Indian Journal of Adult Education

Indian Journal of Adult Education, 1939

Indian Journal of Adult Education, first published as a monthly in 1939, is now brought out as a quarterly by the Indian Adult Education Association. The journal has special interest in the theory and practice of Non-formal Education with special reference to the relationship between Adult Education, Development and current experiments in the field. Contributions on a wide range of themes within this broad framework are welcome.

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INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION

Editor's Note

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INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION

FORM - IV

The Assembly Election for National Capital Territory of Delhi has just concluded and Aam Admi Party has been elected with thumping majority. Once again the common man in India imposed faith in democracy and voted with all energy and enthusiasm. The news analysis came in different channels of Television clearly indicates the massive voting pattern of the areas where people belong to socially and economically live. This has disproved the traditional saying of "Educated vote and people with no education do not vote" as they do not understand the value of their votes and the government they choose. This is an eye opener for all those who manage the entire election process including the Election Commission of India. Unfortunately, the elections in India in the last few years prove that educated vote less and people who are not having much education turn out in large numbers. This may be because of the preconceived note of the educated that whoever comes to power are not going to do much and even if they do not vote it is not going to matter much. At the same time the people who are less educated and live in poverty, struggle for life, face the difficulty in making both the ends meet really look for alternatives religiously follow the policy announcements of different political parties, attend political meetings, discuss within themselves to form opinion and go en-masse on the voting day to register their votes. Hence, it is high time that the Election Commission focus in future all its efforts on educated people to motivate them to vote rather than focusing on the wrong assumption on the less educated and people who are economically and socially weak.

The election held in Delhi also has another dimension. There was a time political parties used to project themselves as champions for development by including developmental programmes in their election manifesto. But in Delhi election almost all the political parties concentrated more on freebies in which electricity and water were in the top notch. This in a way may turn the government as a giver and the people as takers. In this way most of the budget provisions will be spent on free goods and services and development activities will take back seat which may not be good in the long run. Development is not just eating food and drinking water. Much more important

thing is enabling the people with skills to earn more and stand on their own to lead their lives. It is high time political parties realize this truth and turn positively towards development oriented goals rather than spending money on few items which give only immediate political gains.

Any way the elections in India increasingly prove to be the conviction of people's faith in democracy and belief in their voting rights.

Dr. V.Mohankumar

Growth of Literacy in India – A Trend Analysis

Shiv Prakash Katiyar

> *"So long as the millions live in hunger and ignorance,*
> *I hold every man a traitor who having been educated*
> *at their expense pays not the least heed to them"*

Swami Vivekananda

Illiteracy continues to be a social problem and it is obstructing all the development efforts even today. It is an established fact that if one single most important parameter of development is to be described, it is certainly literacy. Illiteracy is the inability to read and write. The consequences of illiteracy are very significant not only for the individuals themselves but also for the society at large. At the individual levels, illiteracy hinders from getting full information regarding warnings etc, prevents people from getting proper jobs leads to poverty, checks them from imparting education to their children and more significantly makes them lack self esteem which leads them to isolation. At the societal level, they face difficulties in functioning effectively in the knowledge driven world, face difficulties in community involvement and civic participation. Moreover, illiteracy causes an inferiority complex.

Literacy plays a significant role in the calculation of Human Development Index (HDI). HDI is calculated on the basis of a long and healthy life, as reflected in life expectancy at birth, the acquisition of education and knowledge, as reflected in the mean years of schooling (adjusted for out of school children) and literacy rate (age 7 years and above) and the standard of living and command over resources, as reflected in the monthly per capita expenditure adjusted for inflation and inequality. In 2010, India ranked 119 among 192 countries across the world, with a medium level HDI of 0.52, moving one notch higher as compared to 2005. According to United Nations Development Program (UNDP) data, it is among the top 10 movers in gross domestic product (GDP) growth. However, despite this, certain sections of society remain excluded, especially in terms of improvements in human

capabilities and entitlements (Source: India Human Development Report, 2011).

Understanding the concept of illiteracy and literacy

Illiteracy

Complete illiteracy means a person cannot read and write at all. Of equal relevance is the concept of functional illiteracy, which means an individual may have basic reading, writing and numerical skills but cannot apply them to accomplish tasks that are necessary to make informed choices and participate fully in everyday life. Such tasks may include: reading a medicine label, reading a nutritional label on a food product, balancing a cheque book, filling out a home loan application, reading a bank statement and comparing the cost of two items to work out which one offers the best value.

Poor literacy limits a person's ability to engage in activities that require either critical thinking or a solid base of literacy and numeracy skills. Such activities may include: understanding government policies and voting in elections, calculating the cost and potential return of a financial investment, analyzing sophisticated media and advertising messages, particularly for getting rich quick scams and assisting children with homework.

UNESCO defines functional illiteracy as "measured by assessing reading, writing and mathematical skills in the various domains of social life which influence individual identity and insertion into society. From this perspective, literacy involves not only reading and writing but also the acquisition of the skills necessary for effective and productive performance within society".

Illiteracy loses earnings and also limits employability avenues. Around the world, the impact of illiteracy on personal income varies but it is clear that earning potential is limited. Illiterate people earn 30%-42% less than their literate counterparts and donor have the literacy skills required to undertake further vocational education or training to improve their earning capacity.

Martinzer, R & Fernandez, P (2010) conducted a study on: The Social and Economic Impact of Illiteracy: Analytical Model and Pilot Study, UNESCO

reveals that the income of a person with poor literacy stays about the same throughout their working life. However, individuals with good literacy and numeracy skills can expect their incomes to increase at least two to three times what they were earning at the beginning of their careers. Young people who do not complete primary schooling are less likely to obtain good jobs, enough to avoid poverty" (Source: Cree, Kay & Steward, 2012).

Literacy

In India, literacy is calculated from the age population of 7 years and above. Earlier, it was calculated from the age population of 5 years and more. The Census definition of literacy is to read and write with ability any language. However, the National Literacy Mission defines literacy as acquiring the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic and the ability to apply them to one's day-to-day life. Thus the goal of the National Literacy Mission goes beyond the simple achievement of self-reliance in literacy and numeracy of functional literacy. The achievement of functional literacy implies:

- Self-reliance in 3R's
- Becoming aware of the causes of deprivation and moving towards amelioration of their condition by participating in the process of development.
- Acquiring skills to improve their economic status and general well-being.
- Imbibing values of national integration, conservation of environment, women's equality and observance of small family norms etc.

The acquisition of functional literacy results in empowerment and a definite improvement in the quality of life. It helps to ensure the participation of the masses in sharing the benefits of the information era.

According to UNESCO the literacy is defined as:

- A literate person is one who can with understanding both read and write a short simple statement relevant to his everyday life.
- Literacy is not the simple reading of word or a set of associated symbols and sounds, but an act of critical understanding of men's situation in the world.

- Literacy is not an end in itself but a means of personal liberation and development and extending individuals educational efforts involving overall inter-disciplinary responses to concrete problems.
- A literate person is one who has acquired all the essential knowledge and skills which enable him to engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning in his group and community and whose attaining in reading, writing and numeracy make it possible to use these skills towards his own and his community's development (Source: National Literacy Mission, www.nlm.nic.in).

Analyzing these definitions, it is found that census definition is too simple and emphasizes merely on the ability of reading and writing any language. There is no focus on the functional aspects to get empowerment and quality improvement as well. While NLM definition of literacy not only emphasizes the skills part (reading, writing and arithmetic) but also their application in day to day affairs. It emphasizes more on the functional aspects of literacy to be aware from the causes of deprivation in order to participate in the development process. It includes skills for the economic improvement and general well being. It also includes inculcating values of national integration, conservation of the environment, women's equality and observance of small family norms. It also includes the participation and the benefits of the information era. Today's time is highly informative so literacy plays an important role in day to day affairs. According to UNESCO, literacy is the ability of reading and writing statement useful for everyday life. It focuses on critical understanding on men's situation in the world. Moreover, UNESCO treats literacy a way of personal liberation and development. It is an extension in the field of education to solve their problems. So, it focuses on the functional use of literacy for the benefits of their own and community as well.

Importance of Literacy

Kofi Annan, former Secretary General of the United Nations had quoted, "Literacy is a bridge from misery to hope. It is a tool for daily life in modern society. It is a bulwark against poverty and a building block of development, an essential complement to investments in roads, dams, clinics and factories. Literacy is a platform for democratization and a vehicle for the promotion of cultural and national identity....Literacy is, finally, the road to human progress and the means through which every man, woman and child can realize his or her full potential."

According to Gunar Mydral, "Asian Drama", Literacy opens up avenues for communication that otherwise remain closed. It is a prerequisite for the acquisition of other skills and the development of more aspects.

Literacy, an important tool for communication, learning and information, is a virtual precondition for an individual's evolution and national development. Research studies on human cognitive development have established that literacy enhances the critical faculties and enables to reflect on the existential reality in which they have been placed. It promotes objectivity, capacity for clear perception, thought as well as logical and coherent analysis. It promotes a sense of history and helps combine individuality with universalisation. In this sense, literacy can be regarded as an inalienable fundamental right.

Literacy is one of the major indicators of development in a society. It forms an important input in overall development of individuals enabling them to comprehend their social, economic, political and cultural environment better and respond to it appropriately. Literacy is a multidimensional concept. It is the first rung in the educational ladder.

Efforts made by UNESCO

Since its inception in 1946, UNESCO has been at the forefront of global literacy efforts and is concerned with keeping literacy high on the agenda regionally, nationally and internationally. According to UNESCO, Literacy is a human right, a tool of personal empowerment and a means for social and human development. Educational opportunities depend on literacy. Literacy is at the heart of basic education for all and essential for eradicating poverty, reducing child mortality, curbing population growth, achieving gender equality, ensuring sustainable development and peace and democracy. A good quality basic education equips pupils with literacy skills for life and further learning; literate parents are more likely to send their children to school; literate people are better able to access continuing educational opportunities and literate societies are better geared to meet pressing development.

At the first time, the World Congress of Education Ministers met in Tehran (capital of Iran), organized by UNESCO to discuss the problems of illiteracy at the international level on September 8, 1965. Since then this historic date is being observed as the International Literacy Day. Subsequently, the first international literacy day was celebrated on September 8, 1966. Since then this day is being celebrated each and every year and International Literacy

Day 2013 was the 44th in the series. On the eve of International Literacy Day 2013, the Director General of UNESCO, emphasized that Literacy is much more than an educational priority-it is the ultimate investment in the future and the first step towards all the new forms of literacy required in the twenty first century. International Literacy Day focuses on the empowering role of literacy and its importance for participation, citizenship and social development. At the eve of International Literacy Day, 2013 the President of India Pranav Mukherjee emphasized, "The success of our literacy programme ultimately depends on the willingness and cooperation of the people. I call upon each and every citizen of our country to take up this challenge and contribute in making our country free from the clutches of illiteracy."

By the initiative of UN, United Nations Literacy Decade and its international activities are being coordinated by UNESCO. By declaring the decade with the slogan of Literacy as Freedom, the international community recognized literacy as a human right to be actively promoted and defended. The decade addressed a renewed vision of literacy to encompass everyone's learning needs to improve literacy in all the contexts. The decade was celebrated during 2003-2012. Moreover, UNESCO also holds International Conference on Adult Education every 12 years.

Literacy Efforts: Overview

A number of efforts were made by the government as well as non-governmental organizations to liquidate illiteracy from the nation. The important programmers/policies have been summarized below:

1. Social Education This programme was implemented in the First Five Year Plan (1951-56). The major elements of this programme were literacy, extension, general education, leadership training and social consciousness of various development issues.

2. Gram Shikshan Mohim This movement for literacy in the rural areas was started in 1959 in Satara district of Maharashtra and was later extended to other parts of the state. The objective of the Mohim was to impart basic literacy skills within a period of about four months and by 1963, it spread to all the districts of the state. This programme lacked systematic follow up which consequently resulted massive relapse to illiteracy.

3. Farmer's Functional Literacy Project This inter-ministerial project was started in 1967-68 with two fold objective of farmer's training and functional literacy with the aim of popularization of high-yielding varieties of seeds through the process of adult education. The programme was confined to 144 districts of the country where nearly 8640 classes were organized for about 2.6 lakh adults.

4. Non-Formal Education In the beginning of the Fifth Plan, a programme of non-formal education for 15-25 age-group was launched. Despite, clarity about the scope, content and objective of the non-formal project, its understanding in the field was very limited and it was organized alike conventional literacy programmes.

5. Polyvalent Adult Education Centres Workers' Social Education Institutes and Polyvalent Adult Education Centres were reviewed by a group in 1977, which recommended adoption of Polyvalent Adult Education Centres in the adult education programmes for workers in urban areas. In pursuance of this decision, Shramik Vidyapeeths were set up in the states with an aim of improving the vocational skills and quality of life of the industrial workers and their family members migrated from rural to urban settings.

6. Functional Literacy for Adult Women (FLAW)   This scheme was started in 1975-76 with the aim to enable illiterate adult women to acquire functional skills along with literacy in order to promote better awareness of health, hygiene, child-care practices and to bring about attitudinal changes. The target age group was 15-45, with greater attention to those in the 15-35 age group. This scheme was implemented in the experimental ICDS project areas and 300 ICDS projects were sanctioned till 1981-82 and FLAW scheme was also sanctioned along with this scheme. Later on due to the constraint of resources, the Planning Commission terminated this scheme in ICDS project areas.

7. National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) The first nation-wide attempt at eradication of illiteracy was made through the National Adult Education Programme on October 2, 1978 with the aim of educating 100 million non-literate adults in the age group of 15-35 years within a time frame of five years. The objectives of the NAEP were not merely to impart literacy in the conventional sense but also to provide learners functional awareness which were conceived as three integral components of the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic. Functionality implied the ability to utilize and apply

the skills acquired with a view to promote efficiency of the neo-literate. As against the target of 100 million, a total of 44.22 million learners were enrolled in adult education centres in different years up to March 1988.

8. Rural Functional Literacy Project (RFLP) This was a major centrally sponsored scheme started in 1978 for rural areas. 144 Farmers' Functional Literacy Projects and 60 Non-Formal Education Projects were merged into it. Subsequently after adding some more projects, the number of projects throughout the country in 1987 were 513, each having upto a maximum number of 300 adult education centres and each centre having 25-30 learners.

9. State Adult Education Programme (SAEP) The states also similarly took up centre based projects under the state plan funds on the lines of Rural Functional Literacy Projects.

10. Adult Education through Voluntary Agencies To ensure greater participation of voluntary agencies, the Central Scheme of Assistance to Voluntary Agencies was revived in April 1982. Under this scheme, registered societies were sanctioned centre-based projects for functional literacy and post literacy, where they were allowed to run projects in a compact area. Today there are a number of voluntary organizations in the country working in the field of literacy in their own ways.

11. National Literacy Mission (NLM) NLM was set up on May 5, 1988 by the then Prime Minister of India Rajiv Gandhi to impart a new sense of urgency and seriousness to adult education. After the success of the areas specific, time bound, voluntary based campaign approach first in Kottayam city then in Ernakulum district in Kerala in 1990, the NLM had accepted the literacy campaigns as a dominant strategy for eradication of illiteracy. The creditable performance of the NLM received international recognition when it was awarded the UNESCO Noma Literacy Prize for 1999. NLM has been awarded the Nehru Literacy Award for the year 1999 by the Indian Adult Education Association, New Delhi for its outstanding performance in the field of literacy and adult education. Ever since its inception, the National Literacy Mission has taken measures to strengthen its partnership with NGOs and to evolve both institutional and informal mechanisms to give voluntary organizations an active promotional role in the literacy movement. NLM was continued till the ninth and tenth five year plans. By the end of Tenth Five Year Plan (March 2007), NLM had covered 597 districts under Total Literacy Campaign(TLC),

485 districts under Post Literacy Programme (PLP) and 328 districts under Continuing Education Programme(CEP). As a cumulative outcome of these efforts, 127.45million persons became literate, of which 60% learners were females, while 23% learners belonged to Scheduled Castes (SCs) and 12% to Scheduled Tribes (STs).

12. Saakshar Bharat Mission This mission was launched on the International Literacy Day, 8th September 2009 with a focus on women in general and disadvantaged groups in particular. The mission goes beyond the '3' R's (i.e. Reading, Writing &Arithmetic); for it also seeks to create an awareness of social disparities and a person's deprivation on the means for its amelioration and general well being. The Central and State Governments, Panchayati Raj Institutions, NGOs and Civil Society need to work in unison to realize the dream of creating a literate India. This scheme will cover all the 365 districts from 26 States/Union Territories in the country having adult female literacy rate below 50% according to 2001 census. The total target of the mission is to cover 70 million adults (60 million females and 10 million males) in the age group of 15 years and above. The Mission aims to reduce gender and other disparities in providing basic education in the country.

Status of Literacy in India

In 1951, the literacy rate was 18.33% for persons, 27.16% for males and 8.86% for females. The literacy rates during 1961-2011 have been shown in the following table:

S. No.	Census Year	Persons	Male	Female	Urban areas	Rural areas
1	1961	28.30	40.40	15.35	54.43	22.46
2	1971	34.45	45.96	21.97	60.22	27.89
3	1981	43.57	56.38	29.76	67.20	36.00
4	1991	52.21	64.13	39.29	73.08	44.69
5	2001	64.84	75.26	53.67	79.92	58.74
6	2011	73.0	80.9	64.6	84.1	67.8

Note: Literacy rates for 1951, 1961 and 1971 Censuses relate to population aged five years and above. The rates for the 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011 Censuses relate to the population aged seven years and above. The 1981 literacy rates exclude Assam where the 1981 Census could not be conducted. The 1991 Census literacy rates exclude Jammu & Kashmir.

The table above reveals that the literacy rate has quadrupled from 1951 to 2011. Despite such improvement, 27% people of the country are still illiterate. If we look at a gender wise distribution, nearly 20% males are illiterate while nearly one third females are still illiterate as per 2011 census. If we compare the literacy rates of males between 1951 and 2011, it has trebled while of females, it has increased sevenfold.

The total growth in literacy rates is 54.67% from 1951 to 2011. If we look at an annual average growth of literacy rate during 1951 to 2011, it is 0.91% per annum. If we look at gender distribution, the growth for males is 53.74% during 1951 to 2011 which implies that the growth rate is 0.90% per annum. The growth rate for females is 55.74% which implies that the growth rate is 0.93% per annum.

Regarding regional literacy rates, during 1961 to 2011, literacy rates in rural areas has trebled while in urban areas, it became more than 1.5 times during same period which reveals that growth in rural areas is double than urban areas.

Statistical Analysis of Literacy Growth

The nature of literacy growth can be analyzed by linear regression method in the following way:

Gender wise

If we look into the trend of growth in gender wise (male-female) literacy rates and applying the least square method to obtain the parameters of the line y =a+ b t, where y=literacy rates for persons, t= time in years, we obtain estimates of a and b as a=17.06, b=9.24, yielding the line

$y=17.06+9.24\ t$ ——————— (1)
Similarly line for predicting the literacy rate for males is obtained as
$y=30.68+8.52t$ ——————— (2)

Similarly line for predicting the literacy rate for females is obtained as
$y=2.35+10.03t$ ——————— (3)

Equations (1), (2) and (3) are graphically represented in the following figure.
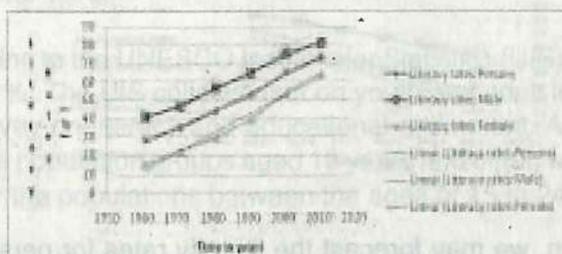
On this pattern, we may forecast the literacy rates for persons, males and females for the year 2021 by putting t=7(t=1to 6 is taken for the years from 1961 to 2011) in equation no. 1, 2 and 3 respectively. Thus we obtain for persons y= 81.74 from equation no. 1, for males y=90.32 from equation no. 2 and for females y=72.56 from equation no.3.

So, by this method we can predict that in 2021, the literacy rates will be 81.74% for persons, 90.32% for males and 72.56% for females. Similarly, we can predict the literacy rates for any future year.

Region wise

If we look into the trend of growth in regional (urban-rural) literacy rates and applying the least square method to obtain the parameters of the line y =a+ b t, where y=literacy rates for persons, t= time in years, we obtain estimates of a and b as a=17.06, b=9.24, yielding the line

y=17.06+9.24 t————————————— (4)
Similarly line for predicting the literacy rate for urban areas is obtained as
y=48.48+6.1 t——————————— (5)

Similarly line for predicting the literacy rate for rural areas is obtained as
y=10.14+9.37 t——————————— (6)

Equations (4), (5) and (6) are graphically represented in the ffigure on next page.
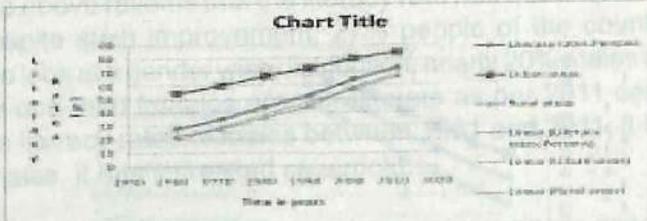
On this pattern, we may forecast the literacy rates for persons, urban and rural areas for the year 2021 by putting t=7(t=1to6 is taken for the years from 1961 to 2011) in equation no. 4, 5 and 6 respectively. Thus we obtain for persons y= 81.74 from equation no. 4, for males y=91.18 from equation no. 5 and for females y=75.73 from equation no.6.

So, by this method we can predict that in 2021, the literacy rates will be 81.74% for persons, 91.18 % for urban areas and 75.73% for rural areas. Similarly, we can predict the literacy rates for any future year.

The above analysis reveals that the nature of literacy growth is linear (not exponential). It means that the growth is occurring at a slow pace.

Future Projections of Literacy

According to the 2011 census, the literacy rate is 73%. In order to calculate the time period to achieve 100% literacy, we apply time series analysis

$P_n = P_0 (1+R/100)^n$
Where P_n =100(literacy to be achieved), P_0=73 (present literacy)
r=rate=8.16(difference in literacy rates between 2011 and 2001)/10=0.816
Putting these values in the above equation and solving,
We get n = 38.73

This means that for achieving 100% literacy, it will take nearly 39 more years from 2011, if all the conditions remain the same in future. Thus India can achieve total literacy in year 2050. Moreover, India will take more than 100 years after independence to become independent from illiteracy.

Status of Illiteracy

International level

According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), the adult literacy rate is 84.1%. The UIS collects data on youth and adult literacy through its annual survey on literacy and educational attainment. Adult literacy rates concern the population groups aged 15 years and older, while youth literacy rates cover the populations between the ages of 15 to 24 years.

a.   Global literacy rates and population numbers for adults and youth, 2011

Parameter	Percentage/Population
Adult literacy rate, total	84.1%
Adult literacy rate, male	88.6%
Adult literacy rate, female	79.9%
Adult illiterate population, total	773.5 million
Adult illiterate population, female share	63.8%
Youth literacy rate, total	89.5%
Youth literacy rate, male	92.2%
Youth literacy rate, female	86.8%
Youth illiterate population, total	123.2 million
Youth illiterate population, female share	61.3%

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Adult and Youth Literacy, UIS Fact Sheet, 2013

The Table above reveals that, 15.9% adults are illiterate at the international level. If we look at gender distribution, 11.4% male adults are illiterate while 20.1% female adults are illiterate. 773.5 million adults are illiterate in the whole world in which 63.8% females are illiterate. 10.5% youth are illiterate at the international level. 7.8% youth males are illiterate while 13.2% youth females are illiterate. 123.2 million youth are illiterate at the world level in which 61.3% females are illiterate.

b. Global adult illiterate population

There is 773.5 million adults are illiterate at the global level.

Global adult illiterate population by country, 2005-2011

World total illiterate	773.5 million
India	37%
Indonesia	2%
Brazil	2%
Egypt	2%
Ethiopia	3%
Nigeria	5%
Bangladesh	6%
Pakistan	6%
Democratic Republic of the Congo	2%
China	7%
Rest of the world	28%

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Global Literacy Profile 2011

It is noteworthy from the above table that 37% of the world's illiterate adults live in India. 50% of the world's illiterate adults live in India, China and Bangladesh. 10 countries (India, Indonesia, Brazil, Egypt, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Democratic Republic of the Congo and China) are the home to 72% adult illiterate population of the world.

National level

a. State wise Statement of Population, Literates and Illiterates of Age Group 7 and above (Census 2011)

Sl. No	India/State/Union Territory	Population	Literates	Illiterates
1	India	1046091423	763498517	282592906
2	Jammu& Kashmir	10522397	7067233	3455164
3	Himachal Pradesh	6086704	5039736	1046968
4	Punjab	24667119	18707137	5959982
5	Chandigarh	936016	805438	130578
6	Uttarakhand	8730478	6880953	1849525
7	Haryana	21970741	16598988	5371753
8	NCT of Delhi	14775487	12737767	2037720

9	Rajasthan	57898933	38275282	19623651
10	Uttar Pradesh	169021010	114397555	54623455
11	Bihar	84965488	52504553	32460935
12	Sikkim	546466	444952	101514
13	Arunachal Pradesh	1171539	766005	405534
14	Nagaland	1687431	1342434	344997
15	Manipur	2232136	1768181	463955
16	Mizoram	928675	848175	80500
17	Tripura	3215903	2804783	411120
18	Meghalaya	2398353	1785005	613348
19	Assam	26567446	19177977	7389469
20	West Bengal	80694649	61538281	19156368
21	Jharkhand	27598639	18328069	9270570
22	Odisha	36701024	26742595	9958429
23	Chhattisgarh	21883509	15379922	6503587
24	Madhya Pradesh	61817414	42851169	18966245
25	Gujarat	52662430	41093358	11569072
26	Daman & Diu	216313	188406	27907
27	Dadar & Nagar Haveli	292814	223230	69584
28	Maharashtra	99047816	81554290	17493526
29	Andhra Pradesh	75437975	50556760	24881215
30	Karnataka	53934264	40647322	13286942
31	Goa	1313934	1165487	148447
32	Lakshadweep	57218	52553	4665
33	Kerala	29933106	28135824	1797282
34	Tamil Nadu	64723198	51837507	12885691
35	Puducherry	1115095	957309	157786
36	Andaman& Nicobar Islands	339703	294281	45422

Source: IAEA Newsletter

Hypothesis: Whether proportion of literates and illiterates varies from state to state:

To verify whether their proportion of literates vary or remain same from state to state.

State wise growth in respect of literacy and to verify homogeneity of literacy, we apply chi square test, θi = literacy rate in the ith state, i=1.....35,

To test

H_o: $\theta_1=\theta_2=\ldots\ldots\ldots\theta_{35}=\theta$ where θ is unknown and can be estimated by

$\hat{\theta}$ = 763498517/1046091423 = 0.73

Against H_1: at least one of θ_i's is different from the rest.

We compute

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{35} \left[\frac{\left(x_i - n_i\hat{\theta}\right)^2}{n_i\hat{\theta}\left(1-\hat{\theta}\right)} \right] \qquad \text{with (k-1) degree of freedom,} \qquad (1)$$

Source : (Freund & Walpole, 1987)

$x_i \sim B\left(n_i, \hat{\theta}\right)$

$E\left(x_i\right) = n_i\hat{\theta}$

$V\left(x_i\right) = n_i\hat{\theta}\left(1-\hat{\theta}\right)$, here, $i = 1, 2, \ldots\ldots 35$

Let

$$Z_i = \frac{\left(x_i - n_i\hat{\theta}\right)}{\sqrt{n_i\hat{\theta}\left(1-\hat{\theta}\right)}} \sim N\left(0,1\right)$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^{35} Z_i^2 \sim \chi_{34}^2$$

Using the data given in the above table we compute χ^2 from equation 1.

$$\chi^2 = 28858694.70 > \chi_{.01, 34}^2 = 56.061$$

Where $\chi_{.01, 34}^2 = 56.061$ (Source: Meyer, 1970)

Since, $\chi^2 >_{.01, 34}$

Hence, H_0 is rejected at 1% level of significance. Thus the difference in literacy rates in different states is highly significant. It reveals that there is heterogeneity in the literacy rates. So, this heterogeneity needs to be addressed to achieve equitable and uniform growth of literacy.

Looking at the distribution of illiterate persons, BIMARU (Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh) has 44.47% of total illiterate population in the country. So, there is an urgent need to focus on these four states.

b. Household wise distribution of illiterates (Census 2011)

Area Name	Number of households	Number of illiterates	Average number of illiterates per household
India	246692667	282592906	1.15
Rural	167826730	229524146	1.37
Urban	78865937	53068760	0.67

If we look at the distribution of illiterate persons in the households, the table above reveals that there are on an average 1.15 illiterate persons per household in the country. If we look at the geographic distribution, it is found that on an average, there are 1.37 illiterate persons per household in the rural areas while 0.67 illiterate persons per household in the urban areas.

c. Illiterate Population in India

(The Table presents the status of illiterate persons in absolute numbers)

Parameter	Population/Percentage
Total illiterate persons in India	282592906
Uttar Pradesh has maximum number of illiterate persons	54623455
Lakshadweep has minimum number of illiterate persons	4665
Male illiterates in India	102705594
Female illiterates in India	179887312
Illiterate persons in rural areas	229524146
Illiterate persons in urban areas	53068760
Average number of illiterate persons per state/union territory	8074083
Average number of illiterate persons per district	441551.4
Average number of illiterate persons per household	1.15

Conclusion

The paper presents empirical analysis of illiteracy in the country by analyzing the trend of growth of literacy rates in the country. It concludes that the growth is linear (not exponential) in nature meaning that the growth is slow. In addition to it, the paper projects the status of literacy in future and

concludes that it will take another 39 years to achieve 100% literacy in the country. The paper also examines the nature of growth of literacy in the states and reveals that it is not equitable and uniform. This analysis identifies key areas so there is an urgent need to focus on heterogeneity in literacy rates prevalent in different states, women and rural areas along with BIMARU states in the literacy drives to add momentum and accelerate the process of development. Moreover, literacy is the most significant indicator of development. On the contrary, illiteracy undermines efforts to eliminate a number of social ills like poverty, employment avenues, health efforts, corruption and participation in the democratic institutions. Furthermore, illiteracy is a threat in achieving Millennium Development Goals. However, in the presence of such a huge number of illiterate persons in India, development is impossible. This is a threat to the international efforts initiated by the United Nations and other organizations as well. Therefore, in addition to Saakshar Bharat Mission, some more significant efforts from government along with nongovernmental organizations are needed to realize the dream of literate society.

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Linkages between Mobility, Alcohol Use and HIV related Risk Behavior Among Young Men in India

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Adolescence and early adulthood is a distinct and dynamic phase of development in the life of an individual, which is characterized by spurts of physical, mental, emotional and social development (Singh.et.al, 2004). It is the time when influences outside the family assume greater significance. Adolescents and youth find themselves facing new opportunities and challenges. It is also a formative stage in terms of sexual and reproductive maturity. Traditional societies did not consider it necessary for adolescents to have information about sex prior to marriage in the belief that sexual activity occurs only within wedlock. However, with modernization and the influence of mass media, the socio-cultural milieu has been changed significantly and resulted in changes in values and norms related to sex and sexual behavior, and adolescents are now often tempted to have sex even before marriage (Robinson T.2004).

Adolescents present both a challenge as well as an opportunity while exploring the linkages between HIV related risk behaviour across different sub populations. Adolescents are an unprecedented large and growing population, especially in developing world like India. With sexual activity often initiated in adolescence –within or outside of marriage- the risk relating to their sexual behaviour is often underestimated. However, the alarmingly high rates of HIV/AIDS, especially among young men, have served to highlight particular vulnerability of this group. The challenge lies in how best to reach this diverse and often hidden population which are frequently mobile in nature. The phase of adolescence and early adulthood is also marked by the nature of strong experimentation and influence of friends and peer groups. During this stage of life, peer relations become more intense and adolescents start spending more time outside the home, escaping the chaperone ship of the adult members of their families. Alcohol consumption, its frequency, and pattern of drinking are imperative in knowing the involvement in risky sexual behavior among young men. Alcoholism and peer pressure can be considered as precursor in behavioral change, and young men age 15-24

years are duly affected by it. The influence of mass media, friends and peer pressure provokes them to experiment in risky lifestyle activities such as smoking, drinking, and risky sexual behavior. As a result, the risk of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) including HIV/AIDS may be significant among adolescents and youth. Adolescents are especially vulnerable to STDs, including HIV/AIDS, because of high-risk behavior, less knowledge of preventive measures, greater biological susceptibility to infections and their limited access to health facilities for treatment (Devieux J.2002).

Globally estimated 39.5 million people were living with HIV/AIDS at the end of 2006. Estimated 4.3 million were newly infected adults. The new 2006 estimated released by the National AIDS Control Organization (NACO), indicate that national adult HIV Prevalence in India is approximately 0.36% which corresponds to an estimated 2 million to 3.1 million people living with HIV in the country. Although overall HIV prevalence is low the large population of the region makes the magnitude of HIV epidemic huge.

In spite of several modes of HIV transmission inclusive of blood/blood products and from a pregnant/lactating mother to her child, the principal mode of transmission of HIV in India has been unprotected sexual relations-especially heterosexual intercourse. Therefore, the spread of AIDS can only be controlled through behavioral changes, particularly in sexual practices. Though the importance of early diagnosis of HIV has increased in the context of enhancing the effectiveness of HIV prevention programme in the country, but the comprehensive awareness, which can lead to attitudinal and behavioral change towards safe sexual practices, is the only weapon to curb the pace of HIV/AIDS in the country (Singh, 2008).

Need for the Study

HIV is largely concentrated among population with high risk behavior namely female sex workers and their clients, injecting drug users and men who sex with men. UNAIDS estimates for 2006 reveal that around 42-46 % of all new HIV infection occurred among youth age 15 to 24 years. Young people are the center of HIV/AIDS epidemic in terms of transmission, impact and potential for changing attitude and behavior underlying the pace of the HIV epidemic. It is against this background; targeting youth for the effectiveness of HIV prevention program has been globally recognized. In recognition of young people vulnerability to HIV/AIDS the United Nation General Assembly special session on HIV/AIDS outlined a number of goals

and targets focusing on young people age 15-24 years as part of the millennium development goals. These include a pledge to reduce HIV prevalence among young people globally by 2010 by focusing at the strategies to reduce STI/HIV vulnerability among youth, especially young women, though awareness and capacity building in one hand and improved services through developing support system and enabling environment on the other.

In view of the above paradigm, knowledge of HIV/AIDS and different dimensions of risky sexual behaviour among youth age 15-24 years are of particular interest for research as well as for interventions. This issue has special importance in context of the emerging trends in new HIV cases in India. The last five years sentinel surveillance data shows that nearly two-fifths of new infections are reported among people below 25 years of age (NACO, 2004). Therefore, this paper focuses at the extent of AIDS comprehensive knowledge among young men age 15-24 years and combine effect of alcohol, mobility and contextual correlates of HIV related risk behaviors in India, which may have top programmatic priorities for designing evidence based interventions.

Objectives

The main objective of this paper is to examine the major correlates of HIV related risk behavior among young men in India. More specifically the objectives of this paper are:

- To examine the extent of HIV/AIDS knowledge among young men age 15-24 years in India, and
- To analyze the effect of alcohol, mobility and contextual correlates of HIV related risk behaviors.

Data and Methodology

The basic data used in this paper have been taken from the most recent round of National Family Health Survey (NFHS-3), where it is the first time when information on HIV related risk behavior have been collected from a nationally representative sample of men age 15-54 years and women age 15-49 years irrespective of their marital status. For the purpose of this paper, the sample of men age 15-54 years in NFHS-3 has been restricted to the young men age 15-24 years by filtering from the men's data file. The total sample size for the present study thus obtained is 24997, which may further

reduce in certain categories where response rates are lower. That is why; an attempt has been made to give value of N in most of cases. In order to ascertain data requirements and articulation of various issues pertaining to the risky sexual behavior among young men this paper uses applications of bivariate and multivariate techniques.

It is worth mentioning that one cannot get a direct variable on comprehensive knowledge from NFHS-3 data. Therefore, it has been computed based on several questions included in the survey pertaining to the extent of knowledge and misconception about HIV transmission and prevention. The comprehensive knowledge has been based on three core issues namely - knowing that people can reduce their chance of getting HIV/ AIDS by having sex with one uninfected partner and by consistent use of condom during intercourse; knowing that a healthy-looking person can have AIDS; and rejecting two most common misconceptions i.e. HIV/ AIDS can be transmitted by mosquito bites or by sharing food with a person infected with HIV.

HIV related risk behaviour has been computed on the basis of sex with a person who is neither a spouse nor having a live in relationship. Of course, the risk behavior has been analyzed only for those young men age 15-24 years who reported to ever had sex with women other than wife/ partner in the last twelve months. Subsequently, it has been clubbed with those who have not used condom during last sexual intercourse. The other depend variable included in the analysis to have comprehensive insights in to the issue of risky sexual behavior are the intention to wait until married to have sex and condom used at first sexual intercourse. Exposure to mass media is computed based on those people who reported, reading newspaper or magazine, listening radio or watching television at least ones in a week. For the purpose of getting precise results to achieve the above objectives, bivariate and multivariate techniques have been used in this paper.

Results and Discussions

The last five years sentinel surveillance data reveals the growth pattern of new HIV cases with a larger concentration among youth. Youth in the age group 15-24 years are in transition in building knowledge based behaviour. Even after two decades of awareness programs implemented through multiple approaches of interventions 12% of the young men in the age group 15-24 years have never heard of AIDS. As expected, NFHS-3 data provides

evidence of strong positive association between educational attainment and AIDS awareness. In fact, every second youth (men age 15-24 years) having no education has reported to never heard of AIDS. Young men who were never married at the time of NFHS-3 survey are more likely to have AIDS awareness (90%) than those who are married (82%). Young men residing in urban area are more likely to have AIDS awareness (95%) than those living in rural areas (84%).

Though NFHS-3 findings focus at comparatively better AIDS awareness among youth than among adult men age 15-49 years but a considerably large proportion of them do not know how to prevent transmission. In addition, a vast majority of young men age 15-24 years is not aware of AIDS prevention practices and has a number of misconceptions about transmission and prevention (NFHS-3). Therefore, an attempt has been made in this paper to analyze a variable comprehensive awareness computed on the similar lines of NFHS-3 (the computational procedure has been mentioned in brief in the section on data and methodology) in understanding the AIDS related risk behavior among youth in India. It is needless to mention here that comprehensive knowledge of AIDS has been computed by considering if they know that using a condom and having just one uninfected partner limits the risk of getting AIDS, knowing that a healthy looking person can have AIDS and also rejecting the two most common misconceptions about AIDS transmission (transmission by mosquito bites and by sharing food).

Comprehensive Knowledge

Only 36 % of young men in the age group 15-24 years have comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS, which is a basic requisite for behaviour change in the context of HIV related risk behavior. It is evident from Table-2.1 that the married youth are relatively less likely to have comprehensive knowledge of AIDS (26%) than their unmarried counterparts (39%). Other background characteristics having profound differential in the comprehensive knowledge among youth are place of residence, education and standard of living. Urban youth are over 1.5 times more likely to have comprehensive knowledge of AIDS than the young men in rural areas. However, in case of increasing education the differential are further more pronounced. Young men age 15-24 years among those coming from high SLI households are over 2.5 times more likely to have comprehensive knowledge than those coming from low SLI households. In case of working people the figure is 30% which is lower than those who are not working.

Muslims and Schedule tribe youth have comparatively less comprehensive knowledge of HIV AIDS than their counterparts.

Table-2.2 presents the results of logistic regression analysis on comprehensive knowledge by different socio-economic and background characteristics. The adjusted effect of place of residence is significantly affecting the level of comprehensive knowledge among youth where rural youth are 28% less likely to have comprehensive knowledge than their urban counterparts. Education is a vital factor in enhancing comprehensive knowledge as the adjusted effects of higher education reveals almost 10 times more likelihood of comprehensive knowledge than among those having no education. Religion wise Muslims are less likely, on the other hand others are 1.3 times more likely to have comprehensive knowledge of HIV AIDS. These relations are highly significant at 1% level of significance. As compared to person living in low SLI person living in medium and high SLI are more likely to have comprehensive knowledge of HIV /AIDS by 1.3 and1.9 times with respect to the reference category. A distinct picture comes when working people are 15% less likely to have comprehensive knowledge of HIV /AIDS than those who are not working this is highly because young men living better socio-economic conditions mostly involved in their educational attainments.

Intention to Wait for Sex till Marriage

Transition from child hood to adolescence hood or adulthood is the period where young men develop notions about various incidences taking place around them. Often such notions are governed by a number of factors ranging from individual and familial levels to the environments and surroundings in which they grow. Intension to wait till marriage for sex too is a similar notion, expected to have negative repercussions for their risk indulgence. Table-3.1 is based on the intention of individual to have sexual intercourse before marriage. This table gives the perception of youth towards risky sexual behaviour even though the figures are very low, yet the differentials across background characteristics, where six percent youth are not intended to wait for sex till marriage. Of course the differentials are negligible when compared among youth living in urban and rural areas. By and large a similar pattern is noticed when analyzed by their working status. Those who drink alcohol (7.9%) have no intention to wait to have sex till marriage; it is only 5.8% for those who don't consume alcohol, so it reflects that consuming alcohol affects more on attitude building. People from low

SLI are slightly more (7%) than those who are from high SLI (6 %). Caste wise, schedule tribe youth are more in percentage (10%) having no intention to wait to have sex till marriage while others are not showing any major differences.

Table-3.2 shows that the logistic regression odds ratios of intention to have sex before marriage. The first model included the macro level variables providing a context and environment in which youth are living and growing up. While the second model included a number of individual level variables like educational attainment, exposure to mass media, alcohol consumption, mobility and comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS. Alcohol consumption is significantly related to the intention for pre-marital sex, and those who take alcohol everyday or once in a week are more likely to intend for pre marital sexual intercourse. Model -1 shows that those who live in rural area are relatively less likely to report their intention to have sex before marriage. In comparison to SC population ST and Others are more likely to have intention for sex before marriage.

Condom Use in first Sexual Intercourse

HIV/AIDS program in India has a multi-facet approach of intervention through different programmes and services but the basics of all such approaches are rooted in ensuring safe sex though ensuring consistent condom use. An attempt has been made in this section to analyze information on condom use in the first sex collected as part of NFHS-3. Table-4.1 depicts the percentage for those young men age15-24 years who have used condom during their first intercourse. Table shows that only 15% of young men in age group of 15-24 years in India have used condom during their first sexual intercourse with 11% in rural areas and 26% in urban areas. The usage of condom during their first sexual intercourse is increasing as the educational level increases. A comparatively lower proportion of never married men (7%) reported to use condom during their first sexual intercourse, as against 19% among the married youth. Similarly young men having no education, low SLI and hose belong to scheduled tribes are relatively less likely to use condom in their first sexual encounter- which again increases the vulnerability of youth to STI/HIV risk.

Table-4.2 reveals the binary logistic regression results on condom use in the first sex. Model- 1 shows that those who are belonging to joint family, they are less likely to use condom. Adjusted effect of religion on condom

use reveal significantly larger chances of condom use in the first sex among Christians and others in comparison to Hindus ,while the pattern gets reversed in case of Muslims though the relationship is not significant. Among other predictors included in model, SLI has amore pounced impact on condom use in the first sex. Youth belonging to moderate and high SLI categories are 1.8 and 3.5 time more likely than those belonging to low SLI to protect themselves by condom use in their first sexual encounter irrespective of the partner.

