opportunities and prosperity but the inequality is also as pronounced and formidable. The global scenario is indeed sad and depressing. There is, however, a silver lining at the end of the tunnel. Every word in the Preamble and wide ranging recommendations covering policy, governance, finance, participation, quality etc. pulsate with a lot of hope, faith and conviction that all is not lost and life can be started afresh despite crippling constraints and challenges through access to functional literacy and continuing education. And that is the quintessence of Belem Declaration. Radical and qualitative change amounting to transformation is possible through adult learning and continuing education. Belem Framework for Action presents a strategy which is possible, feasible and implementable and the desired results achievable. In Sakshar Bharat we speak the same language with the same energy and conscience. Sakshar Bharat like BFFA envisages a learning process which would be comprehensive, inclusive, integrated and life long.

In Sakshar Bharat like BFFA we are crystal clear in advocating a type of adult learning and education which will equip people with knowledge, capabilities and endowments, skills and competencies and values and principles add a new meaning to life. To sum up, the recommendations made in BFFA are substantially in tune with what is provided in Sakshar Bharat. The differences are as striking as the commonalities. The differences are:

- we do not seek to achieve the goals of adult literacy and education through any legislative effort as advocated in para 12 page 3 of BFFA;
- as far as rights of all children in 6-14 age group is concerned, 14 States had legislative enactments through which parents were made responsible to ensure children's education; the same did not work and now in the wake of the judgement of Supreme Court in J.P. Unnikrishnan Vs. State of A.P. (1993) and through 86th amendment of the Constitution of India

inserting Art. 21A, Right to Education Act was enacted in 2009 and has been enforced w.e.f. 1.4.10;

- we think and believe that UPE, UEE, AE and CE supplement, complement and reinforce each other; one is incomplete without the other;

- there has been significant stepping up of resources for adult literacy and education over successive Five Year Plans although with 3.9% for education as a whole and 0.2% for AE we are nowhere near 6% GNP in Education as advocated in para 14 page 4 of BFFA;

- we have 1369 jails and sub jails all over the country with a total prison population of 3.85 lakh (this keeps on fluctuating). No survey has so far has been conducted to assess the extent of functionally literate and illiterate among the prison inmates. Providing adult literacy and education to the unlettered inmates in prison is an important recommendation made in para 15 page 5 of BFFA which deserves consideration for inclusion in the programme of action in Sakshar Bharat;

- principal target of the Mission in Sakshar Bharat is to impart functional literacy to 70 million adults in the age group of 15 years and beyond. In para 11 page 2 of BFFA it has been proposed that we redouble our efforts to reduce illiteracy by 50% from 2000 levels by 2015 (EFA Goal 4). Fifty PC of total number of illiterates in India would be approximately 130 million (50% of 260 million). Our target, therefore, is less than what has been envisaged in BFFA. We may have to give a second look at the target we have fixed in Sakshar Bharat if we have to bring ourselves anywhere near the EFA goal.

There are three other areas in BFFA which are relevant for us but find inadequate and not so forceful mention in the Sakshar Bharat document. The first one is *"Developing or improving structures and mechanisms for the recognition, validation and accreditation of all forms of learning by establishing equivalency frameworks"* (page 3 para 12 (e) of BFFA). It occurs though rather inadequately at page 5 of Sakshar Bharat document under head "Objectives" and reads as *"Enable the neo-literate adults to continue their learning beyond basic literacy and acquire equivalency to formal educational system"*. This would need to be developed further. In concrete operational terms we need structures and mechanisms to be in place for the recognition, validation and accreditation of all forms of learning by establishing equivalency frameworks. This task could be entrusted to National Open School Society and State Open School Societies, Deptt. of Distance Education and Learning in different Universities including IGNOU, New Delhi.

The second one is "Supporting the development of writing and literacy in the various indigenous languages by developing relevant programmes, methods and materials that recognize and value the indigenous cultures and knowledge while adequately developing the teaching of the second language of wider communication". (page 5, para 15(e) of BFFA). The bilingual literacy is a very important strategy for imparting instructional lessons to members of the ST community first in their own dialect which is spoken in tribal homes and thereafter switching over to the State Standard language as the medium of instruction at an appropriate stage. This strategy calls for a little elaboration.

More than 85% of the total tribal population in the country (numbering 80 million) is concentrated in eleven States namely Assam, Bihar, Chattisgarh, Jharkhand, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan, West Bengal and Uttarakhand. There are 22 languages listed in the 8th Schedule of the Constitution while there are 1642 dialects which are used as medium of communication by the members of the ST community. Most of these dialects do not have any script. The dialects which are used as their mother tongue are:

| Name of the ST community | Mother tongue |
|--------------------------|---------------|
| Bhil | Bhilli |
| Gond | Gondi |
| Santhal | Santhali |
| Bodo | Boro |
| Ho | Ho |
| Hali | Halabi |
| Munda | Mundari |
| Madhia | Madhia |

It may be noted that there is no significant and uniform relationship between the members of a tribe and their mother tongue. Take for example, Orissa my home State which has 62 notified tribes but only 37 dialects. However, for the purpose of adopting bilingual literacy as one of our strategies in Sakshar Bharat the absolute number of people speaking a particular dialect in a particular region may be adopted as a reasonable norm or criterion. In concrete operational terms imparting bilingual literacy may involve the following:

- identify the names of ethnic groups whose members speak a dialect which is distinctly different from the State standard language;

- ☉ identify the language/dialect spoken by them;
- ☉ identify if primers in those languages/dialects already exist and if they can be termed as standard teaching learning materials;
- ☉ if there is no such primer one which will be bilingual in character and which will conform to the social, economic and cultural needs of specific ethnic groups needs to be designed in a workshop of creative thinkers, writers, artistes, visualisers and illustrators and in particular those who are conversant with the State standard language and dialects spoken by the tribal community;
- ☉ identify volunteers from within the specific ethnic group who are interested, willing and capable with a modicum of training in andragogy to teach through the spoken dialect before switching over to the State Standard language;
- ☉ design an appropriate training module in a cascading mode of imparting training for the volunteer instructor so that they are thoroughly equipped to teach a bilingual primer.

It should be noted and emphasized that teaching in the spoken dialect is a transition and should be designed to act as a bridge for the eventual medium of instruction which will be the State Standard Language. Such a switch over may take place after 50 to 75 PC of the lessons in basic literacy have been imparted. This is essential as without this groups speaking languages which are different from the State Standard Language will remain cut off from the national mainstream.

The third one is *"Lending greater support to systematic interdisciplinary research in adult learning and education, complemented by knowledge management systems for the collection, analysis and dissemination of data and good practice"* (page 6, para 16(f) of BFFA). Research does occur at page 26 and 29 of Sakshar Bharat document but the framework for research needs to be widened to include systematic interdisciplinary research in adult learning and education.

In early 90s the then Union Education Secretary – Shri Anil Bordia, an outstanding adult educator himself had conceptualized and put in place a National Institute of Adult Education (NIAE) for invigorating both pure and applied research in AE. Prof. Anita Dighe who was the first Director, NIAE is present in the distinguished audience. I understand that due to strange

vicissitudes which are not of the making of Bordiajee this important institutional framework in research is no longer in place. I would like to crave the kind personal indulgence of Hon'ble MOs MHRD to consider if Government could revive NIAE in the larger interest of giving a boost to such systematic interdisciplinary research as has been envisaged in BFFA.

I would now turn to Literacy Initiative for Empowerment or LIFE vis a vis Sakshar Bharat. Basically LIFE implies 2 things namely (a) literacy is a first major step to most other forms of learning (b) literacy programmes, if designed and delivered effectively can be a powerful tool for empowerment. Now what is empowerment? In the old NLM document it was clearly stated that functional literacy will enable the learners to identify the causes and factors which contribute to their deprivation and will empower them to grapple with those causes and eventually overcome them so that they can effectively participate in the affairs of the family, community, society and the nation. What is empowerment has, however, not been defined in LIFE document. There are different ways of looking at the concept and practice of empowerment. Paulo Friere, an outstanding Brazillian Adult Educator and Martin Bauber looked at empowerment in terms of critical examination of social construction through interrogation of the nature of ones-social and historical situation through which critical faculties are allowed to fully and freely develop. In the context of adult education, dialogue between the teacher and the learner becomes a civilizing and humanizing agency of beneficial social consciousness leading it to informed choice and action as the ultimate aim of all teaching and learning processes. This is a refreshingly new approach what is known as the non-banking approach to AE. Sheila Rani Chunkath and Prof. Venkatesh Athreya in their book 'Literacy and Empowerment' have reproduced a beautiful Arivoli song on women's empowerment through literacy which is so enthralling that it makes all of us in the words of German Poet Goethe 'enraptured, feasted and fed'. To quote from the poem:

'Sister, learn to ride the cycle
 And turn the wheel of life
 See the little boy riding high
 You too can learn and ride by
 Women now fly planes and steer ships
 Move with times and learn the tricks
 Husband riding, wife on the pillion
 Is but a story of the past
 Wife riding, spouse behind
 Sister, make it a reality fast'.

Empowerment basically means autonomy in the context of decision making or making choices. When there are alternative ways of doing a particular thing, a functionally literate person will first weigh and balance the merits and demerits of the alternative courses of action which are open and will eventually adopt that alternative choice which will enable him to perform or deliver in less time, less cost and optimal advantage to him/her. Ability to make informed choices implies access to information about a host of issues such as health, nutrition, environment, education and forces which operate in the world of work. Such an informed person would be able to take right decisions in right time in right manner, would have control over forces which shape and influence the symmetry of human existence and conducts himself/herself as a mature, sensible, responsible and responsive adult would be able to participate in the affairs of the family, community, society and nation as a responsible and responsive adult. Let me illustrate this point by a live example from the ground. Mehaboobnagar in A.P. like many other districts in the country (Banda, Balia, Basti, Ajamgarh, Jaunpur in U.P., Navada, Lakshipur, Sarai, Rohtas, Muzaffarpur, Majhepura, Darbhanga and Madhubani in Bihar, South Rajasthan, South Gujarat, KBK region in Oriss, Bilaspur, Raigarh, Raipur in Chattisgarh, Palamau, Chatra in Jharkhand) is a migration prone district. It's a predominantly tribal pocket without adequate access to avenues of employment which can be said to be stable and durable. Members of the ST community who are landless, assetless and who have nothing to fall back upon get duped by allurements and false promises offered to them by middlemen called Maistries, receive advances from them and go to work at far away destinations. They do not know what awaits them at that unknown point. No sooner have they landed at the destination point than they become victims of a process of ruthless exploitation. They cannot easily extricate themselves from the worksite until and unless they have liquidated the advances taken by them. The advances do not get liquidated as the documentary evidence remains with the middlemen and the ignorant, illiterate and unsuspecting workers do not know how much advance was taken, how much has been adjusted with wages and how much is outstanding. Their women are victims of sexual harassment at work place while their children remain victims of

educational deprivation. As they grow up they add to the ranks of unlettered persons.

Exemplary teaching learning materials which are designed as a part of adult learning and education for such persons should in all fairness enable them to exercise the correct option and discretion on the following:

Should they migrate or should they not?

- Should they migrate on their own or through middlemen?
- Are they aware of the consequences of migration through both i.e. on their own or through middlemen?
- Can they grapple with these consequences and overcome them?
- Is migration absolutely unavoidable?

The answer to these questions and the consequential churning of the critical consciousness of the person who eventually makes up his mind to migrate or not to migrate is what Paulo Frierie calls conscientization. It is in this context that the concept, meaning, need, goals, objectives, strategy and methodology of LIFE are synonymous with those of Sakshar Bharat. The prioritized target groups in LIFE document i.e. women, out of school girls and their families, the poorest and the most marginalized members of the family are the same as in Sakshar Bharat. As far as goals and objectives of LIFE occurring at page 19 of the LIFE document, literacy is firmly on the national agenda with a tremendous amount of political will, commitment and determination (as evident from the launching of Sakshar Bharat by the PM on 8.9.2009 in the presence of Hon'ble Minister, MHRC and MOS, MHRD). The presence of Hon'ble MOS, MHRD here reaffirms that commitment. As far as advocacy and communication are concerned these constitute core strategic areas for environment building as also for creating a sustainable demand for literacy in the Sakshar Bharat document. Page 8 of the document reads "A key aspect of the demand creation will be making visible to the learners the value, importance and relevance that literacy will have in their day to day lives".

In concrete operational terms, a Steering Committee namely 'Strategic Communication Group' (SCG) has been constituted by NLMA under the Chairpersonship of Hon'ble Minister of State for Human Resource Development to provide policy direction and guidance on the media and communication strategies of Sakshar Bharat. Another Strategic Communication Implementation Group (SCIG) has been constituted under chairmanship of DG, NLMA to support and coordinate the social mobilization campaign nationally. As an erstwhile member of the Second Group I am happy to share with you that the National Film Development Corporation (NFDC), a Government of India undertaking under the Ministry of I&B has been assigned to produce TV and Radio spots and designs for print ads required for media campaign under 'Sakshar Bharat'. NFDC has risen to the occasion and produced the following audio and video programmes and print ad designs (to be released through DAVP) based on two concepts. They are 'Kabhi bhi Kahin bhi' to advocate a flexible approach adopted under 'Sakshar Bharat'. (two video spots, five audio spots and print advertisement designs have been made based on the above

concept) and 'Faida hi Faida' to advocate benefits of functional literacy (four video spots have been produced based on the above concept). These programmes have been found to be very useful by the SCIG members.

I am further happy to share with you that BGVS which was the most vibrant supportive arm of NLMA in 80s and 90s and whose contribution to TLC – both conceptualization and operationalization has been invaluable has continued its interest to work for Sakshar Bharat and has submitted a proposal for undertaking a nation wide mobilization campaign covering 1000 GPs in 20 States. With proven credentials, the involvement of BGVS through a venture as this will stand Sakshar Bharat in good stead.

Let me share a live example of social mobilization through arousal of critical consciousness the way I had witnessed it in 90s and the powerful impact it left in the minds and psyche of the people by a BGVS cultural troupes' performance (Akshar Kala Jatha). The setting was Raichur, part of the erstwhile Nizam's Hyderabad – Karnataka region, dry, drought prone and backward in all respects. The Bharat Gyan Vigyan Jatha which commenced on 2nd October, 90 was about to conclude. In the wake of BGVJ and under the auspices of BGVS, an Akshar Kala Jatha was being staged in a remote village of the district. As the first servant of literacy I had the occasion to witness the jatha, which was being performed to illustrate the nexus between drought, unemployment, poverty, illiteracy, indebtedness and bondage. Landless agricultural labourers who were witnessing the jatha were moved to tears. I went and asked them 'why are you crying'. Quick came the reply in native Kannada which translated to English reads as under:

'How is it that we did not realize the depth and intensity of our plight on account of drought, indebtedness, illiteracy and bondage? How is it that nobody ever placed these issues before us so clearly as now. If illiteracy is the root cause of our poverty, deprivation and bondage we solemnly resolve to become literate from today'.

Page 22 of LIFE document emphasizes an intergenerational approach which promotes literacy among mothers and children simultaneously. This strategy will be relevant 2 specific situations. The first is the situation in which migrant women are placed along with their children who have accompanied them. These children will remain illiterate unless we have in place programmes for imparting basic education to them through their mother tongue. The second is the controlled environment in which children upto 6 years have according to a direction of the Hon'ble Supreme Court in R.D. Upadhyay Vs. State of A.P (1993) to be kept with their members (convicts as well as UTPs). Both constitute

a fertile ground where functional literacy for adult mothers and simple alphabetical literacy for children upto 6 years can be simultaneously promoted.

While concluding I would like to make three remarks. Each country is uniquely placed. It has got its own geographical, topographical and demographical indicators, its own ethos and culture, its own peculiarities, complexities and sensitivities. While one can draw inspiration and strength from a couple of experiments abroad, it is not easy to replicate an experiment 100%, howsoever innovative, as the same may not gel entirely with our geopolitical and agro climatic conditions. While BFFA and LIFE are commendable initiatives/ experiments, they have taken shape and roots in a particular setting which may not be of universal application. Selectivity has, therefore, to be the key word. We need to cull out those parts of the experiment which fit into our setting and milieu. Secondly, it may be naïve or foolish to belittle the impact of whatever experiments have been implemented and which have taken roots in India. Whether it is Gram Shikshan Mohim or Farmer's Functional Literacy (FFL) or Functional Literacy for Adult Women (FLAW) or Mass Programmes of Functional Literacy (MPFL) each was conceptualized and acted upon in a particular setting. There have been problems, constraints and challenges but within the given limitations, they have made very valuable contributions which have made a difference in both rates of literacy and number of literates in absolute number (as is evident today). Thirdly, a National Mission is a programme but unlike other routine programmes, it has a societal character with a lot of urgency and seriousness of concern. Societal character implies involvement of all sections of the society – teachers, students, women, youth, employers, trade unions of workers, media professionals, NGOs, Voluntary Social Action Groups and individual animators who have a sense of pride, patriotism and distinction about the mission. This despite a lot of sincere and earnest efforts on the part of DG and his colleagues is yet to happen. Instead, the upper middleclass and the intelligentsia continue to display an air of detachment or aloofness, if not indifference and apathy towards the mission as they used to do in 80s and 90s in the days of NLM - TLC. Many of them even today, nearly 75 years after the Indian National Congress at the behest of Bapu had launched a campaign for total literacy in the 6 provinces where the Congress had formed the Government under the 1935 Act suffer from mindsets like, 'Is it necessary? Is it desirable? Is it not dispensable? Can it not wait? These mindsets constitute the major threats to the success of the mission. While this is the picture at the upper strata of the society we have a tremendous creative potential at the grass root level which if harnessed in time can enrich and strengthen the foundation of the mission. There are first rate signers who can present the finest outpouring of human heart, first rate artistes who can perform on the stage, painters and sculptures who can infuse

life into the inanimate with their brush. Many of them live and die unknown, unheard and unsung. We need to search them, trace them, bring them to the surface and involve them with the work of the mission. We need to recall what Gurudev Rabindaranath Tagore had written in Upahaar 100 years ago:

'Into the innermost recesses of human heart
The waves of the universe strike us off and on
That heart alone is sensitive

Which receives the waves and repulses (if the waves are unfriendly and hostile)

That heart reverberates the sound of the waves
Which are friendly to mankind
That heart does not know
What is the time for food, sleep and rest'.

Promoting Gender Equality Through the Open Learning Platform

Raju Narayana Swamy

Abstract

Education starts with people as they are the primary and ultimate focus of all development. It empowers women and explores the causes and reasons for long denial of formal education to women. Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women, to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, and at all levels of education is necessary to reach the overall aim of universal education for girl children. In the light of this, the paper recognises that education for girl children in India is facing unique challenges, which are particularly related to low funding and in turn translated into inaccessibility of higher education to the women folk, low quality educational programmes and marginalization. In recent times, Distance Education has emerged as helpful to women of all ages to equip themselves intellectually through acquisition of knowledge, leading them to new radical methods of thinking thus rendering them more self-directed and free thinking. It can meet the promise to deliver classes to a geographically broad and diverse population. This paper crucially examines the distance education reforms in relation to the concept of empowerment of women. Gender patterns will be assessed to sketch conclusions and make recommendations.

Introduction

The unrelenting dilemma of girl children in India who grow up without receiving the most basic education has attracted increased civic attention. This crisis is severe in rural areas that keep larger extent of girls in India out of school. Amartya Sen argues that "the changing agency of women is one of the major mediators of economic and social change. Nothing arguably is as important today in the political economy of development as adequate recognition of political, economic and social participation and leadership of women". The United Nations Millennium Declaration emphasise the need for promoting gender equality, empowerment of women and guaranteeing a basic education for everyone. In this instance, the place of open and distance learning

methodologies in providing mass functional literacy skills becomes inevitable. The United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which is a set of eight time-bound, concrete and specific targets are listed as follows.

Goal 1: Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger.

Goal 2: Achieve universal primary education.

Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women.

Goal 4: Reduce child mortality.

Goal 5: Improve maternal health.

Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases.

Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability (Roseline, E. Tawo, Arikpo, B. Arikpr, et.al., 2010.).

Women empowerment

Empowerment is the process of challenging existing power relations and of gaining greater control over the sources of power. The goals of women's empowerment are to challenge patriarchal ideology to transform the structures and institutions that reinforce and perpetuate (B.Suguna, 2006, p.10.). Marxists Theorists assign class differences in the world of labour. They try to establish the relationship between capitalism and patriarchy. The exploitation, subordination, and oppression exist on the part of dominant class (the men) and revolutionary trends are seen on the part of the oppressed class, the women. By empowerment women would be able to develop self-esteem, confidence, realise their potential and enhance their collective power. Gender studies in tribal societies show that it is social conditioning, and not biology that accounts for gender differences between 'masculine' and 'feminine' (Hajira, Kumar & Jaimon, Varghese, 2005, p.24.).

Friedmann (1992) presents a model of rural women's empowerment. It explains the interrelationships between the four forms of empowerment. There is clearly many interrelationships and overlaps between them. These factors include Community empowerment, Organizational empowerment, Political empowerment and Psychological empowerment. Community empowerment refers to access to new and useful knowledge and awareness, developing new skills, abilities, confidence and competence obtaining the friendship and support of other women, participating in various activities with other women. Organizational empowerment emphasises new knowledge and awareness about new benefits of technology for rural development thorough development of agricultural cooperatives. Political empowerment influences other governmental policies and decisions that affect rural communities, changing town-based people's beliefs, and other women to discuss issues affecting

rural women and rural communities. Psychological empowerment influences an increase in self-confidence and self-esteem, greater motivation, inspiration, enthusiasm and interest to develop new services for rural people.

Thus empowerment could be recognized as an ability to undertake a number of tasks either individually or in groups, so that they have further access to and control of society resources. It is recognised as an essential strategy to strengthen the well-being of individuals, families and communities, government and non-governmental agencies (Fatemeh, Allaudadi, 2011, p.40.). For Meenaz, Kassam & Femida, Handy (2004) education has been argued as one of the indicators of empowerment. Many of the variables that have traditionally been used as proxies for empowerment, such as education and employment, are better described as "enabling factors" or "sources of empowerment". Empowerment requires an understanding the self and the cultural and social expectations, which may be enabled by education.

Women literacy in India

Women, mostly in rural areas represent more than two-thirds of the world's illiterate adults. The national female literacy rate is 8.9 percent. Close to 245 million Indian women lack the basic capability to read and write. Adult female literacy rates for ages 15 and above for the year 2000 is 46.4 percent (male 69 percent)(The Status of Women: A Reality Check). The trends in total literacy rates by sex in India between the years 1981 and 2001 are as follows:

**Table1 Literacy rates by sex in India
(1981-2001)**

| Particulars | 1981 | 1991 | 2001 |
|----------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Male | 56.37 | 64.13 | 75.85 |
| Female | 29.75 | 39.29 | 54.16 |
| Total | 43.56 | 52.20 | 65.38 |
| Divergence (Male - Female) | 26.62 | 24.84 | 21.69 |

Source: Census of India, Various years

Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for girls was 24.8 percent at primary level and 4.6 percent at the upper primary level (in the 11 to 14 years age group. Girl's enrolment at the primary stage is 46.7 percent in 2004-05. At the upper

primary stage, girl's enrolment is 44.4 percent in 2004-05. The overall enrolment clearly shows that there is gap and challenge exists at primary stage.

Enrolment of Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe girls poses a greater challenge to India's education administrators. G.E.R. for SC girls at primary level have climbed up from 64.8 percent in 1986-87 to 106.6 percent in 2004-05 while at upper primary stage, it is as low as 26.6 percent in 1986-87 and 61.5 percent in 2004-05. In the case of ST girls, the GER at primary level it is 68 percent 1986-87 to 115.5 percent by 2004-05 and at upper primary levels it is 21.9 percent in 1986-87 to 59.5 percent in 2004-05. The number of out of school children is 32 million in 2001-02. Of the total age cohort of girls in the 6-14 years age group, 3.9 percent are reportedly out of school. In the 6-11 years age group, out of school girls are 3.34 percent and in the 11-14 years age group they are 5.3 percent.