Further, Model- 2 which includes a number of individual level characteristics shows that less number of people in the rural area are using condom in comparison to urban. In comparison to SC population ST and OBC are less likely to use condom during the intercourse. Those people who are belonging to medium and low standard of living are 1.27 and 2.08 times respectively more likely to use condom at the time of intercourse. Those having higher educational attainments are 2.7 times more likely to use condom in their first sex than those among no education category. It is extremely important to mention that the adjusted effect of comprehensive knowledge have significant impact on their protective sexual behavior. Young men age 15-24 years who are having comprehensive knowledge are 20% more likely to use condom in the first sex than others and hence enhancing comprehensive knowledge through various approaches of intervention is likely to reduce the young men's vulnerability to STI/HIV.

Risky Sexual Behavior

The risky sexual behaviour has been computed based on information collected from men who have had sexual intercourse in the 12 month period before the survey. It has two components- high risk sex and condom use in the last sex. A higher-risk sex is the sexual intercourse with someone who is neither a spouse nor a cohabiting partner. While the second indicator relates to condom use during the last act of higher-risk sexual intercourse. Table-5.1 shows the percentage of young men of age group of 15-24 years engage in risky sexual behaviour by different background characteristics. It is found that nearly 4% of youth in India are involved in risky sexual behavior with 5% in rural areas and 2% in urban areas. There is a declining pattern in prevalence of risky sexual behavior as the educational level increases. Percentage of youth in risky sexual behaviour is low among non working (2 percent) as against relatively larger proportion (5%) in case of working men. With respect to the background of young men in term their caste-group,

proportion of young men reported to indulge in risky sexual behavior during the last 12 months is 5% among SC and 4% among each of scheduled tribe and OBC categories. Unmarried youth relatively are more likely to involve in risky sexual behaviour (4 percent) than married youth (3%).

As observed in case of other two dimensions of AIDS related risk behavior among youth, the risky sexual behavior to provide profound differentials by alcohol consumption. Young men age 15-24 years, who reported to consume alcohol, are three times more likely to involve in risky sexual behaviour than those who don't consume alcohol. Similarity is the case when frequency of alcohol consumption comes; it is significantly for those youth who consume alcohol everyday (11%) and/or once in a week (12%) than who takes less often (7%). Further, it is also evident from Table-5.1 that there is a positive association between mobility- measured in terms of number of visits away from home in the last 12 months and involvement in risk behavior. Those who are more mobile are more prone to indulge in risky sexual behavior. Youth who are away from home for more than a month (7%) are involved in risky sexual behavior. Thus, there is a clear evidence of association between mobility and risky sexual behavior.

The adjusted effects of different predictors on risky sexual behavior among youth age 15-24 years are presented in Table-5.2. Logistic regression odds ratios reveal that rural youth, those coming from joint family, religion group others, those belong to SC/ST are more likely to involve in risk behavior than their counterparts. However, SLI has significantly negative association with the potential indulgence in high risk sexual behavior among youth age 15-24 years. In Model -2, which also incorporate a number of individual level factors in addition to the macro level factors included in Model -1, alcohol consumption has been the most prominent factor significantly associated with the likely indulgence in to risky sexual behavior. Of course, the degree and direction of association with macro level variables remains the same except the effect of religion being insignificant. Those people who are away from home for more than one month are 1.24 times more likely to have risky behavior. Men in the age group 15-24 years, if they have comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS they are less likely to involve in risky sexual behavior. While the exposure to media provides an apparently contradictory results. It is important to point out that media exposure among youth does not seem to reduce their likely indulgence in to risky sexual behavior.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In view of increasing HIV prevalence among youth age 15-24 years in India in the recent years, this paper endeavors to understand the risky sexual behaviour among youth and its major determinates, which may have potentials to be prioritized for programmatic response. Lack of Comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS among young men age 15-24 years has been conceptualized as predictor for increasing prevalence of AIDS related risk behavior as only 36% of the young men have comprehensive knowledge about HIV/AIDS, though it varies by education, urban rural residence and standard of living. These findings suggest a need based intervention for rural youth specially those who belong to low SLI and having no education. Of course a large chunk of these youth are employed in unorganized sector and hence workplace based interventions may be ideal for enhancing comprehensive knowledge among youth.

The first indicator of AIDS related risk among youth, revealing intention to have premarital sex, shows that six percent of the young men reported to have an intention to have sex before marriage. Proportion of such youth is considerably higher among those reported to consume alcohol, who frequently move away from home and belong to scheduled tribes. This shows that the influence of substance abuse among youth, and the context in which youth are mobile enhance their intention to indulge into sexual relations before marriage.

Nearly 4% of youth in India are involved in risky sexual behavior with high percentage among rural, less than primary standard education and among the youth with frequent mobility. Thus, the above findings clearly reveal that alcohol consumption among youth age 15-24 years in India has significant association with all the three dimensions of risky sexual behavior among youth. Conceiving thus Mobility and alcohol consumption among youth age 15-24 years in India has significant association with all the three dimensions of risky sexual behavior among youth. Therefore, any programmatic response to reduce vulnerability to STI/HIV among youth should epically target more mobile men and accord mitigating the effects of alcoholism among youth at the top priority and should be addressed with multiple approaches of intervention. Thus the need to focus on young men and their involvement in the existing HIV/AIDS intervention programs is essential. Intervention programs should focus at enhancing not only the "comprehensive knowledge" but also "condom promotion" and "safer sexual

practices". While deciding the research priorities and also designing programmatic response to the epidemic

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Table-1
Percentage of young Men age 15-24 ever heard of HIV/AIDS by selected background characteristics

Background characteristics	Ever heard of HIV/AIDS (%)	Sample (N)
Type of place of residence		
Urban	95.1	8974
Rural	83.7	13031
Highest educational level		
No education	55.9	2440
Primary	73.9	3351
Secondary	93.8	16671
Higher	100.0	2527
Marital status		
Never married	89.6	20327
Married	81.0	4205
Standard of Living Index		
Low	72.9	4567
Medium	85.8	7998
High	96.0	10932
Work status		
Not Working	94.4	8445
Working	84.8	16512
Religion		
Hindu	88.2	20239
Muslim	86.4	3397
Christen	88.4	503
Others	90.6	857
Type of Caste/Tribe		
SC	86.6	4903
ST	73.9	1960
OBC	88.5	9773
Others	92.5	1960
Total	**88.0**	**24997**

Table-2.1

Percentage of young men age 15-24 having comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS by background characteristics

Background Characteristics	Comprehensive Knowledge %	Sample (N)
Age group		
15-19	35.5	13008
20-24	37.8	11989
Type of place of residence		
Urban	47.1	9435
Rural	29.4	15562
Type of family	38.2	11319
Nuclear	34.6	12712
joint		
Highest educational level		
No education	9.0	2440
Primary	13.9	3351
Secondary	39.9	16671
Higher	66.4	2527
Mass media exposure		
No	7.2	897
Yes	37.1	24100
Marital status		
Never married	38.5	20327
Married	26.1	4205
Standard of Living Index		
Low	18.5	4567
Medium	29.2	7998
High	48.8	10932
Work status		
Not Working	47.4	8445
Working	30.3	16512
Religion		
Hindu	36.9	20239
Muslim	28.3	3398
Christian	37.0	503
Others	14.0	64
Type of Caste/ Tribe		
SC	31.9	4903
ST	24.9	1960
OBC	36.9	9773
Others	30.5	52
Total	36.1	24997

Logistic Regression odds ratios of comprehensive Knowledge among young men age 15-24 by background characteristics

Background characteristics	B	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP (B)	
			Lower	Upper
Type of place of residence				
Urban®				
Rural	-0.324	.723**	0.669	0.781
Highest educational level				
No education®				
Primary	0.476	1.610**	1.268	2.045
Secondary	1.456	4.290**	3.475	5.296
Higher	2.259	9.578**	7.571	12.117
Religion				
Hindu®				
Muslim	-0.15	.861**	0.764	0.969
Christian	0.148	1.159	0.977	1.376
Others	0.3	1.349**	1.129	1.613
Type of Caste/ Tribe				
SC®				
ST	-0.069	0.933	0.793	1.098
OBC	-0.042	0.959	0.863	1.065
Others	0.015	1.015	0.908	1.133
Occupation				
Not Working®				
working	-0.159	.853**	0.787	0.924
Standard of Living Index				
Low®				
Medium	0.286	1.331**	1.167	1.518
High	-0.159	1.987**	1.74	2.269
Marital status				
Never Married®				
Currently Married	0.069	1.072	0.958	1.198
Constant	-0.75	0.472		

Note: **1%level of significant; *5%level of significant

Table-3.1
Percent of young men age 15-24 who have never had sex and do not intend to wait for sex till marriage by selected characteristics

Characteristics	Do not Intend to wait (%)	Sample (N)
Age group		
15-19	6.3	10353
20-24	5.5	6128
Type of place of residence		
Urban	6.2	6942
Rural	5.9	9541
Highest educational level		
No education	5.0	1060
Primary	5.7	1829
Secondary	5.6	1160
Higher	5.0	1930
Mass media exposure		
No	4.7	472
yes	6.1	1601
Type of family		
Nuclear	6.0	8589
joint	6.0	7363
Work status		
Not Working	5.4	7057
working	6.5	9393
Drink Alcohol		
No	5.8	15661
Yes	7.9	2087
Standard of Living Index		
Low	6.8	2618
Medium	6.0	4964
High	5.7	7997
Religion		
Hindu	6.1	13220
Muslim	5.7	2384
Christian	6.2	357
Others	5.4	539
Caste or tribe		
SC	6.4	2876
ST	10.2	1052
OBC	6.0	6437
Others	5.6	5519
Away for more than one month in the last 12 months		
No	7.0	8744
yes	6.0	1841
No of times away from home in the last 12 months		
Never	4.6	5585
30times	6.8	10386
60 times	5.7	142
90 times	7.0	43
Total	6.0	16482

Table-3.2
Logistic Regression odds ratios for intention of pre marital sex among young men age 15-24 who have never had sex and by selected characteristics

Characteristics	Exp(B) Model 1	Exp(B) Model 2
Type of place of residence		
Urban ®		
Rural	0.861*	0.865
Type of family		
Nuclear®		
joint	0.966	0.973
Religion		
Hindu®		
Muslim	1.099	1.215
Christians	.745*	0.744
Others	0.823	0.801
Type of caste or tribe		
SC®		
ST	1.622**	1.851**
OBC	0.854	1.026
Others	1.124	1.198
Standard of Living Index		
Low®		
Medium	0.874	0.921
High	0.869	0.847
Drink Alcohol		
No®		
Yes		1.482**
Highest educational level		
No education®		
Primary	-	0.906
Secondary	-	0.956
Higher	-	1.078
Mass media exposure		
No®		
Yes	-	0.976
Occupation		
Not Working®		
Working	-	1.111
Away for more than one month		
No ®		
Yes	-	0.932
No of times away from home		
Never®		
60 times	-	0.828
90 times	-	1.547
Comprehensive knowledge		
No ®		
Yes	-	1.088
Constant	0.073	0.095

Table-4.1
Percentage of young men age 15-24, who have ever had sex and reported condom used in the first intercourse by some selected characteristics

Characteristics	used condom %	Sample (N)
Age Group		
15-19	18.5	1462
20-24	14.1	5261
Type of place of residence		
rural	11.3	1786
urban	25.5	4936
Type of family		
Nuclear	19.9	1833
Joint	13.2	4511
Highest educational level		
No education	6.5	1180
Primary	10.5	1291
Secondary	17.8	3806
Higher	27.7	443
Mass media exposure		
No	6.3	332
Yes	15.5	6390
Marital Status		
Never Married	7.0	2336
Currently Married	18.9	4187
Drink Alcohol		
No	13.9	4188
Yes	16.9	2533
Frequency of alcohol consumption		
Every day	13.7	124
Once a week	13.4	654
Less often	17.1	1753
Work status		
Not working	24.7	627
Working	14.1	6092
Standard of Living Index		
Low	8.1	1646
Medium	12.5	2438
High	23.6	2126
Religion		
Hindu	14.1	5608
Muslim	17.7	787
Christen	24.4	91
Others	0.0	22
Type of caste or tribe		
SC	14.4	1654
ST	8.5	789
OBC	11.9	2594
Others	24.1	1512
Total	**15.0**	**6722**

Table-4.2
Logistic Regression odds ratios of reported condom use in the first sex among young men age 15-24 who have ever had sex, by selected characteristics

Characteristics	Exp(B) Model 1	Exp(B) Model 2
Type of place of residence		
Urban ®		
Rural	0.528**	0.634**
Type of family		
Nuclear®		
joint	0.565**	0.939
Religion		
Hindu®		
Muslim	0.859.	1.086
Christian	1.837**	1.552*
Others	1.556**	1.348
Type of caste or tribe		
SC®		
ST	0.662**	0.545**
OBC	0.715**	0.759*
Others	1.146**	1.107
Standard of Living Index		
Low®		
Medium	1.751**	1.274
High	3.504**	2.084**
Marital Status		
Never married®		
Married		0.212**
Drink Alcohol		
No®		
Every day	-	1.052
Once a week	-	1.148
Highest educational level		
No education®		
Primary	-	1.201
Secondary	-	1.772**
Higher	-	2.733**
Mass media exposure		
No®		
Yes	-	0.784
Occupation		
Not Working®		
Working	-	0.964
Away for more than one month		
No ®		
Yes	-	1.203*
No of times away from home		
Never®		
60 times	-	0.92
90 times	-	0.444
Comprehensive knowledge		
No®		
Yes		1.203*
Constant	0.240	0.121

Table-5.1

Percent of young men age 15-24 involved in risky sexual behavior in the last 12 months by some selected characteristics

Characteristics	High Risk Behavior %	Sample (N)
Age group		
15-19	3.4	13008
20-24	4.1	11988
Type of place of residence		
Urban	2.4	9435
Rural	4.5	15562
Type of family		
Nuclear	3.2	11319
joint	3.8	12711
Highest educational level		
No education	5.1	2440
Primary	5.6	3351
Secondary	3.3	16671
Higher	2.5	2526
Mass media exposure		
No	2.7	896
yes	3.8	2410
Occupation		
Not Working	1.8	8445
working	4.7	16512
Standard of Living Index		
Low	5.3	4567
Medium	4.1	7998
High	2.4	10931
Religion		
Hindu	3.9	20239
Muslim	2.9	3398
Christen	2.6	503
Others	5.1	858
Type of caste or tribe		
SC	5.1	4903
ST	3.7	1960
OBC	3.7	9772
Others	2.6	7552
Marital Status		
Unmarried	3.8	20327
Married	2.9	4205
Drink Alcohol		
No	2.6	20124
Yes	8.5	4873
Frequency of consumption		
Every day	11.3	186
Once a week	11.8	1056
Less often	7.3	3613
Away for more than one month		
No	4.1	13741
Yes	6.7	3388
No of times away from home		
Never	1.7	7847
30 times	4.5	16714
60 times	7.8	299
90 times	8.6	80
Total	3.8	24997

Table-5.2
Logistic Regression odds ratios of involvement in risky sexual behaviour of young men age 15-24 by selected characteristics

Characteristics	Exp(B) Model 1	Exp(B) Model 2
Type of place of residence		
Urban ®		
Rural	1.439 **	1.473 **
Type of family		
Nuclear®		
joint	1.289 **	1.213 *
Religion		
Hindu®		
Muslim	1.203	1.037
Christian	1.282	0.649
Others	1.465 *	1.332
Type of caste or tribe		
SC®		
ST	0.971	1.111
OBC	0.675 **	0.751 **
Others	0.578 **	0.703 **
Standard of Living Index		
Low®		
Medium	0.881	0.958
High	0.573 **	0.664 **
Marital Status		
Never married®		
Married		0.328 **
Drink Alcohol		
No®		
Every day	-	3.719 **
Once a week		2.802 **
Highest educational level		
No education®		
Primary	-	1.028
Secondary	-	1.05
Higher		1.073
Mass media exposure		
No®		
Yes		3.445 **
Occupation		
Not Working®		
Working		2.045 **
Away for more than one month		
No ®		
Yes	-	1.242 **
No of times away from home		
Never®		
60 times	-	1.664 *
90 times		1.677
Comprehensive knowledge		
No		
Yes		0.796 *
Constant	0.041	0.42

Note: **1%level of significant; *5%level of significant

Autocratic and Democratic Teaching Strategies: Pros and Cons

Anuradha Sharma

The rapid change and increased complexity of today's world in educational scenario cause new challenges and put new demands on our education system. There has been generally a growing awareness of the necessity to change and improve the preparation of students for productive functioning in the continually changing and highly demanding environment. The approaches to teaching can be categorized according to major educational goals that affect teaching strategies. Presenting subject matter often depends on the topic at hand, the resources available, the time allotted for the lesson, and the interest level expected of the student. When a teacher takes all of this information into account, teacher can make a good choice as to the best way to present the material. There are different teaching strategies that can be used to help students gain the understanding. These strategies can be used individually or in conjunction with each other. The technique of teaching on the one hand is viewed as the transmission of knowledge by the teachers to the students and on the other hand teaching is viewed as facilitating students' autonomous learning and self expression. The former approach which converges towards the teaching of specified subject matter may be termed '**convergent**' teaching and the latter approach which stresses open ended self-directed learning may be termed '**divergent**' teaching. The convergent approach is highly structured and teacher-centered; the students are passive recipients of knowledge transmitted to them .The divergent approach is flexible, student-centered.

Teaching strategies are used for achieving the teaching goals and objectives. Keeping in view the class-room environment and the teacher's attitude, teaching strategies can be divided into two categories - Autocratic and Democratic.

The **Autocratic Strategies** are traditional teaching strategies and are also called convergent approach. These are content centred and teacher-centred. While using these strategies, the teacher's place is primary and the pupil's place is secondary. The teacher determines the content himself and by considering himself an ideal and by suppressing pupil's interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities and needs, he\she tries to impose knowledge forcibly from outside in the minds of the pupils. In such a situation, pupils don't have any freedom for their expressions. Hence, in these autocratic strategies, only mental development is emphasized, for achieving cognitive

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objectives and group development is not cared for at all. Autocratic teaching strategies include Lecture, Demonstration, Tutorial, Programmed instruction, etc.

Lecture Method

The lecture method is the most commonly used instructional strategy for working with groups of students. It is teacher-centered forms of instruction i.e. convergent approach. Lecture can be delivered in many different ways, and one method may be more effective than other. The least effective form of lecture method is when teacher reading from notes or the text; with this students quickly lose interest and also when no day to day life experiences are shared in the lecture.

Following are the ways through which effectiveness of lectures can be improved:

Be organized – Plan the lectures ahead of time and be logical in the order of presentation.

Allow for periodic breaks – lecture sessions should not be too long as the students cannot concentrate and grasp for longer duration. Hence, it may be appropriate to provide breaks in between so that the students relax and informally discuss the ideas that have been presented in the sessions.

Use visuals – lecture alongwith visuals like Power Point Presentation, overhead transparencies, pictures, charts, slides, etc. help the students a lot to understand the subjects better as they not only hear but also see through visuals.

Allow for questions – Provide adequate time for question and answer session. The person giving lecture should try to respond to all questions asked for so that the students get clarity of the subject delivered.

Arrange the seating – the seating arrangement should be in such a way so that the students see each other and also the teacher. This face to face arrangement can facilitate more interaction with the fellow students and also the teacher. Formal arrangement made in the classroom divides the students from the teacher leading to less of interaction.

Provide opportunities for small group discussion – in order to break the monotony of lecture session, small group discussions can be arranged to enhance better participation of students. The topics for small group discussions can be mutually decided by the teacher and the students and the time duration should be short. At the end, the representatives from each group should present their points of view in the general session in which the members of the other groups can also share their views. Once the general session is over the teacher can resume the lecture session again.

The advantages of lecture sessions are:

- Useful for large groups.
- Effective means of providing new information and clarifying existing information to a large heterogeneous group in a short period of time.
- Factual materials are presented in a direct and logical manner.
- Life experiences can motivate the students.
- More useful for covering essential concepts, principles, and systems.
- Can stimulate learner's interest in future study.
- Can be recorded for future sessions.

However, the lecture session are having disadvantages also. They are:

- A person giving lecture should be proficient in oral skills. Otherwise the session cannot be effective.
- Audience becomes more passive by listening the lecture.
- Communication is more of one-way.
- Not appropriate for children below grade four.
- Learning fully depends upon the teacher, unless it is integrated with other techniques (is a passive versus learning activity)
- Establishes a "tell me" mind-set in students.
- Offers limited opportunities for assessment and feedback
- Learner can be overloaded as it is common for teachers to include too much information in too short a time frame
- There is very little independent thinking of the students.
- Sometimes it can increase boredom among students.
- Have very limited effectiveness in teaching anything other than knowledge.

Demonstration

Demonstrations are most effective when the students are concerned with an issue or problem and are looking for an answer. In such cases the demonstration can deal directly with their concern. It is important that the person doing the demonstration know the content very well and is able to answer questions as they arise during the demonstration. Demonstrations can be classified into two, one is **Result Demonstration** and the other one is **Method Demonstration.** The Result Demonstration is to show the results of some activity, practice or procedure through evidence (or example) that can be seen, heard or felt. It is an effective method for introducing new topic or idea in an extension. For example comparison between traditional agricultural tools and new technological tools can be well explained and shown by this method. At the same time the Method Demonstration illustrates how to do something in a step-by-step fashion.

The demonstration method also has both advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages are:
- More useful for those students who learn well by modeling others.
- Promotes self-confidence.
- Provides opportunity for targeted questions and answers.
- Allows attention to be focused on specific details rather than general theories.

Disadvantages are:
- Limited value for people who do not learn best by observing others.
- Not appropriate for different learning rates of the participants.
- Requires the demonstrator to have specialized expertise if highly technical tasks are involved.

Tutorial

It is the fundamental right of every person to get education in democracy. Therefore, instead of individual teaching, group-teaching is emphasized so that the large group may be educated at the low rate of expenditure. But it is also true that in group-teaching, a general teacher cannot solve the 'personal' problems of every learner. The reason is that if teacher does this, he/she cannot finish his/her fixed syllabi in a time-bound manner. To remove this drawback of group-teaching, students are divided into small groups so that the personal problems which came across during group teaching are solved successfully. Hence, a tutorial is a sub-part of the class in which a teacher tries to solve the problems of the small groups of students through individual teaching. Tutorials are of three types - Group Tutorial, Supervised Tutorial and Practical Tutorial.

The **Group Tutorials** are conducted to solve the problems of the grown-up students of average level. It should be remembered that the group tutorials can only be organized successfully by a teacher who possesses the full knowledge of group dynamics and social psychology.

In **Supervised Tutorials**, the talented students and the teachers discuss the problems time to time. The students put-up their difficulties and then the teacher tries to solve those problems. In this way, after a discussion between a teacher and the students, the solutions to some problems come-up.

The **Practical Tutorials** are conducted to develop the physical skill and to achieve the objectives of psychomotor skill. Students have to work in the laboratory for this. Such tutorials are more useful for youngsters and the students of lower classes. Some people consider the teacher as primary and students as secondary in conducting the tutorials.

In such a situation, if a tutorial acquires the form of a lecture, then this will be considered as autocratic strategy. Contrary to this, if the students are more active instead of the teacher, then it will definitely occupy its main place in democratic strategies. Prof. Bloom's view is that the discussion should be based on the problem and the teacher should help the students to the maximum to solve the problem.

A tutorial learning situation is most helpful when a single student needs specific help. The focus for a tutorial is usually the specific problems of concerns of the student. The teacher then becomes a form of consultant to the student and attempts to assist in helping the learner deal with his/her concerns.

The advantages of this method are:

- Learning can be promoted
- Encourages students to solve problems, connect, prioritize and incorporate conceptual knowledge.
- Develops positive attitudes and values.
- Promotes social and intellectual experience
- Develops oral presentation skills

The disadvantage is labour intensive.

Use of Multimedia

Multimedia methods of presentation include slide shows, movies, power point presentations and transparencies. Visual aides to instruction can help students better understand the ideas that are being presented. When creating presentations, it is important to keep notes concise and to the point while including interesting and relevant images. If done well, presentation can be very interesting and effective for students' learning. Visual aids clarify the ideas that are presented and reduce the confusion.

The advantages of this method are:

- Content can be introduced with entertaining way and with raising issues
- Usually keeps the group's attention
- Looks professional
- Stimulates discussion

The disadvantages are:

- Can raise too many issues to have a focused discussion
- Discussion may not have full participation
- Most effective only when it is followed by discussion

Democratic Strategies

The democratic strategies are child centred as the students determine themselves the content. Hence, the students' place is primary and that of teachers is secondary. As a result of its use, maximum interaction occurs between the students and the teacher. This develops their constructive capacities in accordance to their interests, attitudes, capacities, abilities, needs and mental levels of the students. Democratic strategies are objective and hence, the genius children gain advantage to the maximum. Following are the democratic strategies:

Group Discussion

Group discussion is an organized opportunity for the students to discuss selected topics/issues/ideas in a group setting. Group discussion allows more number of students to actively participate and helps them to increase learning. Before organizing a group discussion, it is important to make sure that the students have a certain level of understanding that will allow them to share their ideas in the group. Typically a teacher presents information through questions and answers, ensuring that the students are involved in learning. Teachers can retain control while checking on the students' learning throughout the lesson.

To conduct group discussion effectively there are a set of procedures which include the following:

1. Presentation of material for discussion

- Material for discussion should be of interest to the students
- Focused on the purpose of the lesson and suitable for the age group
- Set the climate for discussion
- Identify the aims of discussion
- Clarify the meaning of key terms in the topic for discussion to ensure a common basis for understanding
- Questioning

To systematically go through the points for discussion

(i) Giving each student an opportunity to articulate his/her personal stance.
(ii) Avoid making substantial contributions but guide the discussion by asking the following types of questions:

-     *fact questions* - asking students for previously learned information, or to recount a specified aspect of their previous experience;
-     *meaning questions* - asking students to demonstrate understanding of concepts, to give explanations etc.;

- *concretizing questions* - asking students to relate the material under discussion to their own experience or the experience of others
- *balance questions* - asking students to explore their differences;-
- *Open questions* - asking students to answer from the background of their personal experience and ideas, with the nature of links between students' ideas and the theme of the lesson being left open for the students to decide.

2. Conclusion

- Plenary sessions are when the full class hears what went on in smaller groups. Each small group has a reporter and recorder who outline the conclusions of the group.
- The teacher draws the discussion to a close by summarizing the flow of discussion and the key issues rose in the light of the aims of discussion and the sequence of learning. Students are encouraged to adopt an informed personal stance as a result of the discussion or to raise further questions.

The advantages of group discussion are:

- Pools ideas and experiences from group
- Effective after a presentation, film or experience that needs to be analyzed
- Allows everyone to participate in an active process

The disadvantages are:

- Possibility of a few students dominating the discussion
- Some students may not participate at all
- It is time consuming
- Many times the discussion can go off the track

The group discussions can be classified into two – one Large Group Discussions and the other Small Group Discussions. The **Large group discussions** are useful for holding general discussion, reporting back, airing views, giving information, seeking proposals, agreeing plans, generating energy, building trust and exploring expectations/hopes. However, large group discussions can be successful only if the participants are encouraged to express their views openly and everyone is given an opportunity to contribute.

The advantages of large group discussions are:

- Puts the burden of learning on the students and increases their involvement
- Provides both the students and the teacher immediate feedback
- Useful for guiding learners to higher levels of thinking and inquiry
- Provides valuable clues about students motivation and how to facilitate learning
- Helps students identify and build on preexisting knowledge

The disadvantages are:

- Can be time consuming
- Relies on students preparation and willingness to participate
- Can lead to a dominant few
- Controlling the floor to the exclusion of fuller participation
- Cannot ensure full participation within a large group

The **Small Group Discussions** are more complicated form of discussion. A teacher breaks the class into small groups and provides them some issues/ topics that they discuss. The teacher then walks around the class, checking on the information being shared and ensuring participation by all within the group. For example students have read a novel and are sharing information based on questions posed by the teacher. In this the teacher needs to handle the classroom management well to ensure the discussion in groups stay on the topic chosen. Small group discussion is useful for further exploration of identified issues, practical decision-making, action-planning or full discussion by a small number of people. Small groups give everyone a break from the large group and help to generate discussion and stimulate participation. The general guideline used for small group discussions is:

- Decide on an issue and agree for specific discussion
- Set the time limit
- Assign a reporter to each group
- Encourage people to respect one another and to stay within the topic chosen

The advantages of small group discussions are:
- Allows participation of everyone/ maximum participation
- Students often feel more comfortable in small groups
- Easy to reach by consensus

The disadvantages are:
- Needs careful thought as to purpose of group
- Groups may get side tracked

Exhibits

Exhibits are collection of materials that are displayed to help people learn. They are useful as a strategy to help the students to gain new understanding without the necessity of a formal course or training programme. However, exhibits should be set-up in the areas that are frequented by the students. It is often helpful if the exhibits include selection of objects or pictures and appropriate signs and written information. In addition, handouts and printed materials should be available for the students to take alongwith them. Exhibits will be more effective if they are periodically changed and are not kept for too long.

Role Play

When students are expected to interact with other people effectively using the technical information role playing can be of great use. In role play two or more students are specifically given their roles and a situation in which they are involved.

The selected students then act in their assigned roles and try to solve the problems or project the situation properly. Role play can be done before the large and small groups of students. However, to ensure the messages reached the students it may be appropriate that at the end of role play the students are given an opportunity to talk about their feeling on the play, their observation, learning and if they play the role what they will do in a different way.

The advantages of role play are:
- Introduces problem situation dramatically
- Provides opportunity for students to assume roles of others and thus appreciate others point of view
- Allows for exploration of solutions
- Provides opportunity to practice skills
- Actively involves participants, adds variety, reality and specificity to the learning experience
- Develops problem-solving and verbal expression skills
- Provides practice to build skills before real-world application when "real" experiences are not readily available
- Can provide an entirely new perspective on a situation and develop insights about feelings and relationships
- Provides the teacher immediate feedback about the students understanding and ability to apply concepts
- Improves the likelihood of transfer of learning from the classroom to the real world

The disadvantages are:
- Some students may be too self-conscious
- Not appropriate for large groups
- Some students may feel threatened
- Puts pressure on students to perform, which can create embarrassment and even resistance
- Depends heavily on students imagination and willingness to participate
- Can engender strong emotions related to past experiences and empathy
- Can lack focus unless well planned, orchestrated and monitored
- Can reinforce ineffective behaviors/strategies if performance is not observed by knowledgeable person(s) who can provide appropriate feedback
- Can be unpredictable in terms of outcomes
- Can be time consuming

Simulation

Simulations are slightly different than role play in that students become involved in a situation and have to use what they have learned and their own intellect to work through the simulation. For example, a government simulation might have the students create a model legislature where they have to create and pass the legislation. These have a great ability to be interest building but also require the teacher to make clear how each student will be assessed for their participation.

The advantages of simulation are:
- Can portray realistic situations
- Allows for focused learning that eliminates irrelevant aspects
- Can be used when "real" experiences are not readily available or would endanger patients
- Provides immediate feedback

The disadvantages are:
- Limits the number of people who can access the learning at the same time
- Can create scheduling and logistics challenges

Student Presentation

Having students prepare for and then present information to the class as a whole can be a fun and engaging method of instruction. For example, one can divide a chapter into topics and have the students "teach" in the class or one can divide the topics to students or groups and have them present information on each of the topic as a short presentation. This not only helps students learn the material in a deeper manner but also provides them with practice in public speaking.

Field Trip

Field trips are often used to show the results of a certain practice. The field trip is usually a well planned visit by a group of students to some place(s) or organization(s) that can provide new ideas and insights. Field trips can be planned to places of interests, personalities, manufacturing facilities and the locations that cannot come to the students.

Case Study

Case studies are used to allow the students to examine or analyze the specific situations that they may be facing in the future. Usually the situations are prepared ahead of time and distributed in written form. The students, often working in teams, discuss how they can solve the situations that have been presented. This strategy can be helpful following the presentation of technical information whereby the students

can then apply the information to specific problems/situations. It is also helpful for allowing the students to assess how much they have learnt and how comfortable they will be in using the information to solve problems in the future.

The advantages of case studies are:

- Develops analytic and problem solving skills
- Allows for exploration of solutions for complex issues
- Allows students to apply new knowledge and skills
- Interactive sessions
- Promotes problem-solving, diagnostic, interpretive and management skills
- It is flexible and can be conducted at any time

The disadvantages are:

- Students may not see relevance to own situation
- Insufficient information can lead to inappropriate results
- Not appropriate for elementary level
- Time-consuming

Brainstorming

Brainstorming is used to encourage the students to freely share their ideas. All ideas are accepted in the beginning of the process with no response, regardless of how useless or impractical it may be seem, is omitted from the first stages of brainstorming. As ideas are contributed by the members of the group, they are listed for all in the group to see and discuss. Discussion can include the development of spin-off ideas, the refining of ideas, combining of ideas and reinforcing of existing ideas. Brainstorming can be excellent to help a group of students think creatively of new ideas to solve difficult problems.

Define the problem clearly layout any criteria to be met. Keep the session focused on the problem, but be sure that no one criticizes or evaluates ideas during the session, even if they are clearly impractical. Criticism dampens creativity in the initial stages of a brainstorming session. Ideas should be listed, rather than developed deeply on the spot; the idea is to generate possibilities. Accordingly, the participants should be encouraged to pick-up on ideas offered to create new ones. One person should be appointed as note-taker and ideas should be studied and evaluated after the session.

The advantages of brainstorming are:

- Actively involves students in higher levels of thinking
- Promotes peer learning and creates synergy
- Promotes critical thinking
- Helps groups reach consensus

The disadvantages are:
- ▪ Requires that students discipline their inputs to the discussion (generate ideas without making judgments)
- ▪ May not be effective with large groups
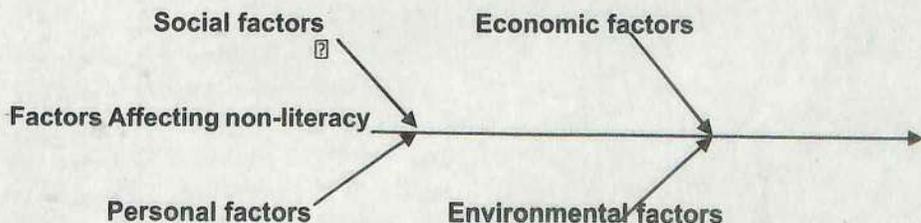- ▪ Can lead to "group think"

Independent Study

Most adult learners do their learning through independent study. Independent study allows the students to select the content that they are most interested in learning and also to select the best time for learning. In the independent study students can move through the content at their own pace. A teacher can help the students do independent study by providing study materials, resource guides, self-testing materials and by being available to answer questions as they arise.

Fishbone Method

Fishbone method is a problem solving tool used to uncover the reasons behind them. It represents the relationship between an effect (problem) and its potential causes. It is used to identify, explore and display all possible causes of specific problem or condition. The fishbone technique uses a visual organizer to identify the possible causes of a problem.

The procedure to be followed for the fishbone method is on a broad sheet of paper, draw a long arrow horizontally across the middle of the page pointing to the right. Label the arrowhead with the title of the issue to be explained. This is the "backbone" of the "fish." Draw "spurs" from this "backbone" at about 45 degrees, one for every likely cause of the problem that the group can think of; and label each. Sub-spurs can represent subsidiary causes. The group considers each spur/sub-spur, taking the simplest first, partly for clarity but also because a simple explanation may make more complex ones unnecessary. Ideally, the fishbone is redrawn so that position along the backbone reflects the relative importance of the different parts of the problem, with the most important at the head. The following one example of the fishbone:

Social factors   Economic factors

Factors Affecting non-literacy

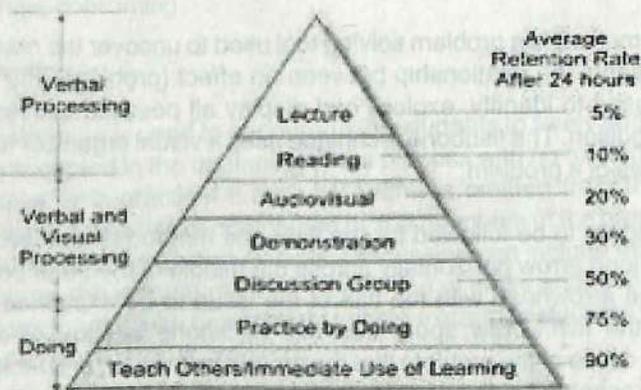Personal factors   Environmental factors

Assigning Task Method

In this method, trainees try to understand themselves first about assigned task through self study, instead of depending entirely upon the trainer. This is learning by doing .The objective of this method is that the trainees should develop confidence to do the job themselves, instead of depending upon others.

Conclusion

To conclude the figure given below shows the average retention rate of different methods of teaching. As per the figure the best effective method is learning by doing and least effective method is verbal processing which includes lecture and reading.

Figure: https://www.google.co.in/search teaching methods image

		Average Retention Rate After 24 hours
Verbal Processing	Lecture	5%
	Reading	10%
	Audiovisual	20%
Verbal and Visual Processing	Demonstration	30%
	Discussion Group	50%
	Practice by Doing	75%
Doing	Teach Others/Immediate Use of Learning	90%

However, no method can be totally rejected as already explained each method has both advantages and disadvantages. Hence, it is the duty of the teacher to use mix of more than one method of teaching so that the effectiveness of the multi methods brought in favour of the students to learn in the most effective manner.

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Adolescent Reproductive Health in Madhya Pradesh Bringing Husbands in Picture

Arindam Das

Adolescents account for one fifth of the world's population and have been on an increasing trend. In India they account for 22.8 percent of the population (as on 1st March 2000, according to the Planning Commission's Population projections). This implies that about 230 million Indians are adolescents in the age group of 10 to 19 years. Information on sex life to adolescents is almost negligible in Indian societies from any source. The adolescents in general rarely have an opportunity to get to know each other or to socially interact, even at the time they move in groups. Besides this, many of the girls are married at a very low age (16 years and below) and become sexually active. The high pregnancy and fertility among sexually active youth and the associated social and health consequences leading to morbidity and mortality, high rate of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) including HIV, a significant portion of illegal and unsafe abortion, low birth weight babies, prevalence of traditional harmful practices and sexual exploitation In India as many as 34 percent of adolescent girls aged 15-19 years are already married. This is found to be higher in rural areas where 46 percent of the girls in this age group are married as compared to 22 percent in urban areas. (Nanda, 2003). Also about 20- 40 percent of all males are estimated to be sexually experienced in adolescence, the vast majority in pre-marital encounters. (Jejeeboy, 2003).

Within the age and gender stratified family structure that is characteristic of India, young, newly married women face huge constraints on their autonomy in their marital home. The average adolescent bride is unlikely to have a say in whether or not to have sexual relations, and when to bear children. On the contrary, society often places pressure on them to prove their fertility, and in many settings bearing sons is the only means by which young women can establish the social acceptance and economic security in their marital homes. Lack of authority within their marital homes often means that girls have limited access to health care and decision-making authority (Barua and Kurz, 2001; Kulkarni, 2003; Santhya and Jejeeboy, 2003).

In spite of the fact that the minimum legal age at marriage for girls is 18 years, is not being implemented uniformly in the country. Every sixth birth being contributed by an adolescent mother. The instances of unintended pregnancy are also common here. Utilization of MCH services is equally low in this group. Further it has also found that the level of correct knowledge of family planning among the adolescents is less, particularly the spacing methods which were more so in rural areas (Rajagopal and Philip, 1997).

Adolescent girls, most of who are out of school, are particularly vulnerable and neglected, coming under the purview of government programmes only once they are pregnant. Marriage and childbearing continue to be early and universal in India. The median age at marriage is 16 years. As a consequence, 7.3 percent of pregnancies among women among women aged 15 to 19 resulted in spontaneous abortion as compared to 4.5 percent in the general population. Further 1.7 percent had experienced induced abortion (Jejeeboy, 1999).

The young women in many cases did not plan their pregnancies. All young women knew the name of some family planning methods, but none had actually used them. Often food taboos become common in the community for the young married and pregnant women, but there is no evidence that young women were given extra food or particularly the nutritious food during pregnancy. After delivery their workload actually increased, as they had to take care of the new child as well as do all the household works. (Chowdhury, 2003).

Husbands made the decisions whether their wives could seek care and mothers-in-law sometimes influenced these decisions; girls had neither decision-making nor influencing power. The desire for spacing between pregnancies was also widely felt by girls, husbands and mothers-in-law, but mothers-in-law were against the use of modern methods. (Barua and Kurz, 2001). The young married women were dependent on their husbands for social status and economic support. They had limited social contacts and supports in their marital home. During the early days of marriage, the newly married adolescent women and their husbands may have been under the authority of the husbands' parents and other older relatives, and thus had a relatively limited autonomy to make decisions about their personal lives (George, 2003).

In India, women especially adolescents do not enjoy the reproductive

rights as envisaged in the UN Declaration (4) which includes the selection of marriage partners, equal right to divorce in case they are not satisfied with their married life. As the educational level being low among them, most of the time they are not aware of family planning methods and even if they know, they do not have easy access to different health care services or fail to utilize them due to inhibitions or pressure to attain motherhood to satisfy their in-laws.

Further adolescent women, both married and unmarried, often lack even basic knowledge about STI/RTI, HIV/AIDS transmission and prevention measures and young married women are at highest risk. They are an isolated and neglected population, little is known about their reproductive and sexual health (RSH) needs, status and outcomes, and the policies and guidelines around provision of RSH services to adolescents remain silent.

The Cairo and Beijing Conferences have brought necessity of involving men as partner under sharp focus. According to the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) Plan of Action " Special efforts should be made to emphasize men's shared responsibility and promote active involvement in: responsible parenthood; sexual and reproductive behaviour including family planning; parental, maternal and child health; prevention of sexually transmitted diseases including HIV; prevention of unwanted and high risk pregnancies; shared control and contribution of family income, children's education' health and nutrition; recognition and promotion of the equal value of children of both sexes; male responsibilities in family life must be included in the education of children from the earliest ages; special emphasis should be placed on the prevention of violence against women and children" (Plan of Action, ICPD).

India has articulated its commitment to promoting and protecting the sexual and reproductive rights of adolescents and youths in several forums. The National Population Policy (2000), the National Youth Policy (2003), and the Reproductive and Child Health Programme (1997) are leading examples of the recognition that the sexual and reproductive rights of adolescents require urgent action. India has, in addition, reinforced this commitment in global forums as well. It has for example endorsed the ICPD and ICPD+5 Plans of Action and made a commitment to *"protect and promote the right of adolescents to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of health."* *(Programme of Action, ICPD+5(1999), paragraph 73a).*

The present paper investigates the extent of knowledge regarding RTI/STI, HIV/AIDS and prevalence of safe motherhood and use of family planning methods among the married adolescents. It is worth mentioning here that husbands are ignored or missing in most of the studies. Since they play the role of so-called "decision-maker" in a patriarchal society like India, it is reasonable to capture them in the study. Therefore an attempt has also been made to bring the husbands in the picture, especially regarding family planning method use, intention to use, preferred future method, waiting time for next child, sex preference for next child etc. The study deals with the state of Madhya Pradesh. It is important to mention here that the state has quite high adolescent fertility (80.5 per 1000 women), second highest in India (SRS 1998). The present paper uses the dataset of District Level Household Survey (DLHS) under the Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) project, round 2, phase I conducted in 2002-03. In District level Household Survey (DLHS) every women who delivered at least one child in the preceding three years of survey was asked about the type of antenatal care and place of delivery. The full ANC was defined as at least one TT injection, 100 plus IFA tablets and at least three ANC visits in RCH 2. Safe delivery was defined as either institutional delivery or home delivery assisted by either Doctor or Nurse or Trained Birth Attendant. Besides questions regarding their knowledge about RTI/STI and HIV/AIDS have also asked. So far, no study has been carried out in India, which focuses on couples. This might be because of the non-availability of data on couples. The National Family Health Survey I and II did not include husbands as respondents. For the first time data on couples was collected in District Level Household Survey conducted in 2002. For the first time in India data was simultaneously collected from the husbands in such a large-scale survey. So, the data on couples from the survey has been analyzed and presented in the paper. To what extent couples agree with each other on fertility intentions, sex preference of the next child, and the intention to use family planning in future.