There is a strong need for the inclusion of these 'hard to reach' and older girls, who have remained from the education net addressed through context specific strategies and interventions presently (Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, 2008). There is also wide disparity in the female literacy rates in rural and urban regions in India. In the year 1951, the rural female literacy was 12 percent and urban literacy 34.59 percent. Table 2 below indicates the trends in the literacy rates in India by rural and urban areas.

Table 2
Female literacy rates in India
Rural/urban (1951-2001)

| Year | Female literacy rate | |
|------|----------------------|-------|
| | Rural | Urban |
| 1951 | 12.00 | 34.59 |
| 1961 | 22.46 | 54.43 |
| 1971 | 27.89 | 60.22 |
| 1981 | 36.09 | 67.34 |
| 1991 | 44.69 | 73.09 |
| 2001 | 59.40 | 80.30 |

Source: Census of India, various years

Barriers in achieving education

Several factors influence the women literacy in India. Social and economic factors determine their education. In rural areas both men and women slot in agriculture, but women are the key producers of food for household utilization. Women's labour produces 70-80 percent of the food crops grown in India. Increasing reliance on the labour of girls may jeopardize their education or even result in their complete withdrawal from school.

Other factors that contribute to reduced enrolment rates and increased dropout rates for girls include gender sensitive teaching methods, transport, sanitation facilities etc. (Report of the Secretary-General, United Nations General Assembly, 2005, p.9.). Sharmila and Dhas (2010) points out that infrastructural barriers are responsible for lagging of women literacy in India.

Parental and social attitudes are major demand-side sources of gender inequality in India, but other factors are also important like- the child's motivation, the household's ability to bear the costs of schooling, and the demand for the child's labour raising the opportunity cost. Household chores, particularly sibling care in poor families, are a significant factor in girl's non-enrolment, frequent absence, and dropout, overt and subtle discrimination etc also have contributed to the non-enrolment and dropout of children from scheduled castes. The Scheduled Tribes, often in dispersed groupings in remote areas, the distance to school is the key supply constraint. Language adds to the problem, as the language of instruction is often not that spoken at home (Kin, Bing, Wu, and others).

A successful agenda for the empowerment of rural women requires the dismantling of values, structures and processes that maintain women's subordination and that are used to justify inequality in access to political, social and economic resources. Education plays an important role in this process. But gender inequalities in access to education are well documented in rural areas in India. This gender inequality refers to that stage of human, social development at which "the rights, responsibilities and opportunities" of individuals will not be determined by the fact of being born male or female, in other words, a stage when both men and women realize their full potential.

This realization of full potential, the most fundamental prerequisite for women empowerment could be attained only through education. Amartya Sen also agrees with the above and makes a compelling case for the notion that societies need to see women less as passive recipients of help, and more as

dynamic promoters of social transformation, a view strongly buttressed by a body of evidence suggesting that the education, employment and ownership rights of women have a powerful influence on their ability to control their environment and contribute to economic development (Augusto, Lopez-Claros, 2005).

Improving overall educational provisions accessible to poor women involves reprioritising expenditure patterns in the education sector. This can be made possible by increased allocations to basic education through non-formal adult education and literacy programmes. Spending at higher levels should be earmarked for encouraging greater female enrolment. From a poverty perspective, strategies which reduce the direct and opportunity costs of girls' schooling are most relevant.

Strategies to increase female education by reducing opportunity costs may particularly benefit girls from poor households (Zoe, Oxaal, 1997, p.18.). Introducing non-formal education provision is one way of reducing the opportunity cost of girls schooling by enabling them to combine work in the household with schooling.

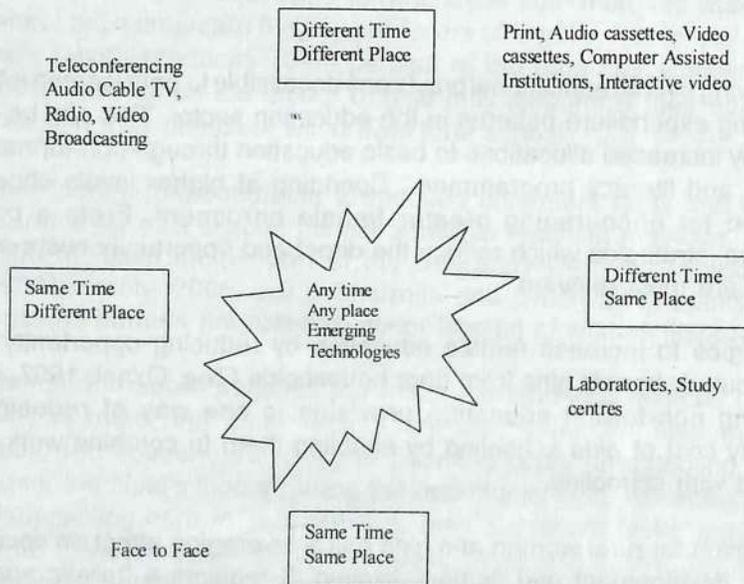
Education for rural women and girls has a leveraging effect on social and economic development and democratization. It requires a holistic approach that recognizes the close inter-dependence of education and other livelihood factors. It is important to adopt a flexible approach which builds on their needs and given due attention to the intersection of gender, poverty and economic well being.

Distance Education

The term Distance Education has been applied to a tremendous variety of programmes serving numerous audiences via a wide variety of media. American Council of Education (ACE) defines Distance Education as a system and a process of connecting learners with distributed learning resources¹. Distance learners enjoy flexibility in terms of choosing the place and time of study. However, the degree of flexibility the students are able to enjoy depends on the availability of the media and learner's access to them (Sadia, Afroze, Sultana & others).

The Distance Education is different from traditional on-campus education system. This can be explained with the help of the following 4-square map of Groupware Options.

4-Square Map of Groupware



Source: Johnson, R., & others (1991), *Leading business teams: How teams can use technology and group processes to enhance performance*, Reading MA: Addison-Wasley.

&
Sadia Afroze Sultana & others, *Distance Education and Open Learning in a Developing Country like Bangladesh: Philosophy and Reality*, www.col.org. Accessed on 15th August 2011.

In India Open and Distance Learning has proved to be an effective tool to impact education for disadvantaged groups, to the neo-literate class of society, to people living in remote or rural areas, and to section of society which could not avail themselves of conventional education. The ODL system succeeded through building a wide network of students support services and flexible admission criteria (Sunil Kumar & others, 2008).

Distance Education in the rural context

In rural areas elementary education is available but this cannot be said of higher level of education. Moreover India has poor secondary education infrastructure facilities. This is particularly one reason for low literacy rates among women in rural areas. In this context government of India have

emphasized the open learning system and in particular, the distance education provided by the National Open School. Government of India has taken special initiatives to enhance access and equity in higher education through distance learning mode particularly to persons from disadvantaged groups and those living in remote areas. The Indira Gandhi National Open University determines standards for open learning and distance education, and provides innovative and need-based general and continuing education through an integrated strategy consisting of print material, audio-video programmes, teleconferencing and personal counselling (Mala, Dutt, 2010).

The Central Board of Secondary Education by targeting working adults, women and disadvantaged groups stated distance education at the secondary level in 1970s. In 2005-06 there were 267000 enrolments in the Open School.

The Open School Project and National Policy on Education were culminated to establish National Open School (NOS). It was established in 1989 under the Central Board of Secondary Education. The major objective has been to provide secondary and senior secondary education mainly to the dropouts. The courses offered and profile of the students enrolled in this are as follows:

- It is reaching all corners of the country including very remote areas through its almost 800 study centres.
- The enrolment has been increasing steadily with an annual growth rate of about 20 % in the last two years.
- It remains to be predominantly urban with Delhi accounting for about one third of the enrolment.
- The enrolment of women and girls (about 32 %), from socially weaker sections, disabled and those from geographically weaker sections of the community are to be considerably improved.

The NOS experience clearly shows that distance education is one of the most cost-effective models for providing access to secondary education in rural and sparsely populated areas. NOS is increasingly targeting its efforts on learning in rural areas and the proportion of rural students has increased to 60 percent of the total enrolment. The proportion of girls in NOS enrolment is, on average, 35 percent (Michael, Ward). The details are given in the table 3 on the next page: IGNOU has a cumulative enrolment of about 15 lakhs. It has a network of 53 regional centres and 1400 study centres with 25000 counsellors. The Distance Education Council an authority of IGNOU is coordinating the activities of 13 State Open Universities (SOUs) and 119 Institutes of Correspondence Courses in the conventional Universities (Report of the 11th Five Year Plan, Government of India).

Table 3
Gender-wise Enrolment in Nos.
(2001-05)

| Year | Male | Female | Total |
|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| 2001-02 | 152286 | 62296 | 214582 |
| 2002-03 | 164550 | 113684 | 278234 |
| 2003-04 | 220103 | 100907 | 321010 |
| 2004-05 | 162351 | 75718 | 238069 |
| 2005-06 | 182440 | 84586 | 267026 |

Source: NIOS, 2005

At present IGNOU have downlink facilities of video programmes. Hundred and forty centres at IGNOU Regional Centre and Study Centres and 151 under women empowerment scheme in the country. The main purpose of the Women Empowerment Project of IGNOU is to organize women into effective Self Help Groups through the medium of training Certificate Programme "Empowering Women through Self Help Groups". Regular face-to-face counselling is also provided at the programme centres. The learners can also benefit from the other educational programmes telecast regularly over "Gyan Darshan" which is a 24 hours channel. Details of all these programmes are sent to all IGNOU learners every month in the form of a booklet called "Gyan Darshan". The objectives of certificate programme include:

2. To strengthen ongoing efforts to train facilitators/master trainers of SHGs.
3. To evolve an effective and sustainable training network and resource of such trainers.
4. Empower the change agents to function more effectively as trainers and community organizers in helping set up SHGs and to address gender issues.
5. Provide guidelines for the establishment of micro-enterprises.
6. Provide basic legal literacy(IGNOU: The People's University).

The Tamil Nadu Open University (TNOU) established by Act 27 of 2002 has benefited those who have been deprived of access to higher education, especially women and those who have dropped out for various reasons. The competency and skills of women learners after completion of TNOU programmes has increased as per the feedback given by the women learners.

The study of Thyagarajan(2009) points out that ninety percent of women learners have benefited and their status in the family and society got improved by their involvement with Distance Education. Dr. B.R.Ambedkar Open University (BRAOU) formerly known as Andhra Pradesh Open University was established in August 1982 by the state legislature of Andhra Pradesh. It is expected to play a 'complimentary role' in democratising higher education in the state by providing educational opportunities to the hitherto neglected sections. Yashwantrao Chavan Maharashtra Open University (YCMOU) was established in July 1989 to serve the state of Maharashtra in the Union of India. It is to promote the Open University and distance education systems to achieve decentralization and reorganization of university education in the state(Kulandai, Swamy, V.C., 1995). It is worth mentioning that collaborating locally has greater chances of success. As a case one may mention South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) as a collaborative forum for South Asia where possibilities for cooperation abound. Cultures, technological development, geographical conditions are not very different in this region and joint efforts in curriculum design can bring favourable results. Such area specific collaboration in Asian region may also succeed in finding large learner segments(Chandra Bhushan Sharma, 2001, p.313.).

India has one of the largest Open Learning and Distance Education systems at tertiary education level in the world including one of the world's ten mega universities. However, their efforts have to be more open and flexible in this functioning. The courses offered and designing of materials should make a difference in learning for the students. The education offered should have the potential and provide possibilities for creating certain levels of empowerment.

Distance Education and gender goals

The challenge of women empowerment potential of ODL clearly lies on its structure base on flexibility, learner-centeredness open ended strategies for utility and quality of education. ODL's empowering potentials are not above what the conventional systems do. But it is definitely supplementary or complementary to it. ODL has its own meaning and persona largely emanating from a list of missions which it can only perform- the positive ground of self-evaluation. Flexibility, learner-centeredness, open alliance strategies to improve utility of education in terms of its spread effects and response quality may take ODL to unimagined heights. Less engagement with national social missions can make it complacent and force it in a direction of gloss, easy money and sporadic fame(Pandev, Nayak, 2001, p.281-82).

Distance education is more accessible for rural women. Women can study what they want and also from where they want. Moreover distance Education is advantageous because it is flexible. Women can study when they want, completing course work on their schedule, rather than that of college. Participation of women in Distance Learning is directly related to political and social changes in women's position within the family and society, technological changes in the work place, and the economic necessity of participation, and the job market and new job opportunities (Anie, Paula, Kamara).

Chandra, Bhushan, Sharma(2001) points out that in some places universities and institutions of higher learning have not developed academic programs in certain areas of studies. Students wishing to take such courses have to travel abroad, often after quitting jobs. Such ventures cost high in terms of 'opportunity cost' and family dislocations. Such courses if made available through Distance Learning can help women, especially from rural areas satisfactory results. Distance Learning also has the potential to alleviate or remove some of the barriers or constraints that prevents women and girls from accessing educational opportunities such as illiteracy, poverty, time scarcity, socio cultural factors, mobility and relevancy. This can help in leading to women empowerment and gender equality. Easy access to learning can end the inferior position of women in society. It can also help in promoting improved health and employment opportunity. ODL provides various types and levels of education to be acquired by the women. Flexibility of access and study times and the potential to reach women in rural areas or women facing social barriers that limit their access to schools, make distance learning a promising educational approach for women (Farha, Mazhar, 2011).

Concluding remarks

In rural situations where attending traditional schools is difficult or almost impossible, ODL can be used to bring education to the doorsteps. ODL if used in the right format will surely help in overcoming poverty and making the women financially independent. A lacunae in this field leading to lack of participation of women are the restricted access to the technology, basically lack of skills in using computers and lack of information. Hence more efforts are required to promote distance education using ICT, particularly to cover remote rural areas. Initiatives also have to be designed specifically for women and awareness needs to be generated among women on the advantages of ODL and their potential to address specific problems faced by them. Choices of the courses made by the institutions must be an informed one. It should be guided by an understanding of women's issues and the needs of women in that region.

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(Endnotes)

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During the nineteenth century, in the United States, several activates in adult education preceded the organization of university extension beyond campuses. In 1873, Anne Ticknor created the society to encourage studies at home for the purpose of educational opportunities for women of all classes in the society. This Boston-based, largely volunteer effort provided correspondence instruction to 10,000 members over a 24-year period despite it's resolutely low profile. See also Albie, Paula, Kamare, 'Distance Education can solve the numerous Educational Problems in Third World Africa: A Case Study of Sierra Leone', Ph. D Thesis, *ST. Clements University*, p.41.

Institutional Framework for Vocational Education & Training in India

V. Mohankumar
B.Sanjay

Earning livelihood has always been the core concern of every adult individual across the civilizations. Hence, various educational philosophies enunciated by eminent philosophers have always advocated for such contents being part of education system which can impart skills/trainings to the learners so that they can sustain economically. Shri Aurobindo, an eminent philosopher and educationist, said that – “Each human being is a self developing soul, the educational curriculum should be designed in such a way that it should enable and help the learner to educate himself, developing his own intellectual, moral, aesthetic and practical capabilities and grow as a better human being. It should illuminate the darken areas and awaken the dormant centers of the brain¹.” Another eminent philosopher and economist Adam Smith well recognizes this aspect when he says, - “Education confers great indirect benefits even on the ordinary workman. (Gupta - 2001) It stimulates its mental activity, it fosters in him a habit of wise inquisitiveness, it makes him intelligent, more ready; more trustworthy in his ordinary work, it raises the time of his life in working hours; it is an important means towards the production of material wealth²” An ardent advocate of the overall development of masses, Mahatma Gandhi in his educational philosophy emphatically says “For the all-round development of boys and girls all training should as far as possible be given through a profit-yielding vocation³.” But practical capabilities or abilities or profit-yielding vocation for the production of material wealth may vary with time and context.

In Indian context one can easily decipher that elders of the families working together with their wards have handed over these capabilities (craftsmanship) to the generation next since time immemorial. This tradition has continued effectively till the advent of British rule in India. It is a well known fact that India was having a well developed education system even before the British entered India. During British period this centuries old time tested Indian education system received a big jolt. Britishers in order to proliferate their power and maintain their empire in India wanted such an education system which can create manpower suitable for enacting their nefarious designs in India. What Lord Macaulay said about India in British Parliament in 1835 aptly exposes

the very design of Britishers behind the educational reforms they wanted to carry out later in India. Macaulay said, "I have traveled across the length and breadth of India and I have not seen one person who is a beggar, who is a thief. Such wealth I have seen in this country, such high moral values, people of such calibre, that I do not think we would ever conquer this country, unless we break the very backbone of this nation, which is her spiritual and cultural heritage, and, therefore, I propose that we replace her old and ancient education system, her culture, for if the Indians think that all that is foreign and English is good and greater than their own, they will lose their self-esteem, their native self-culture and they will become what we want them, a truly dominated nation⁴."

Even during those days the process of educational reforms initiated by the British Government in India attracted much criticism from native scholars, leaders, philosophers like Mahatma Gandhi, Shri Aurobindo. Britishers laid down the foundation of state owned formal education system. The obvious output of this system of education was a group of English educated people skilled enough to support the clerical/administrative work in the country. It didn't take much time for the intellectuals of the country to notice the inherent inefficiency of the prevailing system. Hence, emerged the demand for opening new courses not only in the field of applied sciences and medicine but in general studies too. Day by day developing economics and newly emerging trades of industries also insisted the educational planners to design new and diversified courses. It can be reminded here that Applied Mechanics, Computer Science & Engineering, Electronic Engineering, Humanities & Social Sciences are comparatively new than the classical fields of engineering like mechanical, electrical, civil etc. Similarly journalism, comparative literature, food & nutrition, social work, human rights, population education too are very recent developments.

Like higher education, the horizon for vocational education had also been expanded enormously during the last couple of decades. A country committed itself to transform into a developed nation needs to harness maximum out of its own able and capable citizens. Hence, policy makers at the helm of affairs have changed the planning accordingly. Now vocational education in India is imparted both in schools and technical institutions. It would be necessary to clarify that vocational training and vocational education both serve the purpose of imparting skills for gainful employment to students from 8th to 12th standards, bear certain distinction from each other.

Vocational Training: Vocational training programmes in India fall outside the formal schooling cycle. It is institution-based with varying entry requirements

as well as course durations. The proportion of practical to theoretical instruction in vocational training programmes is also higher than in vocational education. It is open to students who leave school after completing anywhere from Grade 8-12. Programmes are operated by Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and Industrial Training Centers (ITCs). It comes under the auspices of the Ministry of Labour and Employment (MoLE) Administrative responsibility is held by the Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGET), located within the MoLE. ITIs and ITCs operate under the guidance of DGET, which formulates policies and lays down standards and technical requirements such as developing curricula, instructor training, and skills testing. It governs a number of specialized training-related institutions.

Vocational education in India refers specifically to vocational courses offered in school Grades 11 and 12 under a centrally sponsored scheme termed 'Vocationalization of Secondary Education'. Vocational education falls under the purview of the Ministry of Human Resources Development (MHRD)⁵.

In this article the authors tried to give as much information as possible about a few vocational institutions functioning in India. These institutions are Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs), Polytechnics, Community Polytechnics, Community Colleges and Jan Shikshan Sansthan (JSS).

Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) & Industrial Training Centres (ITCs)

It is important to recognize that with more than 35% of citizens aged below 15 years, 700 million young people below 35 years and population growing at 1.8% per annum, India is expected to become the global powerhouse of human resource by 2025. In the emerging era of knowledge driven society, declining workforce and aging population in developed countries, India with its large young population has the opportunity to position itself as a quality source of skilled manpower for the world ⁶. With this huge young manpower India can provide the workforce required for doing the skilled jobs in the Industries, indigenous and abroad.

The government owned Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and private establishment called Industrial Training Centres (ITCs) are the backbone of Vocational education in India. Enrolment-wise, the ITIs are much larger, while most private ITCs offer only a few trades. Therefore, in some states, the number of public ITIs is in dozens while the number of private ITCs is in hundreds.

Before going to the details of ITIs it may be appropriate to know how they

came into existence and in what circumstances. For this, one has to know about the craftsmen training schemes first.

Craftsmen Training Schemes

The term craftsman is a broad one. Skilled Craftsman has been defined by the Planning Commission thus: "a worker who belongs to an occupation generally accepted as skilled and found in several industries". Some of the trades have higher skill elements. One end of the spectrum, we have trades where manipulative skills predominate, and on the other end, we have trades where conceptual skills predominate. With the development of high technology, we have a new category called technologically highly skilled persons. The planning of training facilities and policies of training are closely linked with the needs and demands of developmental activities. Indian economy is confronted with a dual economic problem. On the one hand we have abundance of unskilled labour, and on the other hand we have shortage of particular skilled categories needed for the development. Thus, we are faced with the problem of finding suitable avenues for unemployed skilled category and ensure training or retraining them in sufficient number of particular skilled or high-tech areas.

Government of India started the 'War Technicians Training Scheme,' in 1940, long before the new factory system of manufacturing took root on Indian soil. The concept of a trained apprentice 'antevasi' was well rooted in the craft guilds of the sub-continent. The new entrant received training from a 'guru' and was known as 'Karamkar', upon completion of training. The system was prevalent in the metal working, metal cutting, and weaving trades. Until the Second World War, this apprenticeship was the only system used in the skill training to train craftsmen and its application as a productive system was limited to Railways, Ordnance works, and few heavy industries. The Apprenticeship Act for training young workers established first in 1850 was brought out in a more comprehensive manner in 1961 as the Apprenticeship Act, by the Indian Parliament and approved by the President of India on December 12, 1961.

The War Technician Training Scheme was followed by the Technical Training Scheme in 1946. All these schemes were modified and merged into a comprehensive scheme known as Vocational Training Scheme, designed for training demobilized service personnel, but was wound up in July 1950. The Technical Training Scheme and the Vocational Training Scheme used to train about 70,000 persons annually, in the commercial, clerical, semi-professional occupations, agricultural, cottage and small scale industrial sectors. It was in 1950, after completion of the ex-servicemen's training schemes, the training

of civilians was started on a national basis by establishing Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) by the Government of India. In 1956 the day to day administration of these institutes were transferred to the state governments on the recommendation of the Shiv Rao Committee with effect from the year 1956. From 01.04.1969, the financial control of the Industrial Training Institutes in the states as well as in the Union Territories was transferred to the respective state governments/Union Territories. The financial assistance was granted to them in the form of bulk grant in consultation with Planning Commission and the Ministry of Finance.

It is to be noted here that under the Constitution of India, vocational training is a concurrent subject in which both the central and state governments have say. The development of training schemes at national level, evolution of policy, laying of training standards, procedures, conducting of trade tests, certification, etc. are the responsibility of the central government, whereas the implementation of the training schemes largely rests with the state/UT governments. However, in order to avoid confusion the responsibilities of both the governments have been clearly defined. They are:

Central Government

- To frame overall policies, norms, and standards for Skill Development.
- Formulation of new training schemes for Skill Development of youth.
- Development /revision of course curriculum
- Affiliation of Industrial Training Institutes/ Centers.
- Trade testing & certification
- Conducting instructor training course for serving & potential instructor of ITIs/ITCs.
- Conducting courses for skill up gradation of industrial workers by offering short term & long term courses in specialized field.
- Implementation & regulation of training for trade apprentices under the Apprentices Act, 1961.
- Organizing vocational training programmes for women.
- Bilateral agreements and cooperation in the field of vocational training.

State Government

- Day to day administration of Industrial Training Institutes/ Centres.
- Implementation of Craftsmen Training Schemes in the ITIs/ITCs.
- Conducting training courses in ITIs

- Setting up new institutes, addition of trade units in the existing institute as per the requirement of local industries.
- Conduct of trade test & award of certificate.
- Implementation of Central Schemes.
- Processing application for affiliation of new ITIs/ITCs and addition of trades/units in exiting ITIs/ITCs, carry out inspection and forwarding these application to DGE&T for affiliation from National Council from Vocational Training.

The Central Govt. is advised by the National Council of Vocational Training (NCVT), a tripartite body having representatives from employers, workers and central/state governments. Similar councils known as State Council for Vocational Training (SCVT) are constituted for the same purpose by the respective state governments at state levels.

As per allocation of business Rule, 1961, the Ministry of Labour & Employment is charged with the responsibility of vocational training of the labour. The responsibility is discharged through the Directorate General of Employment and Training (DGE&T), which is an attached office of the Ministry of Labour & Employment. This office was earlier called the Directorate General of Resettlement & Employment (DGR & E) set-up in 1945 for resettling demobilised Defence Service Personnel and discharged War Workers in civilian life. After independence in 1947, the Directorate General was also called upon to handle the work relating to displaced persons from Pakistan. Subsequently, the scope of the Directorate General was extended to cover employment service to all categories of job seekers in early 1948, and training services to all civilians in 1950. The training institutes, both public and private, operate under the general guidance of DGE&T.⁷

Aims and Objectives of ITIs / ITCs

The Craftsmen Training Scheme (CTS) was introduced by the Government of India to ensure a steady flow of skilled workers in different trades for the domestic industry, to raise quantitatively and qualitatively, the industrial production by systematic training, to reduce unemployment among the educated youth by providing them employable skills, to cultivate and nurture a technical and industrial attitude in the minds of younger generation. The Scheme, the most important in the field of vocational training, has been shaping craftsmen to meet the existing as well as future manpower need, through the vast network of ITIs in the various states/Union Territories in the country.

Industrial Training Institutes and Industrial Training Centres being the integral part of the Craftsmen Training Scheme are supposed to fulfil the below mentioned objectives laid down for the principle scheme itself:

- To equip the human resource with appropriate skills / multi skills required by the various sector of economy.
- To make youth productive by providing employable skills both for wage and self-employment.
- To produce craftsmen of high quality
- To ensure steady flow of skilled workers in industrial /service sectors.
- To raise the quality and quantity of industrial production by systematic training of potential workers.
- To reduce unemployment among educated youth by equipping them with suitable skills for industrial employment.

Growth of Industrial Training Institutes

The Directorate General of Employment & Training initiated Craftsmen Training Scheme (CTS) in 1950 by establishing about 50 Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) for imparting skills in various vocational trades to meet the skilled manpower requirements for technology and industrial growth of the country. The second major phase of increase in ITIs came with the oil-boom in West-Asia and export of skilled manpower to that region from India. Several new private ITIs were established in 1980s in southern states mostly in Kerala, Karnataka and Andhra Pradesh from where trained craftsmen found placement mainly in the Gulf countries. In 1980, there were 831 ITIs and the number rose to 1887 in 1987.

During 1990s the growth of ITIs had been steep and according to the Annual Report 2010 -11 of the Ministry of Labour and Employment presently there are over 8687 ITIs / ITCs having a seating capacity of 12.14 lakh. Being the part of principal training schemes namely the Craftsmen Training Scheme (CTS) and the Apprenticeship Training Scheme (ATS) ITIs / ITCs deliver 116 nationally recognized trades. The CTS provides medium to long-term institutional training to produce semi-skilled / skilled workers for industrial employment, while the ATS is a combined training programme that offers both institutional and on-the-job training with the graduated apprentices being considered as skilled.

Following table shows the number of ITIs/ITCs in the country and their seating capacity:

| Institutions | Number | Seating capacity |
|---------------------|--------|------------------|
| Government run ITIs | 2189 | 4,53,346 |
| Private run ITCs | 6498 | 7,60,702 |
| Total | 8687 | 12,14,048 |

Source: Annual Report 2010-2011, Ministry of Labour & Employment, Government of India.

Salient Features of the Scheme

- Candidates of 14 to 40 years of age are eligible to seek admission in ITIs/ITCs. In case of women candidates there is no upper age limit in exclusive women ITIs/women wings in general ITIs.
- Admissions in ITIs/ITCs are done twice a year i.e. in month of August & February.
- Tuition fee in the ITIs is decided by the respective state govt. as deemed fit based on the recommendation of the concerned State Council for Vocational Training. Tuition fee in case of institutes under DGE&T / UT Administration is Rs.100 p.m. per trainee. However no fee is being charged from SC/ST candidates and persons from disadvantaged groups.
- There is a provision for grant of stipend to the trainees of Govt. ITIs.
- Trainees are also provided with library, sports and medical facilities. Some state governments levy a nominal fee for the purpose
- Seats are reserved for SC/ST candidates in proportion to their population in respective state/ UT. Guidelines for reserving 3% seats for persons with disability and 30% for women candidates have been issued to
- State governments and these could be filled based on the general reservation policy of each state/UT and total reservation is limited to 50%. Seats are also reserved for the wards of defence personnel. Seats for OBC candidates have also been reserved in proportion to the seats reserved for them in Govt. Services in the respective states.
- For optimum utilization of infrastructural facilities available, there is a provision of second and third shifts in ITIs/ITCs with segregated timing. They are encouraged to introduce second shift by appointing one additional trade instructor and additional trainee kit for trainees.
- A Placement Cell in every ITI / ITC is set up to facilitate the graduates in getting placement in different industries.
- Institute Management Committee (IMCs) have been formed for ITIs' in consultation with apex Industry bodies to improve cooperation between Industry and Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs).

- Seats are reserved for SC/ST candidates in proportion to their population in respective state/ UT. Guidelines for reserving 3% seats for Persons with disability and 25% for women candidates have been issued to state Governments and these could be filled based on the general reservation policy of each state/UT and total reservation is limited to 50%. Seats are also reserved for the wards of defence personnel.
- Broad-based modular training is offered in four Central Model Industrial Training Institutes (MITIs). This pattern of training has the advantage of re-orienting the training modules as per the changing skill requirements of the Industry.

Structure of Training Programme

Training under the scheme is imparted in 114 trades. The duration of training for various courses is 6 months, one year, two years and three years. The entry qualification varies from class VIII pass to XII pass, depending on the trades. The courses are designed to impart basic skills and knowledge in the trades so as to prepare the trainees for employment as semi-skilled workers or for self-employment. As 70% of the training period is allotted to practical training and the rest to subjects relating to Trade Theory, Workshop Calculation & Science, Engineering Drawing, the emphasis is on skill building. In order to give awareness the trainees are also taught general knowledge on the issues like workers rights, family welfare, energy conservation and the compulsory subject of "Social Study".

Information Technology (IT) literacy has also been made mandatory for all the trainees of ITIs/ITCs. For over all personality development of trainees, a course on "Life Skill" covering topics like Occupational Safety and Health, Quality Management tools, Communication Skills, Team work Entrepreneurship, etc. is being introduced which would replace the existing subject "Social Study".

Scheme to upgrade existing Government ITIs into 'Centres of Excellence'

In its bid to provide skilled manpower to industries, Government of India embarked on the strategic objective of modernizing the ITIs and improving the quality of training in the Government run ITIs with involvement of stakeholders. Upgradation of 100 ITIs with domestic resources has been undertaken and 400 ITIs are being upgraded through World Bank assistance.

The highlights of the scheme are introduction of multi-skilling courses during the first year, followed by advance and specialized modular courses in the second year by adopting industry wise cluster approach, multi entry and multi exit provisions and Public Private Partnership (PPP) in the form of Institute Management Committee (IMC) to ensure greater and more active involvement of industry in all aspects of training.

This was amply reflected in the 2007-08 budget speech of the Union Finance Minister in which he announced that 1396 ITIs would be upgraded into Centres of Excellence in specific trades and skills under public private partnership. The state governments as owners of ITIs continue to regulate admissions and fees except in case of 20% seats which is determined by the Management Committees of the institutes. Also the new management has been given academic and financial autonomy and the Central Government provides an interests free loan of upto Rs. 2.5 crore per ITI. It was targeted to upgrade 300 ITIs every year beginning from 2007-08 under the Public Private Partnership (PPP) mode. Upto November 10, 2010 around 924 ITIs had been covered under the scheme and an amount of Rs.2310 crore had been released.

Steps for Quality Improvement

With the objective of maintaining quality of training in ITIs/ITCs, a number of measures had been suggested by NCVT including guidelines for starting new institutes/trades and their affiliation to NCVT. Strict norms for affiliation of ITIs with NCVT are adhered to ensuring that the infrastructure facilities, qualified staff, etc. are provided for imparting training. There is a procedure for evaluation of affiliated ITIs/ITCs which has a provision for de-affiliation of Institutes / trades that are found not complying with the prescribed norms. Syllabi of various trades are periodically revised by the respective Trade Committees to keep pace with the rapidly changing technology in industry. A trade in emerging area of Information Technology namely "Information Technology & Electronics System Maintenance (ITESM)" has been introduced under the "Craftsmen Training Scheme".

Main Problems of ITI Education in India

1. It is inferred from an Exploratory study carried out based on the recent trends in technical education in India that technical education is mostly classified into three main categories, graduates, diploma holders and ITI certified. It could be represented through a pyramid structure in which the top most layer

consist of graduate engineers, middle layer the diploma holders and the bottom layer ITI certified technicians by the ratio 1:3:10. 9.5 lakhs students appear for board examination, out of which only 3.5 lakhs students appear for higher secondary education, 1.5 lakhs join diploma courses and 1.8 lakhs go for ITI training. Therefore, there are at least 3 lakhs drop outs that lose the opportunity to avail education⁸.

2. In spite of huge number of ITI's present in India the quality of training at the ITIs is rather uneven. Skill development and training in the country is highly inadequate associated with rigid training structure, inefficiently trained vocational instructors, lack of state of the art infrastructure and weak linkage with industry which leads to a large skill gap between the demand and supply of man power⁹.

3. Craftsmen training in the ITIs needs to be made flexible for creating scope for employment opportunities as well as to respond to the demands of the industry / business. Flexibility involves multi-functional skills and multi-craft skills as well as mental/intellectual skills, which call for logical/abstract thinking and willingness/ability to learn new things quickly, as the technological changes are expected to be continuous in future. The course structure, curriculum pattern, training mode for both the teachers and the taught and industry-ITIs collaboration need to be refurbished, so as to open the scope for employment opportunities in the market. Some of the highlights are Industrial/field training for both the faculty and the students, Flexible training system for imparting of multi-functional and multi-craft skills, Refresher training programmes on technological development, management and utilization and Developing courses and programmes for self-employment and entrepreneurship development.

4. There needs to be greater attention into the various aspects of entrepreneurship development and self-employment¹⁰ which include finance and credit linkages for trainees who are desirous of setting-up specific enterprises in their trade areas, programmes on attitudinal orientation and motivation for entrepreneurship development, enterprise creation and self-employment among the trainees, programme on practical training on industrial behaviour and communication to deal with the real work environment, i.e. team spirit and work, just in time, zero defect, discipline, cleanliness, and orderliness, focus on Total Quality Concept and Total Productive Self-initiated Maintenance for continuous improvement in the work process and elimination of wastes and overall equipment effectiveness, focus on self-evaluation and analysis to achieve zero rejection/first time OK self-Inspection and self-certification, external evaluation and certification for learning trades/skills of

the trainee and cause-effect analysis with inputs on work environment and on mechanism of a machine or equipment to understand the effect, its functioning and tool requirements for quality output/product.

5. There is a need for Institutionalised Collaboration between ITIs and Industry/Business.¹⁰ The collaboration encompasses at the level of the management, admission, course design, instructions, evaluations and placement on a reciprocal basis.

The industry/business would assist the ITIs in the development and upgradation of course structure and curriculum, candidates admission, selection and fixing of minimum eligibility criteria, faculty upgradation and development, industrial visits of Trainers and Trainees and actual hands on experience, In-plant training of faculty/students, resource generation, mobilisation and utilisation for the institute, providing faculty support for various programmes of the ITIs and organising trainers training programmes and assistance in placement.

At the same time the ITIs are required to reciprocate by developing upto date training module on total quality, total productive maintenance, industrial behaviour & communication, developing programmes for industrial/field training for faculty and students, revenue generation through consultancy, market driven bridge courses, refresher training programmes on technological development, management and utilization, maintaining the physical infrastructures and workshops of the institute and developing courses and programmes for self-employment and entrepreneurship development.

Polytechnics

What exactly is a Polytechnic? The term 'poly' comes from the Greek word meaning 'many' and 'tekhnikós' meaning 'arts'. In short, **Polytechnic** means an institute that offers a variety of professional courses, which is mainly technical and vocational in nature. The aim of the polytechnic education is to create a pool of skill based manpower to support shop floor and field operations as a middle level link between technicians and engineers. The pass-outs of Diploma level Institutions in Engineering & Technology play an important role in managing shop-floor operations. It is further an established fact that small & medium Industry prefer to employ Diploma Holders because of their special skills in reading and interpreting drawings, estimating, costing & billing, supervision, measurement, testing, repair, maintenance etc.

Polytechnic education in India contributes significantly to its economic

development. Most of the polytechnics in the country offer three year generalized diploma courses in conventional disciplines such as Civil, Electrical and Mechanical Engineering. During the last two decades many polytechnics started offering courses in other disciplines such as Electronics, Computer Science, Medical Lab technology, Hospital Engineering, Architectural Assistantship etc. In addition, many single technology institutions are also offering diploma programmes in areas like Leather Technology, Sugar Technology, and Printing Technology etc. Many diploma programmes are also being offered exclusively for women in Women's Polytechnics such as in Garment Technology, Beauty Culture and Textile Design. Polytechnics are meant to provide skills after class X and the duration of diploma programmes is 3 years, which means, the trainee becomes employable at the age of 19 years. Polytechnics are also offering post diploma and advanced diploma programmes of 1-2 years duration in different specializations.

Inception of Polytechnics in India

In pursuance of the Resolution of 1935 of the Central-Advisory Board of Education (an advisory body set up in 1921), two expert advisers, Messrs. Abbot and Wood were invited in 1936 to advise the Government "on certain problems of educational reorganization and particularly on problems of vocational education". The Abbot-Wood Report, submitted in 1937, suggested a complete hierarchy of vocational institutions parallel with the hierarchy of institutions imparting general education.

As a result of their recommendations "a new type of technical institution called the Polytechnic has come into existence". The provinces also started technical, commercial or agricultural high -schools conducting non-literary courses. The Abbott and Woods Commission also underlined the inadequate expansion of technical education, lack of an integrated policy and coordinating agency in India for the proper development of technical education. Keeping in view the suggestions and recommendations of the Abbott and Woods Commission the All India Association of Principals of Technical Institutions was formed in 1941 for coordination and standardization of courses in technical institutions. The first Polytechnic in India was established in Delhi in 1941 as recommended by the same commission.¹¹

At the time of independence there were only 52 diploma level technical institutions with a total intake of 3670 students a year. To carry out ever growing development plans, the country required expansion of the system of technical education, especially to provide human power for industries and technical services. The Central and state governments in the subsequent years,

therefore, provided funds to increase the technical education facilities in 1950s and early 1960s which resulted in the establishment of a large number of government and government aided private institutions in the country. The government also adopted a policy of heavily subsidizing the technical institutions to attract meritorious students. The aided institutions received 50 to 70% of the capital cost and 80 to 90% of the recurring cost¹².

Expansion of Polytechnic Education

During the last decade, India has seen a tremendous increase in the number of Engineering Colleges at Degree level throughout the country. However, the growth of technical institutions has not been uniform as far as the number of polytechnics and degree engineering colleges is concerned. The present student intake in degree and diploma level technical institutions is 6.53 lakhs and 3.54 lakhs respectively. The ratio of degree to diploma holders is around 2:1, whereas ideally it should be 1:3. This is because of more private participation in the engineering sector compared to the diploma sector. There is also a societal perception that degrees command a premium in the job market rather than diplomas.

The Ministry of Human Resource Development has launched a Nation wide Scheme on "Sub-Mission on Polytechnics" under Co-ordinated Action for Skill Development in order to augment Skilled Manpower requirement in the country by providing assistance to state govts. Under this scheme 1000 new polytechnics will be set up in every district not having one already with the emphasis to cater to the needs of un-served, underserved areas and disadvantaged sections of the Society. Of the 1000 Polytechnics, 300 polytechnics are to be set up with a one time central grant of Rs.12.3 crore per polytechnic to meet the capital cost. Similarly, about 300 polytechnics would be set up under Private Public Partnership (PPP) mode with partial funding of Rs.3.00 crore per polytechnic from the Central Government. The rest 400 polytechnics would be set up through private funding.

Besides the financial support for the setting up new polytechnics, it has also been decided to strengthen the existing polytechnic system by granting funds upto Rs.2.00 crores per polytechnic for 500 polytechnics. As one of the components to incentivise the skill development among Women, grants are also proposed for construction of Women's Hostel in more than 500 polytechnics at the cost of Rs.1.00 crore each.¹³

All these new polytechnic institutes will have a community polytechnic wing. Women's Hostels will also be set up in all the government polytechnics. The

existing Government Polytechnics will be incentivised to modernize in PPP Mode. Efforts will also be made to increase intake capacity by using space, faculty and other facilities in the existing polytechnics in shifts. There is also a shortage of qualified diploma holder in several new areas. Therefore, engineering institutions will be incentivized and encouraged to introduce diploma courses to augment intake capacity. Diploma programmes could be run in evening shifts when the laboratory, workshop, equipment and library are free. The sum total intake capacity of polytechnics in the year 2009-10 was around 5.09 lakhs.

Growth of Polytechnics in India

Over the years, the number of Polytechnics increased as per the following:

| Institutions | Number | Seating capacity |
|---------------------|--------|------------------|
| Government run ITIs | 2189 | 4,53,346 |
| Private run ITCs | 6498 | 7,60,702 |
| Total | 8687 | 12,14,048 |

Source & footnotes: Ministry of H.R.D.Deptt of Sec.& Higher Education &U.G.C.

Main Problems of Polytechnic Education in India

Over the years, the diploma programmes have deteriorated losing the skill components, which has resulted in their being just a diluted version of degree education. The organizations employing them have to train them all over again in basic skills. Major problems being faced by the polytechnic education system are¹⁴ non - availability of courses in new and emerging areas, Inadequate infrastructure facilities and obsolete equipment, system unable to attract quality teachers, inadequate financial resources, Inadequate or non-existence of state policies for training and retraining of faculty and staff, lack of flexibility and autonomy to the institutions, inadequate industry institute participation, lack of Research and Development in technician education and antiquated Curricula.

Community Polytechnics

The working group on Technical Education of the All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE) in February 1978 recommended that selected Polytechnics should act as focal points to promote Community /Rural Development on scientific lines through technology transfer. The scheme of Community Polytechnics (CPs) was started under the Direct Central Assistance Scheme in 1978-79 in 35 Polytechnics. The scheme envisaged the Community

Polytechnics to act as important centres for the application of science and Technology in rural areas and generate self and wage based employment opportunities, through non-formal training, towards and competency and need based courses in various trades and multiple skills. The major objectives of Community Polytechnics are to assess the needs of rural areas so that development programmes are designed and carried out, train village youths for self and wage employment, enhance production and productivity in rural areas to raise their standard of living, make available repair facilities at the door-step, start people's participation in development and increase awareness of various development schemes floated by different agencies.

The following are the main aims of the Community Polytechnics:

Socio Economic Survey: To interact with the rural community, make a survey and obtain information's to ascertain their needs and identify the direction in which rural development efforts are likely to bring quicker results.

Transfer of Technology : To organize programmes to enable the villagers to indicate the normal methods adopted by them in their daily activities, develop a better techniques and implements and teach them to adopt the modern developed techniques and implements.

Man Power Development: To impart training and teach the local people the basic skills, knowledge and attitudes to practice any occupational activity that will lead to gainful employment in their own village, and also training for upgrading the skills in their own fields. This sort of training is crucial in the context of Technology transfer, and it helps the people in equipping themselves with the adoption and use of modern techniques and implements and maintenance of equipments.

Technical Service: To organize technical service camps at regular intervals, and undertake minor repairs on the jobs at site, through trained man-power. To also promote service centres and repair shops to be set-up by the villagers themselves and also consultancy services at village levels through trained man-power.

Support Service: This is in addition to the technical service mentioned above, the villagers may need support of other kinds to improve professionally, to widen the scope of activities and enhance productivity. Such need may be more encouragement/boost, guidance in getting loans, supply of raw materials, development pf marketing facilities etc.

Dissemination of Information: This involves publication, distribution of Technical literatures containing information on improved, adopted and new technologies suitable for rural needs, and also include guidance as to where to obtain the required raw materials etc. how to get loans etc.

Co-operatives/Self help group: Helping the villagers to organize self help group and co-operatives overall departments, improvement in lifestyle, beautification of the environment and enrichment of social and cultural life.

As on date there are 617 AICTE approved Polytechnics covered under the scheme of Community Polytechnics.

The rationale for choosing Polytechnics for implementation of the scheme of Community Polytechnics is based on the fact that Polytechnics are equipped with adequate infrastructure in the form of Buildings, Lecture Halls, Laboratories, Workshop, Hostel etc. which could be used for linking such centres of knowledge to the rural community. Besides, Polytechnics have qualified and trained faculty whose services could be utilized for vocational training and transfer of technologies.

Community Polytechnic Scheme is run by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India, New Delhi. They have been established as entities within polytechnics rather than as autonomous institutions. To that extent CPs are part of the formal system. However, they provide training *within* communities and their approach can be considered as informal. There are now 675 CPs (approved and unapproved both), training about 4,50,000 people a year. Courses are of 3 to 9 months duration and there are no entry pre-requisites. The MHRD intends to incorporate CPs into all AICTE-accredited institutions in the years to come.

Community Polytechnics deliver the same types of courses – in a community environment – that are delivered through vocational education in schools, but the focus would seem to be on the informal sector of the economy. The content of CP courses is different to those in schools. For example office management and fashion design courses are covered within six months duration by a Community Polytechnic where as courses with such titles are offered for two years under vocational education programmes. Participants in CP courses gain no special qualification and no particular credit toward any further training in ITIs or polytechnics. CPs do not therefore fit into any qualifications framework. According to the X Five Year Plan document the courses and services of CPs were to emphasize the transfer of technology to

communities, manpower development and rendering of technical and support services¹⁵.

The Community Polytechnics impart short-term courses of 6 months duration in various trades, free of any charges and the intake of trainees is limited to 15 per batch per trade. Before starting any course the advertisement is given in leading local News Papers to enable the aspirants to apply for the same which followed by selection of the trainees through personal Interview. Besides, the Community Polytechnics also undertake training in collaboration with government departments and agencies. The duration of such courses is decided jointly by the departments and the sponsored agencies.

The Community Polytechnics also used to provide direct community services like Mahila Mandal, fural roads, nutrition camps, social service camps, tree plantation camps, financial help for self employment, educational film shows, medical camps, safe drinking water, student counseling, village environment and Youth club

Taking initiative to strengthen the network of Community Polytechnics in the country MHRD has directed to open a new community polytechnic wing with all the one thousand new polytechnic institutes to be established by The Ministry under the Scheme on "Sub-Mission on Polytechnics". To provide skilled personnel at grass-root level as well as to facilitate appropriate technology transfer to the local community, under the revised scheme of community polytechnics, it is proposed to cover all the above polytechnics at a cost of Rs.737.82 crores. The total outlay for the entire scheme is Rs.6828 crores to be spent during 11th and 12th Plan period¹⁶.

Impact of Community Polytechnics on Society: The main activity that the Community Polytechnic had rendered since the beginning is the man power development, which initially, is carried out only at the main centre, but subsequently carried out at the Extension Centre also. The Community Polytechnics design their own course curriculum.

Shortfall of Community Colleges

Many shortfall of the scheme have been assessed so far. There appears to be a compartmentalization between normal Polytechnic and the Community Polytechnic activities. Very little attempt has been made to integrate these in curricular activities. At present only a handful of staff members seem to be involved in rural development work. Also, in most of the projects undertaken by the community polytechnics, very little attention has been paid to the costing

and the economic aspects of it. The technical documentation of work done is also weak.

Notwithstanding the above shortfalls, overall the Community Polytechnics are improving their performance and particularly in the states of Kerala and West Bengal where they proved to be good models.

Community Colleges

The Community College is an alternative system of education, which is aimed at the empowerment of the disadvantaged and the underprivileged through appropriate skill development leading to gainful employment in collaboration with the local industry and the community and achieve skills for employment and self employability of the above sections of people in the society. The Community College is an innovative educational alternative that is rooted in the community providing holistic education and eligibility for employment to the disadvantaged¹⁹.

The Vision of the Community College is of the community, for the community and by the community and to produce responsible citizens. The Community Colleges promote job oriented, work related, skill - based and life coping education. The Community College initiative is in conformity with the Indian political will that prioritizes in education, primary education, information technology education and vocational education.