The present paper tries to investigate these questions in a demographically backward state of Madhya Pradesh. Madhya Pradesh is basically a patriarchal society and the various demographic parameters are not encouraging. To fulfill the objectives, frequency distributions and bivariate analysis have been used in the paper. The various variables used in the analysis are ethnicity, religion, wife's literacy, husband's literacy, place of residence, standard of living, age gap between the spouses, and marital duration.

Results and Discussion

The present analysis deals with 1702 adolescents belonging to the covered districts under RCH round II phase 1 in Madhya Pradesh. Among them 82 percent reside in rural areas and around 93 percent are Hindu. A major chunk of the population is from other backward caste, comprising about 41 percent of the population. More than half of the adolescents are in low SLI group. Surprisingly around 51 percent adolescent girls are found to be non-literate, though the level of education of their husband is relatively better. Regarding their age at consummation, 80 percent fall in the category of less than 18 years of age.

The knowledge and awareness regarding RTI/STI and HIV/AIDS among the adolescent women is poor. Only eleven percent had any knowledge regarding RTI/ STI and 27 percent women are aware about HIV/AIDS. Also it showed that over 17 percent of adolescent women have suffered from menstruation problem and 40percent have experienced any sort of RTI/STI. In addition around 10 percent of adolescent women have unpleasant incident of side effects and 8 percent had problem with current methods of contraception.

Looking at the safe motherhood parameters, it comes out that 72 percent adolescent has received any antenatal care. The situation regarding the full antenatal care is unsatisfactory. Only around 2 percent of them sought for full antenatal care. Although the situation regarding delivery care is not as bleak as full antenatal care, around 49 percent adolescents had safe delivery. Around 29 percent adolescent women had institutional delivery, whereas 70 percent had home delivery. Among all the births around 28 percent were attended by trained health personnel. Further it has come from the analysis that 14 percent women suffered from any pregnancy related problems, whereas it stood around 20 percent and 15percent for delivery and post delivery complications respectively.

From the bi variate analysis it is found that only 69 percent of the rural adolescent had received any antenatal care, while it is around 86 percent for the urban adolescents. Hindu adolescent women are less likely to accept any antenatal care than their non-Hindu counterpart, although the numbers of non-Hindu are very small in this analysis. Not much difference is found in receiving antenatal care among different ethnic groups. There is a positive association between standard of living and utilization of ANC. Around seventy

percent women whose age at consummation is below 18 years have taken any ANC, while it is around 88 percent for those who married above 18 years. Around 76 percent women whose marital duration is less than equal to two years are taking any ANC, in case of women with marital duration more than two years the percentage is 68. Around 66 percent women had avail ANC with age gap five years or less with their husbands, whereas it is around 75 percent for the couple with more age gap. As the number of children ever born increases, utilization of ANC decreases. Women who experienced any child loss are less likely to receive ANC than who did not and the percentages are 66 and 73 respectively. Seventy eight percent women with any pregnancy related problem, 73 percent women with any delivery complication and 72 percent with post delivery complication have gone for ANC.

The urbanites are in a better position with a percentage of 73 regarding safe delivery compare to their rural counterparts where the percentage is only 45. Women with higher caste and higher standard of living are performing higher level of safe delivery. As the level of education increases the incidence of safe delivery also increases. Forty percent women with two or more children had attained safe delivery, while it was around 52 percent for women with one or less than one child. Fifty-six percent women with marital duration two years performed safe delivery; the same is around 42 percent with longer marital duration. Around forty four percent women had performed safe delivery with age gap up to five years with their husband, while it stood at 53 percent for the women with more age gap. Women who suffered from any pregnancy related problem, delivery or post delivery complication delivered their children safely compare to those who did not face any difficulty. Interestingly 57 percent women who received any ANC performed safe delivery, while it is only around 29 percent for those who had not received any ANC.

We can see some interesting results when comparing the views of husbands and wives regarding family planning (current and future) method use, intention to use, desire for future child and their timings as well as the sex preference of the next child. It has come from the analysis that around seven percent women reported that they are sterilized but around 17 percent husband reported the same for their wives. Around 68 percent husband would like to use contraception in future, while it stood at only around 26 percent in case of wives. Regarding methods that they would suppose to use in future majority of women as well as their husbands report female

sterilization and their percentage placed at around 76 and 80 respectively. Almost all of them want more children. Further over 70 percent of them want the same within two years of the survey. It is also found that there exists son preference among the couple.

Constraints and Approaches for the Future

The main constraints before the policy makers and the Government are to:

1. raise the age at marriage
2. increase educational attainment
3. provide basic information and appropriate counseling regarding reproductive and child health care to all the pregnant women as well as mothers
4. offer a wide variety of contraception to the adolescents especially the spacing one
5. access to knowledge and safe, non-judgmental, and supportive clinical and counseling services
6. Overcome the existing socio-cultural norms.

It is really high time for looking towards the adolescents' reproductive health for the well being of the society as a whole. To do so the sensitization of relatives, adolescents and husbands is essential. It is required to involve male more and more regarding the issues of maternal and child health as they are the decision makers in family. In addition the community involvement is also preferred. Further one cannot deny the role of NGOs and self help groups in sensitizing the target population regarding age-appropriate health information; friendly and confidential counseling; safe RSH services; a point of referral for other information and services; and an acceptable and appropriate venue for further research on their RSH needs and outcomes. Proper and acceptable way of service care and quality of services should be provided to the community featuring their socio-cultural norms and economic condition. Therefore, the government with the help of Panchayats, NGOs and self-help groups, should implement proper and appropriate policy for the benefit of this neglected stratum of the population.

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Table-1

Percent distribution of women by their socio-economic and demographic characteristics

Background Characteristics		No. of Women	Percentage
Religion	Hindu	1584	93.1
	Others	118	6.9
Caste	SC	338	19.9
	ST	318	18.7
	OBC	700	41.2
	Others	346	20.3
Place of Residence	Rural	1402	82.4
	Urban	300	17.6
Standard of Living Index	Low	987	58.0
	Medium	518	30.4
	High	197	11.6
Education of Women	Illiterate	875	51.4
	Up to Secondary	724	42.5
	Secondary and Above	103	6.1
Education of Husband	Illiterate	499	29.3
	Up to Secondary	807	47.4
	Secondary and Above	396	23.3
Age at Consummation	Less than 18 years	1356	79.7
	More than 18 years	346	20.3
Children Ever Born	Up to 1	1549	91
	2 and above	153	9.0
Child Loss	No	1597	93.8
	Yes	105	6.2

Table - 2

Awareness of women regarding RTI/STI and HIV/AIDS by their background characteristics

	Awareness About			
	RTI/STI		HIV/AIDS	
	%	No.	%	No.
Place of Residence				
Rural	9.5	133	21.9	307
Urban	19.0	57	51.2	154
Religion of Women				
Hindu	10.8	171	25	396
Others	16.6	20	54.4	64
Caste of Women				
SC	7.2	24	22.6	77
ST	10.4	33	11.2	36
OBC	9.7	68	29.3	205
Others	18.7	65	41.4	143
Standard of Living				
Low	6.5	65	11.6	114
Medium	14.2	73	42.4	220
High	26.5	52	64.2	127
Education of Women				
Illiterate	7.1	62	11.8	103
Up to nine years	12.5	91	39	282
Ten and Above	36.1	37	72.8	75
Education of Husband				
Illiterate	7.5	38	10.5	52
Up to nine years	10.1	81	28.5	230
Ten and Above	18	71	45	178
Age at Consummation				
Below 18 years	9.3	127	22.2	302
18 years and Above	18.3	63	45.9	159

Table-3
Percentage of women according to ANC and prevalence of Safe Delivery

	Any ANC	Safe Delivery
Place of Residence		
Rural	69.2	44.9
Urban	86.6	73.2
Religion of Women		
Hindu	70.6	46.5
Others	85.7	81.1
Caste of Women		
SC	71.9	38.6
ST	61.2	34.7
OBC	74.1	55.5
Others	77.8	61.2
Standard of Living		
Low	62.3	38.8
Medium	85.6	58.8
High	100	97.5
Education of Women		
Illiterate	64.6	38.4
Up to nine years	83	65.2
Ten and Above	79.7	67.3
Education of Husband		
Illiterate	56.9	34.3
Up to nine years	77.8	57.4
Ten and Above	86.2	55.4
Age at Consummation		
Below 18 years	69.9	46.2
18 years and Above	88.1	74.4
Children Ever Born		
One or less Child	72.7	51.6
Two or more Children	68.1	39.9
Child Loss		
Yes	65.9	35.4
No	72.6	51.3
Pregnancy related problem		
Yes	77.8	53.2
No	67.9	46.3
Delivery Complications		
Yes	72.7	55.7
No	70.4	41.1
Post Delivery Complications		
Yes	72.1	50.3
No	71.3	47.9
Any Antenatal Care		
Yes		56.9
No		29.1

Table-4

Percentage distribution of wives and husbands by their reproductive preferences

	Wife	Husband
Currently Using any method	7.4 (42)	10.8 (77)
Type of Method Use		
Female Sterilization	6.9 (3)	17.2 (13)
Condom	49.7 (21)	48.7 (38)
Others	43.4 (18)	34.1 (26)
Intention to Use in Future	25.5 (171)	67.6 (425)
Preferred Future Methods		
Female Sterilization	76.5 (131)	80.1 (352)
Condom	3.0 (5)	7.0 (31)
Others	20.5 (35)	12.9 (56)
Desire for Future Child	89.3 (454)	94.8 (599)
Preferred Sex for Next Child		
Boy	37.8 (182)	35.6 (215)
Girl	7.7 (37)	6.8 (41)
Want Child Within 2 yrs	75.0 (360)	70.7 (438)

Dynamics of Consumer Protection Legal System in Kerala

P.Gopinadhan Pillai

Kerala, a small state in South India has achieved exemplary development levels. Keralites, in general, are literate, remarkably healthy, enjoy fairly good standard of living thanks to easy availability and accessibility of facilities and amenities. The State depends mainly on the incomes generated through plantation crops, coconuts and tapioca, tourism and remittances from its people working abroad. The State's GDP is at $ 48.630 billion. Keralites form only 3% of India's population – 31.84 million (2001 Census). But the State consumes about 15% of the retail goods produced in India. That is the power of the Kerala retail market, one that totals up to Rs. 36,000 crore. In the Economic Review of the State Planning Board, it is estimated that about 22% of the State's Gross Domestic Product comes from the commercial sector, a major chunk of which is from the retail industry. Not surprisingly, Kerala tops in per capita consumption. A National Sample Survey shows that Kerala overtook Punjab in this respect in 1999 and it has stayed there since.

It is estimated that the textile retail in Kerala is around Rs. 5000 crore per year, of which roughly 40% of sales takes place during Onam festival. However, the fastest growing retail sector, with an average 25% increase annually is gold. It is estimated that close to 800 tonnes of gold is annually sold in India and about 15% of this takes place in Kerala. There are about 8000 registered gold shops dotting the length and breadth of the State and they sell more than Rs. 15,000 crore worth of gold every year.

There are other figures, that make Kerala the favourite of breweries in India. The per capita liquor consumption of the State is 8.3 litres which is equal to that of the United States and higher than that of Poland (8.1 litres) and Italy (8 litres). According to a report in The Hindu, Kerala tops the list of states with the highest rate of per capita consumption of alcohol. In the first financial quarter of 2010, Keralites spent Rs. 2019.38 crore on liquor. The amount spent on spurious liquor is unknown.

Another indicator of Keralite's conspicuous consumption is the highest individual ownership of vehicles in India after Delhi. About 4 lakh vehicles including more than 100 Mercedes Benz cars are sold here every year. Even where fast moving consumer goods are concerned, the figures are staggering. About 15% of Hindustan Lever's sales is in Kerala. Because of such success, many products are actually test-marketed in the State before distribution elsewhere in the country. (Stark World: Kerala, 2005). The oft repeated theory is: "if it is a success in Kerala, it will be so all over India". (Stark World: Kerala, 2005)

Since Kerala is a confirmed consumer state, goods are brought here from other states in India and from foreign countries. Hence, the people of the State are vulnerable to exploitation: adulteration of food, spurious drugs, dubious hire-purchase plans, high prices, poor quality, deficient after-sales services, deceptive advertisements, hazardous products, black marketing and many more. The adage, "Consumer is sovereign" and "Customer is the king" are nothing more than myths in the present scenario of market-driven economy.

Consumerism in Kerala

In spite of these developments, consumerism is still in its infancy in our country. Consumer awareness of their rights is low due to the apathy and lack of education among the masses. No one has told them about their rights – to be informed about product quality, price, protection against unsafe products, access to variety of goods at competitive prices etc. The consumer is the focal point of any business. But these very consumers are under constant threat of being exploited by the manufacturer, middlemen and the seller. There are various forms of exploitation and some of the most common ones are:

- Not being given the money's worth of goods or services
- Poor quality – less than the standard quality prescribed
- Underweight
- Lack of durability
- Outdated products (eg: medicines, food products)
- Products in disrepair
- Duplicate products
- Adulteration

■   If a complaint is raised, the trader/company does not replace it saying, "Goods once sold will not be taken back."

Accountability-Consciousness of the Business Community

Bulk quantity of goods and services are produced for the use of customers. While the purpose of any business is to serve society, activities that are harmful to any part of society cannot be tolerated. Therefore, the business community should not ignore their social responsibility which "means intelligent and objective concern for the welfare of society that restrains individual and corporate behaviour from ultimately destructive activities...." (Kenneth Andrews) In the words of Milton Friedman, "there is one and only social responsibility of business. To use its resources and engage in activities designed to increase its profits so long as it stays within the rules of the game, which is to say, engage in open and free competition, without deception and fraud." This means, they must charge reasonable price that is consistent with quality and quantity, conducting the sale through courteous and friendly customer service. After the sale is completed, channels must be laid for enabling customer feedback and effective complaint redressal mechanisms.

Business should give importance to ethics while serving the customers. Ethics implies a set of generally accepted and practiced standards of personal conduct. It is something more than the requirement of law. It is self-imposed and calls for voluntary actions which emphasize fairness with the stakeholders – customers, employees, shareholders, government, competitors, suppliers, creditors and society at large and finally to themselves as owners. Unfair trade practices ignore all forms of ethics, social and human values and therefore, must be avoided.

Most often, among the business community, personal interests takes precedence over business interests, leading to strong focus on profit-making rather than the welfare of the consumer and the society at large. This has its implications on the economy of the nation. Even when flaws in the business system are detected, the scattered and unorganized consumers are generally incapable of taking any fruitful action against the well-organized and powerful business community.

In this context, consumer protection has assumed greater importance ...ance. Consumers' satisfaction will benefit business. Hence,

consumer protection measures should not be considered as consumers' "war against business". It is a collective-consciousness on the part of consumers, business, government and the civil society to enhance consumers' satisfaction and social welfare, which will, in turn, benefit all of them and finally make society a better place to live in.

Role of the Government

Obviously, the government has a primary responsibility to protect consumers' interests and rights through appropriate policy measures, legal structure and administrative framework. Accordingly, the Govt. of India brought out the Consumer Protection Act in 1986 which is a milestone in the history of socio-economic legislation in India. It aims at providing an informal, inexpensive and expeditious justice to the consumers who are aggrieved by defects in goods or deficiency in services.

As per the provisions of the Act, the State of Kerala has established Consumer Protection Forums in all the 14 districts and a state level Commission in Trivandrum. It is a well-established set-up and is active. Among the key personnel active in the legal process namely, the judicial officers, advocates, traders, manufacturers, service providers and the complainant customers, it is the President and the Members of the Commission/Forums (C/F) who analyses the facts and figures presented by both the parties and their counsels, lead the judicial process and finally bring out the verdict. And, as we know, the verdict is expected to reveal the sense of justice and the accountability-consciousness of the judicial officer.

Objectives and Design of the Study

In any project management, especially by governmental organizations, responsibilities of the officers concerned are more or less clearly defined and provided with adequate resources – human, material, financial and infrastructural facilities so that their performance would be satisfactory. But there won't be any reference to their accountability to the stakeholders or to the government or to the funding agency.

Here lies the lacuna. Responsibility and Authority minus Accountability is a sure step towards mis-management or non-management and failures. This is true of a large number of the schemes currently in operation in our country.

Overall Objective

On the basis of this premise, the overall objective of this study is to assess the accountability-consciousness among the key personnel involved in the present consumer protection system in Kerala, envisaged through the Consumer Protection Act of 1986.

The key personnel include:

1.   Commissioner and Members at the State level
2.   Presidents and Members of the District Forums
3.   Advocates who practice at these institutions
4.   Consumer complaints (CC) and
5.   the community of manufacturers, traders and service providers (MTSP)

Specific Objectives

1.   To understand the dynamics of the functioning of the State Commission and the District Forums in respect of their declared vision and mission

2.   To critically examine the roles played by advocates in the consumer protection set-up in Kerala and their accountability-consciousness

3.   To know the view-points of consumer complaints and their opposite parties regarding the services rendered by the Commission and the Forums.

4.   To formulate an action-plan to strengthen further the service-delivery capacity of these institutions

Sampling Design

The overall design is stratified simple random sampling. Respondents were selected according to their work experience with State Commission/ Consumer Dispute Redressal Forums and their availability and accessibility. Those who were reluctant to open up and communicate freely with our investigators and those who were too much preoccupied with their official work were left out.

District Forum: Structure

District Forum
(President+2 Members)

Advocates	Customer complainant	Traders/Service providers
(8-10)	(5-7)	(5-7)
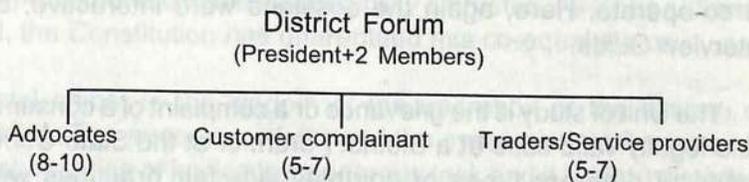
Selection of Samples

The universe (or population) selected for the study is heterogeneous: there are four categories of samples and hence, stratification is based on each category as shown below:

The study team could collect data through interactive sessions and questionnaires from 14 Members and 7 Presiding Officers of the 7/14 District Forums of Trivandrum, Kollam, Kottayam, Ernakulam, Palakkad, Thrissur and Kozhikkode (Census method) and 4 more from other districts (25), selected purposively on account of their subject knowledge and work experience in judiciary.

150 questionnaires were distributed among the advocates who regularly practice at the 7 District Forums and the State Commission in Trivandrum. In spite of several visits, our study team could collect only 68 filled-up questionnaires. Out of this 8 were found to be incomplete and defective. Hence, the remaining 60 were accepted for analysis. It was simple, random sampling based on their availability and willingness to fill up the questionnaires.

30 respondents from among the complainants at the 7 District Forums were randomly selected on the basis of their experiences in the conduct of the cases at the Forums and their willingness to respond to the questions. An Interview Guide was used in order to make the data collection process descriptive and interactive. More numbers are not required because the analysis of their responses is purely qualitative.

The number of traders and service providers (who were involved in disputes as "opposite parties" at the Forums) contacted was 30. The

selection was simple random sampling, depending upon their willingness to co-operate. Here, again the sessions were interactive, based on an Interview Guide.

The Unit of study is the grievance or a complaint of a consumer registered as a legally valid case at a District Forum or at the State Commission. 29 cases of different types of complaints/unfair practices were selected purposively. Analysis of the orders (verdicts) can help the investigators to assess the level of the accountability-consciousness of the Presiding Officers and the Members.

Tools of Data Collection

1. Questionnaire for the Presidents and Members of the State Commission and the District Forums. Content validation of the questionnaire was done by a group of Judicial Officers and senior advocates.
2. Questionnaire for the advocates who practice at the State Commission and the District Forums. Content validation of the questionnaire was done by a group of Judicial Officers and senior advocates.
3. Interview Guide for interactive sessions with the complainant consumers.
4. Interview Guide for interactive sessions with the Traders/Service providers who stood as the accused.

Theoretical Background of the Study

"The nation expects from the superior judicial officers, the wisdom of Solomon, the courage of David, the strength of Samson, the patience of Job, the leadership of Moses, the kindness of Good Samaritan, the strategic training of Alexander, the diplomacy of Lincoln and the tolerance of the Carpenter of Nazareth and the intimate knowledge of every branch of natural, biological and social sciences"...

-Justice A. Pasayat

The three major concepts of administration are: Responsibility in respect of a task, Authority - that is, functional autonomy (independence) and the legal power to get things done through others and Accountability- an obligation and commitment to the primary stakeholders. All these are governed by the

co-equal principle i.e. the quantum of authority and accountability should be sufficient and proportionate to the responsibility entrusted. As far as judiciary is concerned, the Constitution has guaranteed this co-equal status.

The judicial officer is the kingpin of the operation of the system of delivering justice. The success or failure of the system primarily depends upon him. Dispensation of justice is an onerous task and it is often distorted by a host of personal, familial, socio-economic, administrative and political factors. Still, justice for all has to be ensured, more so in a pluralistic, democratic society. According to Justice Michael Kirby of the High Court of Australia, "In a pluralistic society, judges are the essential equalizers. They serve no majority; nor any minority either. Their duty is to the law and to justice. They do not bend the knee to governments, to particular religions', to the military, to money, to tabloid media or the screaming mob. In upholding law and justice, judges have a vital function in a pluralist society to make sure that diversity is respected and the rights of all protected."

Judicial independence – Views Emerging from Supreme Court Judgments

The Supreme Court has constantly reminded us the importance of the concept of independence of judiciary. Justice V.R. Krishna Iyer characterized this concept as a "constitutional religion". Justice Chandrachud said that the independence of judiciary is the "cardinal feature" and observed that the "judiciary" which is to act as a bastion of the rights and freedom of the people is given certain constitutional guarantees to safeguard the independence of judiciary."(UOI v. H. Seth 1978 1 SCR 423). Justice Bhagwati in the same judgment observed that the independence of judiciary is a fighting faith of our Constitution (Ibid at 433).

In the S.P. Gupta v UOI, Justice Bhagwati observed:

"The concept of independence of judiciary is a noble concept which inspires the constitutional scheme and constitutes the foundation on which rests the edifice of our democratic polity. If there is one principle which runs through the entire fabric of the Constitution, it is the principle of the Rule of Law and under the Constitution, it is the judiciary which is entrusted with the task of keeping every organ of the State within the limits of the law and thereby, making the Rule of Law meaningful and effective. But it is necessary to remind ourselves that the concept of independence of the judiciary is not

limited only to independence from executive pressure or influence and that it is a much wider concept which takes within its sweep, independence from many other pressures and prejudices."

Furthermore, he has observed that, "Judges should be of stern stuff and tough fibre, unbending before power, economic or political, and they must uphold the core principle of the Rule of Law which says, "Be you be ever so high, the law is above you". This is the principle of independence of the judiciary, which is vital for the establishment of real participatory democracy, maintenance of the Rule of Law as a dynamic concept and delivery of social justice to the vulnerable sections of the community. It is this principle of independence of the judiciary which we must keep in mind while interpreting the relevant provisions of the Constitution. (AIR 1982 SC 149,198)

Justice Fazil Ali in his judgment in Gupta's case held that the independence of judiciary is doubtless a basic structure of the Constitution, but the said concept of independence has to be confined within the four corners of the Constitution and cannot go beyond the Constitution (Ibid at 199).

Question of Accountability

The concept, "Accountable" is defined in the Oxford Dictionary as "responsible for your own decisions or actions and expected to explain them when you are asked". In everyday terms, accountability is simply the ability to hold an individual or institution responsible for its actions. Accountability must be comprehensive to include not only the politicians, but also the bureaucrats, judges and everyone invested with power. Power and position in a democracy is depicted as attendant with responsibility and every incumbent of a public office must remain constantly accountable to the people who are the repository of political sovereignty. Accountability means the state of being responsible or answerable (Blacks Law Dictionary 18(5th ed., 1979). It also means to be subjected to having report, (Websters Encyclopedic Unabridged Dictionary of the English language 10. (Grammercy Publication) (1994), explain or justify its actions (The Law Lexican 18 (Wadhwa and Company, 1987).

Judicial Accountability

According to Justice A. Pasayat, "I always feel (that) the accountability

concept has three stages. First, each member of the judiciary has the accountability to himself. He has to do a soul searching and self-introspection. He has to convince himself that what he has done is morally and more importantly, legally correct, and his decision is not dictated by any extraneous consideration". As Lord Donaldson, the former English Master of Rolls has said, "Judges are without constituency and answerable to no one except to their conscience and the law". The second stage of accountability is the accountability of the individual to the institution. Here again, self-introspection and soul–searching plays a vital role. The individual has to ensure that what he has done would not bring disrespect or disrepute to the institution. On the contrary, even if it may not increase the respectability and credibility of the institution, it shall not diminish it. The institution cannot be segregated from the individuals. The credibility or lack of it would depend to a complete measure on the individuals. The third stage is the most important one. It is the accountability of the institution to the larger society. Indeed, judging is no longer an easy task.

To fulfill the various obligations of the judiciary, it is enabled to derive power from various sources. Many of the powers are derived from the basic document i.e. the Constitution itself, as much of the obligations are constitutional in nature. Some of the powers are assumed by the judiciary in order to realize multifarious social obligations and such usurpation is by and large has been acknowledged and accepted by society since the other limbs of the state especially the Executive have miserably failed to discharge their social obligations. Whatever may be the reason, whatever may be the source of power, the inescapable truth is that the judiciary, at present, enjoys wider and varied powers. Apart from its usual judicial power, every now and then, the judiciary exercises executive as well as legislative powers. Such powers are given to the judiciary not for personal aggrandizement of the judges but to sub-serve the constitutional purpose and to uphold the majesty of democracy. Obviously, in this context, the need for judicial accountability is felt more now than ever before, as the judiciary enjoys much power now than ever before.

The term "judicial accountability" is used to denote the manner in which judiciary justifies its decision making and it is not synonymous of control of power (1) Accountability of a judge is primary as he is the custodian of justice and has to justify his actions. He cannot escape by saying that he is a mere interpreter of legislation as the Judge himself sometimes legislates

(2). Primary accountability has to be discharged either through structural or logical accountability.

According to Benjamin N. Cardoza, (3) "It is true that the Judges use methods of reasoning which are distinctive and provide a fuller explanation for what they do than the decision-makers. But their decisions are invariably influenced by factors like inherited instincts, traditional beliefs, acquired convictions and resultant outlook of life which do not emanate from the process of reasoning itself".

The concept of independence of judiciary does not mean absolute rigid separation and the concept of accountability does not mean judicial subordination. Accountability implies a controlled system. Accountability and Independence must complement and supplement and sustain each other and are inseparable Judicial Accountability and Independence limit, harmonize and legitimize each other, balancing power with responsibility. In the era of transparency and accountability, the conceptual argument that judiciary should not be accountable because of its independence cannot stand. Constitutional democracy implies that the ultimate interpreter of the Constitution is not an autonomous one but an interactive one with understanding of the people, their representatives and Judges together. Judicial power and judicial pronouncement should be subjected to active but respectful scrutiny for their legitimacy as actions of political branch are subjected to. To have better understanding of accountability of judiciary, it is necessary to consider the international practices relating to judicial Independence and Accountability.

The scope of the Consumer Protection Act is widening in the society which is pro to globalization, industrialization and privatization. So the Legislature has taken all possible steps by making timely amendments to the Act in accordance with the needs of the time. In fact, all the amendments made to the Consumer Protection Act by the 2002 Amendments aim at furthering the efficiency of the Act and doing away with procedural delays which render the consumers disillusioned and dissatisfied. These Amendments have been fruitful in providing protection to the consumers in the real sense of the term and serves the purpose of the Act. It is hoped that further amendments would aim at even more efficiency and render the position of the consumers much stronger in this era of globalization and privatization where the sudden unchecked advent of Multi-National Companies has to be balanced with the protection of the rights of the consumers by the legislature and the judiciary.

Details of Cases Pending in the Kerala State Commission/District Fora for the Month of April 2012

Office/District		Cases Pending (at the beginning of the month)	Cases filed (during the month)	Cases disposed of (during the month)	No. of working days (during the month)	Arrears (at the end of the month)
CDRC	OP	198	04	06	21	196
	Appeal	764	75	85		754
	Total	962	79	91		950
CDRF	Trivandrum	867	36	40	21	863
	Kollam	570	41	33	22	578
	Pathanamthitta	149	19	20	-	148
	Alappuzha	185	30	27	-	188
	Kottayam	445	32	28	-	449
	Idukki	78	35	25	-	88
	Ernakulam	735	49	67	-	717
	Thrissur	2642	39	80	-	2601
	Palakkad	135	25	21	-	139
	Malappuram	227	22	13	-	236
	Kozhikod	589	40	35	-	594
	Wayanad	123	27	24	-	126
	Kannur	345	39	31	-	353
	Kasargod	278	35	25	-	288
	Total	7368	469	469		7368
Grand Total		8330	548	560		8318

Source: Secretary & Registrar (Kerala CDRC)

Consolidated Report on Disposal of District Consumer Disputes Redressal Fora for the Month of May, 2012

Sl. No	District Forum	Filed since inception on till the end of previous month	Disposed of since inception on till the end of previous month	Pending at the beginning of the month (3-4)	Filed during the month	Disposed during the month	Filed since inception (3+6)	Disposed of since inception (4+7)	Balance pending at the end of the month (8-9)	Percentage of disposals (9&8)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1	Trivandrum	13085	12222	863	31	39	13116	12261	855	93
2	Kollam	14869	14291	578	32	42	14901	14334	567	96
3	Pathanamthitta	7062	6934	148	14	28	7086	6963	133	98
4	Alappuzha	10388	10200	189	67	29	10455	10229	226	98
5	Kottayam	16568	16519	449	30	28	16598	16545	453	97
6	Idukki	7851	7763	88	18	21	7869	7784	85	99
7	Ernakulam	23447	22730	717	64	85	23511	22795	716	97
8	Thrissur	23662	25961	2601	46	81	23607	21042	2560	88
9	Palakkad	9320	9194	139	15	19	9338	9203	135	98
10	Malappuram	9174	8938	236	24	17	9198	8955	243	97
11	Kozhikkod	16563	16269	594	46	30	16911	16299	612	96
12	Wayanad	5924	5798	126	17	17	5941	5815	126	98
13	Kannur	11515	11162	353	23	33	11536	11195	343	97
14	Kasargod	6510	6222	288	55	53	6565	6275	293	96
	Total	169193	169193	7368	481	502	177042	169695	7347	98

Results and Discussion

The major results (findings) of analysis are listed and their implications for the functioning of the consumer protection institutions in the State are examined.

Accountability-Consciousness of P&Ms

Statistical assessment of AC of P&Ms is found to be high in the case of 9 and average in the case of 16/25. None in the "low" level category. There is clarity about their mission namely, to protect the interests of genuine complainants. An analysis of 29 and odd Orders (judgments) of C/F bear testimony to this observation. It is true that the P&Ms enjoy "independence" – free from external pressures. And transparency enhances accountability.

Accountability-Consciousness of Advocates

In the case of advocates, the AC score is low for 34 respondents and average for the rest, out of 60. In what way can we explain this finding? Perhaps Adv. Sri. CK. Mohandas of Kodungallur has an explanation: "Training is imperative but lawyers are a special category of professionals, unable to render service, based on high ideals." If one accepts this premise, practicing law is a profession sans ethical values and considerations. One argument put forward by Justice Sri. Udayabhanu is that there is an element of uncertainty and insecurity in respect of incomes and prosperity in a highly competitive court setting. In other words, one is compelled to take cases irrespective of their merits or demerits. Adv. Sri. Boris Paul more or less holds the same view when he said, "In general, it is the tendency of advocates to accept clients who approach them first and pays what they demand. Generally, they do not bother much about the merit or demerit – justice or injustice of the case in question. Furthermore, they feel accountable to the client and not to anything else. Obviously, one cannot blame them for their professional integrity and commitment." We cannot compel them to be faithful and accountable to the aggrieved consumer, in preference to the "accused" trader or service provider especially when the latter becomes a client.

Perhaps, this is the basic difference between the two roles of the profession of law – one is to be faithful to one's client irrespective of ethics or not and the other is expected to be impartial, justice-oriented and

conscious of his accountability to the genuine complainants. Some of the advocates seem to be not accountable even to their clients which are evident from frequent requests for adjournment of cases without any valid reasons.

Recruitment of Members

Regarding the present practice of recruitment of the Members of the Forums, there are complaints. CP Act Section 10 b stipulates that Members shall be "persons of ability, integrity and standing, and have adequate knowledge and experience of at least ten years in dealing with problems relating to economics, law, commerce, accountancy, industry, public affairs or administration." Yet, the political executives of the Government invariably select them on the basis of political considerations. As a result, persons who are misfit for the State Commission or the District Forums get appointments. They lack knowledge and experience in judicial work, relevant laws and judgments related to consumer protection and the complex dynamics of the judicial process so much so some of them are found to be passive witnesses of the proceedings of the Forums sans any knowledge-based contributions to the framing of the Orders. Of course, there are exceptions.

Delay

Delay in giving the verdict is one of the complaints frequently mentioned by the consumers. It causes frequent travels, payments to the advocate, loss of leave days (if the complainant is employed) and increase in the cost of litigation. Partly, the advocates are responsible; they request for frequent adjournments and the Presiding Officers often take a lenient attitude. Furthermore, some of the Members lack competency in framing appropriate verdicts. Consequently, the President has to spend time for guiding them.

Lack of Publicity

C/F is presently playing a very subdued, minimal role in promoting consumer education in the State. In fact, the common man including the traders and service providers at the lower level, do not have any inkling of the good work done by C/F partly due to lack of adequate publicity. A little bit of image-building is necessary. At present, Orders of C/F are available in the internet but, not easily accessible to the common man.

Power Vested in C/F

A few Presidents and senior advocates feel that the legal power, presently vested in C/F is not enough to carry out its responsibilities efficiently and effectively. They experience difficulty in getting their verdict accepted by some recalcitrant opposite parties and consequently, the consumers are compelled to file EP and are kept waiting. The P&Ms are busy with day-to-day "hearings" and writing Orders. Among the ministerial staff, no one is specifically designated as a functionary responsible for getting the verdicts executed promptly. In fact, this is one of the administrative **defects** of the consumer protection set-up in the State and not due to any lacuna in the CP Act. Section 24 and sub-sections 24.1, 24.2 & 24.3 vest adequate legal powers for handling effectively the "disobedient" opposite parties.

The Burden of Transferees

One of the functional difficulties experienced by C/F is the inappropriateness of the ministerial staff. As indicated earlier, they are on transfer from the Dept. of Civil Supplies of the State Government and novices in respect of judicial matters and its style of functioning. And, they remain untrained throughout their postings in C/F, until they return to the parent department. This is another congenital defect of C/F administration. The present man-power in terms of numbers and structure designed for C/F was done around 1990. But over the years, the number of cases seeking redressal has increased manifold resulting in huge backlog(8318 cases pending disposal at the end of April 2012)

Meanwhile, it is found, as on date (May 2012) that in several Forums, the post of Members remain vacant – Trivandrum, Pathanamthitta, Alappuzha and Wayanad.

Deterrent Effect

The consumer protection set-up in Kerala has been activated since 1990 and has a good track record of performance during the past twenty years, receiving and handling 176,561 complaints, which is really impressive. In this context, one pertinent question is whether the verdicts of most of these cases have any deterrent effect on the unfair business practices among

MTSPs. Nobody has any dependable answer except mere assumptions. In fact, this knowledge-gap warrants a detailed investigation.

Role of Advocates

It is absolutely necessary to keep the Commission and the Forums open to the complainants to argue their cases by themselves. But, the importance of the role played by advocates cannot be viewed any less. Some complainants, while presenting their cases have a tendency to cast unnecessary doubts on the integrity of the Forums. This creates much difficulty for the President in explaining to them everything in detail. It is very time-consuming. Still, some of the complainants do not get convinced. On the other hand, if lawyers are appearing, this aspect is very smooth and without any hassles. Further, in complicated issues especially in medical negligence cases, where the Hon'ble Supreme Court has opined to have oral evidence, (for) examination and cross-examination, the assistance of lawyers is absolutely necessary (Smt. CS. SulekhaBeevi, President of CDRF Malappuram and Sri. Siva Prasad, President of CDRF Trivandrum). Some consumers who conduct cross-examination by themselves ask very irrelevant and irritating questions and it becomes a strenuous task for the Presiding Officer to manage the time and the proceedings. Lawyers can and do sometimes make settlement of cases very easy. When parties appear directly, and in conflict with each other, the chances of settlement takes several rounds of talks. In general, the complainants expect inflated compensation. In sum, it is concluded that the advocates are an integral part of the dispute redressal system and their roles barring a few, is key to ensure the equity and accountability of the verdicts.

As per the provisions of CP Act, verdicts have to be arrived at within 90 days from the date of registration of the complaints (non-technical cases) and within 150 days where expert opinions have to be sought. The opposite party has to be given 30-days' time for responding to the complaint notices sent to them. The C/F have to give additional time for adducing evidences, if required by the parties. Also, in several cases, examination and cross-examination exercises have to be undertaken for generating the truth about the issues involved in the dispute. It is obvious that all these activities are time-consuming and one has to concede to the contention that the President or the Members cannot be blamed for any delay in framing the verdict.

However, there is a tendency among a section of the advocates to seek frequent adjournments of the hearings and some of the Presidents are lenient towards such requests. Furthermore, the ministerial staffs are also partly responsible in delays caused in their communication with the advocates and parties to the dispute. The fact of the matter is, there is delay.

Amicus Curiae

This is only an aid (legal) provided to the complainant who does not know the complex legal aspects of his/her complaint and hence, not in a position to effectively defend the case. In other words, he/she needs the assistance of a lawyer but financially not in a position to engage one. In such deserving cases, this facility is provided by the Commission. A legal aid fund is set-up specifically for this purpose from which the Commission provides the services of an advocate. It is found that this type of aid is provided only in a few cases.

CDRF and CDRC: Whether Informal or Formal

This issue was objectively examined by the study team and the view-points of Presidents and Members were solicited.

As per CP Act, CDRF and the Commissions including the State and the National are different from a civil court. But, by day-to-day decisions of the National Commission and the Hon'ble Supreme Court, CDRF and Commissions are nothing but "courts". It is necessary to give natural justice to both parties. In order to ensure this, the C/F is "compelled" to adopt more or less the procedures of the civil courts. Moreover, by the amendment of the CP Act in 2002, C/Fs have lost the jurisdiction to execute its own orders and judgments. The only available remedy at present is Sec. 25 and Sec. 27 of the Act. As per Sec. 25, if the complainant can produce certificates from the Village Officer and the Tahasildar concerned, giving the details of the properties of the opposite party, then C/F can pass orders for revenue recovery. The District Collector can be requested to initiate procedures in this respect.

As per Sec. 27, C/F has the power of the Judicial First class Magistrate and are empowered to convict and impose fine (3 years imprisonment and a fine uptoRs. 10,000/-) for the "disobedience" of the Order. All these

unequivocally confirm that C/F have intentionally or otherwise acquired the powers and the rigorousness and formality of a typical Civil Court. (Adv. Sri. M K Abdulla Sona, presently (July 2012) Acting President of Kerala State Commission)

However, it is found that C/F have consciously retained the informality and the consumer- friendliness expected of them by CP Act. The study team testifies the truth of this statement through direct observations of the proceedings of C/F several times, including the gestures, behaviours, attitude and language of Presidents, Members, Advocates and the ministerial staff. In other words, the disputants are deliberately put at ease and given "a feeling of importance."

In other words, structurally and functionally C/F is conceived as quasi-judicial. Going through the preamble and the various provisions of CP Act, one gets an impression that the Act is heavily biased in favour of the genuine consumer. And rightly so. Sections 24, sub-section 24.1, 24.2, 24.3, Section 25, Section 27 and sub-section 27.1, 27.2 &27.3 sub-section13.4, 13.5 &13.7 make C/F judicial with adequate legal power and formalities while key terms such as Commission, Forum, President, Members, Orders, complainant, opposite party and the right to present ones' grievance directly before the Forum without the assistance of an advocate etc. make it informal, consumer-friendly and cost-effective. The onerous responsibility of optimally exploiting the potentiality of the Act for the protection of genuine consumers against "business greed" vests with the key players of the redressal machinery, especially the President and the Members who are to arrive at the judgment. The state government should provide strong support, ensuring its judicial independence, **empowering** the judicial team with training and education and enriching its infrastructure facilities.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The "chemistry" of the judicial process in a court of law/Forum is obvious. In one sense, it is a dispute between the truth and the untruth. In another sense, in the setting of the consumer C/F, it is a dispute between two un-equals, where the MTSPs are the powerful ones with money power, asset power, man power and who could engage reputed lawyers to defend their interests and reputation. Obviously, the individual consumer-complainant is comparatively weak and "alone" and therefore, needs the special care and attention of the President and the Members (P&Ms) to get justice. The

concept "protection" included in the title of CP Act is the basic objective and responsibility of the key personnel in charge ofthe Commission and the Forums.

Hence, the study focuses on the **actual roles** played by the two key personnel in the protection system namely, the P&Ms and the advocates. An attempt is made to understand how these two perform in respect of the complainant. The inquiry is to find out to what extent they exercise their consciousness of social justice, equity and accountability in an environment that has given them functional freedom, power and resources.

The level of accountability found among the "judges" (P&Ms) is fairly satisfactory while the community of advocates need a little more consciousness of their accountability instead of being a partisan to their clients. A little bit of discretion between what is right and what is wrong, what is ethical and what is unethical is needed.

Recommendations

Recommendations are framed strictly on the basis of the data collected, analyzed and the results obtained. A few are concerned with amendments to the provisions of CP Act, some are in respect of the second stage of expansion of the present Dispute Redressal Institutions to the Taluk level and others in respect of **de-linking** the C/F from the Dept. of Civil Supplies for more administrative freedom. And the rest are about better infrastructural facilities, induction training for the Members, refresher programs for the seniors, techniques for the speedy disposal of complaints etc.

Accountability – Consciousness – (AC) of P&Ms

Statistical assessment of AC of P&Ms is high in the case of 9 and average in the case of 16/25. Those with average score could be elevated through mentoring by senior Presiding Officers slowly and steadily. For this to succeed, each Forum should have good team spirit with esprit de corps and work in tandem towards the common objective of providing a strong protective shield to the consumer against unfair practices whenever he buys something. The concepts of judicial independence, social justice and accountability should be included in the training modules. Ethics and values and humanitarianism should get emphasized in day-to-day work.

Accountability-Consciousness of Advocates

Computation of the level of accountability-consciousness (AC) among the 60 advocates reveal that it is average among 26 (43.3%) and low among 34 (56.7%). None with a high level score. The judges have to be objective, impartial and not committed to any one party, but the advocate cannot be impartial; has to be committed to his clients irrespective of the merit or demerit of the case. This is the nature of their profession.

The ideal role expected of an advocate is to help the judicial officers in understanding the basic issues involved in a dispute and the appropriate legal framework. He must help the jury dispense justice. In fact, a lawyer is not an agent of a client; but he is an officer of the court, to assist the court to arrive at the discharge of justice.