The key words of the Community College system are access, flexibility in curriculum and teaching methodology, cost effectiveness and equal opportunity in collaboration with industrial, commercial and service sectors of the local area and responding to the social needs and issues of the local community, internship and job placement within the local area, promotion of self employment and small business development, declaration of competence and eligibility for employment.

The Community College is a place that makes people fit for a job. It is an alternative system of education to empower the socially, economically, and educationally disadvantaged. Here, we concentrate more on skill development based on each individual. Anyone can join—school dropouts, degree holders who want to learn a particular skill—we even have students from the rural areas. Anyone from the age group of 16 to 47 years can enroll²⁰.

The Community College Movement started in South India in October 1995 with the beginning of the Pondicherry University Community College. It was

taken forward by the Inauguration of the Madras Community College by the Archdiocese of Mylapore - Mylapore in August 1996. It was strengthened by the Manonmaniam Sundaranar University, Tirunelveli, by giving approval to five Community Colleges in September 1998. It spread to Andhra Pradesh with the starting of JMJ Community College in Tenali in July 1999. It also spread to the states of Gujarat, Maharashtra, Kerala, Karnataka and Uttarakhand. Today there are 153 community colleges across 17 states. The movement has so far helped 35,000 students from the socially, economically and educationally backward groups. Thus it has become a national phenomenon.

The Salient Features of Community Colleges

The Community Colleges are generally established by non-profit making, noncommercial and community based organisation with proven years of service to the local community. The establishment of the Community Colleges should be preceded by an extensive Need Analysis of the employment opportunities available in the local area and also the social needs of the Community. The Target group of the Community College is XII passed students, school drop-outs, rural youths, rural women, existing workforce that wants to update its skills and all who want skill based and need based education at an affordable price.

There is no age limit for admission into a Community College. The close and active linkage between Industries and Community College is a must for the success of the Community College System. The industrial partners help the College in designing the curriculum, providing part time instructors, serving as members of the advisory board and the governing board, taking students for internship and helping them to find job placement. The Community College is a Multi-campus reality. The Community College is permitted to the optimum utilization of the existing Infrastructural facilities available to the community-based organisation that establishes the Community College.

The Community College tries to respond to the deficiencies of the Vocational system through industry-institutional linkage, competence assessment, proper certification, training on site, life skills training and job oriented programmes decided on the basis of the local needs. It is in the above areas that the Community College is an improvement and departure from earlier initiatives such as it is Community Polytechnics and apprenticeship training.

The curriculum of the Community College has four distinct parts: life skills, work skills, internship and preparation for employment. The certificate programmes for the school dropouts consists of 28 weeks and the diploma

programmes consists of 52 weeks for the X and XII passed students and all others who want skill-based education.

Criteria for selection of industrial partners by the Community Colleges

Since the selection of right Industrial Partners is an important factor in the overall success of the Community College Movement. The following criterion is used by the Community Colleges for selecting the Industrial Partners:

- Willingness of the Industrial Partners
- Willingness to allow girls to work in order to gain experience
- Safety, distance and accessibility to the work spot
- Experience in Work skills
- Sharing of vision for the poor
- Interested to train our students
- Commitment for Job placements in their Companies
- Having good infrastructure
- Good Trainers
- Concerned with the upliftment of the students
- Frequency of the visits of the industrial partners to our college
- Serving as the members of the Advisory board
- Ready to provide apprenticeship training
- Skill based training
- Helping in the Designing the Curriculum
- Part time instructors
- Allowing the students to work with advanced equipments
- Authorised Service Centres

Functioning of Community College

The Directors of Community Colleges accept the responsibility of running the Community College by the Board of the Management of each college. The Governing Body use to have few Industrial Partners as its members. The entire system is kept going by the qualified life skills, work skill staff and guest faculty. The Advisory Board for each of the course should be in place every college. The colleges send their students for internship for 2 months. Planning, Monitoring, Evaluation, Training and Placement all are done by the Community College.

The Community College improves the living standard of those who are excluded and uplift the downtrodden. They also update the courses every year with the experts from different fields. Most of the colleges have nominal

and flexible fee structure. Many colleges have past peoples association. All the colleges follow the pattern of life skills, work skills, internship and preparation for employment.

Courses Offered by Community Colleges

The Community Colleges offer diploma courses in health assistance/ nursing assistance; pre-primary teacher training; DTP operation/computer application; fashion designing and garment manufacture; house electrical/ electrical work; air-conditioning and refrigeration; four-wheeler/automobile mechanism; catering; plumbing technology; tailoring and embroidery; Tally accounting; medical lab technology; computer hardware; sales and marketing management; travel management; bakery and confectionery; cargo management; printing technology; hotel management, rural marketing; community enterprises; Information Technology; business accountancy and chartered accountancy, house keeping, and so on.

Role of IGNOU in popularizing Community Colleges

In India, only 5% of the youth in the age group 20-24 years have obtained vocational skills through formal means, whereas the percentage in industrialized countries varies between 60% to 96%. Though about 12.8 million enter the labor force every year, only about 2.5 million vocational training seats are available in India. To address this 'Skill Gap' nationally, during the 11th Plan, the Government aspires to create 70 million skilled jobs in different sectors.

For undertaking this massive expansion in capacity, besides current established approaches, many committees have suggested the need to institutionalize an alternative education framework such as Community Colleges. Community Colleges, institutions rooted in the community for providing holistic education which is flexible and job-oriented, will offer post-secondary programmes leading to Associate Degrees in Arts, Science and Commerce.

The Associate Degree programmes through Community Colleges will focus on employability, with following features:

- Skill & job orientation
- 2-Year duration
- Vertical mobility into 3 year degree programme
- Flexible entry qualifications
- Fulltime face-to-face programme

The Indira Gandhi National Open University has begun an earnest move in providing this innovative alternative model of higher education. Since 2009 IGNOU is successfully running the scheme of Associate Degree Programmes through Community Colleges in various parts of India. The pilot programme for the scheme was launched with about 200 institutions across the country, particularly in rural areas, in the first phase. Today IGNOU is running around 443 community colleges across the country²¹.

Suggestion to bring about the improvement of the System

The colleges need to access the need of the various potential employers. Government recognition is needed. If the colleges get Government Recognition the system would gain societal and national acceptance and the students strength will go up. The Need Analysis of the Employment and Self Employment opportunities should be done every 3 years. Review Meeting among Community Colleges to share their experience and problems should be arranged once a year by the Madras Centre for Research and Development of Community Education, MCRDCE. MCRDCE should conduct refresher training programmes for the teachers of Community Colleges. Professional Enrichment Workshop and sharpening the teaching skills and ways to improve industrial collaboration should be explored. There should be monitoring, close and regular follow-up by MCRDCE of the Community Colleges.

The Industrial Partners feel that the question of recognition from the Government is so essential for the survival of the system. They also feel the training period / internship should be extended for few more weeks. They advocate women entrepreneur training. Publicity for the system is urgently required to get better placement for the student. Some of them feel the duration of the course to be increased to two years and they want the uniform standard to maintain in all the Community Colleges through regular update of the syllabus and continuous interaction with the Industrial Collaborators.

Recognition and Accreditation

The Community College System has been working successfully with 70% Job Placement without getting Recognition from any Approved Educational Bodies of the Country. However most of the Community Colleges felt there is the need for Recognition from the state and central governments to facilitate the horizontal mobility and the vertical mobility of the students of the Community College. The MCRDCE has conducted Seven Consultations so far to further this cause. It is for the first time in the educational history of the country, the agencies that run Community Colleges have devised Self-Regulatory and

Autonomous Guidelines to ensure credibility and accountability of the system. Thus the MCRDCE has succeeded in influencing the state and central governments for Recognition and Accreditation of the system and for the Student Centered Funding. The issue of Accreditation was examined closely by the National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS), New Delhi at the direction of the Ministry of Human Resource Development (MHRD), Government of India, New Delhi. The NIOS has given accreditation so far to 18 Community Colleges in India. The MCRDCE is also trying its best to workout Credit Transfer with the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), New Delhi for Vertical Mobility²².

Suggestions and future directions to Community Colleges

A Research Study on "The Impact and Prospects of the Community College System in India" was conducted by the Madras Centre for Research and Development of Community Education (MCRDCE), August 2003 and submitted to Socio-Economic Research Division Planning Commission Government of India, Yojana Bhavan, Parliament Street, New Delhi, underlined following suggestions and future directions to the Community College Movement in India which needs to be incorporated in the years to come:

1. The study shows that the problem of school dropouts can be handled by the Community Colleges by providing them multi skills since they already have the experience of at least eight to ten years of schooling. These students can be given certificate courses.
2. Technical Vocational Training and Educational (TVT &E) Programme can easily be implemented by the Community Colleges. It could be started as a pilot project taking 800 students – 40 students each for two trades in 20 Community Colleges from July 2004.
3. Lack of recognition has been the major problem faced by those who passed out from the Community Colleges. Recognition by the Ministry of Human Resources Development, New Delhi and the Directorate of Employment and training by the respective state governments will enhance the acceptance of the diploma given by the Community Colleges at national or regional levels. It will also ensure the horizontal mobility of the students in terms of getting employment all over the country.
4. The Vertical mobility of going for further education in the respective trades could be ensured by the National Qualification framework

through credit transfer especially in the Open Universities of the Country like Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU).

5. The National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) has accredited 18 Community Colleges. Many more colleges would be accredited in the near future for the Vocational courses already offered by NIOS. Efforts should be made to get the new courses designed according to the local needs.
6. The model of the Community College system could be replicated all over the country. At least one CC should be there in all the 600 districts of the country.
7. The Community College should try to address the deficiencies in the Vocational educational system in the following manner based on the findings of the above research study:
 - i. It should aim at the employability of the individual trained.
 - ii. It should evolve a system to declare the competency level and duly certify the same.
 - iii. It should promote strong Industry – Institutional linkage and ties. It involves the Industry to articulate the skills it wants and works in close collaboration with the industries, to make the individuals skill oriented that is needed by the employer.
 - iv. It should emphasize the teaching of life skills, communication skills and English language to the takers of the system.
 - v. The Community College System certainly lessens the burden on higher education.
 - vi. It is evolving a system of evaluation and assessment of skills, which are personal, social, language, communication, work and creativity.
8. The important problem, the Community Colleges are facing today is the financial viability. The fees collected from the students are very low (an average fee of Rs. 2500-3000) to make the system cost effective and reachable to the poor and the most disadvantaged. Hence it is recommended that the central and state governments could offer to the students from the socially, economically, educationally backward groups scholarships and stipends –Rs 3000 by way of meeting the training cost of per student per year which will help the Community Colleges to strengthen the System. The Planning Commission could

recommend the same to MHRD since the Planning Commission has already has already advocated the strengthening of the Community College scheme in the Tenth Five Year Plan "There should be focus on convergence of schemes like the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, Adult Education and Vocational Education Programme at Schools, Polytechnics, Community Colleges etc. (Tenth Five Year Plan, 2002-2007).

9. As the Community Colleges are predominant in South India, the concept of Community College has to be propagated through regional workshops especially in the northern states of India in particular in Bihar, Orissa, Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh, Punjab, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, West Bengal and other north eastern states. These workshops can be conducted to popularize the Concept among service minded organizations and NGOs with the help of the respected state government.
10. The various components of the Life Skills Programme such as Life Coping Skills, Communication Skills, English, Basic Computing Skills preparation for employment could be included in the whole stream of Vocational Education with the expertise of the Community Colleges and by training teachers of Vocational Schools. There is a need to promote active industrial partnership with agencies like the Indian Chamber of Commerce, Confederation of Indian Industries etc in order to stabilize the internship and job placement.
11. The same Life Skills could be introduced as an integral component to the Arts and Science college students to enhance their employability.
12. The whole movement has been a non-governmental initiative. Hence the governments could provide external support through recognition and awarding of scholarship and stipends to the deserving students. This help could come from the following departments of the government.
 - a) Rural Development Department
 - b) Social Welfare Department
 - c) Health Department
 - d) Women Welfare/Empowerment Department
 - e) Youth Welfare and Sports Department
 - f) The Quasi Government Organisations, Public Sector Agencies to ensure placements

- g) Funds of the Special Component Plan Programmes For the welfare of the SC/ST population.
13. MCRDCE could function as nodal agency to help agencies to establish Community Colleges, to train teachers, to develop curriculum and evaluation methods in the overall direction of the Community College Movement in India. This Centre could be recognized and supported by the Ministry of Human Resources Development, New Delhi.
14. The Study shows that adequate infrastructure facility is not available in most of the Community Colleges. Since the nature of the Courses is Vocational and Trade activities it is essential that adequate infrastructure particularly for hands on training is to be considerably strengthened. While some support could come through Community Contribution and fees collected from the Students there is need for the Government's grants also to strengthen community colleges.

Jan Shikshan Sansthans

Evolution of JSS

Jan Shikshan Sansthans were initially called Shramik Vidyapeeths, polyvalent or multifaceted Adult Education Centres.

The population explosion, industrial development and migration of people from rural to urban areas resulted in rapid urbanization, which in turn brought in its concomitant problems of lack of accommodation and miserable living conditions particularly for the migrants and the deprived communities who were forced to live in inhuman conditions in the slums, on pavements, in settlement and labour colonies. Lack of education and skills, left the migrants unemployed and under-employed. Unable to make both the ends meet they frequently fell prey to anti-social elements. Shramik Vidyapeeth was setup to impart specialized education integrated with awareness and functional improvement for such people. In the context of the country's overall development, this programme was conceived as responding to the educational and vocational needs of numerous groups of adults and young people, men and women belonging mostly to the unorganized, urban informal sector, living and working in urban and industrial areas and people migrating from rural to urban settings, were expected to derive substantial benefits from such a centre.

The introduction of the innovation of Shramik Vidyapeeth in the country was preceded by discussion between the Government of India and Unesco in

1960s. Unesco was interested in promoting this type of education in India. Yugoslavia had by then achieved some success in the experiment of polyvalent education. Therefore, Mr. K. Milinkovic, Director of a Polyvalent centre in Yugoslavia was sent to India as Consultant by Unesco.

Growth

The first Shramik Vidyapeeth was established in Worli Mumbai in March 1967 under the aegis of Bombay City Social Education Committee, a voluntary organization engaged in adult education for several years. Encouraged by the successful functioning of this Shramik Vidyapeeth, the Government of India gradually expanded the scheme to other parts of the country. Today there are 271 Jan Shikshan Sansthan located in 29 States and Union Territories. These institutions are non-formal adult education institutions to impart literacy linked vocational courses. They offer training in a number of vocational courses with varying duration to different clientele groups. In view of the inherent strength of these institutions in the field of vocational education and training, they have become more popular and are in demand by the non-government organizations.

Salient Features

Jan Shikshan Sansthan are independently registered organizations under Societies Registration Act with their own Memorandum of Association and Rules and Regulations and run under the aegis of NGOs. The Govt. of India provides lump sum annual recurring grant to the Sansthan in a set pattern and prescribed the ceiling for each of the budget heads which include Emoluments, Programme Expenditure and Office Expenditure.

They cater practically to the need of all sections of the society with special emphasis on women, illiterates, neo-literates, SC, ST, OBC and Minorities.

While other technical institutions conduct limited number of skill based courses, Jan Shikshan Sansthan conduct a large variety of courses based on the local needs. The number of vocational courses conducted by the Jan Shikshan Sansthan put together comes to about 160 which can be broadly categorized as - Cutting, Tailoring, Dress Making & Designing, Knitting and Embroidery, Beauty Culture & Health Care, Cottage Industry Courses, Handicrafts, Cookery, Bakery, Confectionery & Food Processing, Art, Drawing and Painting, Agriculture & Allied Technology, Carpentry & Furniture Making, Leather Technology, Building Technology, Printing Technology, Automobile, Refrigeration & Air Conditioning, Health & Para Medical, Maintenance and

Repair of Electronic Items, Electrical, Mechanical, Textile Technology, Secretarial Practice, Teacher Training, Miscellaneous and Computer Courses. In the recent time the National Literacy Mission Authority rationalized the courses conducted by the Sansthans which have employment/self-employment potential.

The curriculum, syllabus and teaching-learning material are mostly prepared by Jan Shikshan Sansthans themselves with the help of Resource Persons and State Resource Centres. Hence, they vary from one Sansthan to the other. The same way each Sansthan decides about the duration of the courses which also vary from one to the other. This also has been rationalized in recent times by the National Literacy Mission Authority with the instruction that the Jan Shikshan Sansthans should follow the standardized curriculum prepared by NCVT (Modular Employable Skills), NIFT and Directorate of Adult Education. However, the Sansthans also can prepare the curriculum which necessarily has to be approved by a competent authority.

Jan Shikshan Sansthans are primarily polyvalent education institutions. The beneficiaries also learn general knowledge relating to vocational courses and life. This is otherwise called Life Enrichment Education. The topics covered under this are:

| | |
|---|--|
| Entrepreneurship Development Programme | Self-employment opportunities, development of self-confidence, market survey, sources of finance, project preparation, customer dealing, achievement motivation, enterprise launching. Achievement motivation, developing competencies, costing and pricing, marketing, book keeping, banks and loans, project report preparation. |
| Work Culture and Ethics | Effective workmanship, sincerity to the profession, harmonious relations with customers and the public. |
| Public Relation Skills and Customer Service | Importance of maintaining good relations with customers. Good interpersonal relationship with co-workers. Good social relationship. |
| Environmental Education | Various environmental issues and problems like water, air, sound pollution. Importance of proper disposal of waste and garbage. Necessary drainage system. Bio-diversity. |

| | |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| Human Values | Importance of value education. Friendly and courteous behaviour, commitment, sincerity, unity in diversity, religious tolerance, social responsibility. |
| Eye Care | Care of eyes. How to keep eyesight good and normal. Common disorders of eyesight. Nutritious food for good eyesight. Supplement food, vitamins. |
| Population and Development Education | Explaining demographic facts. Effects of population explosion. Development components like health, education, employment, housing in relation to population and development in the Indian context. |
| Nutrition and Health | Principles of Nutrition, balanced diet, basic principles of health, hygiene and environmental sanitation. Relationship between nutrition and health, preparation and use of low cost recipes and nutritious food. |
| Legal Awareness | Right and duties of a citizen. Lodging FIR. Insurance – personal and property. |
| National Integration | Rights and responsibilities of a citizen. Aspects of unity and diversity. Culture and heritage of India. Patriotism. Religious tolerance. Communal harmony. |
| Public Relations | Importance of maintaining good public relations. Need for inter-personal relationship with co-citizens. Politeness towards others and customers. Maintaining cheerful disposition. Smooth and soft behaviour. Maintaining congenial and firmly atmosphere. Effective communication, importance of maintaining harmonious relationship with customers and co-workers. |
| Responsible Parenthood | Responsibility of parents to bring up children with good health, education and human values. Children to be moulded carefully and tenderly to have freedom and all round development. Free movement in the family, school and in the society. Maintaining a happy and ideal family atmosphere in order to bring up children ideally. Ill effects of child labour. Knowledge about population and development concepts for the parents. Role of parents and children. Behaviour, dealings, education, awareness. Girl child and gender bias, educating parents about child labour. Mother and child care. |

| | |
|--|--|
| First Aid and Safety Measures | Various first aid techniques, methods and importance of first aid in life saving situations. |
| Health Education, Nutrition and Personal Hygiene | Principles of nutrition. Balanced diet. Relationship between nutrition and health and personal hygiene. Preparation and use of low-cost nutritious food. |
| Small Savings, Self Help Groups | Concept of forming cooperatives, self help groups. Legal aspects, necessary requirements and procedures. |
| Women Empowerment | Importance of women empowerment. Rights of a woman, self help groups, scheme floated by state and central governments for up-liftment of women. Status of women, importance of education, income generation, health, etc. Woman as member of family, society and as a citizen. Promotion of self esteem and dignity, steps against exploitation, legal aid, women's rights, economic independence, decision making powers. |
| Nutrition and Hygiene | Importance of cleanliness, preparing food in the hygienic conditions, the bad effects of unhygienic conditions (food, nutrition and health), stigma attached to food habits of pregnant women, child and aged, better cooking principles, etc. Importance of balanced diet. |

The courses include a lot of practical sessions with the result the trainees master the skill in comparison to others undergo such training in other institutions. In general the practical forms 65 percent of the total instructional hours while 25 percent of the time is devoted to theory and 10 percent to the LEE component. Learner evaluation is more on practical aspects.

Collaboration and coordination are again one of the important strengths of Jan Shikshan Sansthan. In view of the limited space available in the buildings in which the Sansthan are located and also the necessity of conducting vocational skill courses near the areas in which the clientele groups are living, they organize the courses in collaboration and coordination with other agencies where both the space and facilities are available. In view of

this, the Sansthans could organize more number of courses and cover large number of beneficiaries.

Each JSS is a successful institution in its own way. They organize both traditional and non-traditional courses - on one side cutting-tailoring and another side computer and hospital helpers. This freedom of organizing market needed courses enabled the Sansthans to plan a number of new courses which directly benefit the trainees and the institutions in which such skilled persons are required.

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Conflicts and Conflict Resolution among Women of Self-Help Groups in Dindigul District

R.Kalpana

Abstract

"Woman, you brought with you a new song but we did not let you sing although yours is the voice of half of the earth".

- Frederico Mayor, Former Director General of UNESCO (1999)

Women of Self-Help Groups have more chances of facing different kinds of conflicts because of their greater social interaction. The present study aims: (i) to find out the intra and inter-individual and intra and inter-group conflicts that the women of Self-Help Groups (SHGs) have observed and experienced during the past two years; (ii) to identify the situations and causes leading to Intra and Inter-Individual, and Intra and inter-group conflicts, observed and experienced by the respondents; (iii) to find out the different methods of conflict resolution adopted and observed by the respondents; (iv) to find out the attitude of the respondents towards conflicts and conflict resolution; and, v) to find out the influence of the variables on the respondents' attitude towards conflict and conflict resolutions.

The basic assumptions of the study are that the conflicts experienced by SHG women are mostly related to economic causes; they do not know about all possible methods of conflict resolution; and, there is no relationship between the respondents' age, community, marital status, educational level, and duration of membership in the group and their attitude to conflict.

The method of purposive sampling was adopted to choose 250 members from four blocks of Dindigul District. The methods of data collection included (i) in-depth Interview and (ii) use of an Attitude Scale. The statistical tools employed included (i) Mean, (ii) Standard Deviation, and, (iii) Chi-square Test.

The findings reveal that most respondents were from a lower economic background. Among the inner feelings, the majority stated "anger" as the

feeling which led to inner conflict. Financial constraint was the main cause for the intra and inter-individual and intra and inter-group conflicts as observed and experienced by the respondents. Due to women's financial constraints and multiple responsibilities it was not possible on their part to satisfy equally all the members in their families.

The situations leading to intra and inter group conflicts were due to the differences in savings and credit distributed among the members. Lack of cooperation during scarcity of water and people fighting on streets after drinking alcohol during festivals and local elections were the recurrent causes leading to community conflicts.

The methods applied often by the respondents for resolving the conflicts were: (i) Dialogue, (ii) Counselling, (iii) Consoling themselves and others, (iv) Building self confidence and courage, (v) Compromise, (vi) Negotiation, (vii) Mediation, (viii) Arbitration, (ix) Adjudication, and, (x) Withdrawal.

After testing the null-hypotheses a significant association was found between the respondents' attitude towards conflict and the duration of their membership in SHGs. No significant association was found between their attitude towards conflicts and their age, their community, their marital status, their educational level and their occupation.

In order to improve the conflicts resolution skills of the SHG members both qualitatively and quantitatively, the researcher feels that there is a need to take some action like starting counselling centres and organising Non-formal Education programmes on conflict resolution for the women of Self Help Groups.

Introduction

The emergence of Self-Help Groups in the villages of India has brought about positive changes in the lives of women. The status change has also brought conflicts into their lives. Women might face conflicts within themselves, within their families, within the groups and with the village community due to membership in the SHG. Such conflicts could make them feel uncomfortable and insecure. As a result, women may fail to work efficiently within the family, the group and the community. Hence, any programme for real empowerment should also deal with conflicts.

There has been a lacuna in studies on conflicts among women in Self-Help Groups. Due to the emerging conflicts among women in SHGs, there is

an urgent need for undertaking a comprehensive research on conflicts among the women belonging to SHGs. The researcher has taken up the present study from a holistic approach, i.e., from conflicts arising amidst the members of SHGs to conflicts in the community.

Importance of the Study

The study is important from the perspectives of the Decade of Culture of Peace and creating a culture of peace through Adult Education. The study would benefit the SHG members and their families, the Research Institutions, educational institutions and universities and the researchers and research scholars. These have been explained as follows:

This study is being undertaken in the **Decade of Culture of Peace** (2001-2010) as declared by the United Nations. Conflict Resolution plays an important role in establishing the "Culture of Peace". The present study focuses on how the women themselves are able to resolve their conflicts and live in a peaceful manner.

The study will also contribute to the field of Adult Education because the study focuses on Conflict Resolution which is an important component in Adult Education. The skills of peaceful conflict resolution are internationally considered as the "Second Literacy". This is equally important for future generations as reading and writing. The researcher has made an attempt to design an outline of a non-formal education curriculum on conflict resolution based on the findings of the present research which may be used by adult educators.

Mahatma Gandhi emphasized that besides Literacy, Adult Education should aim at the integral development of a person. An adult is considered to be fully educated when he/she is able to exercise his/her social, political, and judicial rights. People will be able to live peacefully, when they are able to resolve their conflicts in a non-violent manner without taking the help of the judicial system. Paulo Freire, the educationist and philosopher from Brazil had emphasized the process of conscientization, where the rural people themselves participate in all the processes of development, by freeing themselves from the oppressor.

The International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century recommended that Education throughout life is based on four pillars: 1. Learning to know, 2. Learning to do, 3. Learning to live together and 4. Learning to be (Delors, 1996).

The curriculum, after being applied in the field, will contribute towards the third pillar – “Learning to live together expects people in learning to manage conflicts – through a spirit of mutual understanding and peace.

Self-Help Groups, their families, and other members in the community will be benefited by learning and understanding the methods of conflict resolution in order to enable their groups to function more peacefully and constructively. This study would benefit the family members of the SHG members, especially their husbands in dealing with their wives so that the conflicts can be avoided. This could be done by organizing special meetings in the study areas to enlighten the women self help groups to understand about the findings of the study. The findings of the study would help in designing a suitable non-formal education course on conflict resolution. The researcher plans to organize Shanti Sena (Peace Brigades) in each SHG Federation. These centres would equip the SHG members to practice the methods of conflict resolution in their day to day lives. Once in every six months a non-formal orientation course on conflict resolution could be organized for the SHG members, their families, and also for the Panchayat officials.

Research Institutions, Educational Institutions and Universities will be benefited by this study for their references regarding conflicts and conflict resolution at the grassroots level.

International Peace Research organizations will be benefited by this research which will enhance their knowledge regarding the dynamics of conflict and conflict resolution as understood and experienced by women at the grass-root level.

Researchers and Research Scholars who are specializing in Peace Studies, Conflict Studies, Conflict Resolution, Women's Studies and Non-formal Education will be able to acquire more knowledge on conflicts among rural women. They will understand about the causes of conflicts and the methods adopted for resolving the conflicts by the women as members of self help groups.

It is also important to understand the theories of social interaction and conflicts, which are relevant to the present study.

Based on the theoretical background of the study, rationale of the study, review of the existing studies and the importance of the study, the objectives of the study have been framed as follows

Basic Assumptions of the study (Hypotheses)

The researcher has taken up the present study with the following basic assumptions:

1. The SHG women have a positive attitude towards conflicts.
2. Among the SHG women there are more intra-individual conflicts than inter-individual or inter-group conflicts.
3. The conflicts experienced by SHG women are mostly related to economic causes.
4. The SHG women do not have knowledge about all possible methods of conflict resolution.
5. "Compromise" is the method commonly used for conflict resolution among the women SHG members.
6. There is no relationship between the respondents' age, community/ caste, marital status, educational level, and duration of membership in the group and their attitude to conflict.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:

1. to find out the intra- and inter-individual and intra and inter-group conflicts that the women of Self-Help Groups (SHGs) have observed and experienced during the past two years;
2. to identify the situations and causes leading to Intra and Inter-Individual, and Intra and inter-group conflicts, observed and experienced by the respondents;
3. to find out the different methods of conflict resolution adopted and observed by the respondents;
4. to find out the attitude of the respondents towards conflicts and conflict resolution; and,
5. to find out the influence of the variables on the respondents' attitude towards conflict and conflict resolutions;

Methodology

The sample of the study included 250 women SHG members from one hundred and thirty five SHGs spread over twenty one Panchayats of Dindigul District, across four blocks, namely, Athoor, Dindigul, Nilakottai and Reddiarchhatram. The method of purposive sampling was adopted for selecting the sample because the present study demanded familiarity and

rapport with the respondents for eliciting information regarding different kinds of conflicts through in-depth interviews.

The methods of data collection included (i) in-depth interview and (ii) use of an Attitude Scale. The data were edited, coded, classified and transcribed into the computer using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The statistical tools employed were i. Mean, ii. Standard Deviation, and, iii. Chi-square Test.

Major Findings of the Study

i) General Profile of the Respondents

The majority of the respondents (71%) were between the age of 20 to 40 years, belonged to backward castes (57%), were married and living with their spouse (87%), were educated up to the secondary level (78%), were housewives (40%) and were unskilled workers (31%). Seventy six percent belonged to nuclear families.

Most respondents were from a lower economic background and were earning less than Rs.2,500/- per month. Most of the respondents (59%) saved Rs.50/- per month, held some positions in the SHGs (56%), and were members for more than two years (71%).

The majority of respondents (73%) understood conflict as misunderstanding between two or more persons. A few respondents were able to differentiate conflict from violent quarrels. For some of them conflicts meant jealousy, competition and clash of ego.

ii) Respondents' Level of Attitude to Conflict

The majority of the respondents (57%) had neither a positive nor a negative attitude towards conflict. Twenty percent of the respondents had a positive attitude towards conflicts which meant that they thought that conflicts are advantageous. A slightly higher number (23%) had a negative attitude towards conflicts.

More than 90% of the respondents agreed that conflicts were essential for the healthy development of individuals. The majority agreed with the statements "Conflict hurts emotionally" (96%), and "Conflict spoils the mental peace of man" (91%).

iii) Intra - Individual Conflicts and Methods of Resolution

Among the eight inner feelings, namely i) Anger, (ii) Anxiety/Worry, (iii) Sorrow, (iv) Confusion (v) Insecurity, (vi) A feeling of being deprived, (vii) Guilt feeling, and (viii) Jealousy, the majority (86%) stated "anger" as the feeling which mostly led to inner conflict.

The majority of the respondents (81%) stated that the situations at home, more than the situations at the work place and in the community, made them angry.

Anger arousing situations at Home and Methods of Resolution

The respondents experienced anger at home due to the unacceptable behavior of members in the family (81%), mostly on the part of their children and husband. The methods of overcoming anger towards children were advising and counseling the children (25%), and remaining quiet and controlling anger (20%). Resolving the conflicts with husbands was done by reaching a common agreement (9%) and through dialogue (15%).

Anger arousing situations in the Community and Methods of Resolution

The respondents experienced anger in the community due to blame and criticism by neighbours and others (56%) due to their changing life-styles as SHG members. The method of overcoming the same included advising and counseling the neighbours (44%) and consoling themselves (31%).

Anger arousing situations at the work place and Methods of Resolution

The respondents experienced anger at the work place due to unfriendly behavior of colleagues (57%) and inordinate delay in money transactions among the SHG members in weekly meetings (42%). The method of overcoming the same included dialogue and counseling (41%).

Anxiety and Method of Resolution

The situations that aroused anxiety were i) Financial constraints in the family (48%) (ii) Disturbance in children's education (18%) (iii) Personal problems in life (14%) (iv) Thought of children's welfare and future (13%) (v) Bereavements in family (8%) (vi) Health problems in family (6%) (vii) Personal

health problem (6%) (viii) Irregular employment of husband (5%) (ix) Strained relationship with husband (4%) and (x) Drinking habit of husband (2%).

Financial constraint was the situation that caused anxiety as expressed by many respondents (48%). The method of overcoming anxiety due to financial constraints was by working overtime and earning more (14%).

Sorrow and Method of Resolution

The situations that aroused sorrow were i) Financial constraints in the family (39%) ii) Bereavement in family (15%) iii) Personal problem in life (13%) iv) Problems faced by children (12%) v) Misbehaviour by others (9%) vi) Personal chronic health problem (8%) vii) Health problem in family (8%) and viii) Lack of cordial relationship with husband (6%).

Financial constraint in the family was the situation that aroused sorrow as expressed by most of the respondents (39%).

The method of overcoming the sorrow was by consoling themselves and others consoling them (22%).

Confusion and Method of Resolution

The situations that aroused confusion were i) When taking a decision about future actions (32%) ii) Making mistakes while doing work (21%) iii) Not having sufficient money for the daily expenses (18%) iv) Doing more than one activity simultaneously (11%) v) When taking decisions about children's education and future (8%) and vi) When taking decisions about one's own occupation and profession (6%).

Taking a decision about future actions was the situation that aroused confusion as expressed by the majority (32%).

The method of overcoming confusion was discussing with family members (11%) and building up the capacity to take their own decision (7%).

Insecurity and Method of Resolution

The situations that aroused insecurity were i) inadequate income (40%) ii) Bereavement in family (20%) iii) Loneliness (16%) iv) Quarrels in the family (13%) v) Chronic health problem (12%) vi) Not being supported by

anyone in the family(12%) vii) Problems with husband (11%) viii) Not having a son(4%) and ix) Not having children(3%).

Inadequate income (40%) and bereavement in family (20%) were the situations that aroused the feeling of insecurity as expressed by most of the respondents.

The method of overcoming insecurity as expressed by most respondents was by building self confidence and courage (34%).

Feeling of being Deprived and Method of Resolution

The situations that led to the feeling of being deprived were i) Financial constraints in the family (59%) ii) Not being educated / trained (14%) iii) Personal health problem (6%) iv) Being barren(15%) and v) Having separated from husband(5%).

Financial constraint in the family was the situation that led to the feeling of being deprived, as expressed by the majority (59%).

The method of overcoming this feeling as expressed by many was by working hard to earn more (32%).

Guilt Feeling and Method of Resolution

The situations that caused guilt feeling were i) Spending money without husband's permission (26%) ii) Behaving violently (20%) iii) Committing mistakes in work (13%) iv) Doing any work without husband's permission (11%) v) Going somewhere without husband's permission (9%) vi) Being careless (7%) and v) Inability to educate daughters (4%).

Spending money without husband's permission was the situation that caused guilt feeling as expressed by most respondents (26%).

The method of overcoming the guilt feeling was by informing their husband later (25%).

Jealousy and Method of Resolution

The situations that caused jealousy were i) Other women being in a better position than her (54%) ii) Other women being more talented than her (29%) iii) Other women wearing better clothes than her (11%) iv) Other women

being more popular than her (7%) and v) Other women having sons(7%).

Other women being in a better position was the situation that caused jealousy as expressed by the majority (54%).

The method of overcoming jealousy was by accepting the situation (33%) and by trying to reach a better position (27%).

IV) Inter-Individual Conflicts and Methods of Resolution

The respondents (36%) had more conflicts with their husbands compared to other members in the family.

Difference of opinion with their husbands (21%), the financial constraints in the family (20%), irregular employment of the husband (17%) and drinking habit of the husband (13%) led to conflicts between the women and their husbands. This was resolved through dialogue (28%).

Daughter not working efficiently at home and not obeying led to conflict (33%). This was resolved by counseling the daughter (29%).

Sons not obeying her and not studying properly gave rise to conflicts between the respondents and their sons (39%). This was resolved by counseling and advising the sons (17%).

Not being helped by brothers financially led to conflict (42%). This was resolved through dialogue (21%).

Inability to meet the financial requirements and demands of younger sisters led to conflict (27%). The method of dialogue was used to resolve the conflict (21%).

Being criticized by mother-in-law for not being quick and perfect in doing the household chores led to conflict (45%). This was resolved by dialogue and discussion (21%).

Mother not being able to help the daughter financially led to conflict (42%). This was resolved through others counseling the mothers (6%).

v) Intra-Group Conflicts and Methods of Resolution

Thirty nine percent respondents said that they noticed disagreement among members of their own SHG.

The situations leading to the intra-group conflicts were: i) inability to receive loans regularly (46%); ii) partiality shown while being given micro-credit (39%); iii) violating the rules of SHGs (22%); iv) groupism within the group (14%); and, v) difference of opinion with the office bearers of SHGs (9%).

Methods of resolving conflicts during depositing savings and repaying loans within the group included i) Members adjusting with the group members (42%); ii) dialogue and discussion among group members (20%); iii) advice and counseling (16%); and, iv) compromise (16%).

Vi) Inter-Group Conflicts and Methods of Resolution

Disagreements among different SHGs were noticed by only 20% respondents.

The different situations that led to inter-group conflicts were i) difference between the amount of savings between groups (60%); ii) difference between the amounts of credit given in different groups (24%); iii) relaxation of rules (24%); and, iv) some SHGs having progressed economically more than other SHGs (16%).

The difference in the amount of savings between different groups led to inter-group competition, which resulted in conflicts (60%).

However, the inter-group competition and conflicts between the groups were resolved by the group members trying to save more money (33%), by trying to work hard for improving their skills (33%), by making alternative arrangements to get more loans (20%), through dialogue (16%) and, by developing their occupational skills (4%).

The situation that led to conflict among office bearers of different SHGs was mainly jealousy (60%) because other groups had saved more compared to them. This was resolved by increasing the amount of savings. Another situation was the President being partial (20%). The way of resolving the above conflicts was by removing the President democratically and electing another President.

vii) Conflicts in the Community and Methods of Resolution

The majority (54%) said that conflicts took place in the neighbourhood when women collecting water from the common tap did not follow the queue system and the ethics of equal sharing of water. The different methods that were used for resolving such conflicts were negotiation (27%), dialogue (21%),

mediation (14%), counseling (10%), compromise (4%), arbitration (6%) and adjudication (2%).

It was expressed by many that the situation which led to conflict during special celebrations and festivals was people drinking alcohol (42%). The method of resolving was negotiation (33%). Dialogue, mediation and counseling were also applied in a few cases.

The situation leading to political conflicts was political parties holding different ideologies during local elections (58%). Dialogue was the method applied for resolving political conflicts (33%). Negotiation (17%) and arbitration (17%) were also applied in some cases.

Indifferent behavior by different caste groups was the situation that led to conflicts as expressed by many (45%). These conflicts were resolved by arbitration (18%), mediation (9%), negotiation (18%), adjudication (18%) and withdrawal (9%).

Conclusions

Anger, Anxiety, Sorrow, Confusion, Insecurity, Guilt Feeling, Jealousy and a feeling of being deprived are some of the inner feelings which lead to stress and painful emotions. These painful emotions result in intra-individual conflicts within the individuals as it has been revealed in the present study. Among the eight inner feelings the majority of the respondents stated anger as the feeling which led to inner conflicts. The situations at home made them angrier; therefore learning to overcome anger at home can contribute towards maintaining peace and balance within their Self-Help Group.

It can be concluded that the recurrent situation leading to intra-individual conflicts was the financial constraints in the family. The other situations that aroused intra-individual conflicts were blame and criticism by family members and neighbours due to the women's changing life styles as members of SHGs, children's education and welfare, bereavements in the family, health problems in family and while taking decisions without husband's permission. Doing more than one activity simultaneously also gave rise to inner conflicts because women had multiple roles as SHG members. Women comparing themselves with others who were in a better position economically and socially also resulted in intra-individual conflicts.

Regarding inter-individual conflicts it can be concluded from the findings that due to women's multiple responsibilities and financial constraints it was

not possible on their part to satisfy equally all the members in their families. However, there were more conflicts between the respondents and their husbands.

Though a very few women had mentioned intra and inter-group conflicts, the situations leading to these conflicts were due to the differences in savings and credits and also due to financial constraints.

The most serious problem which gave rise to conflicts in the community were lack of cooperation during scarcity of water and people fighting on streets after drinking alcohol during special celebrations, festivals, and during local elections. Alcoholism was also the major situation which led to conflict between the respondents and their husbands and to conflicts in the community. Financial constraint was the main cause for the intra and inter-individual and intra and inter-group conflicts as observed and experienced by the respondents.

The methods applied often by the respondents for resolving the conflicts were: i) Dialogue ii) Counselling iii) Consoling themselves and others iv) Building self confidence and courage v) Compromise vi) Negotiation vii) Mediation viii) Arbitration ix) Adjudication and x) Withdrawal.

A few women were able to overcome their intra individual conflicts due to chronic health problem by finding solace in children. Some women were able to overcome their feeling of being childless by accepting all children as their own.

It is interesting to observe that a few respondents used children as their mediators to resolve the conflicts between them and their family members. Parents love their children and they are ready to listen to what their children say. Children are considered valuable mediators to solve conflicts between their mothers and fathers or mothers and uncles and many a time they are successful in mediation.

The findings of the study have justified the first assumption that among the SHG women there are more intra-individual conflicts than inter individual or inter-group conflicts. The second assumption that the conflicts experienced by SHG women are mostly related to economic causes holds good because the findings show that the main reasons for conflicts is the financial constraints. The third assumption that the SHG women do not have knowledge about all possible methods of conflict resolution is true as per the findings of the study. The fifth assumption that SHG women have a positive attitude to conflict is true as per the findings of the study.

After testing the null-hypotheses a significant association was found between the respondents' attitude towards conflict and the duration of their membership in SHGs. No significant association was found between their attitude towards conflicts and their age, their community, their marital status, their educational level and their occupation.

Based on the conclusions of the study the researcher has come up with some suggestions for future actions.

Appendix

Table 1
Inner Feelings Leading to Intra – Individual Conflict

| S.No. | Inner Feelings | Number | Percentage |
|-------|---------------------------|--------|------------|
| 1. | Anger | 215 | 86 |
| 2. | Anxiety / worry | 208 | 83 |
| 3. | Sorrow | 142 | 57 |
| 4. | Confusion | 85 | 34 |
| 5. | Insecurity | 76 | 30 |
| 6. | Feeling of being deprived | 64 | 26 |
| 7. | Guilt feeling | 46 | 18 |
| 8. | Jealousy | 28 | 11 |

Note : Multiple responses were received

Source : Compiled from field data

Table 2
Situations Leading to Intra-Group Conflicts

| S.No. | Situations | Number | Percentage |
|-------|---|--------|------------|
| 1. | During money transactions within the group | 45 | 46 |
| 2. | While choosing members for grant of micro-credits | 38 | 39 |
| 3. | When SHG rules were violated | 21 | 22 |
| 4. | Groupism within the group | 14 | 14 |
| 5. | Difference of opinion with the office bearers of SHGs | 9 | 9 |
| 6. | Any other | 4 | 4 |

Note : Multiple responses were received

Source : Compiled from field data

Table 3
Conflicts between the Respondents and Different Members in the Family

| S.No. | Members | Number | Percentage |
|-------|---------------|--------|------------|
| 1. | Husband | 89 | 36 |
| 2. | Daughter | 24 | 10 |
| 3. | Brother | 24 | 10 |
| 4. | Son | 23 | 9 |
| 5. | Sister | 22 | 9 |
| 6. | Mother-in-law | 22 | 9 |
| 7. | Mother | 19 | 8 |
| 8. | Friend | 15 | 6 |
| 9. | Father-in-law | 14 | 6 |
| 10. | Father | 13 | 5 |

Note : Multiple responses were received

Source : Compiled from field data

It is seen in Table 6.33 that the more respondents (36%) had conflicts with their husbands compared to other members in the family. Since most of the respondents (76%) lived in nuclear families they naturally had more chances of having quarrels with their husbands.

Table 4
Methods of Resolving the Conflicts among members in the Community

| S.No. | Methods | Number | Percent age |
|-------|---------------------------------------|--------|-------------|
| 1. | Negotiation | 47 | 27 |
| 2. | Dialogue and discussion | 36 | 21 |
| 3. | Mediation | 25 | 14 |
| 4. | Advice and counselling | 18 | 10 |
| 5. | Avoidance | 13 | 7 |
| 6. | Resignation | 12 | 7 |
| 7. | Compromise | 7 | 4 |
| 8. | Arbitration | 10 | 6 |
| 9. | Adjudication | 3 | 2 |
| 10. | Resolving by acting immediately | 3 | 2 |
| 11. | Time being the best healer (Defusion) | 2 | 1 |
| 12. | Unable to resolve | 11 | 6 |

Note : Multiple responses were received, Source : Compiled from field data

It is understood from the previous table 6.45 that different situations led to conflicts in the community. Table 6.46 reveals the different methods applied by the village people for resolving the conflicts. A sizable portion of the respondents said that the conflicts in the community were resolved through negotiation (27%) and dialogue (21%). In some cases where the conflicts were not resolved by the respondents and the village people themselves; the methods of arbitration were applied by taking the matters to the panchayat president, and police station. The method of adjudication was applied by taking the matter to the district court. For resolving the conflicts due to unhygienic conditions in the village a respondent made arrangements to bring the cart from the panchayat office to collect the waste materials from the lanes.

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Perception of Technology Adoption among Neo-literates: A Study of National Capital Region (NCR)

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Abstract

The present study has been undertaken in National Capital Region of Delhi to examine the perceptions of technology adoption among Neo-literates. The target population of the study consists of Neo-literates, Non-literates, dropouts; pass-outs from Non-formal education programme those who belong to 15-35 age group. Jan Shikshan Sansthan of National Capital Region of Delhi have been chosen because of its convenient access for the research. The Study intended to find out the perception of technology adoption among neo-literates. The study especially emphasizes the perception of electronic media on literacy seeking behavior among neo-literates. The study is especially devoted to find out the influences, benefits and lacunae of technology on the reading habits of neo-literates. The study concludes that, the respondents consider TV, computer, mobile phone, radio, projector as effective media of learning. Further it has also been deduced that the perceptions of learning through technological mode varies among respondents according to their age, sex etc.

The word Technology is generally associated with machinery. But it refers to any practical art of using scientific knowledge. It is derived from the Greek word *technik* which means an art. For Aristotle, *techne* was the systematic use of knowledge for intelligent human action. Any system of interrelated parts which are organized in a scientific manner as to attain desired objectives could be called technology. Technology consists of all the modifications humans have made in the natural environment for their own purposes (Dugger 2001).

A neo-literate is an individual who has completed a basic literacy training programme and has demonstrated the *ability and willingness* to continue to

learn on his or her own using the skills and knowledge attained without the interference of a literacy teacher. Joshi and Ghose state neo-literate is an adult or an adolescent who did not or could not make use of the available educational opportunities on time, and who at a later stage acquired the skills of literacy through formal or non-formal approaches.

Technological interventions on Literacy

Educational technology is gradually pushing literacy instruction beyond its limits of oral and print-based tradition to embrace online and electronic texts as well as multimedia. Computers are creating new avenues for literacy by changing the way that information is absorbed, processed, and used, technology is influencing how people read, write, listen, and communicate. A few studies show that, although technology promises new ways to promote literacy, educators' reactions to it have been mixed.

Some have embraced technology with unrestrained enthusiasm while others have held it at arm's length with a healthy skepticism. Yet the growing influence of technology has caused many educators to acknowledge that they need information on teaching literacy skills in the Digital Age. Literacy instruction traditionally refers to the teaching of basic literacy skills—reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In today's digital world, however, technology has contributed to an expanded understanding of literacy. Besides having basic literacy skills, today's neo-literates also need technology skills for communicating, investigating, accessing and using information, computing, thinking critically about messages inherent in new media, and understanding and evaluating data.

Mass Media in Adult Education

Mass media are very essential media of instruction and motivation for adult education centers. The various programmes and activities of adult education can be displayed through mass media. Mass media can be broadly divided into two types namely i. traditional mass media, ii. modern mass media. Traditional media includes spoken words, visual media, folk media, puppetry, drama etc. The modern media includes radio, TV, newspaper and films. Further it can be classified into Print media and Non print media. Print Media is considered by tradition a powerful medium of learning. Printed texts can precisely represent facts, abstract ideas, rules and principles, as well as detailed, lengthy or complex arguments. Non-print Media include the technologies such as radio, television, telephone, videotext, computers, internet, satellite and so on.