Induction Training

New Member recruits should be given induction training on their roles and responsibilities and the basics of consumer protection and its philosophy. Otherwise, they would remain as passive witnesses of the proceedings of the C/F and may not be able to contribute anything to the formulation of the Orders. In fact, they are expected to be on their own, handling cases independently and efficiently and frame Orders with the approval of the President. Obviously, this can substantially reduce delay in grievance redressal. Both the complainant and the opposite party will be happy.

Since the tenure of service of the Members is 5 years, Training Need Assessment exercise (TNA) could be undertaken by an expert and on the basis of his recommendations, refresher programmes may be arranged. The responsibility could be entrusted to the Judicial Academy in the State. The assumption is that the more competent C/F personnel are, the more confident the consumer public will have on the quality and justice of the services rendered.

Delay in Giving Verdict

As indicated earlier, there is delay in giving the verdict in several cases. The suggestions to reduce delay are:

- The workload of the President and the Members are on the increase, thanks to the good image and goodwill of the Commission and Forums among the consumer public. This workload has to be considerably reduced. One suggestion is that the Members should equip themselves with adequate knowledge and skills in handling the judicial process and write legally correct judgments so that they can considerably lessen the burden of the Presidents.

- On the basis of a study by an expert team, Taluk Forums could be set up in several districts with competent Members and handle cases of lower money value, thereby reducing the flow of cases to the Forums

- Frequent adjournments of hearings on flimsy excuses should not be allowed

- Streamline the functioning of the supporting staff so that delayed communications between the C/F and the advocates as well as the disputants can be avoided

- The Presidents have to be strict with the subject experts on medical and technical matters, so that they submit their reports without causing undue delay.

- According to P&Ms and advocates, there is delay in to and fro communication between C/F and the opposite parties, advocates, subject experts and the clients due to normal postal delays. The suggestion is that this delay could be considerably reduced if the e-mail system is formally introduced. The initial communication difficulties with complainants without e-mail facilities could be easily overcome through their advocates.

As per the provision in the CP Act, every complaint shall be heard as expeditiously as possible and endeavour shall be made to decide the complaint within a period of three months from the date of receipt of notice by opposite party where the complaint does not require analysis or testing of commodities and within five months if it requires analysis or testing of commodities. Provided that no adjournment shall be ordinarily granted by the District Forum unless sufficient cause is shown and the reasons for grant of adjournment have been recorded in writing by the Forum: Provided further that the District Forum shall make such orders as to the costs occasioned by the adjournment as may be provided in the regulations made under this Act.

Execution of the Verdict

If the party to the dispute, especially the consumer-complainant cannot get the Order executed without much delay and without any hassles, there is no point in filing complaints with the Commission or the Forum. The provisions for issuing arrest warrant under Cr.P.C. have to be boldly invoked in the case of "delinquent" opposite parties. The power vested by section 24 and sub-sections 24.1, 24.2, 24.3 and section 27 and sub-sections 27.1, 27.2 & 27.3 should be optimally utilized with discretion.

The Information Officer at the Forums should help the complainant in preparing the affidavit at the initial stage itself with the correct name and address of the opposite party who has the legal obligation to settle the grievance of the customer. Merely describing the opposite party as Manager, Proprietor, Principal or Messrs. X & Company Ltd. in the complaint petition will provide the loop-hole for the accused to escape the warrant.

Furthermore, the District Collector should ensure his full support to the police for getting the verdict accepted by the opposite party. From among the ministerial staff, a senior officer could be entrusted with the full responsibility of getting the Order executed at the earliest. In this context, the advocate concerned should also evince keen interest in the matter. Incidentally, it will be good, if the President/Member evinces interest in tracking the "fate" of his/her Order, which could be counted as his/her accountability to the complainant.

Adalat and Amicus Curiae

These have to be strengthened in order to reduce the cost of litigation, presently incurred by the complainants. The present policy seems to be that a day in a week is to be specially set apart for adalat. But, this is not being strictly adhered to in the Forums at present.

The State Commission occasionally provides amicus-curiae to deserving complainants but the number of such beneficiaries is very low. The suggestion is that these facilities have to be deliberately and optimally utilized both by the Commission and the District Forums so that the burden of cost and the duration of litigation and all the attendant difficulties could be reduced to the genuine but hapless complainants.

Consumer Education

The voluntary agencies and the school clubs focus, in general, on the Rights of the consumer and how he is being exploited by the MTSPs. They will also mention that the Forums are there to redress the grievances in case the consumer is cheated. But they spare the erring MTSPs who knowingly or unknowingly generate the grievances for their customers. The problem has to be tackled by addressing the MTSPs. They should be advised/compelled to adhere to the ethics and values of honest business. The message that "the seller should be accountable to the buyer" should be emphasized. In this context, it is suggested that the associations of manufacturers and traders such as the Chamber of Commerce, VyapariVyavasayiEkopanaSamithis, All India Manufacturers Association, the local Management Associations, and the Schools of Business Management should educate their members the objectives and provisions of the CP Act 1986 and their accountability to the consumers who really sustain their business.

Infrastructure

One of the topics for discussion raised by the Presiding Officers, Members, Advocates, ministerial staff and complainants is the deficiency felt in respect of the present infrastructural facilities in most of the Forums. The Hon'ble Minister in charge of Consumer Protection in the State may appoint an expert committee to assess the deficiencies and initiate appropriate measures. This is absolutely necessary for the effective functioning of the institutions. Adequate budgetary provision to meet the costs is necessary.

Not Transferees

This has been mentioned again and again by several key personnel of C/F. Those who get transferred to C/F from the State Dept. of Civil Supplies are found to be keen on returning to the parent department, the moment they perceive promotion chances or opportunities for transfer to their home town or village. Furthermore, they do not have any work experience in a court set-up and its style of functioning. Added to this, they are posted without giving any induction training on the subject of consumer protection and the modus operandi of C/F. In other words, they start working as novices and more or less continue to be so until they get transferred to the parent

department. Hence, the general dissatisfaction about this transfer system among the Presidents, Members and Advocates. They insist on having their own staff, who are well-trained in the day-to-day functioning of C/F and loyal to C/F and its obligations.

Monitoring and Review System

The need for such a live system in an organization, spread over in all the fourteen districts in the State, need not be emphasized. Regular upward communication regarding the activities, achievements, shortfalls, functional difficulties etc is necessary in a systematic manner so that correctives could be worked out by the authorities concerned at the top and communicated downwards for remedial action.

It is true that occasionally, the Hon'ble Minister in charge of C/F, convenes meetings of the key personnel for review. Such meetings do provide opportunities for sharing of information and work experience. But, this is not enough. Functional review exercise should be an in-built system of administration.

Concluding Remarks

As per the analysis, feasible recommendations are given, issue-wise. The authorities concerned can take note of them and initiate remedial action. The overall impression is that the consumer protection system symbolized by the State Commission and the District Forums are active and on the right track. Data indicate that they enjoy judicial independence– almost free from the external pressures and interference in handling cases, and also can write verdicts as per their perspectives and conscience. It functions as per the norms of a typical quasi-judicial institution – partly formal and partly informal. Hence, the consumer feels comfortable and relaxed and also can freely articulate his grievance and view-points. The "Bench" listens with attention and empathy.

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Social Determinants of Health and its Impact on Child Morbidity and Mortality

Samindra Pratap Singh
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The Alma-Ata Declaration and Conference as early as in 1978 acknowledged the role of social determinants when it mobilized a 'Primary Health Care Movement' of professionals, institutions, governments and civil society organizations and proposed to tackle the 'politically, socially and economically unacceptable' health inequalities in all countries. It emphasized that the Primary Health Care is the first level of contact of individuals, families and community with the national health system bringing health care as close as possible to where people live and work, and thus, constitutes the first element of a continuing health care process. Further, the Primary health care reflected and evolved from the economic conditions and socio-cultural and political characteristics of the country and its communities and is based on the application of the relevant results of social, biomedical and health services research and public health and experience. The Millennium Development Goals have also taken into consideration the socio-economic, health and development conditions. Health has been represented in three of the eight goals and thus makes an important contribution to achievement of other goals (WHO, 2005).The MDGs reflect the notion that the socio-economic development of the area affects the community, which in turn affects health.

Social Determinants of Health

The public health specialists have also been giving growing attention to the social determinants of health. The social determinants of the health are the conditions in which people live, grow, work and age, including health care delivery system prevailing in the society (Raphael, 2008). They are the primary determinants of whether individuals stay healthy or become ill (a narrow definition of health). Social determinants of health also determine the extent to which a person possesses the physical, social, and personal resources to identify and achieve personal aspirations, satisfy needs, and cope with the environment (a broader definition of health). The social

determinants of health are "about the quantity and quality of a variety of resources that a society makes available to its members" (Raphael, 2008). They are the economic and social conditions that shape the health of individuals, communities, and jurisdictions as a whole. The social and economic conditions that shape the health are: level of education, occupation, family income, and cultural pattern in the society, taboos, and health seeking behaviour, which in turn depend upon rural – urban setting, development of district, state and nation (Mikkonen et al, 2010).

It has been highlighted in the Social Determinants of Health- the Solid Facts (WHO, 2003) that the health policy which was once thought to be about little more than the provision and funding of medical care; the social determinants of health were discussed only among the academics. This proposition is now changing, as it is being realized that while medical care can prolong survival and improve prognosis after some serious diseases, more important for the health of the population as a whole are the social and economic conditions that make people ill and in need of medical care in the first place. Nevertheless, universal access to medical care is clearly one of the social determinants of health. Health Policies must tackle the economic and social determinants of health.

Social Determinants of Health and its Influence

Researchers are increasingly exploring the mechanisms by which the socio-economic status (SES) exerts an influence on health. There are multiple pathways by which SES determines health; a comprehensive analysis must include macroeconomic contexts and social factors as well as more immediate social environments, individual psychological and behavioral factors, and biological predispositions and processes (Adler 1999). The health of the poor, the social gradient in health, and the marked health inequities between countries are caused by the unequal distribution of power, income, goods, and services, globally and nationally, the consequent unfairness in the immediate, visible circumstances of people's lives –their access to health care, schools, and education, their conditions of work and leisure, their homes, communities, towns, or cities –and their chances of leading a flourishing life. This unequal distribution of health-damaging experiences is not in any sense a 'natural' phenomenon....Together, the structural determinants and conditions of daily life constitute the social determinants of health"(WHO,2008). "The kind of committees that we develop is a more important determinant of the health status of the population

than the kind of health care system we construct (Vancouver Island Health Authority, 2006)". Poor people have high morbidity. They are more likely to admitted to hospital and stay longer and spend more out of pocket expenditure for health related aspects.

Many explanations have been coined; offering different views relate it to the unequal distribution of the social and economic determinants such as income, employment, education, housing and environment inequities (Graham, 2000).

Social Determinants and Health Impact among Children in the Indian Context

India is land of diversity and hence a great variation exists in the levels of morbidity, mortality, levels of socio-economic development, and also in the functioning of health care programmes. Infant and Child morbidity and mortality is determined by both the biological endowment of children at birth and their environment after birth. Children under five years of age which constitute approximately 15% of the country's total population are the most vulnerable section of the society and suffer from highest morbidity. First few years of life are the most crucial period of life as this age is known for accelerated growth and development, which demands regular monitoring. During this period about 40% of physical growth and 80% of mental development occurs (Gupta et al, 2012). Any adverse influences during this period results in severe limitations in their development. This age group is most affected by various common and easily treatable illnesses. Three in four episodes of childhood illness are caused by one of these conditions-acute respiratory infections (mostly pneumonia), diarrhea, measles, malaria, malnutrition or a combination of these conditions (IMCI Information). It is in this context that the role of social determinants gets highlighted in terms of factors such as access to various types of health services, an individual's life style choices, personal nutrition, family and social relationship (XII Five Year Plan, GoI).

The National Health policy of India emphasizes the government's commitment to improve the health status of this most vulnerable group of the society, i.e. the infants and young children. The national target was to reduce the infant mortality rate to below thirty by the year 2010 (MOHFW, 2001-02). Over the last two decades the health scenario in India has improved substantially, with infant mortality figures going down from 119 in 1981 to 70

in 2000. However, it is still far short of the desired target (Chakrabarti, 2012). The Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) i.e. death of children before age one year per 1000 live births, is a sensitive indicator of the health and nutritional status of the population. IMR fell by 5 percent per year over the 2006-11 periods, an improvement over the 3 percent decline per year in preceding five years, but short of the target of 28. A number of child survival strategies implemented by GOI have resulted in impressive improvement in morbidity and mortality indicators. To bridge this gap, one first needs to understand what ails the young and how do socio-economic conditions affect these.

There is a clear correlation between adequate & poor quality of water and sanitation on health. Water related illness accounted for almost a third of all morbidity in year 2001, among adults and almost two-thirds of all morbidity among children (Karan et al, 2002). Globally, three major causes of death of children under-five years are Neonatal causes (40 percent), Acute respiratory Infections (14 percent), and Diarrhoea (10 percent) (Denno, 2013). This is also true for India where around 1.7 million children died before reaching the age of 5 years in 2010, and more than half of them (52 %) died in the first month of life. The major causes of deaths were pneumonia (24 %), prematurity (20 %) and diarrhea (13 %) (WHO, 2010).

Parental / Mother's Education

Parental education, particularly mother's education has a very decisive role in terms of her child's health. The percentage of children who are severely underweight is almost five times as high for children whose mothers' have no education as for children whose mothers' have 12 or more years of education (NFHS-3). Mother's education has a positive association with child's health because of a number of reasons. An educated mother has more chances of enhanced information available to the mother by increasing her exposure to the outside world. It empowers her by promoting financial independence or emotional independence or both and thus influences her decision making capacity in all aspects the pre-natal care, health seeking behavior for self and the child, availing immunization services and so on.

Household Economic Status

Household's economic status was also found to have a significant impact on the well-being of family (Adler 2008). There is a strong protective effect of income on mortality and the social and economic structure of the child's

family, the household's environment. Children's health is positively related to household income, and that the relationship between household income and children's health status becomes more pronounced as children grow older. This relationship can be explained by the impact of chronic health conditions during childhood. Children from lower-income households with chronic health conditions have worse health than do children from higher-income households. Case et al (2002) found that children's health is closely associated with long-run average household income, and that the adverse health effects of lower permanent income accumulate over children's lives. These children arrive at the doorstep of adulthood with lower health status and lower educational attainment - the latter, in part, as a consequence of poor health.

Economic Status (as measured by Standard of Living Index or SLI)

Between 1981 and 2005, under-five mortality levels and its components have declined across all economic groups, as defined by the Standard of Living Index (SLI). The decline among Low SLI households has been the highest (37.7%), while High SLI households have shown the least decline. This is a very positive trend which indicates that the gap between rich and poor is narrowing throughout the years (NIMS, ICMR and UNICEF, 2012).

Nutritional Aspects

Nutritional status of under-five children in particular is often considered as one of the most important indicator of a household's living standard and also an important determinant of child survival. In this regard, the household's economic status was also found to have a significant impact on the well-being of the child. One of the means through which higher income induces better health is by improving nourishment of the children (Duraisamy 2001). Specifically programmes, such as Integrated Management of Neonatal & Childhood Illnesses (IMNCI), Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS), Rashtriya Bal Swasthya Karyakarm (RBSK), have stressed amongst other things, the need to educate the mother on infant feeding practices to counter malnutrition and hence reduce morbidity, disability and mortality. All of these measures decrease steadily with an increase in the wealth index of the house hold. Children from the households with low standard of living are twice as likely to be under nourished as children from households with a high standard of living (NFHS-3).

Safe Water and Environment

Provisions of safe water, sanitation and clean environment have also been hypothesized to have an impact on the health status of the child. The differentials rates of disease by socio-economic variables is largely due to differences in child care practices, such as preparation of weaning foods, boiling of drinking water, or personal hygiene (Philip C Calder, 2000) observed poor environmental hygiene and insanitary conditions under which the feeds are prepared, stored and fed to the infant inevitably lead to increased morbidity due to infections. No doubt, the gastroenteritis and respiratory infections become the leading cause of morbidity, the later also responsible for the largest number of deaths, coupled with late arrival at the facility.

Social Groups

While analyzing the social groups, the Children born in SC and ST families have higher risk of dying than others. The risk is higher for children born in scheduled tribe (ST) families as compared to scheduled caste (SC). For example, a child born to an SC family has 13% higher risk of dying in the neonatal period and 18% higher risk of dying in the post-neonatal period, as compared to others. Similarly, a child born to an ST family has 19% higher risk of dying in the neonatal period and 45% risk of dying in the post-neonatal period (UNICEF Fact Sheet). NFHS-3 also found a complete lack of treatment for diarrhea for over a third of respondents from the Scheduled Tribes (36.3 %) as compared to 27.6 % among Scheduled Castes, 28.2 % among Other backward classes, and a less than a quarter among the rest of Indian population (23.8 %). This data calls for appropriate remedial measures to address the socio-cultural factors in seeking health care as well as to provide financial support and assistance for the deprived and vulnerable sections of the society.

What can be done?

Education of the Girl Child

NFHS-3 data has once again focused that woman with greater educational qualification and also higher decision-making power within the household exhibited greater willingness toward health care usage for her sick child. The infant mortality rate is 70 for children whose mothers have no schooling; compared with 50 for children whose mothers have 5-7 years

of schooling and 26 for children whose mothers have 12 or more years of schooling. Mother's schooling has a greater effect on the mortality of older children. During the neonatal period, children of mothers with 12 or more years of school have a mortality rate that is 43 percent as high as the rate for children of mothers with no education. That percentage decreases to 26 percent during the post-neonatal period and 15 percent during the age interval 1-4 years. Hence education of the women should be one of the priorities. There is a drop out after class X. Hence, education related to nutritional aspects, maternal and child health could be discussed during the secondary classes.

Socioeconomic Status

The socio- economic status of household have significant role in nutritional status of children. Implementation of poverty reduction strategies and programs could also serve as a long-term solution to the problem. Better economic position of a household can improve the sanitary condition of a household. Increased availability of uncontaminated drinking water and personal hygiene can play a major role to protect child from diarrheal infection. Similarly better economic status of a household improves nutritional status of child and it can also protect him from diarrheal disease. The NFHS-3 data clearly reveals that children who belong to households from the poorest SES quintile have higher prevalence of worse nutritional status. While, on the contrary the children hailing from richest asset quintile households are associated with better nutritional status. The finding is supportive of many earlier observations made based on NFHS-2 data; (Kanjilal, 2010). Malnutrition and poverty need to be addressed as they are the closest predictors of overall social economic disparities and affecting the health. Rigorous monitoring of the schemes such as Mid-day meals in the schools is the need of the hour.

Environmental Factors

Safe water is one of the key requirements for reducing the incidents of diarrhoea. Therefore, an access to piped water has been established to significantly reduce the frequency and duration of the diarrhea.

Increased access to a minimum package of essential services that would significantly reduce high infant mortality rates

Reproductive health services; prenatal care; improved breastfeeding practices; immunization; home-based treatment of diarrhea; and timely introduction of supplementary foods. Better food, clothing, more space, more leisure and better sanitary conditions will produce lower probabilities of dying in any environment. Infant mortality is largely caused by bio-familial factors and childhood mortality mostly by environmental factors (McMichael et al 2003).

Antenatal Care

The ante-natal care has to be stressed and health workers need to be trained to provide support including early registration for birth for institutional deliveries.

Neonatal Care

As suggested above, there appears a striking imbalance in neonatal morbidity and mortality. Promotion of newborn care through local workers is important as they know the social practice to the best.

Impact of Mother's Nutritional intake with the Health Status of her Child

As highlighted, many studies have emphasized the relationship between "maternal diet and nutrition during pregnancy to directly affect birth weight and, during lactation to influence the quantity and nutrient quality of breast milk" (Mosely et al. 1985; Duraisamy, P. 2001). Under nutrition is much more common for children of mothers whose body mass index is below 18.5 than for children whose mothers are nor underweight. The consumption of foods rich in Vitamin-A generally increases with age of child, the mother's education and the wealth index of the household (NFHS-3). Similarly, the percentage of children living in households that use adequately iodinised salt rises sharply with mother's education & wealth index of the household. Health education on these issues is significant.

Counselling of Mothers who are Breast Feeding

There is an urgent need to educate the mothers on infant feeding practices to counter malnutrition and hence reduce morbidity, disability and mortality. The age group of 6 months onwards is extremely vulnerable for development and also to lay the foundation for malnutrition resulting in decreased immunity

for later years also. Therefore, the health workers need to be trained to offer counseling to those mothers where the breast milk is not enough to meet the nutritional needs of the child, and to suggest what complementary food should be added to the diet. The findings from the second round of NFHS show that complementary feeding is delayed for a majority of the Indian children. Only thirty two percent of children over the age of seven months eat solid and mushy food and the proportion continues to be less than half even for nine-month-old infants. Interestingly, children in this vulnerable age group of 6 to 23 months were found to be more likely than others to have ARI or Diarrhea (NFHS-3).

The XII Five Year Plan by the Government of India has suggested an inclusive agenda for health i.e. to ensure that special attention is provided to the marginalized sections of the population. It implies that proper action needs to be taken to ensure that barrier to access are recognized and addressed especially for the disadvantaged & people located far from facilities.

Further the report of the Universal Health Coverage (UHC) by the Government of India emphasized that Universal Health Coverage (UHC) will be difficult to attain & sustain without action on the wider determinants of health. The social determinants have to be addressed through formation of National Health Promotion & Promotion Trust along with dedicated social determinants committees at district, state & national levels (GoI, 2011). These committees and trusts should be monitored through development & implementation of Comprehensive National Health Equity Surveillance Framework (Jindal, 2014). The Universal Health Coverage (UHC) report further cites several initiatives of GoI which have the potential to positively impact the well being of all citizens, especially the poorest, including the Right to food under the proposed National Food Security Bill, Reforms in Public Distribution System, Extension of Rashtriya Swasthya Bima Yojana. This call for collaborative efforts of both public & private sector so that basic issues related to equity; especially accessibility and affordability could be addressed.

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Rethinking Human Rights in the Era of Globalization: Challenges before 21st Century

Seema Dey

Human rights are rights that are basic in nature and entitled to every human being, irrespective of his nationality, place of residence, sex, national or ethnic origin, color, religion, language, or any other status. Such rights would include right to life, equality before the law, freedom of expression, the right to work, right to social security, right to education, collective rights, such as the rights to development and self-determination, etc. Therefore as is evident human rights are inseparable, interrelated and interdependent. The improvement of one right makes the progress of the others possible. Correspondingly, the denial of one right has negating affects on the others. Human rights in Indian Legal Parlance means the rights relating to life, liberty, equality and dignity of the individual guaranteed by the constitution embodies in the international covenants and enforceable by courts in India. Therefore human rights have a special significance in this changing world scenario. Twentieth Century stands out as the century that witnessed unprecedented denial of human rights. In the 20th Century, some 100 million persons have been killed in armed conflicts and 120 million more deaths have resulted from politically-related violence.

Twenty-first century, however, started with two important events: (i) the new initiatives by poor and rich nations in fulfilling a long unfinished agenda of "full human development" and "human rights for all"; and (ii) the Millennium Development Goals emanating from the Declaration adopted by 189 countries at the United Nations Millennium Summit on 8th September, 2000. The UN Millennium Development Goals are in a way value based resolves among nations to end human poverty, promote human dignity and equality, and to take steps in furtherance of the attack on inadequate incomes, widespread hunger, gender inequality, environmental deterioration and lack of education, health care and clean water, towards the convergence of human development and human rights in action.

Social, Economic and Cultural Rights

Millions of people in this country live in a state of abject poverty, without food, shelter, employment, health care and education. According to a UN Report, $1/5^{th}$ of the population in a developing country, like ours, are hungry every night, $1/4^{th}$ do not have access to basic amenities like drinking water and $1/3^{rd}$ live in a state of acute poverty. Protection of social, economic and cultural rights as.compared to civil and political rights, both at the national and international level, has been poor and irregular. The fallacy lies in treating one set of rights as inferior to the other set of rights. To correct the fallacy, is a challenge we face in this century. The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, to which India is a State party, specifically recognizes the "fundamental right of everyone to be free from hunger" and the right of everyone to "adequate food". It also recognizes the "right of everyone to education" and asserts that "primary education shall be compulsory and available free to all"; it further recognizes the "right of everyone to the enjoyment of the highest attainable standard of physical and mental health". Domestic application of the covenants is the need of the hour.

Challenges before 21st Century

1. Global Poverty

United Nations Committee on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights, 2001 defines 'poverty as a human condition characterized by sustained or chronic deprivation of the resources, capabilities, choices, security and power necessary for the enjoyment of an adequate standard of living and other civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights'. Poverty is the biggest violator of human rights – it is also a threat to peace because if hunger persists, peace cannot prevail. Poverty destroys human dignity and without human dignity there can be no human rights or the capacity to fight against the denial of human rights. Unfortunately, in today's world nearly three quarters of humanity who live in developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America are weighed down by poverty and underdevelopment. Widespread poverty among the masses in the developing countries is a great cause of denial of human rights. Human rights have a transformative potential. They are a constant challenge to the vested interests in society driven by enormous disparity of wealth and power with traditions of authoritarianism and helplessness of disadvantaged communities. The time

has, therefore, come to return to the values and principles reflected in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

2. Global Terrorism

Terrorism affects human rights of innocent people the world over and has been a cause of concern in this country for more than three decades. The specter of terrorism continues to haunt us globally. While this is a historical fact that Human Rights recognize the essential worth of a human being, it is also a reality that the cult of terrorism strikes at the very root of human rights of innocent people. Terrorism and human rights are natural enemies with no possibility of their co-existence. No person who supports human rights can support terrorism, which results in a grave violation of human rights of innocent citizens. There can be no alibis and justification for terrorism as nothing can ever justify terrorism. The menace of terrorism has to be curbed and the war against terrorism has to be fought relentlessly but in doing so, no democratic society can be permitted to chill civil liberties of the citizens.

In the fight against terrorism, sensitization level of human rights cannot be allowed to be sacrificed. A terrorist who violates human rights of innocent citizens must be punished but his human rights should not be infringed except in the manner permitted by law. A critical task of striking a fair balance by way of security concerns and human rights is to be performed and need of proportionality must not be ignored. While fighting war against terrorism relentlessly, the State cannot be permitted to be either selective in its approach or to go over board and in effect declare a war on the civil liberties of people because the rationale of anti-terrorism measures is aimed at protecting human rights and democracy. Counter terrorism measures should, therefore, not undermine democratic values or subvert the rule of law. It is during anxious times when care has to be taken to ensure that state does not take recourse to bend the rule of law.

3. Gender Parity across the Globe

Women continue to be discriminated all over the world and are subject to many forms of violence. In spite of ratification of regional and International Instruments, many States still maintain laws and practices, which discriminate against women. Selective practices and customs used by states perpetuate discrimination. This is particularly true in the field of access

to land and other important economic resources and rights within the family. Crimes against women, which are increasing exponentially are actually crimes against humanity and expose the failure of the governments to effectively prosecute those who are responsible for Commission of such crimes. The Report on "Human Development in South Asia, 2000", dealing with gender question focuses on deprivation borne by women in South Asia. At home, however, gender equality appears to be long way off. The plight of the girl child; selective abortions of females; the increase in cases of domestic violence besides the rise in crime against women are serious challenges which face us in this century.

4. Rights of the Child

In the evolution of human rights, the child is relatively a late entrant. The Convention on Rights of Child was signed only in 1989. The late action on child rights is a sad reflection of uncaring attitude towards the rights of this weak segment of the society which borders on almost total neglect. In the present juncture in our society, the child is victim of sexual abuse, torture, war, violence, poverty, bonded labour, deprivation and denial. Health of the child and particularly malnutrition of children belonging to the disadvantaged segments of the society is an area of concern. According to the National Family Health Survey 2009-10, 37 per cent of children under age of five years in India are malnourished. Under nutrition is much higher in rural areas than in urban areas, and is particularly high among children from disadvantaged socio-economic groups. Child labour in India is a historical fact and the exploitation of children for extracting labour is a grim reality. Almost 150 million children in this country continue to languish in slavery. The weak and the poor of the world, often end up being mere footnotes of history. A child is perhaps the weakest element in the global community dominated by the adult. We need to eliminate child labour. A comprehensive legislation to address the entire issue of child labour from the perspective of prevention, prohibition, regulation and rehabilitation to achieve the final objective of elimination of child labour is a pressing necessity and a challenge.

5. Rights of persons affected by HIV/AIDS

'Universal Health Care' and more particularly neglect of it, poses a formidable challenge to the enjoyment of human rights by the disadvantaged segments of the society. In this connection I wish to point out that HIV/AIDS is a major public health challenge. According to some experts, our country

today hosts the second largest number of persons affected or infected with HIV/AIDS. Studies have shown that the disease is moving from high-risk groups to the general population, from urban to rural areas and that a significant percentage of women are affected by this disease. The stigma and discrimination faced by these persons are important issues touching upon their human rights. The National Human Rights Commission apart from creating awareness among citizens and redressing a number of individual complaints, made systemic recommendations concerning human rights of persons affected by HIV/AIDS more particularly the children affected/infected by HIV/AIDS with regard to their right to education and access to medical care. The challenge is to reach the Goals by 2015 as stipulated by the U.N. Millennium Declaration. It is not 'impossible'-we need determination, commitment and a desire to move forward with a secular agenda for promoting and protecting human rights.

The need for Human Rights Education

Human rights education means "all learning that develops the knowledge, skills and values of human rights." The United Na-tions proclaims that human rights education is "training, dissemination and information efforts aimed at the building of a universal culture of human rights through imparting knowledge and skills and the molding of attitudes." These efforts are designed to strengthen respect for hu-man rights and fundamental freedoms, facilitate the full development of human personality, sense of dignity, promote understanding, respect, gen-der equality and friendship to enable all persons to participate effectively in a free society, and further activities for maintenance of peace. Human rights education, training and public information are, therefore, necessary and essen-tial for the promotion and achievement of stable and harmonious relations among the commu-nities and for fostering mutual understanding, tolerance and peace. Through the learning of human rights as a way of life, fundamental change can be brought about to eliminate or eradicate poverty, ignorance, prejudices, and discrimination based on sex, caste, religion, and disability and any other forms among the people at large. Human rights education cannot be re-duced to a single introduction of human rights content. It brings about a profound reform of education, which touches upon curriculums for in-service and pre-service training, textbooks, methodology, classroom management and the organization of the education system at all lev-els. Human rights education implies the learn-ing and practice of human rights. Therefore, human rights education should not be theo-retical but must be relevant to

people's lives, in the sense that such education must also provide opportunities for young people to develop and practice the skills to respect the human rights and citizenship through school/college life.

Human rights education has to grapple with three important concerns: one, clarification of contemporary civilization dilemmas; two, intergenerational transmission of experience; three, acceleration of the process of transfor-mation. The contemporary civilization faces several dilemmas arising from different contra-dictions. The contradictions at an individual level are located in selflessness vs. selfishness, at institutional level at individual vs. collective, state power vs. democratic culture. The develop-ment models have come to increasingly pre-sup-pose that self-interest alone can be the propeller of faster development of the productive forces. The crisis of the socialist world added strength to this general belief. Despite the crisis, the po-tentialities and possibilities of nobility inherent in human nature will have to be rediscovered and realized. This can be made possible by not only recounting and resurrecting the historical memory about the positive achievements and advancements but also transmitting them to coming generations. The indifference to past achievements in such domains not only negates the past but cripples societal capacity to move to higher realms of social life. A critical reflec-tion of the past heightens the consciousness, which in turn can create the necessary climate for not only democratic governance but also a democratic way of life. This effort has to be continuously made at the individual, group, national and international levels. Human rights education can be a catalyst in this process.

Conclusion

With changing national and international contexts as a result of globalization, a serious threat to human rights has arisen. One of the ways by which this threat could be met is by bringing human rights education at all levels of education. Through the learning of human rights as a way of life, fundamental change can be brought about to eliminate or eradicate poverty, ignorance, prejudice and discrimina-tion based on sex, caste, religion and disability. Human rights education cannot be reduced to a single introduction of human rights content. Such education brings about a profound reform which touches upon curriculums for in-service and pre-service traini. g, textbooks, methodol-ogy, classroom management and organization of the education system at all levels. Human rights education serves as a means of understanding and embracing principles of human equality, dignity and

commitment to respect and protect the rights of all. An attitudinal change in hu-man behavior is required so that knowledge of human rights is disseminated. Human beings have to make far more con-scious effort to alter the world reality consider-ing the recent changes in the global scenario, including massive violation of human rights. Human rights education should aim at this.

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Indian Journal of Adult Education, first published as a monthly in 1939, is now brought out as a quarterly by the Indian Adult Education Association. The journal has special interest in the theory and practice of Non-formal Education with special reference to the relationship between Adult Education, Development and current experiments in the field. Contributions on a wide range of themes within this broad framework are welcome.

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). Articles can be sent by E-mail at iaeadelhi@gmail.com

INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION

Editor's Note

ARTICLES

With a strong base of youth population in India the realization of making use of their strength both for the economic development of our country and also actively participate in the economic development of other countries was felt long before. However, the single most important problem faced in achieving this aim was inadequate or no skill base of most of the youths without which they can either participate in the development process or a part of inclusive growth. Hence, government started giving importance to skill development and in this process the skill development training was strengthened by bringing National Skill Qualification Framework (NSQF) which was notified by the government headed by Dr. Manmohan Singh on December 27, 2013. After the General Election in 2014 the government headed by Shri Narendra Modi has given further fillip to skill training by creating a separate Ministry for Skill Development and Entrepreneurship (MSDE). In the beginning many had a big question before them how this Ministry will be able to function and how it will consolidate its position to make skill development training the most important one. In a short period of time the Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship has not only become a functional one but also consolidated by taking many far reaching decisions and actions.

One such action is the issue of recent order by the Cabinet Secretariat to transfer Training and Apprenticeship Training from the Ministry of Labour and Employment to Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship. With this all Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) run under government sector, Industrial Training Centres (ITCs) functioning under private management and vocational training centres operating on Public-Private Partnership (PPP) basis across the country have come under the administrative control of MSDE. The total number of such institutions is around 12,000 with about 16 lakh seats. This order also made all the individuals covered under Apprenticeship Act to come to MSDE immediately. This is an important decision taken at an appropriate time as these institutions will now be reformed and reoriented with industry driven curricula, greater use of technology and

better industry connect. It is sure that this is the beginning and may be in course of time many such decisions and actions may follow with the result all vocational skill develompment training institutions may come under the ambit of MSDE.

Eventhough, may vocational training institutions, funded and non-funded, are functioning in this country, Jan Shikshan Sansthans are one of the most important voactional skill development training institutes with proven record of success. They are run under the aegis of NGOs and fully funded by the Ministry of Human Resource Development, department of School Education and Literacy. Right from 1967 these institutions have been patronized and funded by the governments formed by different political parties at the centre as they organize voactional training programmes on various skills and varying durations for out of school youths who are having rudimentary level of education. These sansthans have already proved their worth and merit in the field of vocational training and what they urgently need today is strenthening and expansion which they may be able to get if they are brought under MSDE. In this way the infrastructure developed, resources accumulated, experience gained and the expertise poded can be fully utilized for the benefit of training youths to impart skills.

Dr. V.Mohankumar

Professionalization of Adult Education in India: Challenges and Issues

S.Y.Shah

Introduction

The importance of professionalization of adult education has been increasingly recognized in different parts of the globe. The limited avenues of professionalization of adult education in several countries and its implications on the quality of adult learning and training has been highlighted by the UNESCO in the Belem Framework of Action and the national reports on the status of adult education in over 120 countries. (Unesco,2009). However, during the last decade, several European countries have made considerable progress in this area as evident from the increasing number of academic programmes, researches, publications, conferences and the ongoing activities of the ASEM *Network on Professionalization of Adult Education* (Regina & Nuissl,2010).Unlike Europe, most of the developing countries of Asia have been rather slow in addressing the issue of professionalization mainly because of "underdevelopment of adult education sector",(Singh,2002),massive illiteracy, low income and lack of well defined policy towards adult education and institutional nfrastructure. (Panahon,2010;Ahmed,2009). But India with its massive adult education programme, variety of institutions and large number of adult educators involved in multifarious activities like teaching, training, research, counseling, planning and management of programmes has been striving to professionalize adult education with a view to improving its effectiveness.

Since several research and evaluation studies have traced the ineffectiveness of adult education programme to the poor quality of training of adult educators and their lack of professionalism, there has been an increasing concern towards professionalization.(National Literacy Mission, 2008 & 2009; Shah, 2010 a;) In fact, the need for developing a specialized academic and administrative cadre of professional adult educators as an

"indispensable prerequisite" for the success of adult education programme has been reiterated by several policy documents specially the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017) and the "Strategy paper on capacity building" (Government of India, 2011; National Literacy Mission, 2012; UGC, 1986). While the state policy and funds did support the establishment of research and training institutions, university departments of adult education and development of accredited courses at certificate, diploma and degree levels; the progress towards professionalization has been rather limited due to various factors "specially the lack of consistent policy towards institutionalization of adult education and closure of the National Institute of Adult Education set up with the primary purpose of initiating a series of professional development programmes for adult educators.(Mishra,2012). Besides, the performance of several university departments of adult education has been reported to be weak presumably because of the appointment of teachers lacking appropriate qualifications and competence especially during the early phase of development of university adult education. During the period 1992-2012, while the number of university departments of adult education in India declined from 93 to 51, the average enrolment of students in diploma and masters programme in adult education in most of the universities dwindled from 20-25 to 8-10. It is rather surprising that students are not attracted to adult education courses in spite of revamping the programmes of the National Literacy Mission which paved the way for massive increase in the number of positions at various levels. The estimated requirement of various positions were viz; 3, 40,000 facilitators at adult education centers; 10,690 programme coordinators at district level and 1040 directors and programme officers at 285 Institute of People's Education (National Literacy Mission,2010; Shah,2010 b). Why are the students not interested in adult education courses in spite of increasing number of job opportunities? Are the courses not relevant to the requirements of the labour market? What is the role of the state and professional associations in professionalization of adult education? Based on the study of policy documents, research reports and discussions with stakeholders, this paper attempts to identify some of the challenges of professionalization. Although, professionalization has several dimensions viz; development of institutions like training schools, university departments, professional associations, a body of theoretical knowledge, a code of ethics and regulatory mechanisms; this paper focuses only on three aspects: policy towards institutionalization-specially the setting up of university departments of adult education, relevance of courses vis a vis needs of labour market and status and role of professional associations. Arguing that professionalization of adult education in India has

been retarded due to the indiscriminate policy of expansion of university adult education without paying much attention to the quality of teachers, relevance of courses and requirements of the labor market, this paper highlights the importance of systematic planning and the need for working out operational strategies in consultation with the stakeholders.

Policy towards Institutionalization: Role of University Departments of Adult Education in Professionalization

Establishment of university departments of adult education and development of accredited courses at certificate, diploma and degree levels in adult education can play a key role in professionalization. However, if due attention is not paid to the quality of courses and competence of teachers and requirements of labor market, then they may not further the cause of professionalization as observed in the case of the development of university adult education in India. The 1980's witnessed tremendous expansion of university adult education in India mainly because of the policy and funding support from the University Grants Commission (UGC) - the apex statutory body of higher education in the country. Following the *Policy Framework of Higher Education (1977)* which recognized "extension as the third dimension of higher education"(UGC, 1978), the UGC encouraged the universities to institutionalize extension by setting up departments of adult, continuing education and extension. The then Chairperson of the UGC, Dr. Madhuri Shah, was not only committed to adult education but also showed great interest by writing to the Vice Chancellors to set up department of adult education in their respective universities for which the UGC offered an attractive package consisting of five academic and two administrative positions and liberal funds for the purchase of books and equipments. The UGC communication issued in 1984 stressed the importance of developing the discipline of adult education in universities and initiating teaching, research and extension so as to meet the increasing requirements of the professional manpower in the field of adult education, expanding the knowledge base and serving the needs of the local community. (UGC, 1984; Shah, 1996). The decision of the UGC to set up university departments of adult education was in the right direction since several evaluation and research studies had traced the ineffectiveness of adult education programe in the country to the poor quality of training of adult educators and lack of professional courses. Of the 150 universities in India in 1988, as many as 93 universities responded and set-up departments of adult education (Shah.1999).Since only two universities in India – Sri Venkateswara University and University of Madras

- were offering master's and doctoral programmes since the late 1970s, there were only a handful of professionally qualified persons in the country. Due to the acute shortage of doctorates in adult education which was the requisite qualification for the job of an assistant professor in a university, many universities appointed persons from other disciplines who did not possess the domain knowledge. In fact there were two categories of persons who joined the departments of adult education in the early days. The first category came from the governmental and nongovernmental organizations who had administrative and or field experience but lacked appropriate educational qualifications, research experience and publications. The second category was from the university departments of humanities, social science and sciences who had limited promotional avenues in their parent disciplines. It has been reported that "some sympathetic Vice Chancellors accommodated" them in the departments of adult education (Shah, 1999). The few qualified adult educators in the departments of adult education were either too junior to take up leadership role or they lacked leadership qualities (?). In this situation where 75 % of senior positions in the departments of adult education were occupied by less qualified persons, it was not possible to expect high level of professional competence and commitment from them. While the UGC could legitimately take the credit for the tremendous expansion of university adult education in India and providing employment to nearly 300 academic and 100 supporting staff- it cannot absolve itself of the problems that were generated. Perhaps nowhere else in the world, as many as 93 Departments of adult education were set up in universities within a short span of 3-5 years. The indiscriminate policy of the UGC of encouraging the Indian universities to set up adult education departments during 1980s and early 1990s when there were not enough qualified manpower in the country paved the way for "adhoc appointment of personnel with hardly any professional abilities and skills" which slowed down the pace and efficiency of the programme. (UGC, 1986). Such non specialists and disinterested staff who due to their lack of knowledge and expertise failed to nurture university adult education, design appropriate courses and provide the professional leadership.

A study of the growth and development of university adult education in India revealed that university adult education programmes were initiated in "great hurry" without much consultation with the academic community and potential employers. (Shah, 2005). There was no systematic effort to ascertain the competences required by the university teachers or formulate a national curriculum framework for a master's programme in adult education

as was done in Europe (Regina & Susanne, 2007). In fact, large section of university teachers did not consider adult education as a discipline of study and argued that the knowledge base of adult education was inadequate and at best, the role of university adult education could be confined to extension activities or offering short term continuing education courses. Prevalence of such a perception among academic community was not very conducive to the development of university adult education in India. In such a scenario, why did the UGC initiate the policy of promoting university adult education on a large scale? During an interview, the former Chairperson of the UGC – Dr. Madhuri Shah who championed the cause of university adult education stated that had she not personally encouraged the universities (she wrote personal letters to the Vice Chancellors), then perhaps only few would have introduced adult education programmes. To quote her:

"I am a strong supporter of adult education. As the Chairperson of UGC, if I succeed in sowing the seeds of adult education in Indian universities and be fortunate in witnessing their germination and growth, then I would be delighted. I am afraid that if I fail to push adult education during my tenure and if my successors do not show the same interest, then the progress of adult education will be slow. I am not bothered how the plant for university adult education grows; it depends on the soil of universities, the extent of irrigation and how the saplings are tended. This is clearly the role of universities and UGC can only be sympathetic observer". (Shah, 1998).

The former UGC chairperson did succeed in sowing the seeds of adult education in Indian universities since many universities set up departments of adult education.

One of the reasons the university adult educators in India could not succeed in providing professional leadership and getting respectability and recognition within the university system may be traced to their lack of competence and scholarship in the subject. In the absence of domain knowledge and competence in designing courses, majority of them confined to extension activities and had difficulty in getting recognized as academics by their peers. Since most of them were not involved in teaching and research, they remained as non teaching staff having the designations as directors, assistant directors and project officers in spite of the recommendation of the UGC to re designate them as teachers. Many universities found it difficult to re designate them as professors, associate professors and assistant professors since they did not possess the same

qualifications required by the teachers. By 2012, although the number of universities in India increased to 667, there was a sharp decline in the number of university departments of adult education which came down to 51. (UGC Report, 2012). The decline was due to various factors like retirement or resignation or redeployment of the staff or merger or closure of departments. According to a survey, as on March 2012, there were twenty one universities in India which offer, certificate, diploma and master's programme in adult education viz; University of Madras, Sri Venkateswara University, Bharatidasan University, Gandhigram Rural Institute – Deemed University, Andhra University, Barkatullah University , Dr. Hari Singh Gaur University, Jiwaji Univeristy, Hemwati Nandan Bahuguna Garhwal University, University of Delhi, Jamia Millia Islamia, Jawaharlal Nehru University, SNDT Women's University, Awadhesh Pratap Singh University, Dayalbagh Educational Institute - Deemed University, Shivaji University, Manipur University, North-Eastern Hill University and open universities like Indira Gandhi National Open University, Global Open University and Dr. B.R. Ambedkar Open University. About thirty universities offer short term continuing education courses and or extension programmes. Most of the universities which offer teaching programmes have provisions to offer short term continuing education programmes and extension activities.

The UGC policy of promoting adult education through the universities as a part of professionalization of adult education, though a well conceived, could not make much impact as the idea was premature and implemented expeditiously without much preparation and consultations with the stakeholders. The fast pace of expansion of university adult education in India did not provide much scope for wider consultations and academic discussions and it remained as a UGC funded project without becoming an integral part of the university system. However, the two universities which had started master's programme before the UGC policy, had in fact had wider consultations with different stakeholders and designed the courses in collaboration with the renowned adult education departments of the U.K. and Canada.

There was no systematic study of the required competences of university adult educators and preparation of a national curriculum framework. It seems that most of the universities were allured by the liberal funds given by the UGC and hoped that they could initiate adult education programme with non-specialists. Perhaps they subscribed to the view that adult education is not a special field requiring university education and training. While the non

specialists could manage extension activities as per UGC guidelines and coordinate the continuing education courses, most of them had neither expertise nor interest in developing teaching programmes. Although UGC did make an effort to design a curriculum for the Post –Masters Diploma programme, it was taken up by a few universities. In fact hardly any effort was made to develop adult education as a discipline of study.

Irrespective of the nature of job, all the university adult educators have well defined avenues for their professional growth through the refresher courses offered by Academic Staff Colleges and other professional organizations like the Indian Adult education Association and their pay scale and service conditions are regulated and remain at par with other disciplines. The UGC conducts National Eligibility Test (NET) which is a mandatory requirement for the appointment of Assistant Professors in universities. The Government does not have direct involvement in the recruitment process which is left to the universities. Though a cohesive group, most of the adult educators from universities has not shown much interest in research, publications or taking active part in the activities of professional associations and hence has a limited role in professionalization of adult education. How to strengthen university adult education to enable it play an effective role in professionalization of adult education?

The decline in enrolment of students in adult education programme seems to be linked to the lack of job opportunities. In spite of the continuation and expansion of adult education programme in the country and creation of positions at various levels in the field, it is very surprising that a large section of the adult education graduates either remain unemployed or underemployed. It has been observed that some of the nongovernmental organizations prefer social science graduates and M.B.A's to work as adult educators. With a view to understand the reasons for the preference of non adult education graduates for the positions of the directors/programme officers in adult education institutions like *the Jan Shikshan Sansthans* (Institute of Peoples Education), a focus group discussion was held with a group of administrators from government departments and civil society organizations. Most of them opined that adult education graduates were found to be weak in domain knowledge and lacked professional competence and in general were of "poor quality and slow learners" compared to other social science graduates or M.B.A's. (Shah, 2005). What are the reasons for such a perception of adult education graduates by the employers? A pilot study conducted with a sample of 60 students of three batches of post

graduates in adult education (2005-2008) revealed that compared to 10% of students who opted for adult education as their first choice because of interest in the subject, the rest (90%) took it up as the only course available to enroll in the university. As many as 80% of the students said that although they had applied for two other courses in the university viz; social work and teacher training, they did not succeed and hence adult education was the only option available to them. Being the left outs from other disciplines, it was quite probable that they were of poor quality? Since most of the universities followed the curriculum framed during 1980s and 1990s without any revision or up gradation during the next decade, it may not be equipping the students with the knowledge about recent developments in the field and competences required by the industry. An interaction with some of the employers of adult education graduates in Delhi revealed that 75 % were not happy with their performance and felt that they were not at all qualitatively better than the non adult education graduates. They observed that imparting on the job training to non adult education graduates who have excellent academic credentials was much easier as they were more receptive to the training and their performance was also much better than the adult education graduates (Shah,2005).How to attract bright students who are genuinely interested in adult education?

Some of the departments of adult education of Indian universities tried to attract the students by offering new courses in human resource management, rural development, community education, non formal education, development education or incorporating the elements from the discipline of management or social work and offering a programme on management of continuing education. However 75% of the university departments of adult education in India continue to offer master's programme in adult education. Only recently, the University of Delhi has developed a master's programme in lifelong learning and started offering it from July 2014.

Although there are twenty one universities in India which offer a number of certificate, diploma, masters and doctoral programmes in adult education on a full time basis, the large numbers who are not in a position to join the full time programme have no avenues for acquiring professional qualifications. Following an international seminar on *Professionalization of Adult Education* organized jointly by the International Institute of Literacy of University of Pennsylvania (USA) and the National Literacy Mission in New Delhi in 1997, initiatives were taken by Jawaharlal Nehru University (JNU) to

professionalize adult education by developing a certificate programme through distance mode in collaboration with the then UNESCO Institute For Education. A curriculum framework was designed in an international workshop and in consultation with all the stakeholders and a self learning package comprising of 32 units was prepared by a group of 17 adult educators and it was hosted on the UNESCO website in 2007 as an open courseware so that interested adult educators could access them freely to enhance their professional competence. (www.unesco.org/education/aladin/paldin.). However, during the first two years only a handful of adult educators accessed the course. An attempt was made to interview some of those who accessed the materials and it became clear that without the provision of a recognized certificate, there will not be many takers for the course. Since JNU had no mandate to provide university certificate for distance learners, an attempt was made to approach the Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU) to offer the course. After reviewing the learning package, IGNOU adapted the package and expanded it to develop as a post graduate diploma programme- *Participatory Adult learning Documentation and Information and Networking (PALDIN)*

The Post Graduate Diploma programme *on Participatory Adult Learning Documentation and Information Networking*, consists of five courses - 4 theory courses, each of 6 credits, and one, practical course of 10 credits. The following are the courses:

Course No: MAE-001:
Understanding Adult Education
Course No: MAE-002:
Policy Planning and Implementation of Adult Education in India.
Course No: MAE-003:
Knowledge Management & Information Dissemination & Networking.
Course No: MES-016:
Educational Research
Course No: MAEL-001:
Practical Work.

At the end of the course, the candidates are expected to take a written examination of three hours in each of the four theory papers, besides submitting a report on field placement.

In a follow-up study conducted during the first two years, (2009-11), it was noted that the course did not succeed in attracting large number of students, perhaps because of the limited publicity of the course. (Reddy, 2012). Besides, those who enrolled for the course felt that the high fee charged by the university was a great deterrent. The lack of recognition of the course by the National Literacy Mission of Government of India which is the largest employer of adult educators also did not motivate the facilitators to enroll for the course. Although Ms. Vandana Jena, the then Director General of NLM welcomed the idea, her successors did not evince much interest and lend support to the course in terms of recognition. This implied that the development of professional course, though an important step in the process towards professionalization needs to be followed up with several other initiatives. The paying capacity of the potential candidate is an important factor in the success of the programme. The problem may be solved by persuading the university to reduce the fees and simultaneously appealing to the Director General of National Literacy Mission to grant recognition to the Diploma as an essential requirement for the position of Programme Officers of adult education programme and Jan Shikshan Sansthans. The state could also make a provision for reimbursing the fee of the programme for those employees already working in government supported organizations. Such an incentive may motivate the adult educators to upgrade their professional qualification. Efforts made by the professional associations like the Indian Adult Education did not succeed in persuading the government to accord recognition for the course. Apart from designing a quality programme, it should be ensured that only genuinely interested students are recruited for the programme. This can be done through administering an aptitude test to the potential candidates. This may reduce the number of drop outs who often join a course without any serious thinking or genuine interest in the subject.

Issues with the State

Notwithstanding the availability of recognized professional courses in adult education offered by several universities in India, there are not many takers. It is primarily due to the non recognition of courses by the government and the unattractive remuneration. The preference of nonprofessionals not only demoralizes the professionally qualified adult educators but also discourages the potential candidates from taking up adult education courses. The repeated efforts made by professional associations like the Indian Adult Education Association to accord due recognition to the professionally

qualified persons for the position of adult educators, the State seems to be hesitant, perhaps due to the apprehension that the appointment of professionally qualified personnel may give rise to the demand for better pay and perks like the professionally qualified school teachers. The number of grassroots level adult educators being very large in India; the government may also be concerned with the financial implications at a time when the budget for adult education is being drastically reduced. Another reason for the lack of interest in professional courses offered by the Open University is because of the high fees which most of the adult educators find it difficult to bear since the fee is equal to their honorarium of 2.5 months. If there would have been some incentive to adult educators in terms of higher pay or promotion, then perhaps some of them might have also enrolled for the professional courses in adult education. State being the largest employer in adult education, its employment policies seems to have a detrimental effect on professionalization. The development of professional courses and certifications being an important step in the professionalization of adult education needs to be followed up with well-defined recruitment policies, code of conduct and service conditions of adult educators.

There is a need to set up regulatory bodies to lay down the guidelines and norms towards basic qualifications and employment conditions of the staff of adult education programme. The Government of India is moving very slowly in this direction. In the absence of such bodies, those who acquire professional qualifications find it difficult to get proper employment and other service benefits. The *Jan Shikshan Sansthans* (Institutes of Peoples Education) and *Zilla Sakharta Samitis* (District Literacy Committees) are the potential employers of adult education graduates in India. However, it is observed that for the recruitment of the position of Director of Institute of Peoples Education often M.B.A's are preferred to Masters in Adult Education. The District Literacy Committees which have a number of positions of adult educators and coordinators in their district are also not keen to recruit adult education graduates. Although an effort was made to persuade the administrators to recruit adult education graduates, they did not respond since they felt that the existing adult education programmes offered by the universities are of very poor quality and do not impart the knowledge and skills needed to manage an adult education institution. (Chatterjee, 2006). Professionalization of adult educators needs to be taken up in a comprehensive manner and in consultation with potential employers and the state.

In India, the village education committee is vested with the power to appoint adult education facilitators employed at the Lok *Shiksha Kendras* (Adult Education Centers). Since these committees are often dominated by local politicians, merit is not strictly adhered to resulting in the recruitment of poor quality personnel and often vested interests or political consideration influence the selection process. Besides, unusual delay in the release of grants by the government to district and village education committees lead to high drop outs among the adult educators. Because of low remuneration and absence of well defined service conditions and promotional avenues, the profession of adult education remains unattractive for the talented. Those who continue in the job have no incentive to enhance their competence. Hence striving towards professionalization of adult educators becomes very challenging. How to sustain the interest of adult educators in the profession and motivate them to upgrade their competence has been one of the major concerns.

Role of Professional Associations

It is well known that most of the established professions are characterized by strong professional associations. Such associations can play a key role in furthering professionalization. India has several adult education associations which have been undertaking a number of professional development activities. The prominent among them are Indian Adult Education Association (IAEA), Indian University Association of Continuing Education, and Community Education. IAEA, the oldest Professional association, was established in 1939 by a group of enlightened individuals who felt the need for an exclusive organization to "create public opinion on the need for a public policy on adult education" and promote the cause of adult education and serve as a clearing house for exchange of ideas, information and advice concerning adult education in the different states of India. (*Indian adult education association*, 1952). Since some of the founding and early members were eminent educationists, Vice Chancellors, senior civil servants and diplomats, they wielded considerable influence among policy makers which helped shaping adult education policies in the country. In fact, the first Prime Minister of the country Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru took great interest in adult education and attended the IAEA function when the foundation stone was laid by a neo literate. Dr. Zakir Husain, a former Vice President of India was a prominent member of IAEA who took keen interest in the activities of the Association. Apart from organizing annual conferences, regional workshops, national and international seminars, IAEA has been

providing an opportunity to its members to improve their knowledge and skills through short courses on research methodology, recent developments in the field of adult education besides organizing training programmes, undertaking research studies and evaluations and bringing out publications and a journal – *Indian Journal of Adult Education*- since 1939. (www.iaea-india.org.). Some of the members of IAEA have been serving as members of different committees set up by the Government of India and contribute to the development of adult education policy and programmes. With a view to furthering the professionalization of adult education and undertaking collaborative programmes with international organizations, IAEA set up an International Institute of Adult and Lifelong Education in 2002. (www.iiale.org.) It provides a forum for the members to interact with overseas adult educators and listen to their presentations and undertake collaborative programmes and projects with international organizations. While the first three decades of IAEA attracted high profile members, specially ministers, senior civil servants, diplomats, Vice Chancellors, later years the membership was mainly from academics, activists and administrators. Over the years the life membership of IAEA increased from 60 in 1964 to 815 in 1989 to 1015 in 2012. However the institutional membership though increased from 79 in 1964 to 225 in 1989 declined to 182 by 2012. (Saxena, 2000). More than half of members being retired, do not take much interest in professional activities. The average attendance in the annual conference is around 200-300 and most of them are employed in academic institutions and nongovernmental organizations. Participation in the professional activities of IAEA and remitting membership fee has been a problem for the members due to financial constraints. The professional organizations often do not get funding support from the government. The earlier practice of providing financial support to IAEA to organize annual conference has been discontinued by the Ministry of Education. Raising resources to organize regular professional development programmes continues to be challenging. There is a need to infuse new vitality and vigor into the IAEA so that it could play a proactive role in furthering the professionalization of adult education in the country. The challenge is how to attract good talents into the field of adult education and promote it as a sought after profession that needs to be addressed by the professional associations:

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Professional Development and Capacity Building in Adult Education through Open and Distance Learning Mode by IGNOU: Experiences, Problems and Prospects

M. V. Lakshmi Reddy

Introduction

'Adult education' is, in fact, a specialized area of 'education', a discipline by itself and a field of activity. While the Departments of Education in conventional Universities or Colleges of Education in India and across the globe primarily cater to professional development and capacity building of teachers in school system, they have abdicated their responsibility towards education of non-teacher-adults — non-literates, literates and educationally qualified persons inside and outside the formal systems. Added to this, professional development and capacity building in 'adult education' through so called Departments / Centres of Adult, Continuing Education and Extension (ACEE) and some recently renamed Departments of Lifelong Learning and Extension (LLE) of conventional universities in India has, unfortunately, been an unsuccessful story since 1970s, when massive nation-wide efforts began in this regard.

Talking about adult education in Indian Universities, Shah (1997, pp.77-88) presents an elaborate account of series of failures and disappointing notes of experiences spread over twenty years of Adult Education Unit of Jawaharlal Nehru University. He attributes these failures to the triad of predominant organizational character of the University, the background of the students and the shifting nature of changes in the characteristic leadership of the University. Net result is that, this Unit could not start or run any independent academic programme leading to diploma, master's or research degree in the discipline of 'adult education'. This presents one extreme. The well-known unwritten story of Department of ACEE of University of Madras which started on-campus programme of Master of Arts in Andragogy in 1970s is that it has been struggling to survive by somehow attracting and retaining a couple of students for its Master's and research degree programmes. It is, in fact, a mixture of many different failures and successes of its own kind. On the other extreme is the Department of ACEE

of Sri Venkateswara University. As Reddy (2006) presents, it started regular on-campus course of Post-Graduate Diploma in Adult Education in 1973 with annual intake of 30 students, discontinued it later to start 'Master of Arts in Adult Education' course in 1978-79 with an intake of 20 students per year. It produced 233 Dissertations/Project Reports, 16 M.Phils and 27 Ph.Ds spread over 17 years from 1978-2005. It is, thus, a pioneer and a success story of its kind in the country till recently. However, as the author is currently aware, this Department too had put its 'Master of Arts in Adult Education' in hold for a couple of years for various reasons (sic) and later revived it, which now (as it stands in 2014) has only a couple of students enrolled in its Master of Arts in Adult Education for the latest academic session. The untold story of the Centre of ACCE of University of Kerala is that they could start Post-Master's Diploma in Adult Education and produce about 150 PMDAE graduates spread over about ten years, but discontinued it about two decades ago, with its faculty dwindled to a couple of members (sic). Similarly, once active Department of ACEE of Osmania University also has to contend with no takers for its 'adult education' courses. Though published accounts are not available in respect of the Departments of ACEE / LLE of Manipur University, North-Eastern Hill University and University of Delhi, among others, which are currently active running academic programmes of MA in Adult Education/Adult and Continuing Education/Lifelong Learning/Lifelong Education, and also research degree programmes, their collective intake of students per annum at national level could be expected to be slightly more than a hundred students. Thus, it is an established fact that these Departments/Centres/Units of ACEE / LLE established in different conventional Universities in India, over the time, have failed to adequately address, in sustained manner, the needs of professional development and capacity building in adult education at national level. In addition, as Lakshmi Reddy (2013, p.65) points out, there is no uniformity in syllabi/curricula of courses/programmes of these Departments/Centres. Given the situation, it is needless to say that there is no national level regulatory body to promote professional development of 'adult education' in India.

Nevertheless, the reasons for failure of 'adult education' could be different in different parts of the world and vary widely. But, the major one that prevails in India even today, as the author opines, is like what was said by Coolie Verner (1978) in the context elsewhere: "Adult education is a relatively new discipline that is appearing with greater frequency in university curricula ... Too many of the newer university programs are in the hands of individuals not experts in the discipline with the result that graduates are released to

the field deficient in knowledge and without a clear perception of the unique characteristics of the profession they have entered ... In part, the cause of this perversion of the discipline can be found in the too rapid proliferation of programs and in the inability of the older established universities to supply the academic cadre required to staff new programs; but for the most part it is due to the failure of deans and faculties of education to recognize and accept adult education as an academic discipline with its own distinctive body of knowledge related to but different from the normal concerns of a school of education". Similarly, even in India the prevailing situation testifies the need for strengthening professional development and capacity building in adult education at different levels.

Adult education as a discipline has thus become open for entry of all kinds of career-hunters from diverse disciplines at different levels who suffer from professional psychosis that entry of professionally qualified or suitably trained persons into their rightful place will be a major challenge/threat to their image, performance, professional growth and survival. Eventually, expected outcome is, internal professional squabbles and quibbles that undermine the nature, quality and potential of the very discipline of 'adult education'. In nutshell, adult education has, thus, become everyone's baby, and obviously, of no one's.

IGNOU's Initiatives for Professional Development and Capacity Building in 'Adult Education' through Open and Distance Learning Mode

As far as 'adult education' discipline is concerned, IGNOU presents a different picture. It has accepted 'adult education' as one of the disciplines of School of Education (SOE), and has appointed professionally qualified person holding master's and doctoral degrees in 'adult education' (i.e. the author here) as a faculty member of that discipline. Unfortunately, due to the then prevalent academic culture characterized by blatant domination of mediocrity aimed at sabotaging the meritocracy and professionalism of the discipline, among other nasty reasons which will be out of context to mention here, the professionally qualified faculty member concerned could not (be allowed or facilitated to) develop the professional development propgrammes in 'adult education' for about four years during 2001-2005 in SOE. Nevertheless, finally, the development and launch of three programmes — Post-Graduate Diploma in Adult Education (PGDAE) in 2009, and

subsequently both Post-Graduate Certificate in Adult Education (PGCAE) as well as Master of Arts in Adult Education (MAAE) in 2011 simultaneously — through open and distance learning mode became a reality under School of Extension and Development Studies (SOEDS) of IGNOU itself, that too within a short period of four years during 2008-2011. Thus, fortunately and as a boon in disguise, when proper opportunity was given to the concerned professionally qualified faculty member, he could develop and launch the above three programmes through SOEDS in the shortest possible period, the pace of which has even compensated the time lost by him in SOE. Subsequently, 'adult education' has also been introduced as a specialization area under Master of Arts in Education (MAEDU) programme which was already on offer through ODL mode under SOE. Further, the three programmes (i.e. PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE) have also been transferred from SOEDS to SOE of IGNOU, to restore them to their rightful discipline, 'adult education' of SOE. This is how adult educationists have (or some times made) to perform 'somersaults' to push forward even their just professional mission with lot of hard work, and to show the sabotaging, non-professional, mediocre, cynical, non-performing academic thugs their place in the system.

Before discussing the practices followed, the experiences gone through along with the problems, and the prospects that await in respect of the above mentioned adult education programmes, a few words about IGNOU's practice in general. Since its inception in 1985, IGNOU has been promoting educational opportunities through ODL mode by collaborating with different types of formal and non-formal institutions at different levels – local, state, national, and international – and by judiciously exploiting information and communication technologies to reach the unreached and the disadvantaged. IGNOU designs and develops self-instructional/self-learning materials (SIMs/SLMs) of its own in print medium, which is the major medium of instruction of its programmes. The supplementary media include, among other things, audio-video programmes, Radio programmes (Interactive Radio Counselling), TV broadcast (including DTH services), personal face-to-face tutoring and counselling sessions, contact programmes, live teleconference and occasionally web-conferencing. Each academic *Programme* is divided into a few *Courses*, each course into a few *Blocks* and each block into a few *Units,* which cover different themes. Each Programme and Course is weighted in terms of credits, and *each credit* is equated with 30 hours of study and other related activities to be performed by the students. While there is a Programme Coordinator for each programme, there are

Coordinators for the courses under each programme. However, Programme Coordinator could also be the coordinator of the courses under the programme. The programme and course coordinators together are responsible for planning, development and delivery or implementation of the academic programmes. Normally, face-to-face orientation programmes are organized by the course/programme coordinators for the chosen group of course writers who are basically the teachers/academics identified from different universities, colleges and other institutions all over the country, including faculty members of IGNOU. The units written by the course writers are subjected to format, content, language and copy editing before the SLMs/SIMs are printed. However, successful delivery or implementation of the programmes essentially depends on the nature, magnitude and quality of student support structure established at the third tier which is in the form of Learner Support Centres called Study Cetnres or Programme Study Centres (SCs/PSCs) under the control of Regional Centres (RCs), which constitute the second tier of the system, with the first tier being the Headquarters. Assignments and Term-End Examinations (TEE) constitute the essential components (among other specific components, if any, of any programme as the case may be) of the continuous and comprehensive evaluation of the students.

Objectives of the Paper

While designing, developing and delivering or implementing PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE programmes some innovative practices have been followed that provided different experiences and posed diverse problems. All these have given an excellent insight into the essential requirements for strengthening these programmes for promotion of long-term, comprehensive and sustainable professional development and capacity building in adult education in India. It is in the light of the above, the author as the coordinator of these programmes and the courses therein, attempts to:

i)   present different innovative practices followed in development and delivery of PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE programmes;

ii)   share the experiences related to these programmes which provide panoramic picture of the problems that confront as well as mosaic of possible prospects that await these programmes;

iii)   highlight the basic minimum support required to promote certain effective positive practices that can help in huge take off, rapid progression and successful implementation of these programmes

in India; and

iv) to set a model that could be emulated by other developing countries to promote 'adult education' with a view to demonstrate its strength to the world.

Development and Delivery/Implementation of PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE programmes: Innovative Practices, Experiences, Problems, Requirements and Prospects

In view of the established need for promotion of professional development and capacity building in adult education at global level and more so in the developing countries, UNESCO, in collaboration and co-operation with various institutions involved in adult education in different countries, has been making some consistent efforts since the beginning of the 21st century. As a part of its established global network called Adult Learning, Documentation and Information Networking (ALADIN) a country network called ALADIN-India has come into existence in India. The collaborative efforts undertaken by UNESCO Institute of Lifelong Learning (UIL) in 2006 in co-operation and collaboration with ALADIN-India had resulted in development of preliminary draft material, called Participatory Adult Learning, Documentation and Information Networking (PALDIN), in the form of two draft courses together containing 31 draft units which were also put on the UNESCO website — http://www.unesco.org/education/aladin/paldin/ — for comments and criticism by the global academic community.

It is at this juncture, ALADIN-India sought involvement and cooperation of IGNOU to promote capacity building and professional development of adult education in India through open and distance learning mode. It (IGNOU), in collaboration with UIL and JNU, had organized a National Workshop from 11-14 December 2007 to review the said PALDIN draft material, amongst other things, and to consider feasibility of developing and launching academic programme(s) in adult education. The author who was put as a member on the organizing committee of this workshop had subsequently been assigned the task of coordinating, developing and launching suitable academic programmes. After considering the report of the said review workshop along with PALDIN draft units, the Programme Coordinator with the help of a Programme Design-cum-Expert Committee specially constituted for the purpose had identified and intermixed 17 new units/titles covering various complementary themes and reorganized them as a whole into a programme called Post-Graduate Diploma in Adult Education (PGDAE) consisting of

three theory courses and a practical course. In addition, one course from on-going MA in Education (MAEDU) programme of IGNOU has been adopted into PGDAE finally making it a 34 credits programme with four theory courses and a practical course having three different components. PGDAE was thus launched in July 2009. While it continues to be an independent programme, all the courses of PGDAE were together constituted into first year of Master of Arts in Adult Education (MAAE) programme, and second year courses were added to make it (MAAE) a two-year programme of 68 credits. Simultaneously, Post-Graduate Certificate in Adult Education (PGCAE) was carved out by taking out two theory courses of PGDAE and one component of its practical course. Accordingly, both MAAE and PGCAE were developed and simultaneously launched in July 2011. Brief details of these three programmes are given in Table -1.

Table – 1
Essential Details of PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE programmes

Programme/Aspect		PGDAE	PGCAE	MAAE
Eligibility for admission		Any Graduate	Any Graduate	Any Graduate
Medium of instruction		English	English	English
Duration	Minimum	1 year	6 months	2 years
	Maximum	4 years	2 years	5 years
Launch Year and Session		July 2009	July 2011	July 2011
Frequency/sessions of offer		Once a year, i.e. in July session only	Twice a year, i.e. in January and July sessions	Once a year, i.e. in July session only
Total No. of Credits		34	15	68
No. of Courses (and Credits of each Course)	Theory	4 (6)	2 (6)	8 (6)
	Practical	1 (10)	1 (3)	1 (10)
	Dissertation	Nil	Nil	1 (10)

Note: Figures in parentheses are credits of each course.

The codes and the titles of the courses of PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE programmes are given below:

PGDAE (Launched w.e.f. July 2009): Its courses include the following:

- MAE-001: Understanding Adult Education

- MAE-002: Policy Planning and Implementation of Adult Education in India
- MAE-003: Knowledge Management, Information Dissemination and Networking in Adult Education
- MES-016: Educational Research
- MAEL-001: Practical Work Components
  - ❖ Community-based Practical Activities
  - ❖ Workshop-based Practical Activities
  - ❖ Adult Education Training Centre / Institution-based Practical Activities

(**Note:** Course with code MES-016 above is taken from MAEDU programme).

PGCAE (Launched w.e.f. July 2011): Its courses include the following:

- MAE-001: Understanding Adult Education
- MAE-002: Policy Planning and Implementation of Adult Education in India
- MAEL-002: Practical Work: Community-based Practical Activities

MAAE (Launched w.e.f. July 2011): Its courses include the following:

First Year Courses: These include all the courses of PGDAE mentioned above (i.e. PGDAE forms first year of MAAE)

Second Year Courses: These include the following:

- MAE-004: Extension Education and Development
- MAE-005: Population and Development Education
- MAEE-001: Sustainable Development (Optional/Elective*)
- MESE-061: Open and Distance Learning Systems (Optional/ Elective*)
- MAEE-002: Basics of Legal Awareness (Optional/Elective**)
- MESE-062: Vocational Education (Optional/Elective**)
- MAEP-001: Dissertation Work.

(**Notes:**   * Indicates that only one of the given two courses should be opted.

** Also indicates that only one of the given two courses should be opted. The two optional courses with codes MESE-061 and MESE-062 are taken from MED programme.

Now, the discussion focuses on important practices, experiences, problems, requirements and prospects related to the above mentioned programmes.

A.   Innovative practices

Some important innovative practices followed include:

i)   Collaborative efforts of national and international institutions
There were collaborative efforts by IGNOU, JNU and UIL in designing and development of PGDAE material which were already highlighted elsewhere above.

ii)   Extensive use of e-mail
E-mail has been used extensively in a manner unprecedented at IGNOU for the following activities:

➤   *Orientation and training of course-writers through E-mail:* Use of E-mail for conducting orientation and training of the chosen course writers is the major innovative practice followed by the programme coordinator of these programmes. *It helped in saving a few hundred thousands of Indian Rupees per theory course,* which is otherwise required in conducting a face-to-face orientation programme for the concerned course writers. Further, their training when they were actually involved in writing/developing the course units was also coordinated and monitored through E-mail to facilitate their timely contribution of the units.

➤   *Coordination of development of course material by single coordinator:* Coordination of development of entire course material for the said three programmes has been done by the programme coordinator alone (i.e. the author here). This became possible only because of extensive use of E-mail by him at all stages of development of course material with full devotion and commitment including spending of most of his private time at home during week-days, week-ends and holidays as well.

➤   *Coordination of Development of Cover Designs:* In normal practice, any graphic designer on the relevant panel of IGNOU is called by the concerned programme/course coordinator for personal discussion to explain the intended design to the graphic designer. Later, the designer brings the hard copies of the draft designs at different stages of cover design

development. But, the coordinator here used a combination of two distance modes, namely E-mail and telephone, in an effective manner to mutually facilitate the discussion between the graphic designer and the coordinator at different stages from beginning till completion of the cover designs for relevant courses, programme guides and handbooks.

iii) Soft copies put as OER material on IGNOU website

All soft copies (scanned versions) of the entire print material of these programmes were uploaded under 'E-Gyankosh' link of IGNOU's institutional website: www.ignou.ac.in, as Open Education Resource (OER) material, which was till recently available for access by any one, but not available now as a matter of on-going policy review. It is hoped that it may be restored soon.

iv) Inter-programme adaptation of courses

It has been done between courses of MAEDU and MAAE programmes. While one course of MAEDU was adopted as a course in PGDAE (which is also the first year of MAAE) programme, four courses of MAAE have been constituted as 'adult education' specialization area and introduced it under second year of MAEDU programme.

v) Inclusion of practical components

Practical course of PGDAE / MAAE contained three practical components to provide experience of community-based activities, workshop-based activities and adult education training centre/institution-based activities, while the practical course of PGCAE programme contained one practical component providing for experience of community-based activities only.

vi) Independent offer with flexibility

PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE are offered as independent programmes with flexibility to enable students to seek credit transfer facility for the courses of the lower level programme completed by them, when they get admission into higher level programme.

vii) Cost-cutting initiative

As a cost-cutting initiative, only existing SCs/PSCs of BED, MED and MAEDU programmes of IGNOU have been provisionally allowed to be the SCs/PSCs for PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE programmes as well. If there is reasonably good enrolment of students for these programmes under any RC, only then the Departments/Centres of ACEE/LLE in conventional Universities and/or

the State Resource Centres (SRCs) for Adult Education existing in different states of India are considered as second option for their establishment as PSCs specially for these programmes. Otherwise, this option is considered to be costlier and unviable by the university, though qualitatively it is more desirable, effective, progressive and sustainable in the long-term interests.

B. Enrolment, Experiences and Problems

The student enrolment, experiences and problems related to implementation of these programmes are presented in brief below.

Table – 2
Number of Students Enrolled for PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE programmes

Programme		Enrolment of students (Year-wise)						Total
		2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	
PGDAE (Offered in July session only)		6	12	7	3	0*	3	31
PGCAE (Offered in both January and July sessions)	January session	NA	NA	NA	4	2	7	13
	July session	NA	NA	0	3	7	5	15
MAAE (Offered in July session only)	Direct/fresh admission	NA	NA	1	4	13	11	29
	Lateral entry admission into second year	NA	NA	NA	7 @	3 @	0	10 @
	Total	6	12	8	21 (14+7@)	25 (22+3@)	26	88 + 10@

Notes:

* PGDAE has been made the first year of MAAE programme, launched in 2011. Since the entry qualification is same for both PGDAE and MAAE, the students who initially desired to enroll for PGDAE, after enquiring about relative advantage in duration, chose to join MAAE.

NA- Not Applicable, as PGCAE and MAAE were launched w.e.f. July 2011 only.
@ - These are PGDAE Graduates who are allowed admission into 2nd year of MAAE, as PGDAE courses together constituted 1st year of MAAE which was launched in July 2011.

i) Low enrolment

Low enrolment has been a problem with PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE programmes (See Table 2). It is due to non-activation of existing PSCs of IGNOU and also non-establishment of the Departments of ACEE / LLE and/ or SRCs in different states of India as PSCs for these programmes under different RCs. However, from Table - 2, it is clear that, except in 2011, the total enrolment for these programmes increased, though small, from year to year since 2009.

ii)   Improper/inadequate response to demand

The continuing low enrolment of students for PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE programmes is not due to lack of demand but due to disappointing and dissuading responses given by RCs to the students who contact them either in person or through telephone or e-mail. RC's response is that there is no SC/PSC activated/established for these programmes in the concerned region and hence the same are not on offer under that region. Several such instances have been reported to the programme coordinator through telephonic calls and e-mails, among others, by such disappointed / discouraged students intending to seek admission into these programmes. Then, the Headquarters had duly intervened and gave the standing instruction to all the RCs that, on such ground as mentioned above, no RC should dissuade / discourage the admission seekers or the applicants or deny admission to them. Further, the School and the programme coordinator concerned of these programmes assured that they will take care of the provision of academic support services to students admitted under such RCs which do not have an SC/PSC activated for these programmes. Yet, some RCs keep discouraging / dissuading the admission seekers and the applicants to avoid increase in their workload in providing administrative / facilitative services to these students. Added to this, surprisingly an applicant had even been compelled to give an undertaking to an RC, which so demanded him, that he sought admission into MAAE in spite of concerned RC informing the fact that centre is not activated, there will not be any study support, classes or project support provided by RC to him. It speaks volumes about the nature and intensity of the demand for the programme, and ugliness of the RC's response. On the other hand, even after established demand under such RCs they do not even bother take proper initiative to get an SC/ PSC activated/established for these programmes under concerned regions.

Nevertheless, it can be noticed from Table 3 that 13 RCs have students enrolled for PGDAE, 15 RCs have students enrolled for PGCAE, and 9 RCs have students enrolled for MAAE programmes.

Table – 3

Number of Regional Centres under which students of PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE programmes are spread: Year-wise

Programme	No. of Regional Centres under which students enrolment is spread						Total No. of RCs under which the students are spread
	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	
PGDAE	1	8 (7)	10 (2)	11 (1)	11(0)	13 (2)	13
PGCAE	NA	NA	0	5	8 (3)	15 (7)	15
MAAE	NA	NA	1	4 (3)	7 (3)	9 (2)	9

Notes:

Figures in parentheses indicate the number of additional RCs under which that year enrolled students are spread, adding to those RCs of the previous year.

NA - Not Applicable, as PGCAE and MAAE were launched w.e.f. 2011 only.

iii) Limitation of medium of instruction

The three programmes are on offer in English medium only. However, there have been some rare requests from a couple of students who wanted to pursue the programme in Hindi medium. But, continuing low enrolment combined with cost-factor and viability has been a matter of concern in getting the material translated from English medium to Hindi medium.

iv) Limitation in access and provision of student support services

State Resource Centre (SRC) for Adult Education in the state of Kerala is the one and the only one SRC specially established as PSC for PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE programmes. Establishment of the SRCs existing in other states of India and/or the Departments /Centres of ACEE / LLE existing in conventional universities as special PSCs for PGCAE / PGDAE / MAAE programmes of IGNOU is yet to materialise, which is a qualitative and

meaningful initiative that can actually muster enrolment for these programmes under RCs in other states as well.

In spite of this limitation, 88 students have been enrolled for these programmes – 28 for PGCAE, 31 for PGDAE and 29 for MAAE. Out of the total of 88 students, 27 (31%) are enrolled under one PSC (i.e. SRC for Adult Education existing in Kerala) that provides support services to the students of these programmes under RC at Trivandrum. Further, 28.6% of PGCAE students, 12.9% of PGDAE students and 24.1% of MAAE students are not allotted / attached to any SC/PSC. In other words, they are attached to HQ and/or RC concerned for getting academic and administrative support services related to pursuance of the concerned programme. Therefore, all the RCs which have students enrolled for these programmes under their regions need to take urgent initiative to ensure that at least one SC/PSC is activated for effective implementation of these programmes in their respective regions.

v) Limitations of RCs in providing academic support services related to theory courses

In the absence of at least one SC/PSC activated/established for these programmes under each RC, all such RCs concerned have been expressing their problems and difficulties in providing proper support services such as counselling, evaluation of assignments, etc to the concerned students.

vi) Problems of guidance/mentoring related to practical work/activities

Further, the students enrolled for these programmes who are not attached to any SC/PSC have also been experiencing great disadvantage in getting timely and effective facilitation, support, guidance and mentoring from RC concerned or programme coordinator from the School concerned at the HQ about performing the practical activities related to the programme. Since there are practical components — PGDAE and MAAE have three types of practical components and PGCAE has one type of practical component — these students have been expressing their difficulties in pursuing the programmes. The RC concerned and the programme coordinator of the School concerned at HQ have also been experiencing great difficulty in providing proper guidance and support through distance modes such as postal, telephonic/mobile and e-mail communication.

vii) Good pass percentage

In spite of the above mentioned limitations and problems, there has been good pass percenbge — 33% to 67% in PGDAE, and 11.1% to 29% in PGCAE (See Table 4). From relevant records, it was found that out of 11 PGDAE graduates (i.e. students who have completed PGDAE) 8 are from those students who are attached to a PSC specially established for these programmes. In this context, it is most desirable to look at students' pass rates of diferent programmes of IGNOU (See Lakshmi Reddy, 2002), according to which average pass rate of students of all programmes is 8.85%, pass rate of students of Post-Graduate Diploma in Higher Education (PGDHE) is 2.36% (though hundreds of students are enrolled for it every year), pass rate of students of BA/BSc/BCom programmes is just around one percent (though thousands of students are enrolled for these programmes every year). Therefore, if the students' pass rates of PGDAE / PGCAE programmes are compared with those of other programmes of IGNOU, the situation of these programmes is very encouraging. In other words, or to put it in right perspective with exemplary comparison, each PGDAE graduate (i.e. who had successfully completed PGDAE) can be treated as equal to 100 students enrolled for BA/BSc/BCom programmes (as their students' pass rate is around one percent only), or as equal to 42 students enrolled for PGDHE programme (as its students' pass rate is just 2.36%), or to any such comparative number of students of other programme(s) with low pass rates of students.

Table – 4

Number of Students Enrolled for and Successfully Completed PGDAE, PGCAE and MAAE programmes: Year-wise

Programme	Students	Year					
		2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
PGDAE	Enrolled	6	12	7*	3**	0	3 YCMD
	Successfully Completed	4 (66.7%)	4 (33.3%)	3 (42.9%)	0 (0%)	0	-------
PGCAE	Enrolled	NA	NA	0	7	9@	12@@
	Successfully Completed	NA	NA	0	2 (28.6%)	1 (11.1%)	-------
MAAE	Enrolled	NA	NA	1**	4***	13****	11 YCMD
	Successfully Completed	NA	-NA	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	-------

Notes:

NA - Not Applicable, because PGCAE and MAAE were launched in 2011.

* Indicates that those students who have not completed the programme still have one year to complete it out of maximum duration.

** Indicates that these students still have two years to complete the programme out of maximum duration.

*** Indicates that these students still have three years to complete the programme out of maximum duration.

**** Indicates that these students still have four years to complete the programme out of maximum duration.

YCMD - Indicates that the students enrolled in July 2014 are yet to complete the minimum duration of the programmme so as to become eligible to appear in the relevant Term-End Examination.

@ - Indicates that while those enrolled in January session have six months to complete the programme, others enrolled in July session have one and a half year to complete it out of maximum duration.

@ @ - Indicates that those enrolled in January session have one and a half year to complete the programme, while the rest enrolled in July session have two years to complete it out of maximum duration.

viii)   Enrolment in 'Adult Education' specialization area under Master of Arts in Education (MAEDU) programme

There are five specialization areas in the second year of MAEDU programme. 'Adult Education' specialization area is one of them. It consists of four courses, viz. MAE-001, MAE-002, MAE-003 and MAE-004 taken from MAAE programme. Admission to MAEDU takes place in both January and July sessions every year, and 'Adult Education' specialization area under MAEDU was first introduced / offered in July 2013 session. Table 5 presents the students of MAEDU who opted for 'Adult Education' specialization area.

Table – 5

Number of Students who Opted for 'Adult Education' Specialization Area under MAEDU Programme: Year-wise and Session-wise

Programme / Specialization Area	Student Enrolment in the year and session			
	2013		2014	
	January session	July session	January session	July session
MAEDU (First Year)	NA	1478	812	1599
MAEDU (Second Year) --'Adult Education' Specialization Area	NA	122 (8.25%)	60 (7.39%)	142 (8.88%)

Note: NA - 'Not Applicable' as 'Adult Education' specialization area was introduced from July 2013 session onwards only.

Since there are five specialization areas including 'Adult Education' and expecting parity of distribution of students among these five areas, the expected preference of students opting for 'Adult Education' specialization area is 20% of enrolment of MAEDU programme. However, the actual percentage of students who opted for 'Adult Education' specialization area in July 2013, January 2014 and July 2014 sessions is 8.25%, 7.39% and 8.88% respectively. It is quite encouraging, though it is short by about 11% to 13% of the expected percentage (20%) for this specialization area. It thus reveals that there is acceptability and demand from the students for pursuing 'adult education' as a specialization area under MAEDU programme.

Scrutiny of relevant records revealed that the percentage of students who opted for AE specialization area is more in the RCs falling under North-Eastern region (36.6%), followed by the RCs falling under Jammu and Kashmir region (26%) and Delhi region (13%), which together account for 75% of those who opted for this specialization area.

C. Requirements and Prospects

• Where there are students already enrolled for PGCAE / PGDAE / MAAE programmes under any RC, it is essential to ensure that there is at least

one existing SC/PSC of BED/MED/MAEDU programme of IGNOU activated for PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE programmes as well or at least one Department/Centre of ACEE / LLE in conventional Universities or an SRC for Adult Education existing in the concerned state is specially established as PSC for these programmes under each of the concerned RCs.

• There is need for special drive in publicity for PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE programmes under all RCs in general and more so in the regions where there is no student enrolment at all or low enrolment for these programmes. In doing so, it is essential to ensure that not a single RC dissuades the prospective students or the admission seekers approaching it or the applicants on the ground that there is no SC/PSC activated/established for these programmes, and hence the same are not on offer under such RCs.

• Though the student enrolment is low the gradual spread of enrolment to other regions every year presents very positive sign of its potential for expansion. In addition, good pass percentage of students of PGDAE/PGCAE presents an impressive picture for sustainable growth of these programmes.

• 'Adult education' can be included as an optional course under BED and MED programmes of IGNOU as well.

• If undergraduate programmes are also developed and launched in the discipline of 'adult education' that will help in scaling-up inbuilt systemic publicity for PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE programmes and student enrolment at undergraduate level will boost the cause of professional development and capacity building in adult education in India in a massive way.

• There is also need for short-term certificate programmes for professional development of adult education functionaries such as Preraks, Instructors, Volunteer-organizers, Nodal Preraks, Supervisors, etc working at the grassroots level.