Rationale of the Present Study

Literacy can be considered as one of the basic needs of human beings for sustenance in contemporary world. In India since independence several efforts have been insisted for literacy growth as well as effective implementation of it. Although the census estimation reports tremendous growth in literacy rate, the expected applicability of literacy is still invisible. India is a country of diversity at all levels. So every citizen does not get equal educational opportunity.

This inequality creates illiteracy and backwardness among the masses. Several attempts have been made through various literacy missions as well as a number of innovative approaches were launched for sustainability of learning interest among masses. In spite of all these efforts literacy is only confined to "reading", "writing" and "numerical ability". The application of literacy for sustainability is rarely visible in some parts of the country. For achieving the targeted objective in the masses it is essential to bring neo-literate and learning technology together successfully.

Objectives of the study

1. To evaluate the participation to the literacy and vocational programme
2. To study the use of various learning technology among neo-literates
3. To assess the perception of technology adoption among neo-literates

Sample of the Study

The target population of the study consists of Neo-literates, Non-literates, dropouts, pass-outs from Non-formal education programme those who belong to 15-35 age group. Delhi NCR has been taken as the area under study. Various parts of Delhi, Noida, Ghaziabad have been covered under the area of research study. Among various literacy providing organizations, Jan Shikshan Sansthan of Delhi and NCR have been chosen because of its convenient access, and proximity to the researcher.

For obtaining a good amount of primary data, a number of 228 human individuals (samples) were interacted through different research tools. Convenient sampling method of non-probability type was employed for obtaining the samples from the total population. Several experiments have been carried out to obtain adequate samples, but finally Snow-ball technique proved best-suited to the nature of research.

Table – 1: Distribution of Sample

| Name of the site with JSS | No. of Respondents |
|---|---------------------------|
| J.J cluster, Bawana (JSS, PRAYAS, Delhi) | 86 |
| Arya Samaj Mandir, Vasant Vihar (JSS R.K Puram, New Delhi) | 35 |
| Association for Social Health In India, ITO (J.S.S., R.K Puram) | 13 |
| Jan Shikshan Sansthan, NOIDA | 57 |
| Village :Sarna, U.P (JSS, Ghaziabad) | 18 |
| Village : Roshanpur Salemabad Patti Prat, U.P(JSS, Ghaziabad) | 19 |
| Total | 228 |

Inclusion Criteria

- i. Age: Neo-literates, semi literates, non-literates, dropouts and pass-outs those who are in 15-35 age group.
- ii. Duration covered: November 2008 - December 2010 –Those who have participated in literacy and vocational skills in between the above-mentioned period.
- iii. Organization covered: The neo-literates, non-literates, dropouts and pass-outs covered under the aegis of Jan Shikshan Sansthan scheme.

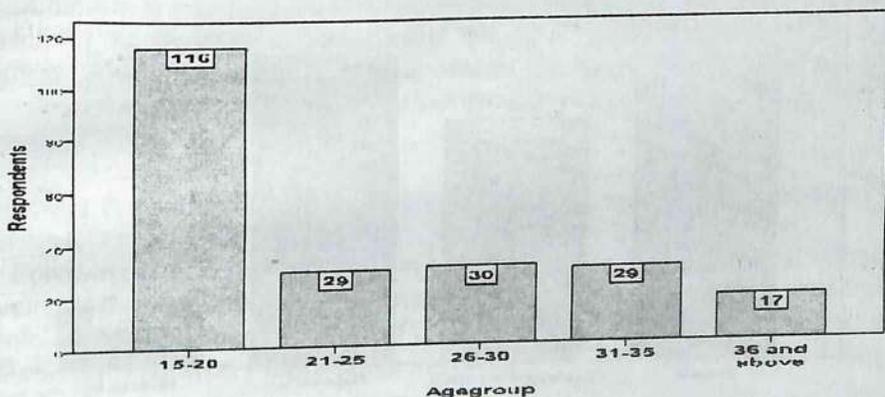
Methods of Data Collection

The following methods of data collection were employed during the field interrogation:

- i. **Observation Schedule:** Both participant and non-participant observation schedule
- ii. **Questionnaire/Interview schedule:** To administer the research questions among neo-literates
- iii. **Focus Group Discussions:** To know the opinion of respondents on exclusive matters
- iv. **Ready reckoner:** To evaluate the use of technology in the learning process of Neo-literates

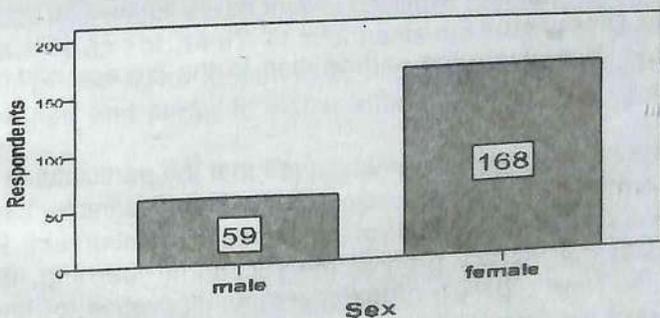
Profile of the Respondents

Figure – 1: Age group wise categorization of Respondents



The efforts represent the Age group Categorization of Respondents. Out of 228 Respondents 50.9% respondents belong to the age group of "15-20" 12.7% belong to the age group of "21-25" 13.2% belong to the age group of "26-30", 12.7% belong to the age group of "31-35", 7.5% belong to the age group of "36 and above". However 3.1% of respondents are unable to state their age. The maximum number of respondents belong to the age group "15-20" whereas the age group "36 and above" represents the lowest participation among all age groups.

Figure – 2: Sex wise categorization of Respondents



Out of total respondents 25.9% are male whereas 74.1% respondents belong to the female category. The participation of females is more than the participation of Male respondents.

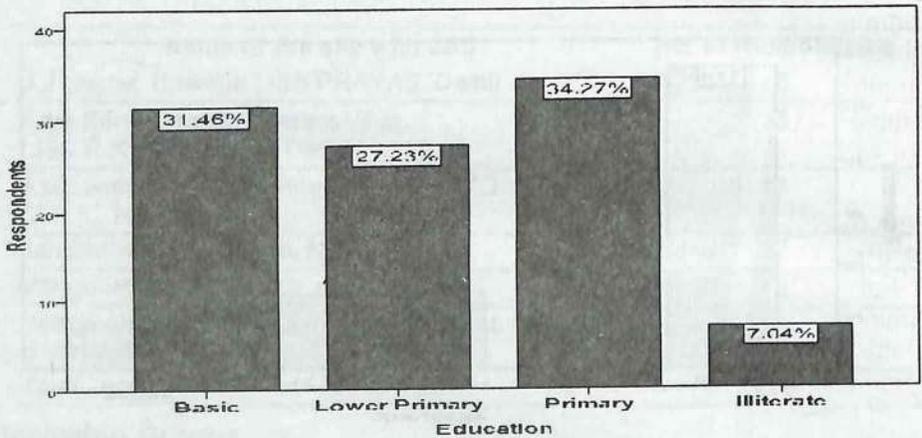
Figure – 3: Educational Status-wise Categorization

Table Represents the Educational status-wise categorization of respondents. 31.46% of respondents belong to “Basic” category, 27.23 % belong to “Lower Primary”, 34.27% belong to “Primary” stage of Education. 7% of total respondents are Illiterate. The categorization shows that the maximum number of respondents belong to the “Primary” category whereas the lowest number of respondents is in the “Illiterate” category. The reasons of School dropouts are meager Income, colony resettlement, lack of awareness among parents etc.

Note: ‘Basic’ refers to a category of respondents who though are literate cannot clearly recall their literacy status.

Findings and Discussion

Objective – 1: To evaluate the participation to the literacy and vocational programme

In the present study it has been observed that the participation of female respondents is more than the male respondents. The reasons for this variation are as follows:-i. Gender stratification of certain vocational courses ii. Profession associated with the literacy programme/vocational learning, iii. Income expectations, iv. Time schedule of the course, v. motivation for learning etc. Although most of the vocational courses offered by JSS are not sex-specific, the participation in several vocational courses clearly reveals that sex plays an important role among participants while choosing a specific course. For example, cutting and tailoring, beauty culture, jewelry making etc. are the vocational courses which usually attract for female participants whereas male

participants prefer courses like automobile repairing, mobile repairing etc. It also matters for learners the profession associated with the learning programme and income generated out of the programme. The most prominent reason for the variation in participation is lack of learning motivation among learners. The schedule of the course affects the motivation of male learners as most of the literacy and vocational training classes take place during working hour (day time).

Objective-2: To study the use of various learning technology among neo-literates.

Following checklists are taken in to account to study the use of various learning technology among neo-literates. These are as follows:- i. watching of Info-educational programme on TV, ii. Types of programmes, iii. Listening of Radio, iv. Preferred Programmes in Radio

Table 2 Watching of Info-Educational Programme on TV

| Response | | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-------------|-----------|---------|
| Valid Response | No | 20 | 8.8 |
| | Yes | 174 | 76.3 |
| | Total | 194 | 85.1 |
| | No Response | 34 | 14.9 |
| Total | | 228 | 100.0 |

Table – 2: represents the watching of Info-Educational programme on TV. 76.3% of total informants watch Info-Educational programme on T.V where as 8.8% informants do not. 14.9% of informants are neither in favor of "Yes" or nor in favor of "No". The respondents are more interested in Audio-visual learning method and prefer to watch Info-educational programme through Television.

Table – 3: Types of Programme

| Name of the Programmes | Responses | |
|------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| | N | Percent |
| Serials/other entertainments | 98 | 46.9 |
| News | 95 | 45.5 |
| Cricket/ Sports | 7 | 3.3 |
| Info entertainment | 5 | 2.4 |
| Food Processing | 4 | 1.9 |
| Total | 209 | 100 |

The above table shows the various programmes watched on T.V. Programmes like "Serials/Other Info-Entertainment" Occupies 46.9% of total response, whereas "News" occupies 45.5%. However, a few respondents were replied "Cricket/Sports" and "food processing" as their preferred programme on T.V .

Figure- 4: Listening of Radio

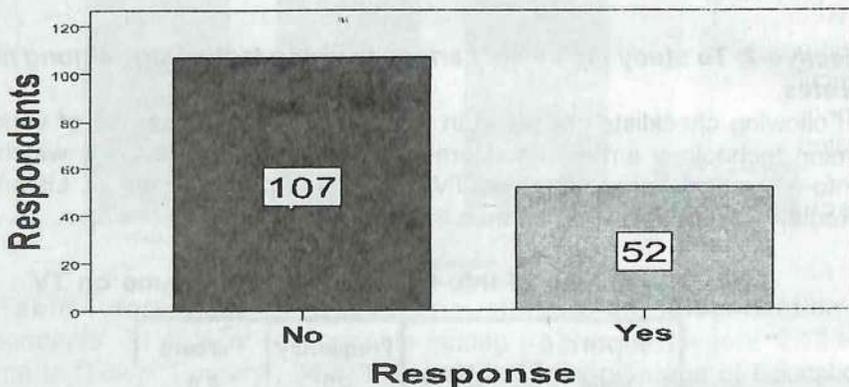
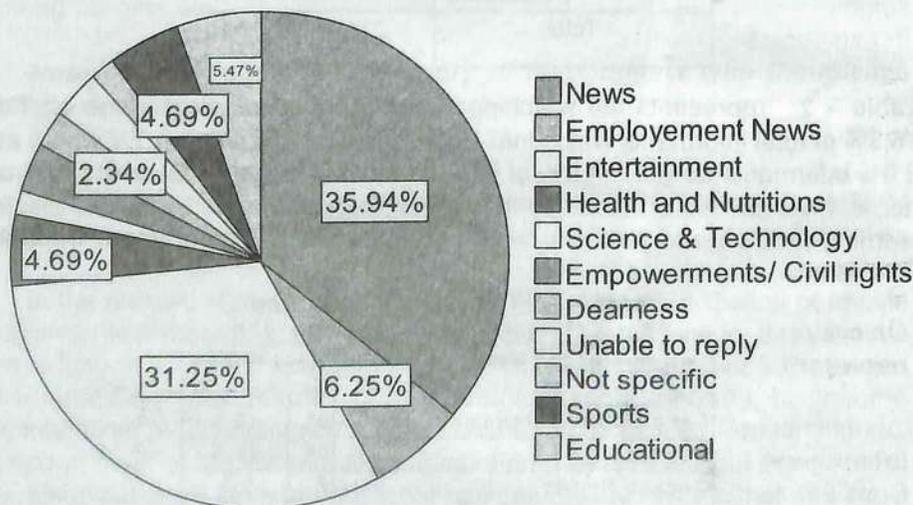


Figure- 5: Preferred Programmes in Radio



The above attempts show the distribution of Listeners and Non-listeners of Radio as well as their preferred programmes in radio. During the survey 22.8% respondents replied "Yes" whereas 46.9% respondents replied "No" while intervening the query "whether a Listener of Radio".

The reasons of Negative responses include the following: i. Technological Advancement, ii. Availability of more convenient mode of mass communication, iii. Reasonable cost of Modern Mass Communication Media etc. Further the preferred programme in radio are i. News related to Day to day life, Employment, Agriculture, ii. Entertainment, i.e. F.M., NAATAK etc, iii. Sports Commentary especially Cricket, iv. Programme related to Health and Nutrition, v. Programme related to Education etc.

Discussion

From the result it has been found that majority of the target population watch Info-Educational programme on TV. The most preferred programmes are as following:-i. News, ii. Serials and other entertainment programmes, food processing, iii. Sports, iv. Info-entertainment etc. It has also been observed that the respondents were deeply interested in the Audio-visual learning method.

It has been interpreted that although radio is losing its popularity, still some respondents listen to radio on regular basic. The preferred programmes in radio are as follows:-i. news related to day to day life, Employment, agriculture, ii. Entertainment I,e F.M, NAATAK, iii. Sports commentary especially cricket, iv. Programme related to health and nutrition, v. Programme related to Education etc.

The reasons of not listening to radio is categorized as follows:- technological advancement, availability of more convenient mode of mass communication, reasonable cost of modern mass communication media etc.

Objective- 3: To assess the perception of technology adoption among neo-literates.

Following checklists are taken in to account to assess the perception of technology adoption among neo-literates. These are as follows:- i. Consideration of Major Electronic Medium of Learning, ii. Understanding through electronic mode of learning, iii. Complications during the Use of Electronic Mode of Learning. iv. Preferred Medium of Learning

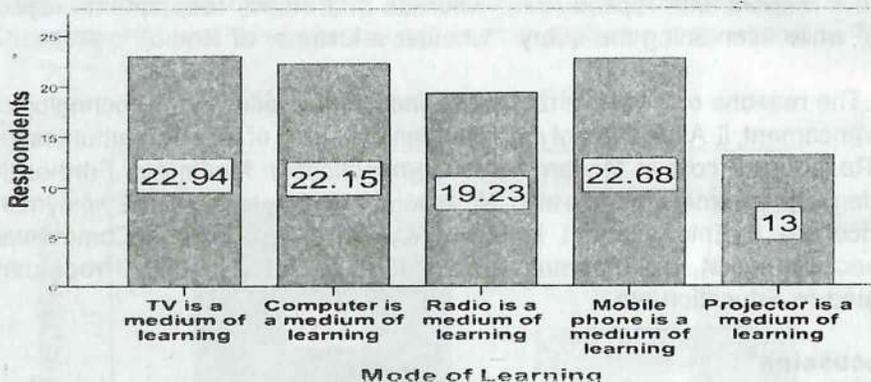
Figure – 6: Consideration of Major Electronic Medium of Learning

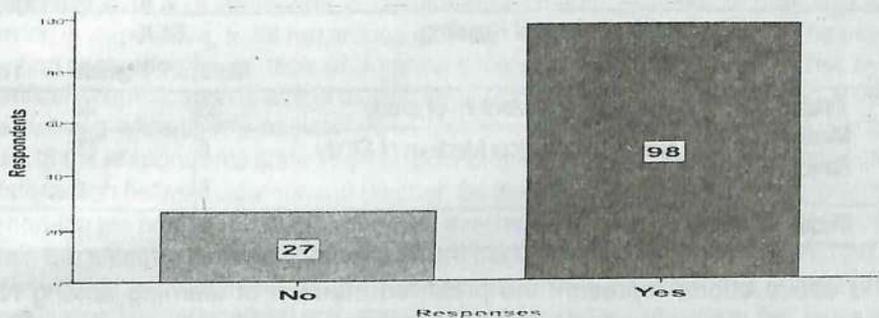
Figure - 6 represents the consideration among Neo-literates about major Electronic Modes of Learning. Out of total 754 responses 22.9% considered T.V. a major aspect of Literacy, 22.1% responses considered Computer an important aspect of Literacy, 22.7% responses considered Mobile phone a prime tool for literacy, 19.2% responses considered Radio an aspect of literacy and 13% responses consider Projector an important aspect of literacy.

The respondents recognized and considered the following appliances as electronic modes of learning; these are as follows:- Television, Computer, Radio, Mobile Phone and Projector.

It has been keenly observed that although most of the Neo-literates are less interested to read newspapers regularly, they are almost regular in keeping track of news either through T.V or Radio. Mobile phone is another device that is used by and popular among almost all the respondents.

The study reveals that a few of the respondents used F.M radio for news updates, traffic updates etc. It has also been noticed that most of the respondents keep a positive view towards learning through computer, although most of them are yet to touch a computer.

A majority of the respondents did not even know what a projector was. After explaining the functionalities of the projector most of them were able to consider it as an effective mode of learning.

Figure- 7: Understanding through electronic mode of learning

During the investigation an attempt has been made to know the influence of electronic mode of learning on the understanding process of neo-literates. Most of the respondents opined that it is relatively easy in understanding the subject matter and its retention through audiovisual method. They also mentioned that it is easy for them to hear learning lessons while they work. A majority of the respondents also opined that it is easy for them to memorize learning contents through the mode of electronic learning.

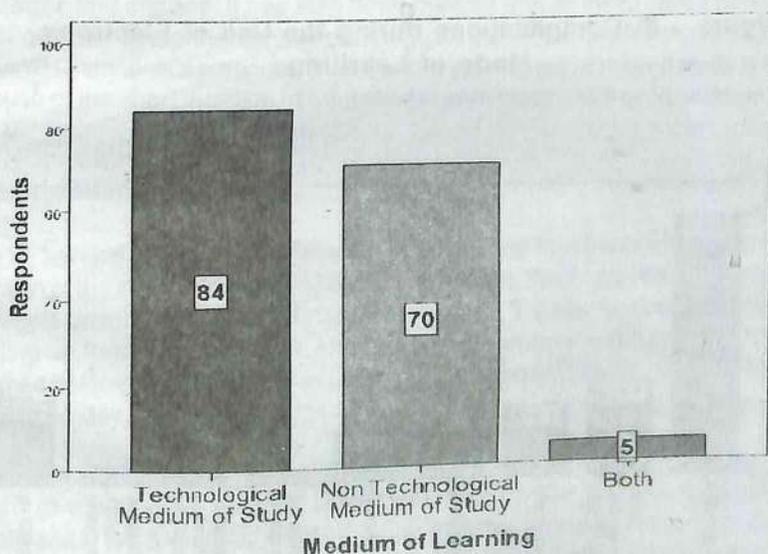
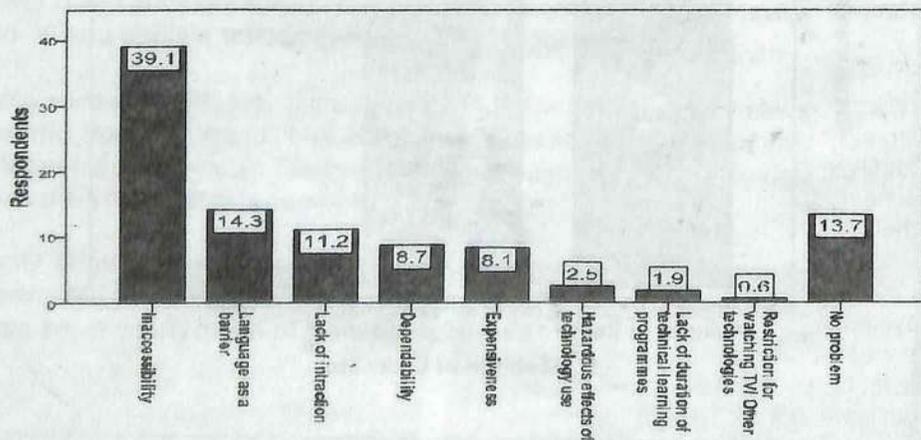
Figure- 8: Preferred Medium of Learning

Table- 4: Sex-wise distribution of Preferred Medium of Learning

| Preferred Medium of Reading | | SEX | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|------|--------|-------|
| | | Male | Female | Total |
| Preferred Medium of Reading | Technological Medium of Study | 33 | 44 | 77 |
| | Non Technological Medium of Study | 6 | 65 | 71 |
| | Both | 5 | 6 | 11 |
| Total | | 44 | 115 | 159 |

The above efforts represent the preferred medium of learning among Neo-literates. 36.8% respondents preferred Technological Medium where as 30.7% respondents preferred Non-Technological Medium of Study. 2.2% respondents preferred both Technological as well as Non-Technological medium of study whereas 30.3% respondents were unable to reply. It has been interpreted that male learners are more inclined towards technological mode of learning in comparison to their female counterparts. Similarly it has also been revealed that female learners are more compatible with non-technological mode of reading in comparison to males. The present study it has been discovered that the youngsters are more inclined towards technological mode of reading in comparisons to their elder counterparts.

Figure – 8: Complications during the Use of Electronic Mode of Learning

An attempt has been made here to find out the various complications associated with the electronic mode of reading. These complications are as follows:- a. Lack of availability, b. lack of interaction, c. Dependence on other sources, d. language as a barrier, d. expensive, e. its hazardous effects, f. restrictions/conflicts for the use of reading technologies, g. lack of duration of learning programmes etc. The most significant complication is lack of availability of resources. Most of the learning centers are running without any assistance of technological learning equipment. Further most of the respondents stated that in technological mode of learning there is a lack of interaction between learner and teacher. So this can be seen as a serious problem for non-literate and neo-literate learners as they require maximum attention of teacher. Again the electronic reading equipment are always dependent on other sources of energy such as electricity, battery, power generator etc. which is a matter of complication for marginalized and under-privileged target communities. The language of instruction is again a matter of complication for the target group. For example the operating instructions of computer (which is written in English) is problematic for neo-literates because they most of them can read and understand only their mother tongue. Further most of the respondents viewed that they would be able to use the SMS facility of mobile phones if it is made available in the medium of their mother tongue. A majority of the respondents belong to the economically weaker section. So the affordability of modern reading technology is also a matter of complication for them. A few among the target group is conscious of the effects of electronic mode of learning on eyes, ear etc. Further in some families there are certain restrictions on watching T.V because most of the T.V programmes, advertisements carry uncivilized messages and images. It has also been noticed that a few families avoid watching T.V in order to avoid the conflicts arising out individual preferences of watching a particular Channel at a particular time. Further the interest of respondents is decreasing because of the short duration of educational and informative programmes broadcast on T.V.

Recommendations

The service provider has always to keep in mind that there should be a practical reflection of the imparted literacy skills in the personal life of neo-literates—for example, increasing general awareness through newspaper, T.V etc. no dependency on others for filling up forms, applications, knowledge and understanding of different welfare schemes of Government and Non Governmental organizations, skill of negotiation in their day to day life etc.

It is the role for literacy provider, policy maker and all the personnel of literacy system to assess the need of literacy as well as the literacy need of targeted beneficiaries for providing literacy. Although the study reveals that majority of respondents are quite unaware of the various benefits of electronic mode of learning, but there is a need and demand for it. So the literacy providers should work seriously in this direction. There should be a regular discussion of various benefits of literacy

as well as the benefits of electronic mode of learning etc. among the learners. The respondents emphasized Audio-visual mode of learning. There is a need of vocational oriented courses through A-V learning mode, and there should be interactive sessions in between or after every session of A.V learning.