• Soft copies (scanned versions) of the entire course material of PGCAE, PGDAE and MAAE programmes which were till recently available (not available now) under E-Gyankosh link of IGNOU website are required to be restored as OER material in the larger interest of the students, the faculty, the RCs and the PSCs of IGNOU, among others.

Conclusion

Though 'adult education' programmes are on offer with low enrolment, the increasing spread of enrolment to new RCs and SCs/PSCs across the country on one hand, and good number of students opting for 'adult education' specialization area under MAEDU programme on the other should be seen as quite encouraging trend. It depicts the durable journey of professional development and capacity building of 'adult education' and its great potential for massive emergence in the country as a whole. Further, if one optional course on 'adult education' is also introduced under BED and MED programmes, and undergraduate programme launched in the discipline of 'adult education' and short-term certificate programmes launched for grassroots level functionaries, these will together constitute a comprehensive model for professional development and capacity building of adult education in India. Such a model if emulated by other developing countries will certainly make them realize the strength of adult education in transforming their socio-economic and political scenarios or landscape and also in spreading true harmony, welfare and peace all over the globe.

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Consciousness and Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among Young Indian Women: Evidences from Six Indian States

Rajan Kumar Gupt
Prahlad Kumar

Introduction

India is the home of the world's third-largest population suffering from HIV/AIDS (with South Africa and Nigeria) and has seen a sharp increase in the estimated number of HIV infections since the first HIV/AIDS case in India was identified in Chennai, in 1986 (Das gupta et. al. 1994; NACO 1995; Balk& lahiri 1997). In 2007, India's AIDS prevalence rate stood at approximately 0.30%, the 89th highest in the world. According to an estimate almost 2.39 million Indians were found to be HIV positive out of total population of 1.2 billion (NACO 2010). More recent investigation estimates that India had about 1.4-1.6 million HIV infected adults aged 15-49 years (Jha P. et al.2010).

The spread of HIV in India is primarily restricted to the southern and north-eastern regions of the country. Adult HIV prevalence at a national level has declined notably in many states, but variations still exist across the states. However, low prevalence states of Chandigarh, Orissa, Kerala, Jharkhand, Uttarakhand, Jammu & Kashmir, Arunachal Pradesh and Meghalaya shows rising trends in adult HIV prevalence in the last four years. A decreasing trend is also evident in HIV prevalence among the young population of 15–24 years. The estimated number of new annual HIV infections has declined by more than 50% over the past decade (UN 2011). Indian women are comparatively at a greater risk of HIV infection because of their relatively weaker position in the society which gives them lower decision making power, access to various resources and opportunities, for instance, education, and participation in the economic or social activities (Hawkes S. and Santhya K., 2002).

An adolescent and young people have more chances of making relationship in their age group so there is a need of more research on

knowledge, attitude and sexual reproductive health, pregnancy, HIV and safe sex practices in India, which is also supported in study on adolescent sexual and reproductive behavior (Jejeeboy S., 1998).

Study in Assam among married women regarding misconception and knowledge about HIV/AIDS found that socio demographic factor significantly playing measure role to conceptualizing the knowledge of HIV/AIDS (Chakraborty & Hazarika, 2011). Education is most important social factor for the awareness of HIV/AIDS and using family planning. Study on female sex worker in shanghai found that there is need to reinforce for self-protection at the time of oral and anal sex because this is also way to spreading the cause of HIV/AIDS (Cai Y. et. al., 2010). India is undergoing the health transition; HIV/AIDS continued to be major public health challenge in the country. In India for the awareness and spreading the knowledge for preventive approach of HIV/AIDS government has implemented different policies and programme, despite this two in five reported not to heard about AIDS it is very surprising (NFHS 2006-06). Due to low level of awareness and increased risk of HIV/AIDS among women the main objective of the study is to examine the comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among young married and unmarried women in India and states.

Data Source and Methodology

This study uses the "Youth in India: Situation and Needs 2006-2007 data, undertaken by the International Institute for Population Science Mumbai and the Population Council, New Delhi. The study covered six states of India, namely, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, Maharashtra, Rajasthan and Tamil Nadu. The study covers a comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among young women (married and unmarried) age group 15-24 years. In this paper six questions were asked to check the knowledge of HIV/AIDS. Two questions are related to preventive major of HIV/AIDS and four questions are related to misconception of HIV/AIDS which is given below in description of variable section. Bi-variate and multivariate analysis (logistic regression) has been carried out to understand the socio-economic differentials of comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among the married and unmarried women in India. The dependent variable has been categorized in two category viz, first-No knowledge and second-comprehensive knowledge. The women who have given right answer of preventive and misconception measurement are treated as comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS.

Description of Variables

Dependent Variables: Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS is the response variable used in the study.It is assessed with respect to correct knowledge and misconception. First two questions are preventive of HIV and other is rejection of commomisconception. Allthese are categorized as 0 to 1 scale; (1) indicating correct response and (0) No or otherwise.

SI. No.	Question	Type of Question
A	Can people reduce their chances of getting the AIDS virus by having just one sex partner?	Preventive
B	Can people reduce their chances of getting the AIDS virus by using a condom every time they have sex?	
C	Can you tell whether healthy looking person can/have HIV/AIDS	Misconception
D	Can people get the AIDS virus from mosquito bites?	
E	Can people get the AIDS virus by sharing food with a person who has AIDS?	
F	Can people get the AIDS virus by hugging someone who has AIDS?	

Independent Variable: The study uses a set of demographic and socio-economic variable like age, education, caste, religion, mass media exposure, wealth index, and residence as predictor variable to understand the linkages with comprehensive knowledge among married and unmarried women.

Findings and Discussion

Awareness of HIV/AIDS in Inida & States

Comprehensive Knolwedge of HIV/AIDS in India & States
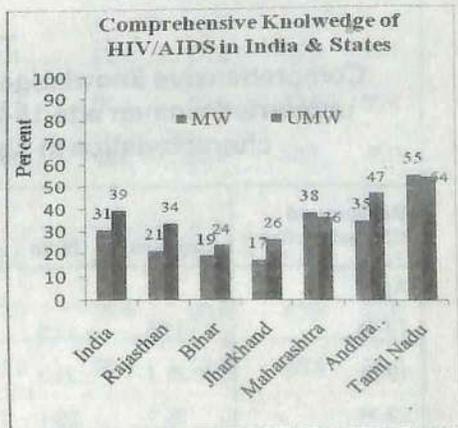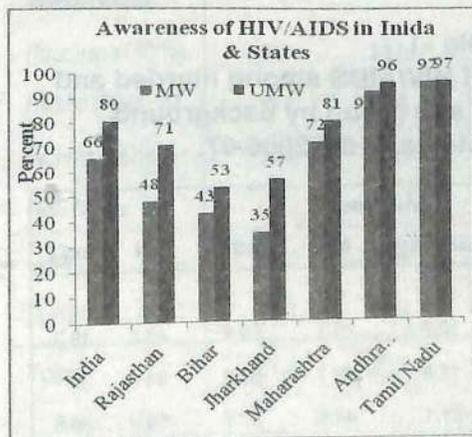
The Graph queried whether youth had ever heard of infections that were transmitted through sexual contact. Graph one and two suggest that awareness of HIV/AIDS was found virtuous compare to comprehensive knowledge among both young unmarried and married women in India. Every eight unmarried women and more than six married women among ten have heard of HIV/AIDS, whereas every 3rd married women and nearly 4 unmarried women among ten reported of comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS in India. Universal awareness of HIV/AIDS has been reported by married and unmarried women in Tamil Nadu (97%), and in Andhra Pradesh it is found nearly 93% and 97% respectively. State like Jharkhand and Bihar reported less awareness of HIV/AIDS among married and unmarried women compare to Maharashtra and Rajasthan.

In Table-1 given below comprehensive awareness was defined as knowledge of two ways of preventing HIV (specifically, condom use and single partner relations), rejection of common misconceptions about HIV transmission (namely, that HIV can be transmitted through mosquito bites, sharing food or hugging) and awareness that one cannot tell by looking at a person whether he or she has HIV. Finding of comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among young married and unmarried women by background characteristics in six states of India are presented in the table. Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS was found low (31%) in married women compare to unmarried women (39%) in India. Variations in comprehensive knowledge among married women can be seen across the six states, i.e. 17% in Jharkhand to 55% in Tamil Nadu, whereas among unmarried women comprehensive knowledge was found lowest in state of Bihar (24%) and highest in Tamil Nadu (55 %).

Table -1
Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among married and unmarried women age 15-24 age group by background characteristics in six states, India 2006-07.

Background Characteristics	Married						
	Rajasthan	Bihar	Jharkhand	MH	Andhra	TN	India
Age							
15-18	13.5	12.5	12.2	26.1	29.8	43.8	19.3
19-21	21.7	21.3	16.8	33.7	33.7	53.4	30.1
22-24	25.1	23.1	21.1	44.9	37.7	58.2	36.6

Education (in years)							
Up to 5	9.1	8.9	6.8	13.7	18.4	44.1	13.2
06-09	43.8	44.9	31.4	36.3	44.3	55.6	42.9
10 and above	67.4	65.3	65.8	63.4	63.1	64.2	64.2
Caste							
SC /ST	15.7	11.9	11.4	34.7	31.3	51.2	25.5
OBC	20.1	17.7	18.2	37.4	33.0	56.9	29.5
General	37.0	46.9	39.8	40.8	42.7	61.0	41.5
Religion							
Hindu	20.7	18.2	18.2	37.5	35.1	54.8	30.3
Muslim	26.8	26.0	17.1	34.3	30.3	58.9	30.8
Others	25.0	*	11.3	47.6	32.1	64.2	36.1
Mass media exposure							
None of them	8.7	8.9	6.3	14.4	16.2	39.4	12.0
Newspaper and TV	53.7	55.5	52.6	55.5	55.0	63.9	56.6
News paper	23.0	44.1	26.4	30.0	42.4	53.1	36.1
Only TV	26.6	29.5	26.4	30.8	35.7	49.6	35.3
Wealth index							
Poor (up to 40 %)	9.9	13.5	6.8	22.2	24.2	48.5	17.1
Middle (40-60 %)	13.4	22.8	24.1	31.1	33.9	52.5	30.4
Richest (60% +)	33.4	50.0	48.8	49.7	41.9	59.7	46.0
Residence							
Urban	44.2	42.4	37.0	46.4	49.2	57.5	48.5
Rural	17.0	17.5	13.8	33.4	30.6	53.8	25.6
Total	21.4	19.1	17.2	38.1	34.5	55.4	30.6

Background Characteristics	Unmarried						
	Rajasthan	Bihar	Jharkhand	MH	Andhra	TN	India
Age							
15-18	26.9	19.9	22.8	30.0	43.7	49.9	33.1
19-21	55.6	44.2	35.4	45.3	53.0	60.1	51.4
22-24	68.5	59.5	46.2	58.5	60.4	59.5	59.4
Education (in							
Up to 5	6.4	6.1	4.8	7.3	11.0	30.9	9.3
06-09	33.2	26.9	27.6	25.5	38.1	46.3	32.5
10 and above	62.4	62.3	59.8	51.9	62.8	62.7	59.3
Caste							
SC /ST	21.1	10.5	19.4	33.4	43.3	52.2	34.8
OBC	33.0	21.2	26.2	34.0	45.6	55.3	39.8
General	45.4	39.7	43.4	39.6	53.9	55.4	43.5
Religion							
Hindu	33.8	25.0	29.3	36.8	48.1	54.5	40.6
Muslim	23.7	19.1	22.7	30.0	40.0	48.0	29.1
Others	51.1	*	20.2	39.2	44.4	59.3	41.2
Mass media							
None of them	4.3	5.5	3.9	7.0	10.4	34.2	8.0
Newspaper and	50.4	45.9	46.3	43.6	57.2	59.2	51.1
News paper	21.4	21.0	11.8	13.0	43.9	49.8	25.9
Only TV	23.7	29.3	20.0	17.6	25.1	39.8	27.4
Wealth index							
Poor (up to 40	10.3	11.7	9.8	17.3	27.1	43.1	18.7
Middle (40-60	20.3	20.6	28.3	29.1	45.4	52.1	36.9
Richest (60%	45.1	52.2	50.4	45.1	55.3	58.6	51.0
Residence							
Urban	48.2	49.2	43.6	42.7	56.5	57.5	50.0
Rural	26.1	18.9	18.0	30.7	42.1	51.6	32.8
Total	33.5	23.9	26.4	36.3	47.2	54.5	39.4

The level of comprehensive knowledge varies by background characteristics across all states in India. As the age group is increasing from 15-18 to 22-24 in married and unmarried women, comprehensive knowledge is also increasing from 19% to 37% in married women and 33% to 59% in unmarried women. Comprehensive knowledge is strongly associated with education, exposure to mass media, and wealth quintile among married and unmarried women. Young married women who had more than 10 years of schooling, have five times more comprehensive knowledge compared to women having five years of schooling in India. Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS was found higher who had an exposure of both newspaper and TV, belonging to richest wealth quintiles, living in urban area and belonging to general category. However analyses

clearly investigate that young women (married & unmarried) of Tamil Nadu have highest comprehensive knowledge compare to national and state level.

Table-2 shows the result of multivariate analysis of the comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS. Age, education, mass media exposure, wealth index, residence and states are significantly associated with comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among married and unmarried women in India. Odds ratio among married women is higher in age group 22-24 ,compared to women below 18 years of age group (OR-1.79; 95% CI=1.58-2.01).

Table - 2
Result of logistic regression showing the determinants of comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS in India, 2006-07.

Background Characteristics	Married women		Un-Married Women	
	Odds Ratio	CI 95%	Odds Ratio	95% CI
Age				
15-18				
19-21	1.46***	1.29-1.65	1.36***	1.25-1.49
22-24	1.79***	1.58-2.01	1.65***	1.47-1.86
Education				
Up to 5 Years				
06-09 years	1.69***	1.46-1.95	1.90***	1.61-2.25
10 and above	2.88***	2.45-3.38	3.92***	3.30-4.67
Caste				
SC /ST/VJNT				
OBC	0.93	0.84-1.03	0.99	0.90-1.08
General	1.14	1.00-1.30	1.06	0.95-1.18
Religion				
Hindu				
Muslim	1.01	0.89-1.16	0.88***	0.78-0.98
Others	1.04	0.87-1.25	1.09	0.95-1.25
Mass Media Exposure				
None of them				
News paper &TV	3.27***	2.80-3.82	3.32***	2.76-4.01
News paper	1.94***	1.51-2.50	1.67***	1.32-2.12

TV	1.80***	1.54-2.12	1.82***	1.48-2.24
Wealth Index				
Poor				
Middle	1.42***	1.26-1.60	1.48***	1.32-1.67
Richest	1.54***	1.37-1.74	1.70***	1.52-1.90
Residence				
Urban				
Rural	0.74***	0.67-0.80	0.85***	0.79-0.92
State				
Rajasthan				
Bihar	1.27***	1.1-1.5	1.16***	1.03-1.31
Jharkhand	0.87	0.8-1.0	0.89	0.79-1.01
Maharashtra	0.91	0.8-1.0	0.69***	0.61-0.78
Andhra Pradesh	1.25***	1.1-1.4	1.25***	1.11-1.41
Tamil Nadu	1.99***	1.7-2.3	1.47***	1.30-1.65

*P-Value ***<0.01, **<0.05, *<0.1; ® Reference Category*

Educational effect on comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS is nearly three times higher in women completed more than 10 years of schooling, compare to women completed five years of schooling (OR-2.88; 95% CI=2.45-3.38). Odds of mass media exposure also indicates more than three times higher knowledge among those women who exposed with newspaper and TV compare to women who not at all exposed (OR-3.27; 95% CI=2.80-3.82). Similar Pattern of comprehensive knowledge among unmarried women also found significant with demographic and economic characteristics. State is also significantly associated with comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among unmarried women.

Discussion and Conclusions

Findings of the Youth Study presented here highlighted among young married and unmarried women in India in general and in the six states in particular. Study also highlighted the awareness and comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among young women across the states. Women from the northern states (Bihar, Jharkhand and Rajasthan) were consistently more disadvantaged in getting awareness than those from Maharashtra and the southern states (Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu). The findings of this study suggests that the awareness and comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS still remains low despite several efforts made by NACO and Government of India. The awareness and comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS remains gloomy among married women in the country.

Exposure of mass media, wealth index, and place of residence is also proportionally higher among unmarried women which make a base for developed source of knowledge. Results found that education and mass media exposure (Newspaper and TV) playing measure role to enhance the comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS supported by Bloom and Griffith study in 2007.

The patriarchal nature of Indian society restricts the decision making power of a woman, even if it is related to her health. Women went her husband house so there is little control over resource, and freedom of mobility which influences the knowledge. Global challenge of bulletin of HIV/AIDS has argues that due to ritual and gender inequality in the society women could not protect them self. For the reducing non-durable HIV/AIDS epidemic correct comprehensive knowledge and awareness is the most important preventive tool. In this regard there is a need to highlight the source of awareness (like higher education, mass media exposure and other socio economic factors) for knowledge, and preventing misconception among women. Findings suggest several priority programmatic areas for action to ensure the correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS in India.

Comprehensive knolwedge of HIV/AIDS among young Married women in six Indian states 2006-07

Map - 1

Comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among young un-married women in six states, 2006-07

Map - 2

Map-1&2 depicts comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS among married and unmarried women in six Indian states. Map clearly shows that south Indian states are in better off position in terms of comprehensive knowledge of HIV/AIDS compare to north India states. Youth in India: Situation and Needs study provides a comprehensive overview of only six Indian sates, which is a limitation of the study.

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Andragogy: The Adult Learning Theory

Shikha Kapur

Introduction

The fundamental process that facilitates the survival and adaptation of human beings is learning. Each learner has their individual learning needs. However when it comes to the theories of adult learning, these theories are based on pedagogical principles, using researches of child learning. The adult learner cannot be treated as an oversized child learner. The distinctive characteristics that set an adult apart from a child learner is that while a child learner is dependent and has to be brought to a classroom or school; the adult learner on the other hand has fully autonomy and comes voluntarily to the learning situation, participating actively in the learning process. They are also very clear about the end results that they anticipate from the learning process and hence the adult learners may drop out of learning activities if their expectations aren't met.

Most of the theories applicable to the child learner do not apply to the adult learners. And consequently the teaching methodologies and strategies used by the teachers in classroom of children cannot be used with adults. The teachers/facilitators of adult learners prior to conceiving, designing or implementing learning programs for their adult learners/clients have to first and foremost understand the Theory of Adult Learning. Malcolm Knowles Andragogical theory of adult learning clearly brings out the distinction between the adult and child learner since it is based on the distinctive and unique characteristics of adult as a learner. The andragogical assumptions propounded by Knowles differ from pedagogical assumptions.

Emergence of Andragogy

Influenced by Eduard Lindeman's work in the mid 1960s, American educator Malcolm Shepherd Knowles began working on

andragogy-the theory of adult learning. His results were published in his revolutionary book, **The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species in 1973**. The term Andragogy was introduced in 1968 in a series of articles (Rachal, 2002). He contrasted pedagogy with andragogy.

What is pedagogy?

Pedagogy is derived from Greek word where *paeda* means "child" and *agogos* means "to lead"; so it literally means "to lead the child." Pedagogy has been in use since the ancient Greek times. In Ancient Greece, *paidagôgeô* was (usually) a slave who supervised the instruction of his master's son (girls were not publicly taught). This involved taking him to school or a gym, looking after him and carrying his equipment (e.g. music instruments).

"Pedagogy is the art and science of teaching children" (Knowles, 1973). According to Hiemstra and Sisco (1990), under the pedagogical model, the teacher has full responsibility for making decisions about what will be learned, how it will be learned, when it will be learned, and for how long it has to be learnt. The teacher also determines which medium should be used in transmission of learning. Pedagogy is a teacher centered learning process where the teacher is the focal point of the process.

What is Andragogy?

Andragogy was originally used by Alexander Kapp (a German educator) in 1833 in his book, *Platon's Erziehungslehre* (Plato's Educational Ideas). However it fell into disuse and reappeared in 1921 in a report by Eugen Rosenstock-Huessy in which he argued that adult education required special teachers, methods and philosophy, and he used the term andragogy to refer collectively to these special requirements (Bryant and Hans, 1986). Eduard C. Lindeman was the first English writer to pick up on Rosenstock's use of the term. But he used it only twice (Lindeman, 1991).

The term was however used extensively in France, Yugoslavia and Holland 'to refer to the discipline which studies the adult education process or the science of adult education. It was in the mid 60s that Malcolm Knowles name became inextricably linked with Andragogy. Since then he is considered as the 'founding father of adult learning'. He is credited to making Andragogy synonymous to adult education. Knowles rested his Andragogical theory and principles derived from humanistic psychology (Carl Rogers) rather

than basing it on theories of animal learning (behavioural traditions -Ivan Pavlov, B.F.Skinner).

Literally translated from Greek, Andragogy means "man-leading". According to Knowles (1973), "Andragogy is the art and science of helping adults to learn". Andragogy is based on the premise where the teacher manages the learning process and facilitates the acquisition of content by the learners (Hiemstra and Sisco, 1990).

Rather than following 'didactic approach' it emphasises 'problem centred approach' where equality exists between the teacher and the learner. Learning is collaborative between the teacher/facilitator and the learner. Adults learn best when they have control over their learning and in andragogy the focus shifts from the teacher to the learner.

The teacher assumes the role of a facilitator in the process of learning encouraging learner to identify their learning needs and objectives and then entering learning contracts. Hence Knowles integrates two quite different and opposing traditions the humanistic and behavioural traditions and evolves a theory of adult learning.

Andragogy Vs Pedagogy

Adult learning (Andragogy), as opposed to child learning (pedagogy), does not compete with each other and in fact they both lie on a continuum. Pedagogy is really a theory of teaching while Andragogy is really a theory of learning. In fact the term Andragogy can be supposedly equivalent to term pedagogy. In Jarvis's (1985) view, for Knowles, 'education from above' (teacher and student) is pedagogy, while 'education of equals' (facilitator and learner) is Andragogy.

He labelled Andragogy as an emerging technology which facilitates the development and implementation of learning activities for adults. Andragogy is a theory specifically for adult learning. Knowles comparison of the assumptions of Andragogy and pedagogy follows in Table-1 (Jarvis 1985):

Table - 1

Assumptions of Andragogy vs Pedagogy

Assumptions	Andragogy	Pedagogy
The learner's Self Concept	As the learner is mature his self concept moves from being *dependent personality towards (independent) Self-directed human being.* Facilitator/Teacher encourages and nurtures this movement.	*Dependent.* Teacher directs what, when, how a subject is learned and tests what has been learned
The learner's experience	Have a vast reservoir/repertoire of accumulated *experience which is a rich resource for learning* for themselves and for others. Hence teaching methods include experiential ones--laboratory experiments, discussions, problem-solving, field experiences etc.	*Of little worth.* Hence teaching methods are didactic
Readiness to learn	*People learn what they need to know,* so learning programs are organised around life application and sequenced according to the learners' readiness.	*Learners are children and hence learn what society expects them to.* So that the curriculum is standardized.
Orientation to learning	With maturity the person's perspective changes from one of *postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application* and hence orientation of learning shifts from *subject centeredness to problem centeredness.*	*Learning experiences emphasise acquisition of subject matter.* Curriculum is subject centered.
Motivation to learn	Adults are motivated to learn by *internal/intrinsic* rather than external factors.	It stems from both *internal* as well as *external factors* e.g. reward, awards & praise from teachers and peers.

Andragogy and Pedagogy can be described as the combination of a multidimensional set of variables which includes locus of control, learner characteristics, and situational circumstances. The difference between Pedagogy and Andragogy can further be summed up as under in Table-2:

Table - 2
Pedagogy vs Andragogy

Pedagogy	Andragogy
Mandatory Attendance	Voluntary Attendance
Subject Centered	Problem Centered
Dependent Learners	Independent Learners
Inexperienced Learners	Experienced Learners
Teacher Prescribed Content	Learner Prescribed Content
Learners Grouped by Age Level or Ability	Learners Grouped by Interest or Needs
Learning for Future	Learning for Now
Learners Subordinate to the Teacher	Learners Equal to the Teacher
Rigid, Traditional Structure	Flexible, Alternative Structure
Passive Learners	Active Learners

After understanding what is Andragogy, what is the distinction between Pedagogy and Andragogy and also the various Andragogical assumptions; the next important thing is to understanding its application. The knowledge about Principles of Adult Learning comes in handy during any teaching/training program for adult learners, as the practical application of these Principles facilitates adult learning

Principles of Adult Learning

According to Knowles (1984) the practitioner and theorist of adult education, the 'adult learning principles' that should be applied while teaching/training adults are:

1.   Adults are intrinsically motivated and self-directed.
2.   Adults need to be involved in the planning and evaluation of their instruction.
3.   Adults bring their life experiences (including mistakes) and knowledge to learning situations and their learning is experience based.

4. Adults are relevancy oriented and hence most interested in learning subjects that have immediate relevance to their job or personal life.
5. Adults are practical.
6. Adults like to be respected.

Cross (1981) further adds to these Principles:

7. Adult learning programs should capitalize on the experience of participants.
8. Adult learning programs should adapt to the aging limitations of the participants.
9. Adults should be challenged to move to increasingly advanced stages of personal development.

A few other Principles of adult learning are:

10. Meet individual learning needs of adults.
11. Make course content relevant and coherent.
12. Create and provide a supportive open learning environment for adults that will help them learn.
13. Adults learn at different speeds and through different methods of teaching and training.
14. Progression from 'known to unknown' (experiential learning) and from 'simple to complex' and 'concrete to abstract' (Jarvis, 1985).
15. It is important to keep the learners socio-cultural background and milieu in mind while designing the training/teaching-learning programmes for the adults.
16. Praise and appreciation not only provides encouragement it also improves the confidence levels of the adult learners.
17. Encourage the learners to express and communicate their views, opinions and feelings freely without inhibitions.
18. Recognise the individual capabilities, interests and limitations of the learners. Adults learn at various rates and in different ways according to their intellectual ability, educational level, personality and cognitive learning styles. Teaching strategies must anticipate and accommodate different rates of comprehension of learners.
19. Encourage individual creativity and initiative.
20. Provide immediate feedback on learning results. Feedback must be specific, not general.

21. Reinforcement is a very necessary part of the teaching/learning process through recall, repetitions, memory games, mnemonic (Systematic strategies for strengthening long-term retention and retrieval of information through

keywords, acronyms, rhyming words) strategies and drills.

Vella's (1994) has incorporated Malcolm Knowles Andragogical model and has evolved 12 principles for effective adult learning which include:

1. **Needs Assessment**: Participation of the learner in naming what is to be learned.
2. **Safety** in the environment between teacher and learner for learning and development.
3. **A sound relationship** between teacher and learner for learning and development.
4. Careful attention to **sequence** of content and **reinforcement**.
5. **Praxis**: Action with reflection or learning by doing.
6. **Respect for learners** as subjects of their own learning.
7. Cognitive, affective, and psychomotor aspects: **ideas, feelings, actions**.
8. **Immediacy** of the learning.
9. **Clear roles** and role development.
10. **Teamwork**: Using small groups.
11. **Engagement** of the learners in what they are learning.
12. **Accountability**: How do they know they know?

Components of the Andragogical Process Design

Following the development of understanding about Andragogical assumptions, principles of adult learning, we can now progress to unravel the salient features of the **Andragogical process design** for instruction of adult learners:

1. Foremost is preparing the learner for adult education program. A program that is participatory in nature and caters to the special needs of learner will draw the adult learners to the program.
2. An optimal physical as well as psychological climate for adult learning is necessary for fostering mutual respect, collaboration, trust, supportiveness, openness, authenticity, pleasure, and "humanness."

3.   Adult learners are involved in the program planning. Sharing responsibilities alongside their facilitators naturally draws out a sense of remaining committed to the program till the end.
4.   Adult learners diagnose their own learning needs regarding acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudinal change.
5.   Adult learners formulate their own learning objectives.
6.   Adult learners formulate their own learning plans to meet those objectives.
7.   Tools, most prominently learning contracts, are needed to help learners carry out their learning plans.
8.   Adult learners are involved in evaluating their own learning.

Andragogy and Self-Directed Learning

The concept of **self-directed learning** is the key to Andragogy. In its broadest sense, self-directed means that the learner takes initiative, with or without the help of others, diagnoses the learning needs, formulates learning goals, identify resources both human as well as non-human material resources, chooses and implements appropriate learning strategies and evaluates the learning outcomes. Being self -directed connotes that the adult student should be allowed to participate fully in evaluating their learning needs, planning, implementing, evaluating the learning activities and experiences. According to Knowles individuals can be assisted in becoming more self-directed when given appropriate learning tools, resources, experiences, and encouragement. Self directed learning is the subject of considerable theory and research among adult educators (Garrison, 1997). Grow's (1991) four **Staged Self-Directed Learning (SSDL) Model** is perhaps the most prominent explanation of the role of self-directed learning in education. It describes four learner stages and the teachers' role at each of these four levels:

Stage 1: Student is a dependent learner. He/she lacks relevant knowledge, skills, experience, motivation and self confidence to pursue educational goals; teacher serves as authority or as coach; examples include drills, informational lectures.

To move them up to next stage requires a delicate balance between encouraging, motivating and demanding performance; it requires warmth, encouragement and support to the extent that learners don't see teacher/ facilitator as a pushover.

Stage 2: Student is an interested, enthusiastic learner who responds to motivational techniques; teacher serves as motivator and guide; examples include guided discussions, informational lectures.

To move them to next stage requires training adult learners in basic skills as goal setting, building confidence, helping them realise their potentials, their different personality types, learning styles and encouraging them to explore and express it.

Stage 3: Student is an involved learner, having skill and knowledge, and sees him/her self as participant in the learning experience; teacher serves as a facilitator, guiding and supporting them; examples include group projects, seminar, discussions facilitated by teacher where both participate as equals.

To move them to next stage, the facilitator brings their experiences and weaves them into the learning situation. The facilitator also helps the adult learners examine themselves, their culture and that of others to explore why they feel about something when they sense they should be feeling something else. The facilitator also empowers the adult learners so they are able to face the challenges posed by life in future.

Stage 4: Student is a self-directed learner, who thrives in an atmosphere of autonomy; teachers serve as a consultant or delegator. The teacher weans the adult learners of being taught and starts teaching invisibly; examples include self directed study groups, individual work, dissertation, internship.

To maintain this stage the facilitator/teacher meets the learners regularly and mentors them, reviews their progress, encourages them to work with others, collaborate and do self evaluation.

The SSDL Model helps match the facilitators/teachers style according to adult learners/trainees stage of self direction and helps them to progress towards greater self direction. This requires time, patience and does not occur overnight.

Conclusion

An adult learner is different from the child learner. Andragogy and Pedagogy helps us in understanding the differences between the two.

Knowledge about the various Andragogical assumptions, principles of adult learning and the knowledge of andragogical process design helps the facilitators to understand the psychological factors which influence adult learning and adults participation in learning experiences. These important areas of study together encompass the field of Theory of Adult Learning.

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A Study on the Attitude of Students of Education towards E-Learning

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Education is an instrument for social change. Therefore the purpose of education is not just making a person literate but to add rational thinking to his/her life. Learning plays a vital role in one's own life. Several approaches can be used to facilitate learning. Challenges of Globalization have brought a different frame of reference to the process of learning and Process of learning is highly impacted by e-Learning.

The National Curriculum Framework (2005) in its "Systematic Reforms for Curriculum Changes" stated the role of teachers in improving the teaching-learning process by developing new methods and strategies of classroom teaching. The NCERT (2000) in its "National Curriculum Framework for School Education: A Discussion Document", has observed that the revolution in new technologies constitute a change fundamental converting the information society into a knowledge society. The NPE (1986) and 1992 clearly stated in Chapter-8 that modern technologies would bypass several stages and sequences in the process of developments encountered in the earlier decades.

E-Learning is an approach to facilitate and enhance learning using information and communication technologies. It covers a wide set of applications and processes, such as web-based learning, computer based learning, virtual classrooms, and digital collaboration. It includes the delivery of content via Internet, Intranet (Local Area Network), extranet (Wide Area Network), audio and video tapes; satellite broadcast, internet TV, CD-ROM, and more. E-Learning provides faster learning at reduced costs, increases access of learning, and clear accountability for all participants in the learning process. Under the computer education programme, its applications are introduced in the curriculum of teacher education and all the students are expected to apply computer applications in their research and teaching learning processes. With all the facilities being provided, whether the students are possessing favorable attitude towards e-Learning is a question to be to be answered.

Need of the study

Learning is considered to be an essential component for the development of individual and collectiveness. E-Learning is self directed, allowing students to choose contents and tools appropriate to their interests, needs and skill levels. It fosters greater student interaction and collaboration and it accommodates multiple learning styles using a variety of delivery methods geared to different learners. E-learning is considered to be a more effective way of learning and teaching in larger group of students, thereby providing consistency in educational quality. The attitude towards e-Learning would influence the learning of any individual. Therefore the students of education are not different from that of users of e-gadgets who would enter the teaching profession and who would use the e-Learning technology during their teaching learning process. Hence the present problem is undertaken to study the attitude of students of education (M.Ed) towards e-Learning and to understand the influence of various variables.

Statement of the problem

"A study on the Attitude of students of Education towards e-Learning"

Operational definition of the terms used in the study

1.   Students of education are defined as the students pursuing Master of Education (M.Ed) on whom the study is aimed at.

2..   Attitude: The attitude is defined as the mindset of the students of education toward e-learning which was assessed using the scale developed by the investigator following the principles of Likert's five point scale model.

Objectives of the study

1.   To study the attitude of M.Ed students towards e-Learning in general

2.   To study the M.Ed students' attitude towards e-Learning with regard to the variables: Gender, Caste, Management, Locality, Educational qualification.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been set-up for testing:

1.   There would not be a significant difference between male and female M.Ed., students in their attitude towards e-Learning.
2.   There would not be any significant difference among OC, BC, SC and ST M.Ed., students in their attitude towards e-Learning.
3.   Management as a variable has nothing to do with the attitude of M.Ed., students towards e-learning
4.   There exists no significant difference between rural and urban M.Ed students' attitude towards e-Learning.
5.   There exists no significant difference between Under Graduate and Post Graduate M.Ed students' attitude towards e-Learning.

Methodology

Survey method was followed for the study and the three point attitude scale observing the norms of Likert's method for assessing the attitude of the students towards e-learning was developed by the investigator for collecting the data. Content validity and face validity were established. The reliability of the tool was established by employing split-half method, and it was found to be 0.70 (Spearman brown formula was used). The tool consisted of 25 statements.

Sample of the study

The two institutions having M.Ed., course in Warangal town were selected for the collection of data and purposive sampling method was employed. Investigator personally administered the tool on the students. The sample comprised of 62 students.

Table-1
Distribution of sample

S.No	Variable		Size of sample	Total
1	Gender	Male	36	62
		Female	26	
2	Caste	OC	6	
		BC	42	
		SC	10	62
		ST	4	
3	Management	Government	38	62
		Private	24	
4	Locality	Rural	40	
		Urban	22	62
5	Educational qualification	Graduation with M.Ed	53	62
		PG with M.Ed	9	

The data thus collected was analyzed on the basis of the objectives set for the study using appropriate statistical techniques.

Analysis and interpretation of data

The data collected from 62 respondents was analyzed as per the weights given to the responses following the Likert's method of summating ratings. The weights given for positive statement is three for agree, two for neutral and one for disagree and for the negative statement it is reverse and the number of respondentsfor each item are given in Table-2

Table-2
Number of respondents on each statement of the scale

Statement	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Total No of responses
e- Learning is not important for learning.	42	3	17	62
e-Learning enhances my carrier prospects	43	10	9	62
e-Learning helps to learn according to individual needs	47	2	13	62
e- Learning does not he lp to learn at learners own speed.	42	5	15	62
e-Learning materials are not attractive	42	12	8	62
e-Learning makes learning not difficult for me	19	9	34	62
e-Learning helps to learn actively	49	5	8	62
Using e-Learning in my Learning is enjoyable and stimulating	41	8	13	62
e-Learning Provides flexible interaction with my teachers and friends	36	9	17	62
I dislike working with machines	43	10	9	62
I think that e -Learning can replace/fulfill the teacher's role	36	10	16	62
I feel it is very costly	35	7	20	62
I feel it evolves all senses to learn more with little time	41	6	15	62
I think that e -Learning provides knowledge without help of supervisor.	19	12	31	62

e-Learning not requires physical attendance	33	9	20	62
I feel e -Learning provides global research opportunities	46	7	9	62
I feel that e -Learning materials are not easily accessible	28	16	18	62
e-Learning do not provide user friendly environment	37	12	13	62
I think that it is obstacle for Foreign language learning .	19	10	33	62
e-Learning provides digital library facility	43	8	11	62
e-Learning provides endless freedom to learner	41	8	13	62
I feel e -Learning is far away from real life.	19	18	25	62
e-Learning makes me feel tired and exhausted	17	20	25	62
e-Learning makes me feel that subject matter more interesting	45	6	11	62
I learn more from e -Learning classroom than traditional class room learning	37	5	20	62

The data of 62 students was analyzed and the mean attitude score of M.Ed., students was 57.75. This has showed that 77% of the students has favorable attitude towards e-learning.

Testing of Hypotheses

Hypothesis-1

There would not be significant difference between male and female M.Ed., students in their attitude towards e-Learning.

To test the above hypothesis the data was grouped into male and female and the mean scores of the two groups were calculated along the with SDs and the test was employed to find out the difference if any in their attitudes towards e-Learning. The results of the test are shown in the table given on the next page:

Table-3
Showing the mean values, SDs and the t value

Gender	N	Mean	SD	T-test	Significance
Male	36	57	6.93	1.34	Not
Female	26	58.8	3.64		significant

Computed t value is less than 1.96 for 0.05 level of significance, which is not significant. Therefore, Null hypothesis is accepted. In other words there is no significant difference between the male and female M.Ed., students in their attitude towards e-Learning. The gender of the students is not the influencing variable of their attitude towards e-Learning.

Hypothesis-2

There would not be any significant difference among OC, BC, SC and ST M.Ed., students in their attitude towards e-Learning.

To test the above hypothesis the data was grouped into OC, BC, SC and ST and the mean scores of the four groups were calculated along with the SDs and the f test was employed to find out the difference, if any, in their attitudes towards e-Learning. The results of the f test are shown in the table given below:

Table-4
Mean values, SDs and the F value

Caste	N	Mean	SD	f-test	Significance
OC	6	60.5	0.77	1.00	
BC	42	57	0.75		Not
SC	10	59.2	0.75		Significant
ST	4	58	0.99		

Computed f value is not greater than 2.79 for 0.05 level of table value. Therefore null hypothesis is accepted. Caste is not able to influence the attitude of M.Ed students towards e-Learning and the mean scores are not able to bring the difference to reject the null hypothesis. Of the groups categorized on the basis of caste, OC group is more favourable towards e-Learning.

Hypothesis-3

Management as a variable has nothing to do with the attitude of M.Ed., students towards e-Learning

To test the above hypothesis the data was grouped into Government and private colleges and the mean scores of the two groups were calculated along the with SDs and the t test was employed to find out the difference, if any, in their attitudes towards e-Learning. The results of the test are shown in the table given below:

Table-5
Mean values, SDs and the t value

Management	N	Mean	SD	T-test	Significance
Government	38	59.21	0.74	19.73	Significant
Private	24	55.45	0.76		

Computed t value is greater than 1.96 and 2.58 which is significant. Therefore Null hypothesis is rejected at 0.05 and 0.01 levels of significance. So there is a significant difference with respect to the mean scores of students of Government and private managements. The result showed that the students pursuing studies in Government institutions have favourable attitude towards e-Learning than the students of private colleges.

Hypothesis-4

There exists no significant difference between rural and urban M.Ed students' attitude towards e-Learning.

To test the above hypothesis, the data was grouped into urban and rural and the mean scores of the two groups were calculated along with the SDs and the results of the t test are given below:

Table-6
Mean values, SDs and the t value

Location	N	Mean	SD	T-test	Significance
Urban	22	60.45	.86	19.21	Significant
Rural	40	56.3	.77		

Computed t value is greater than 1.96 and 2.58 of table value at 0.05 and 0.01 leve of significance. Therefore Null hypothesis is rejected at 0.05 and 0.01 level of significance. Urban students have more inclination towards e-Learning. This does not mean the rural students are far behind the urban students and the score revealed that even rural students are equally interested in e-Learning

Hypothesis-5

There exists no significant difference between Under Graduate and Post Graduate M.Ed students' attitude towards e-Learning .

The above hypothesis was tested using the t test for which the mean scores of the two groups' viz., postgraduate and undergraduate students were calculated along with their SDs. The results of the t test are shown in the following table:

Table-7
Mean values, SDs and the t value

Qualification	N	Mean	SD	T-test	Significan
PG	53	57.56	5.96	0.7	Not Significan
UG	9	58.88	5.03		

Computed t value is less than 1.96 for 0.05 level of significance. Therefore the Null hypothesis is accepted. In other words students with post-graduation and students with graduation are not different in their attitude towards e-Learning and the variable 'management' is not able to influence the attitude of the students towards e-Learning.

Major Findings

1. In the total sample of 62 M.Ed students 77% (mean 57.75, variance is 33.75) of M.Ed students showed favorable attitude towards e-Learning.
2. Caste, Management, Locality had strong influence on attitude of students towards e-Learning.
3. Gender, Educational qualification of M.Ed student had no influence on their attitude towards e-Learning.

Conclusion

The study revealed that 77% of M.Ed students had favorable attitude towards e-Learning. The trend indicates positive attitude on their readiness to follow e-Learning classes. Therefore the instruction need to be done using the e-Learning materials and this paves way for better results among the students in their academic subjects. The educational system creates comprehensive and collaborative learning climate with the usage of e-Learning system and every class room needs LCD projectors with laptop and the students may be encouraged to learn the application of computers for solving various educational problems.

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Literacy Rate in India: A Census Based Analysis

Annie George

It is a universally accepted fact that literacy rate is a vital indicator of social and economic development in any society. The Census of India defines literacy rate as the proportion of literates to the total population in the age group 7 years and above. A significant improvement in the literacy rate has been observed, *notably in respect of female literacy,* in the country over the last decade. As per Census 2011 the overall literacy rate of India constitutes 73% with male literacy being 80.9% and female literacy 64.6%.

The decennial census data on literacy shows that over the last five decades, there has been an impressive improvement in the literacy rates of India. It is important to mention here that from 1951 to 1971, the age group 5 years and above, was considered, for calculating India's literacy rates by the Census, but from 1981 onwards the age group 7 years and above has been considered for estimating the literacy rates in India. The overall literacy rate of India, as per Census 1961 was only 28.3% but increased to 34.45% in 1971 (an increase of 6.15%), to 43.57% in 1981, to 52.21% in 1991, (an increase of 8.64%) and to 64.84% in 2001 (an increase of 12.63%) the highest ever increase over any one decade.

Table 1: Literacy rates in India over 1951-2011

Year	Total	Male	Female	Male-Female Gap
1951	18.3	27.2	8.9	18.3
1961	28.3	40.4	15.4	25.1
1971	34.5	46.0	22.0	24.0
1981	43.6	56.4	29.8	26.6
1991	52.2	64.1	39.3	24.8
2001	64.8	75.3	53.7	21.6
2011	73.0	80.9	64.6	16.3

Census 2011 observes an increase of 8% in the overall literacy level as compared to 2001 census. It is also evident that female literacy rate has doubled vis-à-vis the male literacy rate over the last decade. Also an extremely positive development is that, the literacy gap between males and females has declined to 16% in 2011.

Further the improvement in the literacy rate over the decade with regard to rural areas is two times the urban areas. Table-2 gives the literacy rates by sex and residence. It is evident from the table that the improvement in female literacy is better than males in respect of both rural and urban areas. Besides, the gender gap in literacy has come down from 24.6% in 2001 to 19.3% in 2011 in respect of rural areas and from 13.4% in 2001 to 9.7% in 2011 in respect of urban areas.