Conclusion

The education of adults is a multifaceted and complex process, which includes many subjects and interest areas. It encompasses Adult Basic education (teaching basic learning and survival skills to the undereducated); and vocational activities for the semi-literates and neo-literates. It is designed for personal skill development, for enhanced career opportunities, or for enjoyment. The constant growth of electronic media is one of the vital factors that promote adult education. The present study reveals that the electronic mode of learning, particularly Audio-visual method would be an effective method of learning for non-literates and neo-literates. During the study, it has been observed that the decreasing cost of technology has certainly enhanced the access and use of various electronic mode of learning. For example, the emergence of local mobile phone manufacturing companies, decreasing cost of technology, network access and electronic appliances has immensely influenced the learning habits of neo-literates. But the durability and sustainability of the above accessibility is a question mark to the future. Further sex and age of respondents constitute major factors in shaping their perceptions of technological adoption. Although there is a wide range of complications associated with electronic mode of learning, the inclination level towards the use of electronic mode of learning is quite high among Neo-literates. In spite of a huge consideration of different electronic modes of learning, the targeted population is yet to utilize those modes to a satisfactory extent.

Limitation of the Study

Since the inception of the research idea, the target has been to interact with equal number of male and female. But the idea proved unsuccessful because of less participation of male. For most of the working males, the time management problem is considered as the most important factor because most of the literacy and vocational training classes are taking place in day hour. Few initiations were made up for night classes, and failed due to low participation.

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The Future of ICT Integration in Teacher Education in India

Kalika Yadav
Sunil Sain

Introduction

Information & Communication Technology (ICT) is universally acknowledged as an important catalyst for social transformation and national progress. However, disparities in the levels of ICT readiness and use could translate into disparities in level of productivities which would influence a country's rate of economic growth. Understanding and leveraging ICT is therefore critical for countries striving for continued social and economic progress. The Information Technology sector in India is a study in contrast. India has one of the lowest IT penetrations among comparable countries in its domestic market whereas her IT services exports showcase a unique model of global competitiveness. India has barely 15 million installed PCs, a little more than eight telephones per hundred persons, about five million Internet connections. In the midst of such digital paucity, the Indian IT services sector stands out as an outstanding success against all odds. From modest revenues of less than US\$ 50 million in 1990, the sector is estimated to clock US\$ 22.2 billion in 2004-05, almost \$17.3 billion coming from exports. The top four Indian software and IT services companies have annual revenues in excess of a billion dollars each and the number one, Tata Consultancy Services (TCS) will saw its 2004-05 turnover crossing the two billion dollar mark.

National Policies in Context of Teacher Education

The professional preparation of teachers has been recognized to be crucial for the qualitative improvement of education since the 1960s (*Kothari Commission, 1964-66*). The Commission recommended the introduction of integrated courses of general and professional education in Universities with greater scope for self-study and discussion and a comprehensive program of internship. Subsequently the *Chattopadhyaya Committee Report of the National Commission on Teachers (1983-85)*, envisioned the New Teacher as one who communicates to pupils. It recommended a four-year integrated course for the secondary as well as the elementary teacher. The *National*

Policy of Education (NPE 1986/92) recognized that teachers should have the freedom to innovate, to devise appropriate methods of communication and activities relevant to the needs of and capabilities of and the concerns of the community. The policy further stated that teacher education is a continuous process, and its pre-service and in-service components are inseparable. As the first step, the system of teacher education should be overhauled. The *Acharya Ramamurti Committee (1990)* in its review of the NPE 1986 observed that an internship model for teacher training should be adopted because the internship model is firmly based on the primary value of actual field experience in a realistic situation, on the development of teaching skills by practice over a period of time. The *Yashpal Committee Report (1993) on Learning without Burden* recommended that the emphasis in these programs should be on enabling the trainees to acquire the ability for self learning and independent thinking. The *National Curriculum Framework (NCF), 2005* presents a fresh vision and a new discourse on key contemporary educational issues. We now need to define the path that can be taken to empower individual teachers who can then empower learners. The critical link that binds the curriculum and the teaching-learning environment together is the teacher. The professional need to review the teacher education curriculum also emerges from the long ossification of a national education system that continues to view teachers as "dispensers of information" and children as "passive recipients" of an "education" that is sought to be "delivered" in four-walled classrooms with little or no scope to develop critical thinking and understanding. The education of teachers not only facilitates improvement of school education by preparing professionally competent teachers, but also functions as a bridge between schooling and higher education.

Guidelines for implementation

Structure of present teacher training process

During the late 1970s and early 1980s, the State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERTs) were established under different names, mainly by bringing together a number of government-owned training institutions in the school education sector. This had the character of an academic structure in terms of nomenclature, staff structures and job roles. During the late 1980s and early 1990s, District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) were established under a centrally sponsored scheme to provide academic/technical support to elementary education. Local Self-Government in the form of elected Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) in rural areas, and Municipal governments in urban areas, had some power or say in elementary education in almost all the states during the 1950s and 1960s. In 1992, the Government of India

(GOI) passed the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments which provided for compulsory direct elections to three tier Panchayat bodies, with reservations for weaker sections like Scheduled Tribes, Scheduled Castes and women. Since the last revision of the Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education in 1998, large scale and far reaching developments, debates as well as changes have taken place in national and international spheres of social, political, economic, cultural, scientific and technological fields. These developments have affected education, including teacher education, necessitating review and reform towards the larger constitutional goal of achieving universalisation of education, social change and development. The NCTE is committed not only to facilitate improvement of school education by preparing competent, committed and professionally qualified school teachers but is also committed to function as an important bridge between schooling and higher education. The agenda before the NCTE is thus twofold; to remove and minimize the existing deficiencies of teacher education and to meet the demand of new challenges before it. India has one of the largest systems of Teacher Education in the world. Besides the University Departments and their affiliated colleges, government and government-aided institutions, private and self-financing institutions and open universities are also engaged in teacher education. Though most teacher education programs are nearly identical, yet their standards vary across institutions and universities.

There are several systemic concerns and needs that need to be addressed in this exercise of redesigning the Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education. The orientation has to be towards a visible shift from information-based to experience-based and from traditional instruction domination to a constructivist orientation. Existing programs of teacher education treat knowledge, embedded in the prescribed school curriculum, as a 'given'. Student teachers do not engage enough with the curriculum framework, syllabi and textbooks because it is assumed that there is nothing fundamentally wrong with the school curriculum as a whole or with the syllabi of different subjects. It is also assumed that if there are certain problems in the syllabi and textbooks, nothing can be done about these problems in teacher training. Therefore teachers must learn to adjust to existing realities. In the present teacher education curricula a large number of activities – theoretical and practical, have to be carried out and assiduously practiced by prospective teachers for enhancing their professional expertise. Practice teaching has assumed the form of a 'meaningless ritual' and its carry-over potential in the development of a dynamic strategy for handling instruction issues and problems in real classrooms is inadequate. There is a need to link school practice with activities of knowledge generation. A Curriculum Framework needs to articulate a perspective for both pre-service and in-service teacher education, including

continued professional development and research opportunities. As stated in the NPE 1986, teacher education is a continuous process and its pre-service and in service components are inseparable. Initiative Towards ICT in Teacher Education NCTE has signed an MOU with INTEL Technology India Pvt. Ltd., in December, 2006 with a view to achieving objectives of imparting sustained professional development to all teacher educators from all the recognized institutions and making ICT an integral part of Teacher Education Curriculum.

A Framework for ICTs in Teacher Education:

A holistic framework proposed by the UNESCO -2002 In planning for infusion of ICTs into teacher preparation programs takes into account the factors like cultural, educational, technology resources that are important in planning the integration of technology into preservice curriculum. The curriculum framework is comprised of four clusters of competencies encircled by four supportive themes. The curriculum framework also suggests that each teacher is allowed to interpret the framework within his or her context and personal approach to pedagogy, which is always related to the subject discipline or content area, rather than to the technology itself. The model illustrates the interdependence of the themes and competencies – all themes interacting with all competencies *Four Themes*.

Context and Culture identifies the culture and other contextual factors that must be considered in Infusing technology into the teacher education curriculum. It includes the use of technology in culturally appropriate ways and the development of respect for multiple cultures and contexts, which need to be taught and modeled by teachers. *Leadership and Vision* are essential for the successful planning and implementation of technology into teacher education and require both leadership and support from the administration of the teacher education institution. *Lifelong Learning* acknowledges that learning does not stop after school. *Planning and Management of Change* is the final theme, born of today's context and accelerated by technology itself.

It signifies the importance of careful planning and effective management of the change process. These themes may be understood as a strategic combination of approaches that help teacher educators develop the four core competencies. The core competencies may be seen as clusters of objectives that are critical for successful use of ICTs as tools for learning. *Initiative on Inclusiveness in Teacher Education Program* NCTE is developing the mechanism to have inclusiveness in reference to varied abilities students through teacher education programs.

Evaluation in Teacher Education

The content of teacher education programs need to enable a deep engagement with children and their socio-political context, the school curriculum and textbooks, the process of learning and knowledge, the teacher's psychological and professional skill development, an understanding of institutional arrangements and policy perspective and a school-based approach to pedagogic studies. Accordingly, a major revamping is needed in the evaluation system followed in teacher education programs.

NCERT (RIEs)

Model: 1 - One Year B.Ed. Program followed by long-duration School Attachment Program/Internship (5-6 months) *Alternative Model* Teacher training institutions could develop one year pre-service teacher education program in a way that it could cater the needs of teacher education at different levels such as ECCE, elementary education, secondary education and senior secondary education simultaneously.

Model: 2 - Four Years Integrated Interdisciplinary Pre-service Teacher Education Programs Integrated long duration pre-service Teacher Education programs produce better teachers by "catching them young" and nurturing them for longer duration. Long duration training provides space for learning, internalization, conceptualization and experimentation. Quality pre-service program has demonstrative value in the context deteriorating teacher education scenario. The existing 4 years program needs to be redesigned by initiating reforms in the 'process' and 'delivery' of the of training.

Model: 3 - Five years Integrated Undergraduate and Post-Graduate Program Instead of model 2 Five years Integrated Post-graduate Program leading to Master of Arts in Education (M.A Ed), Master of Science in Education (M.Sc. Ed) in the pattern of 5 years integrated courses offered by IITs, Indian Law Universities and National Institutes of Science and Technology with the option to opt out at the end of 4 years courses mentioned under model 2. Five years integrated program was recommended by Chattopadhaya Commission also.

Government's Initiative

· Scheme For Computer Literacy Excellence Awards The Department of Information Technology (DIT), Ministry of Communications and Information Technology (MCIT), Government of India, in the year 2002 has instituted an Award Scheme for Excellence in Computer Literacy and Information Technology in Schools at State and National Level to create IT awareness

among schools and to encourage Computer Literacy among students in early stage of schooling. · ICT@Schools Information and Communication Technology (ICT) @ Schools, launched by the Government of India in 2004 after merging the erstwhile Schemes of "Educational Technology (ET) and Computer Literacy and Studies in Schools (CLASS) · Sakshat: One Stop Solution to Education-Online Portal of Ministry of Human Resource Development which was launched by His Excellency the President of India in October, 2006, has been making rapid strides ever since. Increasingly higher content is getting added to the portal through collaborative efforts of renowned experts of the country in various subject fields. The urge to do something for the learners of the Nation, has been the driving force behind the experts who have been liberally contributing their wisdom to this portal. The portal already contains the four quadrants approach to learning which, *interalia*, includes written course material, animations, simulations, video lectures, related web links, question answers, confidence building measures and other details apart from a mechanism for maintaining the progress profile of learners on SAKSHAT. In addition to the audio-visual contents, simulations, animations etc., one vital feature of SAKSHAT that had been planned since beginning was an interactive feature wherein students would be able to interact with the teachers to clarify doubts or to dive deep into the realm of knowledge. In order to ensure that usufructs of communication and information technology reach even those who are illiterate or dropouts or in need of life skills, a module of digital literacy has been prepared which tells everything about computers, how to use them, how to log on to the internet and how to surf and come to SAKSHAT, to get the relevant knowledge modules. Effort has been made to prepare this initial module for digital literacy in such a manner that it does not place any reliance on reading or writing. This module has already been prepared and would be circulated through CDs, telecasts or other means of communication apart from making it available on SAKSHAT for users to download and freely use it for spreading digital literacy among the masses. SAKSHAT would also be branching out to various utilitarian packages such as data base of soil conservation, geographical information systems, robotics etc. The approach is to invite every Indian to freely contribute his / her wisdom or whatever expertise he or she wants to share with fellow countrymen so as to enable all of us to put all our knowledge and energies together for making India a Knowledge Super Power.

Initiatives taken by NCERT

(In collaboration with NCTE designing Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education)

- Organizing 2-week orientation programs for teacher educators/ key resource persons on
- Integrating ICT in curriculum transaction
- Usage of IT tools and IT-based learning resources This is a regular activity to orient faculty across the country. However, exclusive programs are organized for faculty belonging to scheduled castes/scheduled tribes and also for the faculty from Northeast including Sikkim.
- Designing and development educational multimedia software for effective teaching Learning process which is disseminated off-line. A few of these online also.
- Developing instructional materials on e-learning for Sakshat.

Collaborative Activities

- *ERNET India: Vidya Vahini -Special Vehicle for ICT Based Education in Schools (Pilot Project)* initiated in 2003 (being implemented by ERNET India which owns countrywide Internet backbone for education & research purposes) Has following objectives
- enable the schools to form their own Intranet, Internet & facilitate information exchange
- enable each one of students to interact and exchange of information with students from different parts of India
- Under a MOU, Intel has agreed to provide training to all the teachers of participating schools in *Technology Aided Learning* Intel has also designed regional language study material to train teachers participating schools
- *Education Satellite of India (Edusat) First Education Satellite of India (Edusat)* launched in 2004 to meet the following objectives:
- provide a sustainable distance education service in India using advanced space and ground based technology
- support the school, college and higher level education and would also support nonformal education
- bring about a revolution in the field of education in the country in the coming years
- *Project Shiksha: Empowering the Future (Microsoft)* Aims to accelerate computer literacy for teachers and students across government schools with a comprehensive program that offers:
- Software solutions
- Comprehensive training for teachers and students
- IT curriculum development
- Scholarships for teachers and students across India

Microsoft, in collaboration with key partners, has partnered with Governments, schools and the broader academic communities for a wider reach. In addition, Microsoft has established a dedicated team to focus on delivering Project Shiksha to its full optimum. *Ajim Premji Foundation: An Experience of Computer Aided Learning in Rural Elementary Schools*

Media Lab Asia

Media Lab Asia was set up by Government of India as a not-for-profit organization under Section 25 of Companies Act with a vision of leveraging the information and communication technologies and other advanced technologies for the benefit of the common man. Media Lab Asia works with academic and Rand D institutions, industry, NGOs and Governments in the endeavor. In addition, research, development and deployment projects have been taken up. Media Lab Asia is also establishing field test sites near the research organizations and other locations and working with State and local governments, NGOs, and other organizations in this endeavor. Media Lab Asia's application development is focused on use of ICT for healthcare, education, and livelihood generation, empowerment of the disabled and providing rural connectivity. The Media Lab Asia projects are generally centered around these themes.

The research themes of Media Lab Asia include technologies for broadband rural connectivity, affordable computing and access devices, and advanced interfaces. *Achievements during the year 2006-07* Media Lab Asia initiated several projects in the identified thrust areas at its research hubs at IITs, NGOs, IIIT and its lab at Delhi. One of these is *ICT for Education Multimodal Participatory tutoring system for the Rural Children*: The objective is to develop an intelligent tutoring system (ITS) and authoring system that will provide the teachers with a facility to author the content in accordance with local needs. IIT Bombay has developed a sample courseware for class 8 students. IIT-Bombay has also conducted a faculty development programs to train the teachers, develop courseware websites to help knowledge transfer, and IT'S to adapt itself according to the needs of the student. *ICT enabled Teaching in Rural Schools*:

The objective of the project is to deploy ICT in classroom teaching on a pilot basis in a few selected schools in Karnataka and to evaluate the effectiveness of the same for improving the quality of classroom teaching. The teachers of 15 rural schools were trained on the use of software content for teaching science subjects. The project has been undertaken in collaboration with Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan

Private Sector Initiatives

- Microsoft, Intel, IBM have initiated programs of Teachers training in various states.
- Wipro, Educomp, Bhartiya Vidya have prepared educational content
- -NIIT and APTECH offer total solutions

Recommendations for future actions

The emergence of a globalized world underscoring a framework of competition coupled with the pressures of an exploding knowledge base has given birth to new challenges for schools as social institutions all over the world. New demands are placed on the school, in addition to the existing ones, to be equipped with current knowledge and modern methods of acquiring new knowledge. This has become particularly complex with the far-reaching impact of ICT on almost every sphere of human life. It is clear that the school continues to hold its supremacy, more through the invincible mechanisms of the centralized curriculum and examination than by virtue of what transpires in the school. It is within this context that one has to understand the changing face of the school and the role of the teacher in its management. National Mission for education through ICT the Human Resource ministry under which all institutions of higher learning would be networked through broadband connectivity has proposed a National Mission for Education through ICT e-Content would be developed and made available through the medium of Edusat, Internet and cable TV networks. Looking to the success of World Bank assisted Technical Education Quality Improvement Program; the ministry would approach World Bank for the sanction of the second phase of the program on a bigger scale. All Indian Institutions of Technology and the Indian Institution of Science in Bangalore have jointly developed 225 video and web based courses under the National Program on Technology Enhanced Learning (NPTEL). These will be available for use by engineering colleges of the country. Immediate need of training and orientation of teachers, administrators and students to the new learning platform

- Continual professional development to acquire and maintain ICT skills through Deployment of adequate time and resources
- Adequate time to plan the introduction of ICT into teachers' pedagogical practices to Ensure high quality and appropriate learning
- All stakeholders to be involved in information sharing, consultation and negotiations, According to the issue involved
- building appropriate information systems with channels for sharing and communication
- Identifying means for accessing/developing knowledge and ensuring use in taking critical decisions
- Redefining processes and procedures, with emphasis on accountability towards people
- Focus to be on transparency and use of information/ objective

criteria · Reorienting administrative/academic personnel with focus on sectoral goals and objectives, and role/ responsibility of administration in attaining it, functioning with sense of accountability towards people and use of information and knowledge for making decisions

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Some Reflections of Initiatives of Directorate of Lifelong Learning During The 10th Five Year Plan Under Extension Education

G. H. Mir

The Directorate of lifelong learning erstwhile centre for adult continuing education and extension, university of kashmir exclusively an extension education department did no longer remain a closed circuit unconcerned with practical needs of the society. It after critical understanding of the requirements of the people underwent plethora of educo-developmental initiatives in the community under the ambitious thrust of extension and proved instrumental in playing an effective role in ushering a healthy change in the life of target groups. However, before throwing light on endeavors and efforts of the Directorate, it is imperative to say something about extension education itself.

The fast expanding global knowledge, advancement in the field of science and technology and the need for carrying it to the people of all walks of life have added new dimensions to the working of the universities and stressed the need to reappraise their role beyond the knowledge fold of text books vis-a-vis the community around them or within the territorial jurisdiction of University of Kashmir to prepare the people at large to meet the challenges and to cope up with the dynamics of fast changing competitive world. As a result the thinking has been to do away with the exclusive concern of universities. It is increasingly realized that the universities have not only to keep its doors open for the students who would walk in and ask for knowledge and skill but the universities should non formalize its creative ways in the light of contemporary developmental needs of the community and transform its living and working conditions towards significant improvement.

The universities should realize to accept its role and responsibility and serve as a platform to have creative and autonomous dialogue with the people understand their needs, problems, assess their abilities, aptitudes together with their expectations and plan out strategies of active role in transmission and extension of knowledge and skill for intellectual, socio-cultural and economic development of the society. Being broadest and most encompassing in its approach, the universities can not afford to cast a drift any section of the society and has virtually cater to the needs of diverse sections.

Under this backdrop, the university grants commission (UGC) realizing the need of intervention in the life and living condition of the community at large, became proactive since 1960 in the initiation and development of extension work. The arrangement of continuing education programmes and awareness generation lectures and demonstrations through various universities with positive returns paved the way for introduction of new concept of extension in the educational parlor in India, though certain striking developments in the field had already manifested in the different parts of globe. The underlying concern everywhere was towards providing literacy, awareness, arrange lectures and outreach activities to the adults notwithstanding the regional variation and diverse needs of the community. From 1970 onwards several universities established departments/ centers of adult continuing education and extension under the directions of university grants commission (UGC) to make the extension concept integral part of higher education.

It means that the universities cannot escape from the crucial responsibility of reorienting its role for helping in creating a better society. It is this recognition that the university grants commission introduced 'extension' as the third important dimension in 1977 equal in importance to two traditional functions of teaching and research in their policy frame of higher education in following words.

"If the university system has to discharge adequately in its responsibilities to the entire education system and to the society as a whole it must assume extension as the third important responsibility and give it the same status as teaching and research. This is a new and extremely significant area which should be developed on the basis of high priority".

The university system as a whole received real impetus by this landmark initiative of university grants commission in meeting the demands of emerging knowledge society facilitating a healthy process towards the learning society. With the acceptance of extension as third dimension, the directorate of lifelong learning, university of kashmir did not become an implementing agency of readymade programs and practices but made special efforts to design and organize programs which are economically viable and responsive to the changing needs and demands of the society in accordance with the flexible nature and character of extension education. The directorate did not also limit its programs to only one and particular section of the society but mobilized and motivated community for progress and upward mobility. The activities undertaken by the directorate during 10th plan have been exclusively analyzed

and reviewed on the basis of report namely The Report- 'An Appraisal of Activities during 10th Five Year Plan 2002-03 to 2006-07'.

The Directorate organized various activities which developed understanding, raised awareness, improved abilities, skills and competence, professional as well as vocational; thus facilitated entry into advanced specialized areas which paved the way for personal development, satisfaction and confidence of target groups. To begin with, literacy, an invisible ingredient of human resource development, was introduced for victims of illiteracy in many areas where literacy rate was abysmally low and the people were wrapped in illiterate atmosphere which had become powerful driving force in preserving and promoting inequalities, alienation, myths and superstitions thereby ceased their personality development traits like initiatives, critical and creative thinking and decision making.

The directorate identified and adopted some areas like Anchar Soura, Phak, Interior Noorbagh and Rainawari of district Srinagar and two villages namely Karipura and Soibugh of district Budgam under literacy programs on part time model basis after conducting extensive survey of these areas which revealed and unfolded their socio-economic and educational dispossession. The literacy program did not confine itself to the mere achievement of reading, writing and numeracy skills of predetermined level but went beyond the simple achievement of self reliance in the 3 R's to functional literacy through literacy and post literacy.

The continuing education program facilitated learning journey of neo-literates, drop-outs, semi-literates and pushed them smoothly beyond the phases of basic and post literacy program in acquisition, retention, continuation, furtherance and application of literacy to keep up with the rapidly increasing knowledge. The vocational component had been made an adjunct of continuing education to raise their income generation potential. However the equivalency program changed and transformed the lives of adult learners. The equivalency as the name indicates facilitated an alternate educational program equivalent to the existing formal system of education and placed the learners on an equal standing with others who had successfully completed their studies from formal stream. Most of the learners were in upper primary classes and some had qualified middle standard and sought admission in higher classes. The literacy, post literacy and continuing education program influenced other performances of the participants in their day to day life skills.

The details of beneficiaries of literacy, post literacy, continuing education and equivalency programmes are given in the table I and II.