Table-2 Literacy Rates by Sex and Residence (in %)								
	Persons			Males			Females		
	2001	2011	D	2001	2011	D	2001	2011	D
India	64.8	73.0	8.2	75.3	80.9	5.6	53.7	64.6	10.9
Rural	58.7	67.8	9.1	70.7	77.2	6.5	46.1	57.9	11.8
Urban	79.9	84.1	4.2	86.3	88.8	2.5	72.9	79.1	6.2

A significant feature of 2011 Census is that the total number of illiterates has come down from 304 million in 2001 to 283 million – a decline of 21 million. Another interesting feature is that out of 203 million literates added during the decade, females (105 million) outnumber males (98 million). As mentioned earlier, out of 21 million in the number of illiterates declined, females (13.6 million) outnumber males (7.9 million). Thus these variations clearly indicate that the gender gap in literacy level is in fact fast shrinking. There are, however, large inter-state variations in literacy rates in the country. For instance, while the proportion of literates is the highest in Kerala with 94%, in Bihar it is just over 60% as per 2011 Census. Although variations in the literacy rates have declined over time, disparities can be seen if one takes into account the rural-urban differences or differences between male and female literacy rates. In this context, the primary objective of this study is to analyze the current literacy and illiteracy rates and changes over the last decade in the Indian context, at the national and sub-national levels, based on the final data of Census 2011.

Gender and Regional Variations in Literacy

During the last decade, there has been a relatively greater progress in the female literacy rate. The gender gap also has declined substantially in 2011 corresponding to 1991 and 2001 (see Table - 3). The Male–female differential in the literacy rates which was 24.8 percentage points in 1991 and 21.6 percentage points in 2001 decreased to 16.3 percentage points in 2011, indicating a substantial improvement in respect of females. The progress in female literacy is also evident, as reflected by a decrease in the absolute number of illiterate females between 2001-2011 (see Tables - 4 and 5). In 2001 the number of male illiterates in the country which was

110.64 million, has come down to 102.71 million in 2011, i.e., a decrease of 7% during 2001-2011 (it was *16.52% over the decade 1991-2001*). Over the same period, the number of female illiterates has decreased from 193.50 million to 179.88 million, i.e., a decrease of about 7 % (*it was just 5.1% over the decade 1991-2001*). It is also, interesting to note here that over the last decade, across 11 states, the male - female gap is higher than the national average, while in and the remaining states including 7 union territories, it is below the national average. A minimum differential in the gender disparity is found for the states of Kerala (4.0), Meghalaya (3.1) and Mizoram (4.1) (see Table - 3).

India consists of 28 States and 7 Union Territories (before the bifurcation of Andhra Pradesh). Of these 17 states including all the 7 Union Territories exhibit literacy rates above the National level of 73 percent. Among the states, Kerala tops the list with a total literacy rate of 94.0 percent followed closely by Lakshadweep (*91.85 %*) and Mizoram (*91.33%*). Bihar accounts for the lowest literacy rate in India over the last decade, similar to 1991-2011.

States having literacy rates below the national average are Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Jammu & Kashmir and all the EAG (*Empowered Action Group*) (EAG states are some of the most backward states identified by Empowered Action Group of the Government of India for special attention) states excluding Uttarakhand, while male literacy rates of only 11 states are below the national average. States with female literacy rates below the national average are Andhra Pradesh, Arunchal Pradesh, Jammu & Kashmir and Dadra and Nagar Havelli and all the EAG states except Uttarakhand. It is evident from Table-2 that the literacy rates for all the three categories (*Total, Male & Females*) are higher for other states as compared to all the EAG* states. Among the EAG States, Uttarakhand occupies the top spot in terms of literacy rate and is well above the National literacy rate. Male and female literacy is also the highest in Uttarakhand with 87.4 and 70.1 percent respectively. But it is satisfying to note that male literacy levels in EAG states are comparable with those of Non EAG states. However this is not the case with female literacy; female literacy of EAG states is below the national average (*64.64 percent*). Bihar also has recorded the lowest female literacy rate over the last decade (*51.5 percent*).

Between 2001 and 2011, Mizoram has registered the lowest increase in the literacy rate (2.5 percentage points), followed by Kerala (*3.1 percentage points*); this is primarily due to a high literacy rate in these states in the base year (Table-3). North-Eastern states have registered an increase of about 10 percentage points in the literacy rates over the last decade. Among the EAG states, Bihar has witnessed the highest increase in literacy over the last decade (*i.e; 14.8 percentage points*), while Chhattisgarh and Rajasthan the lowest increase (5.6%). Among the major states, the literacy rate has increased in Gujarat (*8.93 percentage points*) Assam (*8.89 percentage points*) and Karnataka (*8.76 percentage points*) over the said decade. While observing the percentage increase, Bihar has made a significant progress in

female literacy (*growth of 18.4%*).Among the major states Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Odisha and Karnataka have achieved more than a 10% increase in male literacy.

Table - 3
State –wise literacy rate by sex in India over the decade: 2001 – 2011

STATE/UT	Literacy Rate – Census 2011			Literacy rate Census 2001	Change in Literacy Rate over the decade (2001-2011)
	Persons	Male	Female		
Non EAG States					
Andhra Pradesh	67.0	74.9	59.2	60.5(70.3*,50.4**)	6.5
Arunachal Pradesh	65.4	72.6	57.7	54.3(63.8*,43.5**)	11.1
Assam	72.2	77.9	66.3	63.3(71.3*,54.6**)	8.9
Goa	88.7	92.7	84.7	82.0(88.4*,75.4**)	6.7
Gujarat	78.0	85.8	69.7	69.1(79.6*,57.8**)	8.9
Haryana	75.6	84.1	65.9	67.9(78.5*,55.7**)	7.7
Himachal Pradesh	82.8	89.5	75.9	76.5(85.3*,67.4**)	6.3
J&K	67.2	76.8	56.4	55.5(66.6*,43.0**)	11.7
Karnataka	75.4	82.5	68.1	66.6(76.1*,56.8**)	8.8
Kerala	94.0	96.1	92.1	90.9(94.2*,87.7**)	3.1
Maharashtra	82.3	88.4	75.9	76.8(85.9*,67.0**)	5.5
Manipur	79.2	86.1	72.4	70.5(79.5*,60.1**)	8.7
Meghalaya	74.4	76.0	72.9	62.6(65.4*,59.6**)	11.8
Mizoram	91.3	93.4	89.3	88.8(90.7*,86.7**)	2.5
Nagaland	79.6	82.8	76.1	66.6(71.2*,61.5**)	13.0
Punjab	75.8	80.4	70.7	69.6(75.2*,63.4**)	6.2
Sikkim	81.4	86.6	75.6	68.8(76.0*,60.4**)	12.6
Tamil Nadu	80.1	86.8	73.4	73.5(82.4*,64.4**)	6.6
Tripura	87.2	91.5	82.7	73.2(81.0*,64.9**)	14.0
West Bengal	76.3	81.7	70.5	68.6(77.0*,59.6**)	7.7
EAG States					
Bihar	61.8	71.2	51.5	47.0(59.6*,33.1**)	14.8
Chhattisgarh	70.3	80.3	60.2	64.7(77.4*,51.9**)	5.6
Jharkhand	66.4	76.8	55.4	53.6(67.3*,38.8**)	12.8
Madhya Pradesh	69.3	78.7	59.2	63.7(76.1*,50.3**)	5.6
Odisha	72.9	81.6	64.0	63.1(75.4*,50.5**)	9.8
Rajasthan	66.1	79.2	52.1	60.4(75.7*,43.8**)	5.7
Uttar Pradesh	67.7	77.3	57.2	56.3(68.8*,42.2**)	11.4
Uttarakhand	78.8	87.4	70.0	71.6(83.3*,59.6**)	7.2
Union Territories					
A & N Islands	86.6	90.3	82.4	81.3(86.3*,75.2**)	5.3
Chandigarh	86.1	90.0	81.2	81.9(86.1*,76.5**)	4.1
D & N Haveli	76.2	85.2	64.3	57.6(71.3*,40.2**)	18.6
Daman & Diu	87.1	91.5	79.6	78.2(86.7*,65.6**)	8.9
Delhi	86.2	90.9	80.8	81.7(87.3*,74.7**)	4.5
Lakshadweep	91.8	95.6	88.0	86.7(92.5*,80.5**)	5.1
Puducherry	85.8	91.3	80.7	81.2(88.6*,73.9**)	4.6
INDIA	**73.0**	**80.9**	**64.6**	64.8(75.3*,53.7**)	8.2

Source: Final Population Totals: India, Census of India, 2011 [* male, ** female]

Although there has been a remarkable improvement in the literacy rates over the last decade, there are still 282.59 million illiterates including 179.88 million female illiterates (64.62%). Infact, more than 50% of illiterates are found in 5 states (Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan (Chart - 1). In absolute terms, nearly 150 million illiterates are found in these states with more than 50% of them being females (Chart-2).

Chart 1 Share of illiterates(Persons) in India 2011

33.76 · 6.94 · 6.19 · 6.78 · 8.80 · 6.71

■ Uttar Pradesh   ■ Bihar   ■ Andhra Pradesh
■ Madhya Pradesh   ■ Rajasthan   ■ West Bengal
■ Maharashtra   ■ Rest of India
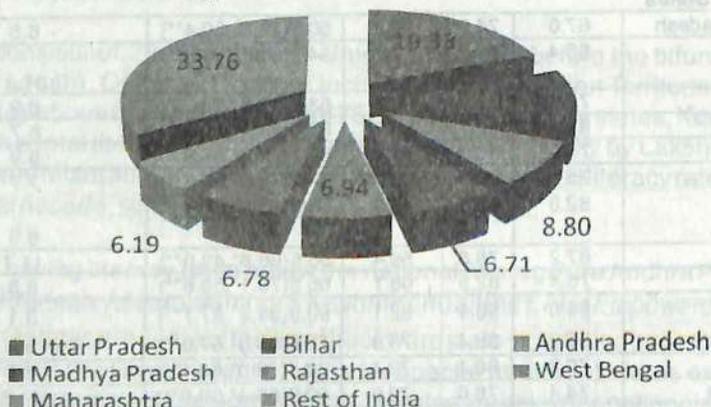
Chart 2 Share of female illiterates to total female illiterates India 2011

34.22 · 6.42 · 6.44 · 7.45 · 8.56

■ Uttar Pradesh   ■ Bihar   ■ Andhra Pradesh
■ Madhya Pradesh   ■ Rajasthan   ■ West Bengal
■ Maharashtra   ■ Rest of India
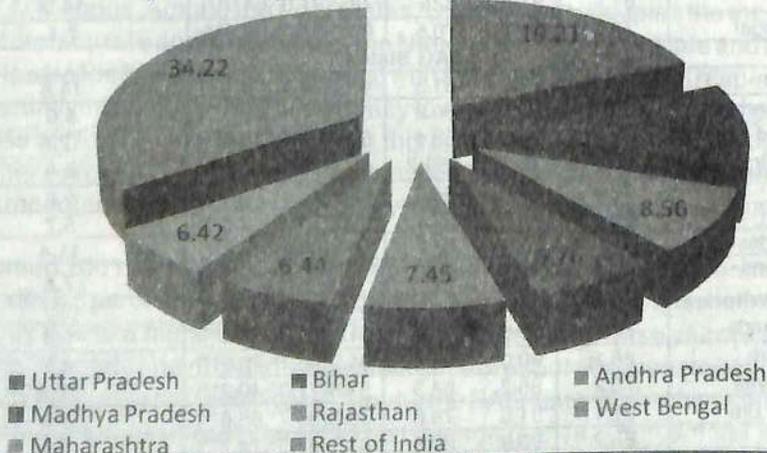
The percentage shares of females in the total illiterates for the selected states are shown in Table-3. While examining the share of females to total illiterates, it becomes clear that, it is very high in respect of Uttarakhand, Himachal Pradesh,

Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat and Kerala. On the other hand, in terms of female literacy rate for 2011, Kerala tops the list, while Himachal Pradesh takes the 10th rank, Maharashtra 13th rank, Gujarat 17th and Uttarakhand 18th rank. It indicates that even in educationally as well as socially and economically advanced states, most of the illiterates happen to be females.

Table - 4
Percentage Share of females in the
Total illiterates for selected states

Himachal Pradesh	69.26
Uttarakhand	69.89
Kerala	69.16
Chhattisgarh	66.71
Gujarat	66.28
Maharashtra	65.99
Rajasthan	68.29
Madhya Pradesh	65.79
Andhra Pradesh	62.16
Tamil Nadu	66.81

For 2011, the percentage change in the number of illiterate persons is negative in 3 states namely Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh; all the three states are located in the Northern region and are categorized as EAG states (Table-4). Kerala has witnessed about a 30% decline in the number of illiterate persons over the decade 2001-2011. 15% decrease in the number of illiterates person during the same period was in Gujarat and Odisha. Many states have shown more than a 10% decrease in the number of illiterate persons.

With respect to a reduction in the number of illiterates in the country, only three states have contributed negatively namely Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh, While the highest positive contribution has come from Uttar Pradesh (19.6%) and the least from Rajasthan (-6.94). Odisha, Maharashtra, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu have made a contribution of around 5% towards a reduction in the number illiterates in the country whereas Bihar has made a contribution of about 12% towards a reduction in the number of illiterate persons. Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Karnataka and West Bengal together have made a contribution of almost 50 percent towards a decline in the total number of illiterates in the country.

Uttar Pradesh has contributed the maximum (26.39%) to the decadal decrease (2001-2011) in the number of male illiterates in the country (see Tables - 6 & 7) followed closely by Bihar, West Bengal, Gujarat, and Karnataka have contributed more than 5% towards a decline in the number of male illiterates, while Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh have contributed negatively to the decadal decrease

Chhattisgarh and Madhya Pradesh have contributed negatively to the decadal decrease in the number of male as well as female illiterates. Uttar Pradesh and Bihar have made a huge contribution to the decline in the number of female illiterates in the country, whereas Rajasthan has made a significant negative contribution to the decadal decline in the number of female illiterates. The contributions of Uttar Pradesh (*15.68*), Bihar (*10.71*), West Bengal (*13.22*), Maharashtra (*11.96*) and Karnataka (*8.69*) taken together, amount to a total 60% decline in the number of female illiterates in the country.

To understand further the regional variations in the literacy rates, an analysis has been carried out at the district level. According to 2011 census, out of 640 districts, only 15 districts have achieved literacy rates equal to or less than 50% (*3 districts each from Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, 4 from Odisha and one district each from Arunachal Pradesh and Jharkhand*); 63 districts in the range of 50-60%; 182 districts in the range 60-70%; 222 districts in the range 70-80% and 158 districts in the range of more than 80%. Districts with more than 90% literacy rate are found located in Kerala i.e, 11 districts out of 14 districts *(55%)*), Mizoram (4 districts, 20%), Puducherry, Lakshadweep, Nagaland, Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu (one district, each, 5%). Less than 3% of the districts (17) have achieved female literacy rates less than 40%; 12.8% (82) of the districts in the range of 40-50%; 24.7% (158) of the districts in the range 50-60%; 27.7% (177) of the districts in the range 60-70%; 21.4% (137) of the districts in the range 70-80% and 10.8% (69) of the districts more than 80%.

STATE/UT	Number of Illiterates		Decadal decrease in the total No. of illiterates	% Change	State-wise contribution to decrease (in %)
	2011	2001			
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	45422	58236	12814	22.0	0.02
Andhra Pradesh	24881215	26103827	1222612	4.7	8.80
Arunachal Pradesh	405534	407312	1778	0.4	0.14
Assam	7389469	8142099	752630	9.2	2.61
Bihar	32460935	35082869	2621934	7.5	11.49
Chandigarh	130578	141777	11199	7.9	0.05
Chhattisgarh	6503587	6105738	-397849	-6.5	2.30
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	69584	76387	6803	8.9	0.02
Daman and Diu	27907	30026	2119	7.1	0.01
Delhi	2037720	2168894	131174	6.0	0.72

Table – 5 Details of Illiteracy across states and India

Goa	148447	216138	67691	31.3	0.05
Gujarat	11569072	13310863	1741791	13.1	4.09
Haryana	5371753	5715350	343597	6.0	1.90
Himachal Pradesh	1046968	1243142	196174	15.8	0.37
Jammu and Kashmir	3455164	3850611	395447	10.3	1.22
Jharkhand	9270570	10211801	941231	9.2	3.28
Karnataka	13286942	15233500	1946558	12.8	4.70
Kerala	1797282	2562540	765258	29.9	0.64
Lakshadweep	4665	6876	2211	32.2	0.00
Madhya Pradesh	18966245	17973246	-992999	-5.5	6.71
Maharashtra	17493526	19241558	1748032	9.1	6.19
Manipur	463955	591614	127659	21.6	0.16
Meghalaya	613348	692968	79620	11.5	0.22
Mizoram	80500	83394	2894	3.5	0.03
Nagaland	344997	568035	223038	39.3	0.12
Odisha	9958429	11608795	1650366	14.2	3.52
Puducherry	157786	160819	3033	1.9	0.06
Punjab	5959982	6430200	470218	7.3	2.11
Rajasthan	19623651	18154176	-1469475	-8.1	6.94
Sikkim	101514	144321	42807	29.7	0.04
Tamil Nadu	12885691	14645974	1760283	12.0	4.56
Tripura	411120	740658	329538	44.5	0.15
Uttar Pradesh	54623455	58854009	4230554	7.2	19.33
Uttarakhand	1849525	2023535	174010	8.6	0.65
West Bengal	19156368	21565574	2409206	11.2	6.78
India	282592906	304146862	21553956	7.1	100.00

Table – 6 Details of male Illiteracy across States and India

STATE/UT	Number of male illiterates		Decadal decrease in the total No. of male illiterates	% Change	State wise contribution to decrease (in %)
	2011	2001			
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	17724	23256	5532	23.79	0.07
Andhra Pradesh	9475953	9895304	419351	4.24	5.28
Arunachal Pradesh	166420	171827	5407	3.15	0.07
Assam	3007319	3299224	291905	8.85	3.68
Bihar	12782895	13946714	1163819	8.34	14.66
Chandigarh	51781	61588	9807	15.92	0.12
Chhattisgarh	2165067	1962410	-202657	-10.33	-2.55
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	24808	29209	4401	15.07	0.06
Daman and Diu	11514	10835	-679	-6.27	-0.01

Delhi	717030	826769	109739	13.27	1.38
Goa	48857	70878	22021	31.07	0.28
Gujarat	3901003	4552156	651153	14.30	8.20
Haryana	1857558	2050089	192531	9.39	2.43
Himachal Pradesh	321824	391128	69304	17.72	0.87
Jammu and Kashmir	1291636	1534904	243268	15.85	3.06
Jharkhand	3280649	3716144	435495	11.72	5.49
Karnataka	4782895	5546749	763854	13.77	9.62
Kerala	554265	779985	225720	28.94	2.84
Lakshadweep	1303	1979	676	34.16	0.01
Madhya Pradesh	6801806	6191531	-610275	-9.86	-7.69
Maharashtra	5950081	6069201	119120	1.96	1.50
Manipur	155456	203634	48178	23.66	0.61
Meghalaya	289307	324600	35293	10.87	0.44
Mizoram	31249	35828	4579	12.78	0.06
Nagaland	150907	259416	108509	41.83	1.37
Odisha	3405958	3923685	517727	13.19	6.52
Puducherry	47606	48638	1032	2.12	0.01
Punjab	2537415	2778951	241536	8.69	3.04
Rajasthan	6223409	5793238	-430171	-7.43	-5.42
Sikkim	39040	59582	20542	34.48	0.26
Tamil Nadu	4277208	4865631	588423	12.09	7.41
Tripura	138999	269516	130517	48.43	1.64
Uttar Pradesh	20059965	22154923	2094958	9.46	26.39
Uttarakhand	556866	604100	47234	7.82	0.60
West Bengal	7579821	8189379	609558	7.44	7.68
India	102705594	110643001	7937407	7.17	100.00

Table – 7 Details of male Illiteracy across States and India					
STATE/UT	Number of female illiterates		Decadal decrease in the total No. of female illiterates	% Change	State wise contribution to decrease (in %)
	2001	2011			
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	34980	27698	7282	20.82	0.02
Andhra Pradesh	16208523	15405262	803261	4.96	8.56
Arunachal Pradesh	235485	239114	-3629	-1.54	0.13
Assam	4842875	4382150	460725	9.51	2.44
Bihar	21136155	19678040	1458115	6.90	10.94

Chandigarh	80189	78797	1392	1.74	0.04
Chhattisgarh	4143328	4338520	-195192	-4.71	2.41
Dadra and Nagar Haveli	47178	44776	2402	5.09	0.02
Daman and Diu	19191	16393	2798	14.58	0.01
Delhi	1342125	1320690	21435	1.60	0.73
Goa	145260	99590	45670	31.44	0.06
Gujarat	8758707	7668069	1090638	12.45	4.26
Haryana	3665261	3514195	151066	4.12	1.95
Himachal Pradesh	852014	725144	126870	14.89	0.40
Jammu and Kashmir	2315707	2163528	152179	6.57	1.20
Jharkhand	6495657	5989921	505736	7.79	3.33
Karnataka	9686751	8504047	1182704	12.21	4.73
Kerala	1782555	1243017	539538	30.27	0.69
Lakshadweep	4897	3362	1535	31.35	0.00
Madhya Pradesh	11781715	12164439	-382724	-3.25	6.76
Maharashtra	13172357	11543445	1628912	12.37	6.42
Manipur	387980	308499	79481	20.49	0.17
Meghalaya	368368	324041	44327	12.03	0.18
Mizoram	47566	49251	-1685	-3.54	0.03
Nagaland	308619	194090	114529	37.11	0.11
Odisha	7685110	6552471	1132639	14.74	3.64
Puducherry	112181	110180	2001	1.78	0.06
Punjab	3651249	3422567	228682	6.26	1.90
Rajasthan	12360938	13400242	-1039304	-8.41	7.45
Sikkim	84739	62474	22265	26.27	0.03
Tamil Nadu	9780343	8608483	1171860	11.98	4.79
Tripura	471142	272121	199021	42.24	0.15
Uttar Pradesh	36699086	34563490	2135596	5.82	19.21
Uttarakhand	1419435	1292659	126776	8.93	0.72
West Bengal	13376195	11576547	1799648	13.45	6.44
India	193503861	179887312	13616549	7.04	100.00

Gender Gap in the Literacy Rates

In India, male literacy is higher than female literacy. Historically, a variety of factors have contributed to the for low female literacy rates, viz Gender based inequality, social discrimination and economic exploitation occupation of girl child in domestic chores and low enrolment of girls in schools.

Table - 8
Gender Parity Index (GPI) of Literacy across states

States	2001	2011
Jammu & Kashmir	0.65	0.74
Himachal Pradesh	0.79	0.84
Punjab	0.84	0.88
Chandigarh	0.89	0.90
Uttarakhand	0.72	0.80
Haryana	0.71	0.78
Delhi	0.86	0.89
Rajasthan	0.58	0.66
Uttar Pradesh	0.61	0.74
Bihar	0.55	0.72
Sikkim	0.79	0.87
Arunachal Pradesh	0.68	0.80
Nagaland	0.86	0.92
Manipur	0.76	0.84
Mizoram	0.96	0.96
Tripura	0.80	0.90
Meghalaya	0.91	0.96
Assam	0.77	0.85
West Bengal	0.77	0.86
Jharkhand	0.58	0.72
Odisha	0.67	0.78
Chhattisgarh	0.67	0.75
Madhya Pradesh	0.66	0.75
Gujarat	0.73	0.81
Daman & Diu	0.76	0.87
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	0.57	0.76
Maharashtra	0.78	0.86
Andhra Pradesh	0.72	0.79
Karnataka	0.75	0.83
Goa	0.85	0.91
Lakshadweep	0.87	0.92
Kerala	0.93	0.96
Tamil Nadu	0.78	0.85
Puducherry	0.83	0.88
Andaman & Nicobar Island	0.87	0.91
India	**0.71**	**0.80**

In order to minimize the inequality between the two sexes, it is necessary to minimize the difference between male and female literacy rates. The difference in male and female literacy rates in India in 2011 is 16.3 percentage points as compared to 21.6 percentage points in 2001. The difference between the two sexes has come down over the decade by 5 percentage points. In 2001 the gender disparity index ("GPI") of literacy rate was 0.59 or less in 4 states, while the same was equal to or less than 0.69 in respect of 10 states i.e., Jammu & Kashmir, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Arunachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Odisha, Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh, Dadra & Nagar Haveli.

Table - 9
Relative position of major states in terms of
gender disparity in literacy rates (2001 and 2011)

States	Rank*(GPI **) 2001	Rank*(GPI **) 2011
Bihar	1	3
Jharkhand	2	2
Rajasthan	3	1
Uttar Pradesh	4	5
Jammu & Kashmir	5	4
Madhya Pradesh	6	7
Odisha	7	9
Chhattisgarh	8	6
Arunachal Pradesh	9	11
Haryana	10	8
Uttarakhand	11	12
Andhra Pradesh	12	10
Gujarat	13	13
Karnataka	14	14
Manipur	15	15
Assam	16	18
West Bengal	17	20
Maharashtra	18	19
Tamil Nadu	19	16
Himachal Pradesh	20	17

* Higher the rank, wider is the gender disparity in the literacy rates in the states, i.e; smaller the size of GPI in literacy. A state with 'Rank 1' accounts for the highest gender disparity and a state with 'Rank 20' for the lowest gender disparity in literacy. The rank is not based on all states and UTs. The basic purpose is to show the progress of major states in bridging the gender gap during 2001-2011.

** GPI of literacy=Female Literacy Rate/Male Literacy Rate

In 2011, the GPI of literacy was more than .70 in respect all the states and union territories (excepting Rajasthan). In 2001, the gender gap in literacy which was highest in Bihar, improved its position to the third in 2011. Rajasthan which had occupied third position in 2001 in terms of GPI in literacy, moved to first position by 2011, further widening the gender disparity. The performance of states like Uttar Pradesh, Odisha and Arunachal Pradesh has been very encouraging in terms of reducing the gender gap in literacy. Overall the gender gap in literacy rate has substantially narrowed down across most of the Indian States over the last decade, which is certainly a significant achievement.

State-wise changes in Literacy and Illiteracy Rates during 2001-2011

The literacy level in India has increased by over 8 percentage points between 2001-2011. The rise seen in male and female literacy rates over the period, 2001-2011, amounts to the extent of nearly 6 and 11 percentage points respectively. Thus, the growth in literacy levels has nearly doubled in respect of females as compared to males. Therefore, the gender gap has got restricted to 16 percentage points as compared to 22 percentage points in 2001.

Table – 10
Percentage changes in illiteracy –literacy ratios (2001-2011)

States	Total Percentage			Male Percentage			Female Percentage		
	2001	2011	Change 01-11	2001	2011	Change 01-11	2001	2011	Change 01-11
Kerala	10	6	36	6	4	32	14	9	38
Tamil Nadu	36	24	32	21	15	29	55	35	36
Andhra Pradesh	65	47	28	42	32	23	98	67	31
Karnataka	50	32	36	31	21	34	76	47	38
Assam	58	37	37	40	27	33	83	49	41
Himachal Pradesh	31	19	37	17	10	41	48	31	37
Punjab	44	30	30	33	23	31	58	40	31
Gujarat	45	26	42	26	15	43	73	41	43
West Bengal	46	30	35	30	21	30	68	41	40
Maharashtra	30	21	31	16	11	31	49	32	34
Bihar	113	57	50	68	36	46	202	88	57
Chhattisgarh	55	41	25	29	23	22	93	65	30
Jharkhand	87	48	45	49	27	43	157	78	50
Madhya Pradesh	57	42	27	31	24	23	99	67	33
Odisha	59	36	38	33	21	35	98	55	43
Rajasthan	66	49	25	32	24	25	128	90	30
Uttar Pradesh	78	43	44	45	26	42	137	69	50
Uttarakhand	40	26	35	20	13	34	68	41	39

* Number of illiterates divided by number of literates X 100

Pertaining to illiteracy across states, Kerala accounts for just 6 percent of illiterates in 2011. To state otherwise, the number of illiterates per 100 literates in the state is 6. While in Bihar it is 57 illiterates for every 100 literates, the highest across states in India. Gender wise, Kerala accounts for only 4 male illiterates per 100 literate while 9 female illiterates per 100 literates. In respect of Bihar it is 36 and 88 illiterates for 100 literates for males and females respectively. The ratio of illiterates to literates in the country has changed significantly over the decade 2001-2011. For instance, Bihar has witnessed a significant change in respect to all categories over the decade 2001-2011 (*Total 50%, Males 46%, Females 57%*); more than 40% change in respect of Jharkhand and Uttar Pradesh; for males more than 35% change in respect of Gujarat, Jharkhand, Uttar Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh and for females

more than 40% change in respect Odisha, Jharkhand, UttarPradesh, Assam and Gujarat. EAG States like Bihar, UP and Jharkhand have witnessed substantial changes in illiteracy –literacy ratios over the decade 2001-2011. The standard deviation of the number of illiterates among the literates in the States/UTs works out to 9.66 in respect of males and 21.32 in respect of females. What it indicates is that States and UTs have experienced considerable variations in terms of the number of illiterates to literates, especially with regard to the females.

Population and Literacy: A State-Wise Comparison

The ratio of literates to the total population of each state, expressed as a percentage, gives an idea about the contribution of states to the literate population of the country as compared to their contribution of 100 persons to the total population For instance, among the states, Uttar Pradesh continues to account for the largest share of India's population i.e., 16.5 percent of India's total population resides in Uttar Pradesh followed by Maharashtra and Bihar with 9.3 and 8.6 percent respectively.

Table - 11
Share of Population and Literates (States) and their ratios

States	Percentage Share of India's		
	Tot Pop (T)	Literates (L)	L/T
Bihar	8.5	7.0	81
Chhattisgarh	2.1	2.0	95
Jharkhand	2.7	2.4	88
Madhya Pradesh	6.0	5.6	94
Odisha	3.5	3.5	100
Rajasthan	5.7	5.0	88
Uttar Pradesh	16.5	15.0	92
Uttarakhand	0.8	0.9	108
Andhra Pradesh	7.0	6.6	94
Assam	2.6	2.5	96
Gujarat	5.0	5.4	108
Himachal Pradesh	0.6	0.7	100
Kerala	2.8	3.7	129
Maharashtra	9.3	10.7	114
Punjab	2.3	2.5	104
Tamil Nadu	6.0	6.8	112
West Bengal	7.5	8.1	107

It can be seen from the table 11 that the states with high literacy rates contribute more to the literate population than to the total population of the country. For example, the state of Kerala, with the highest literacy rate among all the states and Union territories in the country, accounts for the lowest percent of India's total population

even as it contributes 3.6 percent of the country's literates. Thus when given State makes a contribution of 100 persons to the country's population, it means a contribution 129 literates to the country. Similarly, Maharashtra contributes 114 literates to the total population when it contributes 100 persons to the population of the country. Likewise, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Uttarakhand and West Bengal are the other major states that contribute more number of literates as compared to their contribution to the population of the country. Bihar contributes 81 literates to the literate population when it contributes 100 persons to the total population. The other major states under this category making relatively smaller contributions to the literate population when compared to their contribution to the population of the country, are Jharkhand, Rajasthan, Andhra Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Assam and Chhattisgarh. For Odisha and Himachal Pradesh the ratio with a value of 100 shows that their contributions to the total population and literates are identical.

Table – 12
Share of Male and Male Literates (States) and their ratios

States	Percentage Share of India's		
	Male Pop (T)	Literates (L)	L/T
Bihar	8.7	7.2	85
Chhattisgarh	2.1	2.0	95
Jharkhand	2.7	2.5	93
Madhya Pradesh	6.0	5.8	97
Odisha	3.4	3.5	103
Rajasthan	5.7	5.4	95
Uttar Pradesh	16.8	15.7	95
Uttarakhand	0.8	0.9	113
Andhra Pradesh	6.8	6.5	96
Assam	2.6	2.4	92
Gujarat	5.0	5.4	108
Himachal Pradesh	0.6	0.6	100
Kerala	2.6	3.1	119
Maharasthra	9.4	10.4	111
Punjab	2.3	2.4	104
Tamil Nadu	5.8	6.4	110
West Bengal	7.5	7.8	104

Kerala contributes the highest number of male literates for 100 males contributed to the population of the country i.e., 119 compared to 113 by Uttarkhand and 111 by Maharashtra. Among the southern states, Andhra Pradesh has made a relatively less contribution to male literates as compared to their contribution to the total male population. EAG states like Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Assam have made a lesser contribution to male literates when compared to their contribution to male population. Of these Bihar has contributed

85 male literates, as compared to their contribution of 100 to India's population. Assam with a contribution of 92 male literates and Jharkhand with 93 male literates come in the next two positions.

Table-13
Share of Female and Female Literates (States) and their ratios

States	Percentage Share of India's		
	Female Pop (T)	Literates (L)	L/T
Bihar	8.5	6.4	76
Chhattisgarh	2.2	2.0	91
Jharkhand	2.7	2.3	85
Madhya Pradesh	6.0	5.4	90
Odisha	3.5	3.5	100
Rajasthan	5.6	4.4	79
Uttar Pradesh	16.2	14.0	88
Uttarakhand	0.8	0.9	113
Andhra Pradesh	7.2	6.8	94
Assam	2.6	2.6	100
Gujarat	4.9	5.4	110
Himachal Pradesh	0.6	0.7	117
Kerala	3.0	4.3	143
Maharashtra	9.2	11.0	117
Punjab	2.2	2.4	109
Tamil Nadu	6.1	7.2	118
West Bengal	7.6	8.4	111

While Kerala has contributed 143 female literates as compared to 100 females to India's female population, its neighboring state Tamil Nadu has come up with only 118 female literates for every 100 females contributed to the female population of the country. Excepting Uttarakhand and Odisha, all other EAG states have accounted for a lesser contribution of female literates in relation to their contribution to the female population of the country, while Bihar with a contribution of only 76 female literates for every 100 females contributed to India's population.

Conclusion

The last decade has shown enormous improvement in the literacy scenario of the country (*particularly female literacy*) as reflected by high average literacy rates. The increase in the female literacy rates has doubled in relation to the increase in the literacy rates of males over the last decade. And the improvement in the literacy rates in respect of rural areas is two times their counterparts in the urban areas and also there is a higher improvement in female literacy in respect of both the urban and rural areas than male literacy levels.

But Illiteracy still remains to be wiped out in every state with the burden in terms of numbers being borne by a few states, such as UP, Bihar, AP, Rajasthan, West Bengal, Madhya Pradesh and Maharashtra. Not surprisingly, female illiteracy is also very high in these states. But when closely analyzed, these states have achieved a fairly encouraging reduction in the number of illiterates, especially female illiterates over the last decade as compared to earlier decades.

Analysis shows that gender disparity is high in respect of Rajasthan, Jharkhand, Bihar, Jammu & Kashmir and Chhattisgarh. Further, over the last decade, the performance of backward states when it comes to reducing the gender gap in literacy.

A greater improvement can also be observed in the literacy levels at the district level. Only 15 districts have literacy rates less than 50%. Pertaining to the issue of illiteracy across states, Kerala accounts for just 10 illiterate per 100 literates, whereas for Bihar it is 57 illiterates for every 100 literates, which is the highest across states in India. All EAG states, Assam, Andhra Pradesh and Himachal Pradesh made relatively lower contributions to the literate population relative to their contribution to the population of the country. Therefore this study concludes that significant steps should be taken to make a faster advancement in reducing illiteracy levels in the country.

Reference

Final Population Data: India, Census of India 2011, Census of India website

Career Interest among Government and Private School Adolescents

Gopal Chandra Mahakud

According to qualitative analysts the psychological attributes of no two persons are equivalent in nature and hence, it can be said that the interest to do certain work is also different from person to person. Hence, the career interest of children studying in government and private schools is definitely an interesting field of research as these two groups are heterogeneous in different aspects starting from environmental, psycho-social, psychological and their socio-economic status (Borchert, 2002, Coleman, Hoffer & Kilgore, 1982). The study of Humlum, Kleinjans and Neilsen (2007) asserted that high socio-economic status of school students positively influence for a better career choice compared to a low socio-economic group (Thout, 1969). Therefore it can be stated that individual difference is a key factor for interest to do any task. In this context, Rosenstock and Steinberg, (1996) and Borchert, (2002) affirmed the determination of career choices among adolescents are perceived from their environment, personality and job opportunities. People with keen interest and great enthusiasm always perform better in their work place as compared to the people without interest and/or of low enthusiasm. From numerous studies on career development it is confirmed that no single attribute can guide a person for better career choices. According to the views of Mahakud (2013) the measurement of intelligence; aptitude, personality and interest are most emergent aspects for a better career guidance. Further from the study of Mahakud (2013) conducted with (N=40) college adolescents in Delhi city using Differential Aptitude Test (DAT) and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices (SPM), it has been found that along with the assessment of aptitude, it is also necessary to assess the IQ level of the aspirants for any career selection and guidance.

In the underdeveloped countries and even developing countries career choices is a great concern. Choices of career in these countries face number of problems and/or a least choice usually given to the adolescents for the selection of their own career focusing to their interests. In this context it can be said that forceful interest towards any study or job selection definitely weaken their motivation level, energy level and indirectly slow down the

development of the country. Borchert, (2002) stated that it is very sad to say that in most of the countries parental, peer and other social pressures are common not only for selection of study in school level but also for higher education and job selection. Due to these factors some of the career choices are immature in nature. Adolescents select their career without thinking about their own abilities and do only due to the pressure from various social agents. In this context the statement of Borchert (2002) looking more valid that the personal values and desires have seldom been realized without the active and conscious efforts on the part of adolescents, therefore, most of the career choices could not be successful. In this regard the researcher suggested that the students must be motivated to orchestrate the outcome. If the students want to work in the career choice process they must know and understand the realities of that process.

If career planning is done in an efficient manner, students may at the very least be following a career plan of informed decision-making, rather than one of happenstance. Better career selection can be positively correlated with high success in their respective careers. The most important limitation in developing and underdeveloped countries is that till date the choice of career is traditional in nature. Therefore there are only a few studies focusing for a better career choice following the standard procedures such as various psychological measures (e.g. Aptitude, interest, personality and intelligence) especially in India. The discrimination of various factors between the government and private schools in metro cities is clearly visible. Therefore, it can be stated that the difference in students of their choices on food, shelter, costumes and the most important part of their life, i.e. career choice is also observable.

Keeping the above said issues in mind the researcher planned and conducted the present study to find out the career choice of the students studying in government and private schools in Delhi city for which the following methodology was adopted:

Objective

The study was planned to compare the career interest of government and private school adolescent students in Delhi city.

Materials

To exclude the adolescents specifically mentally retarded, the researcher

used Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices (SPM, Raven, 1998). It is difficult to locate adolescents with mental retardation in most of the private schools, but somehow it is possible to locate such students in government schools. It is to state here that in metro cities like Delhi mentally retarded children normally take admission in special schools. Then after getting a desired group of adolescents the researcher used Career Interest Inventory (Jovanovich, 1996) to satisfy the main objective of the study. Other materials such as Pencil, Laptop etc. were used according to the requirement of the study.

Sample

A total of 60 adolescent students were taken as sample for the study from 4 schools – 30 students from two government schools and another 30 from two private schools. The adolescent students chosen were from class XI and XII purposely 5 each from the stream of Science, Commerce and Humanities.

(n 30 from government schools + n 30 from private schools = N 60)

Design

The study followed single case research design by collecting the information from individual students in their leisure time. The selection of sample followed the following design of research depicted in the following Flow Chart. Five students from each stream (3 x 5 x 2 schools = 30). The design was maintained same for both government and private schools.

Flow Chart

30   30

Humanities	Science	Commerce	Humanities	Science	Commerce
(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)	(10)
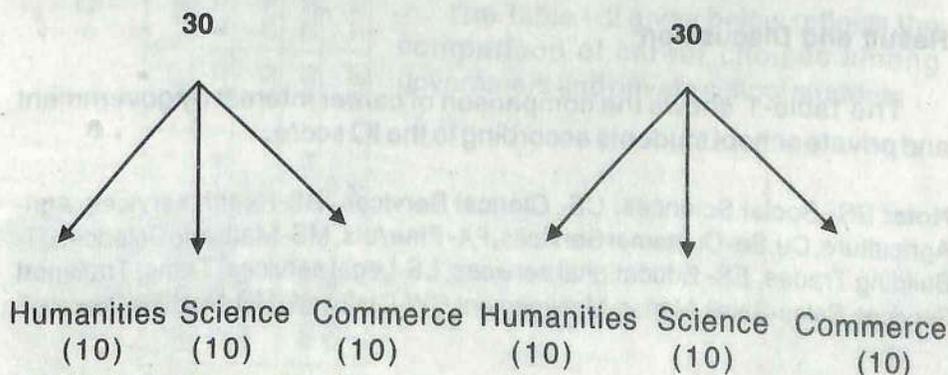
Procedure

After fulfilling the ethical formality of getting permission from the school authorities and the consent from the students for the study with the help of class teachers the researcher interacted with the participants in a friendly manner. It was not so difficult to the researcher because nearly the participants were similar age ranged with two of the persons helped the researcher. Then the researcher informed the students about the objective of the study and assured them that all the information collected will be kept confidential and will be strictly used for the research purpose only. The study initially followed IQ test and after accessing and categorising different IQ level the researcher collected the information related to career interest using the Career Interest Inventory.

The instructions for both SPM test and Career Interest Inventory were clearly detailed by the researcher before collection of data following respective test of concern. As the participants were skilled to read and understand the questionnaires the researcher only helped them to fill-up the questionnaire whenever and wherever they were confused. Besides the instructions during the collection of data the researcher also gave importance to some psychological intervening variables such as feeling fatigue, tiredness, boredom etc.

All the information collected from the participants were analyzed following the respective manuals and statistically analysed using different descriptive and inferential statistics such as graphical and students't–test. The scores in different subtest of Career Interest Inventory (Harcourt Assessment, 1996) were analysed using 't' matrices to compare the government and private school children's career interest in different field of work.

Result and Discussion

The Table-1 shows the comparison of career interest by government and private school students according to the IQ score.

Note: SS- Social Sciences, CS- Clerical Services, HS-Health services, Agri-Agriculture, Cu.Se-Customer Services, FA- Fine Arts, MS- Math and Science, BT-Building Trades, ES- Educational services, LS-Legal services, Trans. Transport Services, Sales-Sales, Manag-Management, CW-Craftwork, MO-Machine Operation

Table - 1

Comparison of Career Interest According to IQ Score of Government and Private School Students

Categories		SS	CS	HS	Agri.	Cu Se.	FA	MS	BT	ES	LS	Trans.	Sales	Manag.	CW	MO
Government students	90-110	31.33	33.72	34.39	32.44	30.17	33.44	34.39	29.44	31.94	32.22	33.06	29.00	30.72	34.17	32.78
	110-130	25.82	29.18	30.36	30.00	29.55	30.36	34.36	43.27	35.91	26.91	29.55	25.55	27.09	31.36	30.18
Private students	90-110	35.50	28.50	32.71	26.29	25.21	32.21	29.14	26.71	34.79	32.36	24.57	28.14	31.79	23.93	24.64
	110-130	35.27	30.80	35.53	28.53	30.27	35.73	35.27	24.87	34.27	34.07	26.20	27.33	33.53	24.27	23.93

The intelligence group of government and private school students were classified into two groups according to their IQ level such 90-110 and 111-130. The results following IQ in relation to career interest of both government and private school students revealed that the students with high IQ level 111-130 from government schools preferred Educational services (mean average score-43.27) and legal services (mean average score 35.91), compared to their counterpart of low IQ score (IQ=90-110), i.e. those scored a mean average score of 29.44 and 31.94 in educational services and legal services respectively (Result Table -1). In this context Zirkel, Richardson, & Gold, (2001) study also confirmed the same. In a study Greenbank, (2007) argued that students from poor socio-economic background may be less intelligent than higher SES classes which lead them poor educational achievement. In the later stage students from poor socio-economic background tend to possess short-term goals and lack ambition.