Table I

| Age (Years) | Location of Literacy Centre/s | No. of centre/s | Basic Learners | | | No. of learners in post literacy | | |
|-------------|---|-----------------|----------------|-----|-------|----------------------------------|----|-------|
| | | | M | F | Total | M | F | Total |
| 15-50 | Bakura (a & b), Wanihama Bala & Hadoora- Phak Srinagar | 4 | 95 | 30 | 125 | 90 | 25 | 115 |
| 12-25 | Anchar (a & b) & Taploo Mohalla-Soura Srinagar | 3 | * | 80 | 80 | * | 75 | 75 |
| 15-35 | Kreshbal, Bakshipora & Chonchifaqir- Interior Noorbagh Srinagar | 3 | 70 | 20 | 90 | 65 | 15 | 80 |
| 15-25 | Bagat Mohalla-Soibugh Budgam | 1 | 10 | 16 | 26 | 08 | 14 | 22 |
| 15-30 | Karipora-Budgam | 1 | * | 18 | 18 | * | 15 | 15 |
| 15-45 | Interior Rainawari- Srinagar | 10 | 30 | 140 | 170 | * | * | * |
| 25-45 | Psychiatric Hospital – Srinagar | 1 | 12 | 06 | *18 | * | * | * |

Table II

| S. No | Location of the Centre/s | No. of Centre/s | Class Distribution / Clientele (Neo-literates-dropouts) | Total no. of Examinees (equivalency Examination) | | Examination Conducted Through | Pass outs | |
|-------|--|-----------------|---|--|----|--|-----------|----|
| | | | | M | F | | M | F |
| 01 | Bakura (a & b) Wanihama Bala & Hadoora- Phak Srinagar | 4 | II, III, IV, V, VI, & VII, | 81 | 16 | Zonal Education Officer (Z.E.O) Gulab Bagh Sgr | 81 | 16 |
| 02 | Anchar (a&b) & Taploo Mohalla-Soura Srinagar | 3 | III, IV, V, VI,VII &VIII | * | 67 | Z.E.O Hawal Srinagar | * | 67 |
| 03 | Kreshbal, Bakshipora & Chonchifaqir-interior Noorbagh Srinagar | 3 | I, II & III | 64 | 11 | Z.E.O Eidgah Srinagar | 64 | 11 |
| 04 | Bagat Mohalla-Soibugh Budgam | 1 | I & II | 06 | 10 | Z.E.O Soibugh Budgam | 06 | 10 |
| 05 | Karipora – Budgam | 1 | I & II | * | 11 | Z.E.O Budgam | * | 11 |

The prevailing education system has failed to tackle the various contemporary problems. The young generations could not derive expected returns from their degrees and could not reconcile their knowledge with the practical world of work and has detached men from actual community needs

and lost the capacity to find a solution to the crisis of many dimensions, it is faced with. In view of shortage of professional and skilled manpower on the one hand and increasing number of educated unemployed youth on the other, the directorate focused on introduction of wide range of part time professional/vocational, job-oriented, skilled based, income generating courses particularly for educated youth in order to bring them to the center of initiatives of the directorate to gain adequate support in their professionalization to face the challenges in their day to day life.

The needs of in-service personnel too were addressed through training for up-gradation of their knowledge base and skill with latest development in their respective disciplines. They also got career upward mobility through these trainings. These courses evoked tremendous response as many of the participants and the beneficiaries have obtained either Govt. jobs or established their entrepreneur units.

The courses included electrician, electronics, primary teacher training, digital photography, plumber/fitter, maintenance of machines, repair and maintenance of home appliances, dress fashion technology, office management, accounting, indirect taxation, T. V, technology, battery and transformer fabrication, diet management, type/shorthand, entrepreneurship development course in unani medicine for BUMS Doctors, two courses namely basket making (willow work) and paper bag making were organized in psychiatric hospital for inmates of the hospital.

The courses got wide media coverage at national and international level. Beside, many courses of information communication technology were thrown open to the educated youth, in-service people and less privileged sections of the society who otherwise could not afford such high priced computer education courses in the open market.

The courses like basic computer, web designing, computer hardware and networking, tally, computer system engineering, CCNA I and II, CCNA III and IV, Microsoft V.B. Net are being conducted by the directorate. Since the courses are university certified they brought adequate weight-age to the bio-data of the students and educated unemployed youth. The directorate every year organizes a mini convocation for award of achievement certificates among the beneficiaries. Table III and IV highlight the details of professional/vocational and computer courses during 10th Plan.

Table III

| Year | Title of the Course | Collaboration | Venue | Duration | No. benefited | |
|-----------|--|--|--|----------|---------------|-----|
| | | | | | M | F |
| 2002-2003 | Dress Fashion and Designing | Govt. Women's College, MA Road Srinagar | Govt. Women's College MA Road Srinagar | 6 Months | 1 | 22 |
| 2002-2003 | Electrician | ACME Info Tech, Lainagar Chanapora, Srinagar | ACME Info Tech, Lainagar Chanapora Srinagar | 6 Months | 15 | Nil |
| 2002-2003 | Fashion Technology | Prince Garments, Soura Srinagar | Prince Garment, Soura Srinagar | 6 Months | 1 | 24 |
| 2003-2004 | TV, Technology and Transformer / Battery Charger Fabrication | University Science Instrumentation Centre (USIC), university of kashmir, Srinagar | University Science Instrumentation Centre (USIC), university of kashmir, Srinagar | 6 Months | 17 | 1 |
| 2003-2004 | Type/ Shorthand | S.P. H. Sec. School Srinagar | S.P. H. Sec. School Srinagar | 6 Months | 12 | 8 |
| 2004-2005 | Dress Fashion Technology | North Institute of Fashion Technology and Training (NFTT), Polowew Srinagar | North Institute of Fashion Technology and Training (NFTT), polowew srinagar | 6 Months | Nil | 19 |
| 2004-2005 | Diet Management | Deptt. of Home Science, Govt. Women's College Anantnag | Deptt. of Home Science, Govt. Women's College Anantnag | 4 Months | Nil | 26 |
| 2005-2006 | Primary Teachers Training Programme | State Institute of Education (SIE) Srinagar | State Institute of Education (SIE) Srinagar | 6 Months | 4 | 19 |
| 2005-2006 | TV, Technology and Battery Fabrication | University Science Instrumentation Centre (USIC), KU Srinagar | University Science Instrumentation Centre (USIC), KU Srinagar | 6 months | 15 | Nil |
| 2005-2006 | Digital photography | Education Multi Media Research Centre (EMMRC), university of kashmir, srinagar | Education Multi Media Research Centre (EMMRC), university of kashmir, Srinagar | 15 Days | 14 | 1 |
| 2005-2006 | Office Management | Nil | Centre for Adult Continuing Education and Extension (CACEE) university of Kashmir Sgr | 15 days | 12 | 3 |
| 2006-2007 | Primary teachers Training Programme | S.I.E. Srinagar | S.I.E. Srinagar | 6 Months | 6 | 5 |
| 2006-2007 | Electrician | Industrial Training Institute (ITI) Pulwama | Industrial Training Institute (ITI), Pulwama | 6 Months | 37 | Nil |
| 2006-2007 | Plumber / fitter | I.T.I, Pulwama | I.T.I, Pulwama | 4 months | 47 | Nil |
| 2006-2007 | Maintenance of Machines | USIC, KU, Srinagar | USIC, KU, Srinagar | 6 Months | 15 | Nil |
| 2006-2007 | Entrepreneurship Development Course in Unani Medicine for BUMS Doctors | Regional Research Institute of Unani Medicine (RRUIM), university of kashmir, srinagar | Regional Research Institute of Unani Medicine (RRUIM), university of kashmir, Srinagar | 15 Days | 17 | 9 |
| 2006-2007 | Basket Making (Willow Work) | Psychiatric Hospital, Srinagar | Psychiatric Hospital, Srinagar | 2 Months | 16 | 5 |
| 2006-2007 | Paper Bag Making | Psychiatric Hospital, Srinagar | Psychiatric Hospital, Srinagar | 2 Months | 22 | 4 |
| 2006-2007 | Diet Management | Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), Pulwama | Integrated Child development Services (ICDS), Pulwama | 2 Months | Nil | 31 |

The directorate organized workshops, seminars, trainings and orientations to acquaint the volunteers, field functionaries of the different developmental departments like social welfare, education, health and rural development, students, teachers, community workers, activists about the latest developments in their respective fields and related concerns to improve their performances and competence thereby benefiting the common man. These programmes include women empowerment, first aid and health care training, entrepreneurship development programme for women, community participation in skill development, total literacy campaign, child labour and health conditions, social welfare and better health, legal aid, women empowerment and herbal medicines, art of fabric painting, inclusive education, classroom management

for differently able children etc. The details of workshop and beneficiaries are reflected in table V.

| Year | Activity | Collaboration | Venue | Duration | Participants |
|---------|--|--|---|----------|---|
| 2002-03 | Workshop on Women Empowerment | Nil | Gandhi Bhawan, university of kashmir | 2 Days | College and university teachers, Students, Volunteers, Functionaries of Women's Development corporation srinagar and State Commission for Women Srinagar. |
| 2003-04 | First Aid & Health Care Training | Regional Red Cross Committee, Krr | ICDS, Block Kakapora Pulwama | 2 Weeks | Anganwadi Workers and Supervisors of ICDS, Block Kakapora Pulwama |
| 2003-04 | Orientation | Model School, university of kashmir, Srinagar | Model School, university of kashmir | 10 days | Teachers of the Model School, university of kashmir Srinagar. |
| 2003-04 | Orientation Course | Deptt. of Social Welfare and Health, J&K Govt. Srinagar | SPM, Medical College Srinagar | 10 Days | Field functionaries of the Deptt. of Social Welfare (AWW's Supervisors) and Health, Srinagar |
| 2003-04 | Entrepreneurship Development Programme for Women | Zanana Dastakar production Markaz (ZDPM), Khanyar Srinagar | Zanana Dastakar Production Markaz (ZDPM), Khanyar Sgr | 10 Days | Inmates of ZDPM, Khanyar Srinagar and women of the vicinity |
| 2003-04 | Community Participation for Skill Development | Save the Children Fund (NGO), Srinagar | Save the Children Fund (NGO), Srinagar | 01 Day | Functionaries of the said NGO |
| 2003-04 | Seminar on Total Literacy Campaign | Nil | Centre for Adult Continuing Education and Extension university of kashmir | 02 days | Instructors of Adult and Continuing Education Centres and Volunteers |
| 2003-04 | Seminar on Child labour and Health Condition | Better World (NGO), Rajbagh Srinagar | Better World (NGO), Rajbagh Srinagar | 01 Day | Staff and field functionaries of The NGO concerned |
| 2004-05 | Seminar on Legal Aid | ZDPM, Khanyar Srinagar | ZDPM, Khanyar Srinagar | 01 Day | Women of the ZDPM and the vicinity |
| 2004-05 | Seminar on Women Empowerment and herbal Medicines | J&K Medicinal Plant Board, Srinagar | Zangil, Lolab Valley Kupwara | 01 Day | Women Folk of Zangil and Gosoo Lolab Kupwara |
| 2004-05 | Workshop on Importance of Literacy | Nil | CACEE, KU, Srinagar | 02 Days | Instructors of Adult and Continuing Education Centres. |
| 2005-06 | Training Programme on Food, Nutrition and Low Cost Recipe Making | Nil | Soura, Srinagar | 01 Day | Learners, instructors of Adult and Continuing Education Centres, Soura, Srinagar |
| 2005-06 | Workshop on Art of Fabric Painting | Nil | CACEE, KU, Srinagar | 03 Days | Instructors of Continuing Education Centres, Staff of the centre and volunteers |
| 2006-07 | Practical field Training of Law Students, University of Kashmir | Faculty of law university of kashmir, Srinagar | Lower Court, Srinagar | 15 Days | Outgoing Law Students, Deptt. of Law university of kashmir, Srinagar |
| 2006-07 | First Aid Training | Regional Red Cross Committee, Srinagar Kashmir | Regional Red cross to Lal Chowk | 10 days | Instructors of Adult and Continuing Education Centres, Students and Volunteers |

The Directorate being conscious of its obligation towards community broadened the functional domain of its programmers to the dimensions of social needs. Multiple outreach activities and awareness generation programs were organized by the directorate with the objective to expand peoples capabilities to become increasingly aware about different disadvantaged areas and enhanced scientific know-how to combat the adverse circumstances in order to improve their quality living. The directorate conducted various programs to enrich the awareness of the target groups which resulted in their greater acceptance and implementation of the messages meant for human welfare. These activities include- legal rights, HIV/AIDS. The details of activities are given in table VI.

Table-VI

| Year | Activity | Collaboration | Venue | Date | Beneficiaries |
|-----------|--|--|--|----------|---|
| 2002-2003 | Women Empowerment | NI | Continuing Education Centre, Sura Srinagar | 10-01-03 | Learners of Continuing Education Centres, Sura Srinagar |
| 2003-2004 | Legal Rights and Women's Rights | Dept. of Law university of Kashmir and state commission for women, Srinagar | Zanara Dastkar Production/Market, Khanjer Srinagar | 15-08-03 | Immates of the concerned NGO |
| 2003-2004 | Consumer Rights | Friends Association of ladies and Orphans Welfare (FALOW), Nowpora Srinagar | FALOW Nowpora Srinagar | 20-10-03 | Immates of the Concerned NGO |
| 2004-2005 | Awareness Campaign total literacy Campaign | NI | CACEE KUL Srinagar | 15-08-04 | Instructors of CECs and Volunteers |
| 2004-2005 | Awareness on HIV/AIDS | RRRIUM KUL Srinagar | Khorchipora, Tangraig | 04-12-04 | Local Women Folk |
| 2004-2005 | Literacy and Women Empowerment | Girls HSS School, Sura, Srinagar | Girls HSS School, Sura Srinagar | 08-09-04 | Local women folk and the students |
| 2004-2005 | Women Welfare Schemes | Women Development Corporation, Srinagar | Gangoq, Pulwama | 08-02-05 | Local women folk |
| 2004-2005 | Illiteracy a Curse | Faculty of Education and Department of Mass Communication, university of Kashmir | Kreshbal, interior Noorbagh Srinagar | 10-09-04 | School Children, Learners of CECs instructors and Volunteers |
| 2005-2005 | Awareness regarding Schemes of Women Dev. | Women Development Corporation, Srinagar | ZDFM Khanjer Srinagar | 05-05-05 | Immates of the NGO concerned |
| 2005-2005 | Awareness campaign importance of literacy | Faculty of Education, university of Kashmir | Warihana Bala Phak Srinagar | 28-11-05 | Learners and Instructors of CECs of Phak Srinagar |
| 2005-2005 | Awareness campaign Low Cost Roppe making | NI | CECs Sura Srinagar | 30-11-05 | Learners and instructors of CECs |
| 2006-2007 | Need of Literacy in Backward areas | Vishwa Bharati Women's College, Rainawari, Srinagar | Vaishwa Bharati Women's College Rainawari | 22-05-05 | Students and Staff of the College, learners and Instructors of CECs and civil society members |
| 2006-2007 | Child Labour as Social Evil | Govt. H. Sec. School, Beerwah Budgam | Govt. H. Sec. School, Beerwah Budgam | 29-09-07 | Student Community of the School. |

Despite priority attention to the health care and family welfare, the health status of the people in rural and far-flung areas, urban slums is extremely low owing to the lack of awareness, precarious economic conditions and inadequate medical facilities. The people of these areas prefer low cost but unscientific treatment of locally available and accessible quacks, traditional healers and midwives. The directorate arranged medical and health awareness camps in some of the backward areas which generally suffer from different diseases like asthma, TB, chest infection, reproductive tract infections, respiratory tract infections, gynae problems, anemia, unsafe abortions, water borne diseases, stomach and intestinal problems. The arrangement of treatment of the patients by the specialists, distribution of free medicines among the patients and awareness on various health related issues were the main features of health cum awareness generation camps organized by the directorate in different deserving areas. These camps generated greater and comprehensive acceptance of the messages among the target groups relating to health welfare. This initiative has been highly appreciated by the general public who constantly insisted for arrangement of such camps. The details of camps are given in Table VII.

Table-VII

| Year | Activity | Collaboration | Location | Date | Beneficiaries |
|---------|---|--|--|----------|------------------|
| 2002-03 | Medical Camp | Regional Research Institute of Unani Medicine (RRIUM), KU Srinagar | Kanpora Budgam | 01-02-03 | General public |
| 2003-04 | Medical and awareness camp on preventive measures of different diseases | RRIUM, University of Kashmir | Taploo Mohalla Soura Srinagar | 20-05-03 | General public |
| 2003-04 | Medical and awareness on mother and child care | RRIUM, University of Kashmir | Shanpora Phak Srinagar | 13-08-03 | General Public |
| 2003-04 | Medical Camp | RRIUM, University of Kashmir | Wangat Kangan | 17-01-04 | General Public |
| 2004-05 | Medical Camp | RRIUM, University of Kashmir | Khonchipora Tangmarg | 04-12-04 | Women and adults |
| 2004-05 | Medical and awareness camp on health/hygiene | RRIUM, University of Kashmir | Bakura Phak Srinagar | 10-02-05 | General Public |
| 2004-05 | Medical and awareness camp on ayurvedic treatment of common diseases | RRIUM, University of Kashmir | Soura Srinagar | 05-03-05 | General Public |
| 2005-06 | Medical and awareness camp on mother/child care | Regional Red cross Committee Srinagar | Chonchifaqir, Interior Noorbagh Srinagar | 10-09-05 | General Public |
| 2005-06 | Medical and awareness camp on environmental upkeep | Regional Red cross Committee Srinagar | Anchar Soura Srinagar | 20-10-05 | General Public |
| 2005-06 | Medical and awareness camp on herbal medicines and its preparation | RRIUM, University of Kashmir | Wan hama, Phak Srinagar | 08-06-05 | General Public |
| 2006-07 | Medical and awareness camp on ayurvedic treatment | RRIUM, University of Kashmir | Aabi Gurupora Rainawari Srinagar | 20-01-07 | General Public |
| 2006-07 | Medical and awareness camp on first aid | Regional Red cross Committee Srinagar | Nai dya, Rainawari Srinagar | 24-02-07 | General Public |
| 2006-07 | Medical and awareness camp on immunization | Regional Red cross Committee Srinagar | Washbugh Pulwama | 03-03-07 | General Public |

The art of painting and posters apart from aesthetic and commercial value are vehicles of social change. It has become an effective and pervasive means of communication and sheds a flood of light on contemporary issues to transform social attitude towards promotion of human development and social welfare. The directorate conducted various programs of art learning, painting/ poster competitions of students of schools and colleges, inmates of orphan asylums etc. on gender bias, environment, HIV/AIDS, child labor, smoking, social evils, dal protection etc. in order to sensitize the student community towards these burning issues and simultaneously to develop and activate their inborn and hidden talent. We remain in constant touch with the schools and colleges and chalk out a calendar for such activities. The specific programs of art during 10th five year plan are depicted in table VIII.

Table VIII

| Year | Activity | Collaboration | Location | Date | Beneficiaries |
|---------|---|---|---|----------|------------------|
| 2002-03 | Medical Camp | Regional Research Institute of Unani Medicine (RRUM), KU Srinagar | Karipora Budgam | 01-02-03 | General public |
| 2003-04 | Medical and awareness camp on preventive measures of different diseases | RRUM, University of Kashmir | Taploo Mohalla Soura Srinagar | 20-05-03 | General public |
| 2003-04 | Medical and awareness on mother and child care | RRUM, University of Kashmir | Shanpora Phak Srinagar | 13-08-03 | General Public |
| 2003-04 | Medical Camp | RRUM, University of Kashmir | Wangat Kangan | 17-01-04 | General Public |
| 2004-05 | Medical Camp | RRUM, University of Kashmir | Khonchipora Tangmerg | 04-12-04 | Women and adults |
| 2004-05 | Medical and awareness camp on health/ hygiene | RRUM, University of Kashmir | Bakura Phak Srinagar | 10-02-05 | General Public |
| 2004-05 | Medical and awareness camp on ayurvedic treatment of common diseases | RRUM, University of Kashmir | Soura Srinagar | 05-03-05 | General Public |
| 2005-06 | Medical and awareness camp on mother/ child care | Regional Red cross Committee Srinagar | Chonchifaqir, Interior Norbagh Srinagar | 10-09-05 | General Public |
| 2005-06 | Medical and awareness camp on environmental upkeep | Regional Red cross Committee Srinagar | Anchar Soura Srinagar | 20-10-05 | General Public |
| 2005-06 | Medical and awareness camp on herbal medicines and its preparation | RRUM, University of Kashmir | Wenhama, Phak Srinagar | 08-06-05 | General Public |
| 2006-07 | Medical and awareness camp on ayurvedic treatment | RRUM, University of Kashmir | Aabi Gunupora Rainawari Srinagar | 20-01-07 | General Public |
| 2006-07 | Medical and awareness camp on first aid | Regional Red cross Committee Srinagar | Nai dyaer, Rainawari Srinagar | 24-02-07 | General Public |
| 2006-07 | Medical and awareness camp on immunization | Regional Red cross Committee Srinagar | Washbugh Pulwama | 03-03-07 | General Public |

The Directorate doesn't lag behind in observing various important days to highlight relevance and significance of these days. Special lectures, rallies, discussions, seminars, debates, mushairas, padyatras, symposiums, etc. were organized involving men, women, students, learners, instructors, field functionaries of different developmental departments etc. to motivate and energize people and to create awareness and stimulate enthusiasm regarding merits of these important days. The directorate observed the following days-

International literacy day, mother's day, international women's day, environment day etc. The details of the days observed are given in table IX.

Table IX

| Year | Day | Observed on | Activity | Collaboration | Venue | Participants |
|---------|----------------------------|-------------|--|--|--|---|
| 2002-03 | International women's day | 08-03-03 | Group discussion on gender issues and empowerment of women | ZDPM, Khanyar Srinagar | ZDPM, Khanyar Srinagar | Women of the NGO |
| 2003-04 | Mothers day | 15-05-03 | Discussion on breast feeding | ZDPM, Khanyar Sgr | ZDPM, Khanyar Sgr | Women of the NGO |
| 2003-04 | International literacy day | 08-09-03 | Lecture on Importance of literacy | CEC's Soura Srinagar | CEC's Soura Srinagar | Learners of CEC's Soura Srinagar |
| 2004-05 | World health day | 15-04-04 | Seminar on health/ hygiene and preventive measures | ICDS Budgam | ICDS Budgam | Anganwari worker, ICDS Block Budgam |
| 2004-05 | International literacy day | 08-09-04 | Lecture on literacy and a rally of students and learners and continuing education centres Soura Srinagar | Govt. Girls Higher Secondary School Soura Srinagar | Govt. Girls Higher Secondary School Soura Srinagar | Students and staff of the school and learners of CEC's Soura Srinagar |
| 2004-05 | International literacy day | 10-09-04 | Seminar on literacy followed by a road march of students and learners | Faculty of Education and Department of Mass communication university of kashmir, Sgr | Kreshbal interior Noorbagh, Srinagar | Students of local schools and learners of CEC's |
| 2005-06 | International literacy day | 09-09-05 | Lecture on total literacy campaign | Nil | Bota Kadal Srinagar | Youth and Sr. Citizens of Botakadal, Srinagar |
| 2005-06 | International literacy day | 10-09-05 | Lecture on literacy and development | Nil | Bakshipora interior, Noorbagh Srinagar | Students of local schools and learners of CEC's |
| 2006-07 | International literacy day | 08-09-06 | Lecture on women and literacy | CEC's Soura Srinagar | CEC's Soura Srinagar | Learners and instructors of CEC's Soura Srinagar |

The multi-dimensional activities of the directorate of lifelong learning despite limited staff worked on some important research projects. Some minor and major research projects of social / community relevance were taken up in hand and completed successfully during 10th five year plan period. These project reports were of great use to policy makers, planners, grassroots level field functionaries etc. at different levels. The details of the research projects are presented in table - X

Table - X

| Year | Title | Sponsoring Agency | Duration | Amount Sanctioned |
|-----------|---|--|------------|-------------------|
| 2002-2003 | Impact of Adult, NFE/ Continuing Education on Rural Development- A Case Study of pargana phak, Srinagar | MHRD, Govt. of India | One Year | Rs. 3 lacs |
| 2003-2004 | Disabled Children: Problem as Perceived by Teachers and Parents | Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, Govt. of India | Six Months | Rs. 1.76 lacs |
| 2003-2004 | Impact of Tribal Sub-Plan on the Tribals of Jammu and Kashmir | Ministry of Tribal Affairs, Govt. of India | One Year | Rs. 2.50 lacs |
| 2006-2007 | Women Empowerment and Herbal Medicines | Deptt. of Bio-Technology (DBT) Govt. of India | Two Years | Rs. 9.00 lacs |

The Directorate organized activities with the conscious intention of bringing about change in information, knowledge, understanding/ skills, appreciation and attitude for the purpose of identifying and solving personal and community problems. The directorate in its maximum possible effort tried to reach out different sections of the society with multifaceted programs under the umbrella of extension education. The greater reflection of societal concern of the directorate for mobilization of the people for multidimensionally developmental and creative programmes proved instrumental in developing a meaningful and sustained rapport between the university and the community.

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