The Table – 2 given below reflects the comparison of career choices among government and private school students

Table-2
Comparison of Career Choices among Government and Private School Students

Careers	Categories	Mean	SD	df	P=value
Social Sciences	Government school	29.37	8.69	58	0.005*
	Private school	35.30	8.30		0.005**
Clerical Services	Government school	32.00	6.20	58	0.197*
	Private school	30.03	5.46		0.197**
Health Services	Government school	32.80	6.65	58	0.407*
	Private school	34.33	7.55		0.407**
Agriculture	Government school	31.50	6.04	58	0.035*
	Private school	27.87	6.93		0.035**
Customer Services	Government school	30.00	6.52	58	0.306*
	Private school	28.10	7.68		0.306**
Fine Arts	Government school	32.20	6.28	58	0.175*
	Private school	34.50	6.68		0.175**
Mathematics and Sciences	Government school	34.20	7.18	58	0.405*
	Private school	32.60	7.59		0.405**
Building Trades	Government school	34.37	35.71	58	0.188*
	Private school	25.53	6.69		0.188**
Educational Services	Government school	33.17	6.99	58	0.299*
	Private school	34.87	5.48		0.299**
Legal Services	Government school	30.17	6.05	58	0.085*
	Private school	33.60	8.89		0.085**
Transport	Government school	31.77	7.71	58	0.002*
	Private school	25.57	7.31		0.002**
Sales	Government school	27.87	5.81	58	0.953*
	Private school	27.97	7.19		0.953**
Management	Government school	29.47	6.90	58	0.059*
	Private school	33.17	7.94		0.059**
Craft Work	Government school	33.20	6.24	58	0.000*
	Private school	24.97	7.76		0.000**
Machine Operation	Government school	31.87	6.07	58	0.000*
	Private school	24.23	6.76		0.000**

P= Value: *0.05% level of confidential, **0.01 level of confidential

Socio-economic status, school environment, school culture etc. are some of the important factors which determine the career choice among school children. The result of the present study based on career choice among government and private school children are definitely different. It revealed that there is a significant difference of career choice in the field of social sciences (government school Mean=29.37, SD= 8.69, private school Mean= 35.30, SD=8.30) at P=0.005).

This result indicates that private school students are more interested for career in social sciences in comparison to government school students. It may be due to the students in government schools come from the families belong to poor socio-economic status in comparison to the private school students. In this regard Lent, (2001) and Herr, Cramer and Niles (2004) stated that career choices among adolescents are mostly influenced by the socio-economic status of their families. The researcher also argued that better socio-economic status of the people can help them to gather information better about the work, work experience and occupational stereotypes, which, in turn, affect their vocational interests (p. 198). In a recent study by Metheny & McWhirter (2013) stated that some of the variables such as family socio-economic status, family support, and parental career also influence the preference of career among the adolescents.

Similarly in the field of agriculture, the mean score of government school students was 31.50 and SD=6.04 and of private school students was 27.87 and SD=6.93 at P=0.035. The difference states that government school children have comparatively shown more interest in agriculture as a career than the private school students. In the field of Transport, the mean score of government school students was 31.77 and SD=7.71 and of private schools was 25.57 and SD=7.31 at P=0.002. The result indicates that government school children are more interested in the field of transport compared to private school children. In this regard Milne & Plourde (2006) stated that the poor socio-economic status is an important cause of low cognitive development among children with poor SES and further it leads to low academic performance in the class and also leads them to choose jobs with low salary as a career in future. Due to the declination of interest in the field of agriculture and lack of opportunities in cities, it is found that students did not choose agriculture as a career (Esters & Bowen (2005). In this regard the other career interest also depends on their socio-economic status - poor socio-economic status people choose jobs with low salary like driving, carpentry, stitching, etc. while the high socio-economic status people choose some better jobs like social sciences, engineering, health care, etc.

In the recent time management courses have taken an important place in the developing country like India. In the field of management as a career option, government school students' mean score was 29.47, SD=6.90, whereas private school students' mean score was 33.17, SD=7.94 at P=0.059. The result indicates that private school children prefer management

as a career comparatively better than the government school students. In the field of craft work government school students' mean score was 33.20, SD=6.24 whereas private school students mean score was 24.97, SD=7.76 at P=0.000. This finding indicates that private school students are less interested in craft work as a career than that of the government school children. Further it was found that the mean score of government school students in the field of machine operation was 31.87, SD 6.07 while the mean score of private school students was 24.23, SD=6.76 at P=0.000. This indicates high preference of machine operation by government school students compared to their counterparts in private schools. It can be said that students from low socio-economic status (especially studying in government aided schools) prefer jobs with low salary compared to the students belong to high socio-economic status. In this context Arulmani and Arulmani (2004) stated that preference of low salary jobs by lower socio-economic group students may be due to their feeling of less control over their lives and see less value in sacrificing for long term goals. They were less interested in career planning or further education and were more likely to plan to enter the workforce directly due to poverty and immediate financial requirements of their families.

The results of the study in other fields of career choices such as clerical services, health services, customer services, fine arts, mathematics and sciences, building trades, educational services, legal services, and sales found no such significant differences between the government school students and private school students. In their study, O'brien, Martinez-pons and Kopala (1999) affirmed that career interest in mathematics is mostly influenced by some of the important factors such as ethnic identity, academic achievement, and socio-economic status of the aspirants. In some other studies, other factors such as gender (Houser & Yoder, 1992; Jones & Larke, 2001) parental occupation (Stone & Wang, 1990), parent's educational qualification (Conroy, Scanlon, & Kelsey, 1998; Jones & Larke, 2003), Parental influence (Findlay & Rawls, 1984; Kotrlik & Harrison, 1987, 1989; Fisher & Griggs, 1995), and self-esteem (Wilson & Fasko, 1992; Hughes, Martinek, & Fitzgerald, 1985) are also responsible to choose mathematics as a career. The cause might be that, some of the careers like legal services, educational services, building trades and health services are equally demanding among the low and high economic status people especially in metro cities. For these services it needs more skill and aptitude than to financial factors. In a study by Morgan, Isaac, & Sansone (2001) found that 79% white students, 12% Latino, 5% Asian, 4% others from the

middle class socio-economic status preferred physical/mathematical science careers.

Conclusion

Choosing a right career for future is very important for life. In this regard the scientific process of career choice also guides the individuals to choose the career on their own interest but not with the external factors. Therefore the assessment of intelligence and interest for career counselling play a vital role. The present study stated that socio-economic status is an important determination for interest in career. The area of concern is that students form low socio-economic status normally study in government/government aided schools while students from high socio-economic status prefer to study in private schools spending a lot of money. On the basis of their school culture and economic status there is a variation in their career interest. The study indicates that generally students from government schools prefer low salary jobs whereas the private school students prefer high salary jobs. The study also reveals that students having high IQ score prefer better salaried jobs compared to the students having low IQ level in both government and private schools. Hence, from this study it can be concluded that IQ and socio-economic status are the important factors influence students for future career choices.

Limitation of the study

The most important limitation of the study was that of low sample group, i.e. a total of 60 students out of which 30 from government schools and another 30 from private schools, that too only in Delhi metropolitan city. Another limitation of the study is that it only included two parameters of career choices i.e. IQ and Interest whereas personality and aptitude test could have been included. Due to the time constraint and other factors the study was limited with two parameters only. Further a study including all the parameters of career assessment i.e. Intelligence, personality, aptitude, and Interest on a large sample in both rural and urban set-up can provide better dimension for career guidance and counselling.

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Announcement

Annual Subscription of Journals Revised

As **Indian Journal of Adult Education** and **Proudh Shiksha** are regularly uploaded in **IAEA Website: iaea-india.org** and is available online for the users it has been decided to print only limited copies for **those who pay the annual subscription for these journals in advance**. Keeping in view the increase in printing and postage cost the annual subscription of these two Journals have been revised as under:

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Indian Journal of
Adult Education

INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION

Indian Journal of Adult Education, 1939

Indian Journal of Adult Education, first published as a monthly in 1939, is now brought out as a quarterly by the Indian Adult Education Association. The journal has special interest in the theory and practice of Non-formal Education with special reference to the relationship between Adult Education, Development and current experiments in the field. Contributions on a wide range of themes within this broad framework are welcome.

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). Articles can be sent by E-mail at iaeadelhi@gmail.com

INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION

Editor's Note

ARTICLES

Contributors

Recently former Prime Ministers Dr. Manmohan Singh and Shri H.D.Deve Gowda called on the Prime Minister Shri Narendra Modi at his official residence 7, Race Course Road. Ofcourse it was flashed in the news that the meetings took place on May 27 and June 3, 2015 were on the request of the Prime Minister. Though, no official communication has been released either by the government or Prime Minister's office or former Prime Ministers' office about the contents discussed in these meetings, rumour mills worked over time to inform the general public that issues discussed were on economics, financial management, administration, internal security, external intelligence, flood and drought, etc. Whatever may be, one should appreciate the meetings that have taken place as the person in position today had the initiative to discuss matters relating to the country with his predecessors. This is called using the institutional memory which is a good step forward as the former Prime Ministers did occupy prime position in the government earlier dealing with a number of important matters and custodian of a lot of confidential information about a variety of subjects/issues which they may not be able to discuss or disclose openly. This is not the first time the Prime Minister had taken such an initiative as the first thing he did after taking oath of office was calling on Dr.Manmohan Singh at his residence.

In the meantime, last few months news about difference of opinion between the Chief Minister Shri Arvind Kejriwal and the Lt. Governor of Delhi is coming as hot news both in print and electronic media. Overall the difference of opinion seems to be due to lack of understanding about the rules and regulations of a Union Territory. A Chief Minister is all powerful in a state and the Governor is bound by the advice of the Council of Ministers headed by the Chief Minister. That is not the case with a Union Territory as it is administered by the President of India through his representative, the Lt. Governor. Of course, for all practical purpose the Lt. Governor is to take approval from the Ministry of Home Affairs before issuing any orders. The Chief Minister of Delhi must be having good advisers with him who can guide him to take action independently on all those subjects which are having the delegated power and leave those areas for the next in hierarchy to take action. In this case also, cordial relationship can bring in a lot of good support from the higher authority through which the Chief Minister can achieve his

objectives fast. One more opportunity for the Chief Minister is using the institutional memory like the Prime Minister did. A few former Chief Ministers of Delhi can be consulted to know how they could manage the Delhi administration when they were in helm of affairs. The ruling party in Delhi has got the massive mandate to rule the Union Territory and peoples' tall hopes need to be respected.

Hence, one need not or cannot be an expert in everything but can acquire the expertise by using the available resources for the benefit of the institution. May be that is the reason in administration three words are always golden and they are 'Learn', 'Grow' and 'Succeed'. The Prime Minister seems to have internalized these golden words and that is why he is meeting his predecessors to learn and grow to achieve the success. It is now the turn of the Chief Minister of Delhi.

Dr.V.Mohankumar

Lifelong Learning in Higher Education

Asoke Bhattacharya

In a seminal essay entitled, "Adult Education and Adult Learning Between Poverty Reduction and Wealth Production", H.S Bhola, Emeritus Professor of Adult Education, Indiana University, U.S.A stated, " During the last thirty years or more, discussions on 'the education of adults' have been conducted in two concurrent and related discourses, that of : 'adult education ' and 'adult learning'." Why these separate discourses on 'the education of adults', he asks and says, "There is a simple answer which has too often remained unstated. The discourse of ' adult learning ' has been invented to make a clean break with the tradition of ' adult education' with its ideology of people's welfare, its history and public support from the state, and its focus on constituencies of the illiterate and poor farmers and non-skilled workers. On the other hand, the ideology of adult learning is promoting the so-called self-directed learning by adults, pursuing their goals of training for employment or leisure in a free ' market of education ' that is supported by a partnership of the state, civil society and the private sector. He pointed out the utter inadequacy of this policy in the context of the third world. (1)

Paul Fordham, Emeritus Professor of University of Southampton U.K somehow expressed the same concern when he quoted the speech delivered by John Daniel in September 2003: "...adult educators have a reputation for being boring, sanctimonious, backward-looking and parentalist. They have a propensity to miss the boat when new developments of importance of adult education appear on the scene. This is not a good reputation to have, especially if we want to influence governments and the wider society."Fordham, a renowned adult educator of international standing, feels frustrated by the 'avante-garde' thinking of recent times. (2)

Andy Green, Professor of Comparative Education at the Institute of Education of London University, said in an article entitled 'Comparative Education and Evidence-based Policy Research', " Policy –making is largely driven by political schedules and political imperatives...Policy borrowing is often an expedient, rapid response ...borrowing policies is often about finding

the ' quick fix'. The default response from politicians in search of the quick fix policy solution is often to take some headline grabbing policy from a country which is ideologically sympathetic and which therefore can be seen to require relatively little justification".(3)

Shifting our focus, only briefly, from education to health and concentrating on Latin America will give us a clue as to why such policy changes were called for in the sectors like health, education etc. In an essay entitled 'History is not Over: The Bolivarian Revolution, "Barrio Adentro", and Health Care in Venezuela', Carlos Muntaner et al said, "Beginning in the 1970s, a series of important challenges to global capitalism took place that culminated in the early 1980s in a serious threat to the U.S. and European commercial banking sector's solvency, in turn sparking profound changes in the role of Latin America's welfare states. The first shock came with the introduction of variable exchange rates and a consequent new set of international trading rules as a result of the U.S. government's decision to suspend fixed- price convertibility of its dollar for gold , thus breaking with the WW-II era Bretton Woods agreement. Coupled with substantial oil-price increases in 1973 and 1979 caused by OPEC embargoes, the new international trading system generated large trade deficits for many developing countries. Latin American governments were forced to borrow massively at the relatively low interest rates of the time from IFIs (international financial institutions) and indirectly from U.S and European commercial banks to secure the foreign currency necessary to pay for imports and attenuate the effect of trade imbalances. As Latin American countries' debt rose, a severe recession in OECD countries in the early 1980s led to a rise in international interest rates, leaving many Latin American countries unable to service their debts."(4)

The impending collapse, say the authors, of the U.S. and European financial sectors holding most Latin American loans prompted the IFIs, themselves heavily influenced by U.S. and European governments, to shift their lending policies dramatically. The new quid pro quo for securing a loan from the IFIs became guaranteeing national budget surpluses through structural adjustment programs (SAPs) , thus allowing countries to service, if not pay back, their foreign debts. Simultaneously, and to justify the severe austerity requirements, an increasingly dominant neoliberal ideology established a new , though unsubstantiated , conventional wisdom: the interventionist welfare state has failed, and an unhindered free market was the best means through which to achieve social and economic prosperity , including the reduction of poverty and social inequality.

We in India are quite aware of the structural adjustment programme including the critical essays on the subject written by Joseph Stiglitz. The European programme of Lifelong Learning based on the concepts of competences and competitiveness are outcome of such neo-liberal agenda.

While there is no doubt that the present concept of lifelong learning is heavily loaded with the neo-liberal concepts, a closer look will reveal that the concepts have been derived from / have close affinity to the erstwhile concept of adult and continuing education. The learner–centred agenda of lifelong learning and the concept of continuing education which is delivered to the learner at his/her pace, requirement and timing are quite similar. Since each nation state is free to implement the programme of lifelong learning according to its requirements and priorities, India can very well utilize the overall lifelong learning agenda to tailor-make it to Indian needs and priorities. The economic emphasis of the lifelong learning concept are also quite relevant to Indian realities .After all, welfare only cannot be the basis of any programme. Except in emergency situations, all programmes of societal nature should have thorough economic reasons. Even welfare measures should be construed as investments so that tangible benefits may be accrued after a course of time.

It is therefore necessary in India to think innovatively about the lifelong learning programme and incorporate into it the elements which we consider most appropriate. For India, it is very difficult to change an international policy which is dictated by strong economic reasons of the powerful international forces. But India, being a huge nation of more than one billion people with a strong internal market can think of measures which can offset the deleterious effects of the original policy. Many nations in the world both big and small had earlier adopted such policies in the past and are also adopting such policies now. The case in point is Denmark. In the 1860s due to influx of Argentine and U.S. corn into the British and French markets, the Danes stopped exporting corn since the price fell to its rock-bottom. It then began to utilize the corn for development of its livestock and dairy industry so that instead of exporting raw corn, finished products of beef , beacon , butter and cheese could be exported to fetch higher prices. This is how the legendary Danish food products came to dominate the international market. Most interesting thing about this innovation was that the peasants themselves were the innovators - those peasants who had been trained at the Grundvigian Folk High Schools or adult education schools of Denmark. The Folk high Schools gave the peasants knowledge about Danish nation, its

history and culture and instilled confidence among them to tackle difficult situations .Empowered by this new knowledge they salvaged the Danish nation while it was on the brink of total doom.

Present Danish Strategy of Lifelong Learning

The same method has been adopted by the Danish state in implementing lifelong learning policy of the European Union. It not only incorporated the E.U policy but also injected innovations thus making the policy as fool – proof as possible against mere economism.

Denmark's strategy of lifelong learning covers all forms of education/ learning and skills – in the formal education system, in the domains of adult and continuing education at work and many other settings in which people learn and develop their knowledge , skill and competence. This strategy is based on the globalization strategy of the Government expressed in the document entitled 'Progress, Renewal and Development - Strategy for Denmark in the Global Economy' (2006)(5).The overall aim of the globalization strategy is to make Denmark a leading knowledge society with strong competitiveness and cohesion. (Denmark's Strategy for Lifelong Learning, 2007)(6).The document suggests that in an increasingly globalised economy, competitiveness and cohesion are preconditions for a regeneration of the welfare state. Please note the emphasis on the continuance of the welfare state by making the economy competitive and solvent.

The knowledge, inventiveness and work efforts of people together with the ability to continuously develop produce and sell new goods and services are key to success, the document emphasizes. Denmark is distinguished by the fact that it has high rate of employment, low unemployment, relatively equitable income distribution and a generally high level of education. The Danish labour market is highly flexible and competitive. Denmark is one of the countries which invest most in the development of the human resources. Denmark is also characterized by its commitment to fundamental democratic values and a historic tradition of change through dialogue and co-operation. For Denmark, the strategy emphasizes that a well-qualified labour force is crucial to ensuring competitiveness and prosperity. It also suggests that the demand for low-skill labour will decline in the years to come. Continuous growth of the economy is dependent on the increase of quality labour force. Therefore the skills of the labour force must be increased at all levels. Most people must have quality of education .There is a need for

significant increase in adult education and continuous skill upgradation, *especially of those with the lowest levels of education and training.*

The Overall aims of Danish Educational Reforms are:

1. All children shall have a good start in school and good academic knowledge and personal skill.
2. 95% of all young people shall complete a general or vocational upper secondary education by 2015.
3. 50% of all young people shall complete a higher education programme by 2015.
4. Everyone shall engage in lifelong learning.

Grundtvigian Origin of Lifelong Learning in Denmark

Lifelong learning has three broad constituent elements: Learning for life, learning for livelihood and learning throughout life. The Danish strategy has all the three components. The first one, learning for life is a Grundtvigian innovation of more than 200 years. The aim of this education, Grundtvig said, should make neither education nor itself its goal but the requirements of life and it must take life as it really is and shed light on and promote its usefulness. He therefore innovated a new form of school, Danish People's school which would teach the voluntary entrants Danish language, history, statistics, political science, legislation and administration. There must be concerns for the very core of life, its natural conditions, its diverse vocations, requirements and industry. There must be an effort to seek whatever knowledge of country and circumstances would be possible and desirable, useful and enjoyable for all those who love the country and who have an average intelligence. Only then, Grundtvig felt, we can be sure of addressing all the people when we speak to them in their own language.

The folk high school or people's educational institutions where everyone is admitted without the requirement of any admission test and which does not provide any certificate at the end of the course are parts and parcels of Danish system of lifelong learning.

The Indian Strategy of Lifelong Learning

India is a huge continent-like nation with diverse ethnicities, linguistic groups and varied geographical characteristics .But amidst such diversity

there are elements of unity which are exemplified by India's commitment to democracy , religious and linguistic tolerance and a unique progressive tradition developed by her founding fathers especially Rabindranath Tagore, Mahatma Gandhi and Maulana Abul Kalam Azad. These stalwarts had also charted out a path of enlightenment of the Indian people as a whole. Their thoughts can be the beacon for India's path to lifelong learning.

As already stated, lifelong learning have three basic components – learning for life, learning for livelihood and learning throughout life. Tagore, Gandhi and Azad have thought about these concepts in a holistic way. Learning for life denotes learning which is essential for the human being, a learning that embellishes life and makes it worth living. It is often said that 'man (and woman) does not live by bread alone'. Learning for life seizes on this concept. Art and literature, cinema and theatre, dance and music, sculpture and painting are some of the inputs from time immemorial – from the time of the cave- dwellers of Spain who etched the figure of the bulls inside their rock shelters to the present time – have been considered necessary ingredients that have made life livable and happy. We sometimes feel that only the middle and upper classes have the urge for culture. Tagore thought otherwise. "No single aspect of peasant life the poet would ignore: his income, his budget, his happiness, his health, education, culture, mode of living, his attitude, even his sense of beauty and joy – the joy of creation - escaped Tagore's scrutiny."(7)

Tagore had deep insights into the folk songs and folk theatrical performances of the rural community. He felt that to uplift their quality of life, they should be brought into the ambit of formal, informal and non-formal learning so that the people themselves could appreciate and enhance their own cultural traditions.

Simultaneously, he was ever-conscious of their need for learning for livelihood. Therefore, he and his associates had organized a whole gamut of activities for the villagers at Sriniketan. Starting from basic education, it fanned out into vocational areas appropriate for the village community and covered fields like cattle-raising, dairy development, agriculture, weaving, leather-work, pottery, carpentry, etc. in which the rural community is largely engaged traditionally. The best practices of the village community were earmarked for quality improvement with the input of science and technology from inside the nation and outside. In this connection, mention should be made of Swedish Sloyd which was introduced into the textile designs of the

village craftsmen and the combination was highly acclaimed by the consumers.

Tagore knew perfectly well that knowledge was not static and needed to be updated and upgraded with the advent of new knowledge over time. Therefore he stressed on constant improvement and innovation.

Mahatma Gandhi experimented with the same thoughts when he came out with his concept of basic education. He could feel that life of India was in the villages and the villagers were traditionally engaged in a vocation. He wanted the child to take up this vocation early on and he wanted the child to develop his/her world view centering on this vocation while fanning out into the subjects like geography, mathematics, history etc. from a central point. Gandhiji said, "…take the case of a child in whom the education of the heart is attended to from the very beginning. Supposing he is set to some useful occupations like spinning, carpentry, agriculture etc. for his education and in that connection is given a thorough and comprehensive knowledge relating to the theory of various operations that he would be wielding. He would not only develop a fine healthy body but also a sound vigorous intellect that is not merely academic but is firmly rooted in and is tested from day to day by experience. His intellectual education would include knowledge of mathematics and the various sciences that are useful for an intelligent and efficient exercise of his avocation. If too is added literature by way of recreation, it would give him a perfect, well-balanced , all-round education in which the intellect, the body and spirit have all full play and develop together into a natural harmonious whole." Gandhi's scheme placed paramount importance on knowing through doing, which he visualized as craft-oriented. He felt that in post-independence India, vocational education would be the mainstay for the overwhelming majority of the Indian population living in the rural areas .Therefore Gandhiji said, "In India, at any rate, where more than eighty percent of the population is agricultural – it is a crime to make education merely literary." He further said, "Our children must from their infancy be taught dignity of labour."(8) Education through craft would serve both the purposes, he felt.

Maulana Abul Kalam Azad, the first Education Minister of India and a great patriot had placed paramount importance on education of the whole people, especially the poorest and the underprivileged. He is the pioneer of Citizenship Education which has, of late, become the mainstay of social engineering of the developed nations grappling with the problem of

immigration. Azad considered democracy to be fruitful and effective if the whole population was able to exercise its democratic option judiciously. His concept of Social Education had all the principal elements we find in the modern concept of lifelong learning.

Guided by the visions of these stalwarts, India needs to develop its strategy of lifelong learning.

India is characterized by the fact that it has a very high rate of unemployment, a very unequal income distribution and an overall low level of education. India is one of those countries which invest insignificantly (less than 6% of the yearly budget) in the development of the human resources. For India, the strategy should involve a general improvement in skills at all levels – rural and urban. Rural India consisting of 700 million people should develop a decentralized, locale –specific, agricultural and agro-industrial, village-craft oriented lifelong learning strategy involving maximum number of village-folk through a permanent three tier educational network consisting of a basic school for people's education at the village level, a people's high school at the sub-divisional level and a rural university at the district level. Gandhiji, if he could live longer, would have wanted rural universities to dot the length and breadth of the nation. Quality of the nation will ultimately depend on the enlightenment of the rural work force.

Urban India, with an approximate population of around 400 million people has the potential to act as the growth engine of the nation. In a very conservative estimate, around 70% of this population is educated and skilled. The strategy for lifelong learning for the urban sector should be as follows:

1. A coherent education system from primary to secondary level to provide opportunity to everyone to acquire basic skills, training in a particular vocation/trade or a qualifying education and a solid foundation in lifelong learning.
2. An education system that would recognize talent on the one hand and take special care of the weak learners on the other.
3. Relevant high quality adult and continuing education for everyone in the labour market with particular emphasis on the need for lifelong skills upgradation.
4. Systemic competence development in the workplace both in the private and public sector.

5.   Opportunities for guidance and counseling for students and adults to choose appropriate educational program and participate in lifelong learning.

Every institution, government, semi-government and private should have lifelong learning cells at the unit level that will plan and implement lifelong learning strategies at specific intervals of time for all employees without exception in an organized and decentralized manner.

National, state and local level institutions of lifelong learning have to be created to coordinate lifelong learning strategy. Appropriate legal provisions have to be made so that no organization can evade responsibility.

Appropriate budgetary allocation has to be made in the budget of central and state governments for implementation of the program. All private organizations should also have budget allocation for this purpose.

Regular monitoring of the programme at all levels is essential .Feedback from the lower to the higher levels and inspection from the higher to the lower levels should be carried out regularly.

Role of Higher Education

It is apparent from the foregoing that the task is gigantic. Nevertheless, this is a must for India if she wants to retain her role as an advanced economic force. Her neighbour China is poised to become a world economic leader in the 2020s.China advanced by leaps and bounds over the last three decades. It is only natural that India should also aim towards such a goal. The Indian Higher Education sector should now be prepared to take the responsibility. It has the following major tasks ahead:

1.   To prepare curriculum for lifelong learning at all stages of educational spectrum.
2.   To implement lifelong learning in chosen sectors as pilot projects.
3.   To prepare training schedules of the human resources at all stages of the educational scenario. To implement training programs in chosen sectors as pilot projects.
4.   Research and Development.

Research and Development

This is one of the most important areas of Higher Education, especially of the Universities. Research should be conducted in all areas of lifelong learning. But the most important area for research in a country like ours is the relationship between increment of knowledge and the devolution of power. Research should be conducted from all angles to understand this phenomenon. We are elaborating on the economics and politics of knowledge and power to emphasize this vital aspect.

Economics and Politics of People's Knowledge and People's Power

1. Economics

Adam Smith, in his study of the wealth of nations, dwelt on wages of labour. He had suggested the minimum wage of the worker. Elaborating the concept, he said, 'There are certain circumstances, however, which sometimes give the labourers an advantage, and enable them to raise their wages considerably above this rate;'. He further added, 'The demand for those who live by wages, therefore, necessarily increases with the increase of revenue and stock of every country, and cannot possibly increase without it. The increase of revenue and stock is the increase of national wealth'. He put a rider here: 'It is not…in the richest countries, but in the most thriving or in those which are growing rich the fastest, that the wages of labour are highest'. He mentioned   that wages of labour were much higher in North America than in any part in England. It has been corroborated by modern economists also though they cite different reasons for it. Smith further says, 'The wages of labour vary with…the difficulty and expence of learning the business…A man educated at the expence of much labour and time to any of those employments which require extra-ordinary dexterity and skill, may be compared to one of those expensive machines. The work which he learns to perform, it must be expected, over and above the usual wages of common labour, will replace to him the whole expence of his education, with at least the ordinary profits of an equally valuable capital. It must do this too in a reasonable time, regard being had to the very uncertain duration of human life..'.(9)

Karl Marx echoed a similar view when he said in Capital, 'In order to modify the human organism, so that it may require skill and handiness in a given branch of industry, and become labour power of a special kind, a

special education or training is requisite, and this on its part, costs an equivalent in commodities of a greater or less amount. This amount varies according to the more or less complicated character of the labour power. The expenses of this education (excessively small in the case of ordinary labour power) enter pro tanto into the total value spent in its production'. (10)

The Third World and India

It may be pointed out here that India is a thriving economy today. Therefore, many of the postulates of Smith would be applicable in the case of India.

It is also apparent from above that the level of education and skill of an individual is generally proportional to the wage earned by the person. In order to uplift the condition of the poor and illiterate (In India and in the Third World the terms are almost synonymous), it is necessary to impart appropriate education or in the parlance of today, the elements of lifelong learning. The upward trend of wages earned by a rickshaw puller, a cycle-rickshaw driver and a taxi driver will bear this out.

Casteism is very strong in India. Education is a sure means of negating its ill effects .Most of the poor and illiterate belong to the so-called lower caste. Traditionally, they were debarred from the precinct of learning too. Lifelong Learning brought to these people will not only raise their standard of living but their social status too.

Computer literacy has become synonymous to literacy itself. Mobile phones have reached the poorest of the poor .A combination of mobile phone and internet may give a wider cross-section of the people a new direction in life.

2. Politics

A. Architectonics of Knowledge

As they relate to nature, human beings discover its laws. Knowledge of these laws enables humans to recognize the manifold manifestations of nature. Recognition of the natural laws allows humans to benefit from such knowledge, both directly and indirectly. The gigantic explosion of knowledge

in modern times has created the astounding civilization that we are part of. The history of human civilization is the history of accumulation and dissemination of this knowledge in exogenous and endogenous ways. Knowledge is transmitted through generations and across generations. Knowledge is a social product. With differentiation of knowledge, it ceased to be transmitted to all sections of the society. Thus knowledge ceased to be 'social knowledge' of the whole society and became 'group knowledge' of a particular social group. All kinds of knowledges in a society developed out of necessity. With differentiation of knowledge came the notion of 'socially important' knowledge. Thus developed the notion of socially dominant group. Other knowledges were not considered to be important. Hence, they were discarded, suppressed or trivialized.

There also took place a vertical division of knowledge. It had two components: intellectual and manual. Possessors of intellectual knowledge –the theoreticians -became real possessors of knowledge. The practitioners became just implementers .They were progressively alienated from knowledge creation. Practice became subservient to theory.

B. Origin and Development of Power

Humans in their struggle for survival relate to nature. This has a duality ingrained in it: adaptation and comprehension. The ability to pool resources and communicate with each other to organize well-directed joint action gave rise to social power. It was linked to social knowledge. With differentiation of society, power was also differentiated. There existed a symbiotic relationship between knowledge and power. The dominant power group determined the nature and quality of social knowledge. Over time, social knowledge was divested of its "social" quality. Since power controlled knowledge, it was classified, regulated, filtered and edited in its transmission and generation. Knowledge that questioned, opposed or confirmed the anti-"social" nature of "social" knowledge and thereby "social" power were discarded, effaced or banished. With division of knowledge, women were progressively dispossessed of all social power and of the right to acquire knowledge. They were marginalized socially, politically and intellectually.

All societies generated new knowledge. This knowledge, at times gradually and at times relatively quickly, impacted upon the society, especially in the sphere of social production. In the beginning, the new knowledge had to confront the power structure prevalent in the society. The new knowledge,

however, would gather momentum over time. A new power relationship would then emerge and dislodge the previous power structure. Power seeks to develop its own structure and superstructure. The writ of power must run from the top to the bottom of the society. Individuals and institutions become powerful when they have sanction of the power that be. The progressive consolidation of power pits the society against power. The constant tendency of power is to concentrate. The constant tendency of society is to socialize power. Out of this tension grow various concepts and institutions of devolution of power.

C. Education: Democratization of Knowledge

Let us look at the knowledge pyramid. In the undifferentiated society, the whole population was the recipient of knowledge. With progressive social differentiation, we find lesser and lesser number of individuals being disseminated with knowledge. The knowledge – elite was a tiny minority, especially in the middle ages. This section was controlling the fruits of labour of the overwhelming sections of the population. This tiny group had at its disposal both the time and talent to engage in study and research. This is the origin of the improvement of techniques of production and exchange. Thus the era of mercantilism and later industrialization arrived. With an ever-increasing global market it was necessary to widen the base of knowledge-producing infrastructure. Precincts of knowledge developed. Knowledge got progressively democratized. This was the beginning of the era of early knowledge-society.

D. Democracy: Democratization of Power

The knowledge base was widening through education. But power was concentrated in a few hands. The contradiction between knowledge and power found partial resolution in democracy. In this form of political system, each member of the society could take part in electing his or her own government through a defined structure. Theoretically, and to a large extent practically, one could choose one's own government through his or her representative. Although state power in concentrated form remained intact, its use could be in a limited way controlled by the elected government .The democratic state could act as a powerful deterrent to the ambition of   an individual or a group desirous of wielding unlimited power.

Where democratic institutions have a deeper root, in western nations

for example, the balance between knowledge and power has been most successful. In the so-called people's democracies, the political party in the name of the people decided everything. Here the knowledge base extended among a large cross-section of the people but the power base remained narrow. The contradiction was resolved through dismantling of the structure of unlimited power wielded by a tiny group through restoration of democracy. In the Third World countries like India, a democratic system operates .But it is a sham democracy where a large section of the population are poor and illiterate. This is a contradiction in terms. Its resolution could be effected by educating this large cross-section of the people who constitute the majority of the population. Otherwise mafia-dominated politics, large-scale corruption, global terrorism, Somalia-like state sponsored piracy and similar acts of violence would endanger local and global peace. It is in the interest of the particular nations and the whole world that education should reach the hitherto unreached illiterate and poor people.

Thus lifelong learning, of the kind mentioned earlier, is the path of deliverance for countries like India. All universities and higher educational institutions must investigate the multifaceted dimensions of the knowledge-power syndrome.

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Community Learning Centres in Bangladesh: Lessons Learnt and Future Avenues for Action

Wolfgang Vollmann

In 2013 the author undertook a study on the status and performance of CLCs in Bangladesh, in particular with reference to centres operated by BRAC, FIVDB and DAM.

This study goes back to a request formulated by Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) management, aware since long of the immense potential of their own Community Learning Centre (CLC) operations but conscious of the need, before going any further, for a critical evaluation of the CLC concept. The inquiry was to look at current achievements and future avenues for lifelong learning with the CLC as the principal delivery platform.

The objective was to obtain a realistic appraisal of the different dimensions of CLC policies, such as community development, women's empowerment, enhancing basic education capacities, establishing a learning society in rural areas, work and livelihood, the potentialities of Information Communications Technology (ICT).

The study below attempts to evaluate, on the basis of field and documentary research, in how far strategies for lifelong learning have been met by concrete CLC activities. In this respect the study was to provide concrete answers to a question raised by Manzoor Ahmed in his article "Lifelong learning in a learning society: are Community Learning Centres the vehicle?" (in: International Development Policy, 5, 2014; pp 1-17)

This article is base on the author's field and documentary work done for Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BARC) in Bangladesh. Its main focus is on Community Learning Centres (CLCs) operated by Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BARC), Dhaka Ahsania Mission (DAM) and Friends in Village Development Bangladesh (FIVDB), the three major NGOs active in youth, adult literacy and education in the country.

A first step of the study of CLC strategies consisted in situating the general context of learning in Bangladesh, determined by a wide range of different social, economic, and demographic factors. The data below point immediately to the dramatic need to intensify efforts in favour of lifelong learning in the rural areas where illiteracy, poverty and ostracism of women is widespread and current offers for learning, training and empowerment are largely insufficient. The urgency to act is clearly illustrated by the fact that the much praised achievements of primary education have not significantly reduced levels of adult illiteracy. The analysis of all the factors below will show that the educational and social potential of the CLC concept, in its practical implications, appears increasingly as a viable, because holistic policy (see also M. Ahmed, 2014).

Demography and poverty (source: UNDP/HDR 2013; UIS 2014)

Adolescent fertility rate (ages 15-19), 2012: 68.2%

(India: 74.7%)
(This indicates early marriage is still widely practiced)

Life expectancy at birth (2012) : 69.2 years

(India : 65.8)
(constantly improving)

Population growth (2010-15): 1.2% (1.6% in 2005)

(India (2010: 1.3%; (1.6% in 2005)

(growth is slowing down considerably in the last years and faster than in India)

Fertility rate: 2.2 (2012); (3.1 in 2000)
(India : 2.6 (2012); (3.1 in 2000)

(The low fertility rate indicates a slowing down of population growth, which is also the result of increasing levels of education among girls and women) (source: UIS/UNESCO 2013/14)

Population vulnerable to poverty and/or in severe poverty(2007): 47.4% (source: HDR 2013)

Education (source: UIS 2014):
NER Primary education m/f : 2011: 89%
India : 2008: 90 %

Survival to G5 (2009): 66% (71% girls)

(Girls do better; yet there is a high drop-out rate, although slowly declining in the last years; BRAC is particularly targeting these drop-out youngsters)

NER Lower secondary ed. 2010: 62% (74% girls)
India, 2010: 81% (79% girls)

(74% of the relevant age group of girls are enrolled in lower secondary; upper secondary enrolment shows however a sharp decline of girls enrolment)

Literacy rates 15+ (2011)
M/F: 57.7%
F   : 53.0%

Youth literacy:
MF: 78.7 %
F : 80.4%
(Source: UIS/UNESCO 2013/2014)

Literacy rates in Bangladesh have increased considerably in the last 25 years; still much remains to be done, in particular for women's literacy.

(NB: Bangladesh literacy data are based on testing, contrary to India or Pakistan, where data are based on questionnaires, and probably overrated by 10 to 15% according to Kothari/Bandopadyay (2010).)

The current situation of CLCs in Bangladesh

The number of currently functioning CLCs must be seen in the above described context.

The situation of CLCs in 2013/14 was as follows:

Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC)	2425 centres	900 have computers
		9 have internet connection
Dhaka Ahsania Mission (DAM)	880 centres	-
	42 community resource centres	
Friends In Village Development Bangladesh (FIVDB)	691 Centres	-
	14 ICT centres	
Together BRAC, DAM and FIVDB operate some **4052 centres**		-

Since 2002, the Government of Bangladesh, through the Bureau of Non-Formal Education (BNFE) is operating, or has been operating; some 7000 centres within the donor-funded post-literacy project Post Literacy and Continuing Education for Human Development (PLCEHD-2) which according to latest news is being phased out in 2015.

The rise of the numbers of CLCs in the last ten years must be seen as a response to the immense learning needs in rural areas compounded by the fact that, probably more than 60% of adults (15+), living in rural areas are illiterate, despite rising primary education enrolments (BSS data).

It is important to retain that the CLC concept is targeting essentially rural populations, where poverty is most enduring, and where the highest levels of adult illiteracy can be found. Rural society in Bangladesh seems to have changed only little over the past decades, as the majority of people still live in rural areas: some 72% live there, while in the seventies it may have been well over 90%. In this context, and given the focus on Community Learning Centres, what is then a possible definition of a "community" or "village" in Bangladesh? Two anthropologists, Hartmann and Boyce (A Quiet Violence. 1975/83) proposed, on the basis of their field research the following: "We found that if we took the 'jamaat', the muslim families served by the nearest mosque, and extended that group to include the Hindu families (if there are any) living among them, the result came closest to our notion of village".

The biggest change having occurred in the last twenty years, is no doubt the presence of primary schools in almost every village community. Unfortunately recent experience has also shown that rising primary education

enrolments in rural areas were not sufficient to reduce illiteracy, due to low completion rates (66%) and low quality of learning. A recent study undertaken by Alia Ahmad for BRAC in 2012, indicates that "there can be no hope whatsoever that primary education will wipe out illiteracy in the years to come, in view of the persisting high dropout rates".

This where the CLC concept comes in. But can CLCs change the course and reduce illiteracy? Recent research, including this article point to CLCs as a key delivery mechanism towards achieving a learning society, beyond formal school education and beyond basic literacy.

Again Asia Ahmad in her study on BRAC-operated CLCs underlines the issue of illiteracy as a major obstacle on the way to a learning society. If reading and writing do play a key role, then what do we know about the real impact of learning through formal primary education? Can literate or educated people really read? The landmark study by Kothari and Bandhopadyay: "Can India's literate, read?", (International Review of Education, 2010, n° 56), examined the question and came to a dramatic conclusion with respect to learning and reading: They argue, based on their research (17,782 readers in 3,179 households tested in N-India!), that reading habits in rural primary schools are not at all well established and have become the principal cause for a massive re-laps into illiteracy. The study further indicates that same would be valid for adults, having followed literacy classes, but remain largely unable to confirm acquired knowledge. It would be my contention, based on recent statistics and available field research that the currently low levels of adult literacy and significant school dropout in Bangladesh are most likely to confirm the conclusions of the Kothari/Bandhopadhyay study.

The aforesaid, especially progress and limitations of primary education, the persistent high levels of illiteracy, the gender gap, and the urgent need to establish a learning society, require to begin the study of CLC performances with a brief analysis of the NGO definitions of the CLC concept and current working methods:

Definitions of CLC by the three NGOs

Field work and documentary research on the CLC concept allowed the author to identify the following definitions and objectives proposed by the three NGOs:

According to BRAC, CLCs are self-sustainable multi-purpose learning centres, situated in secondary school campuses and local union council buildings: "which should provide access to a wide range of learning, skills development and cultural activities to address the needs of the drop-out children as well as rural people; they reach all sections of the community".

FIVDB defines the CLCs as follows:

"CLCs are platforms that promote individual learning and social capital within communities. They aim to enable communities to take initiatives to improve their quality of life and enhance participation in democratic practices."

The DAM definition reads as follows:

"to facilitate building a learning society; to facilitate social empowerment and economic self-reliance; ensuring people's access to services; to support and develop people's inner potentialities".

Although the three NGOs are following similar CLC objectives in rural areas, there are some sharp differences when it comes to daily practice:

BRAC is basically operating out of secondary schools and is targeting essentially young people and adults who can already read and write. Their focus would be rather on continuing and lifelong learning and with a strong focus on ICTs.

DAM keeps a strong focus on social empowerment of village communities by providing people with their own organization; on the other hand DAM is not yet pursuing a strong pro-literacy strategy due to lack of resources (this is on the point of changing though)!

Concerning FIVDB, they insist on providing literacy to all but especially women, prior to other learning activities.

Clearly the three NGOs insist very strongly on the educational and emancipatory aspects of the CLC concept like: lifelong learning, social empowerment and awareness raising.

Major CLC activities

In order to follow-up on the definitions, and perceived differences in objectives, field visits were undertaken to identify on the spot major and significant CLC activities, and verify how these activities match definitions proposed by the NGOs.

Here is then a brief summary of the principal and most visible activities identified and recorded on the ground and which describe the manner in which the three NGOs translate their general objectives with effective programmes on the ground:

i) Empowerment of Women and adolescent girls

Women's empowerment goes together with the notion of community empowerment. The three NGOs have developed efficient strategies to put women, and adolescent girls, at the centre of all CLC activities. In fact there was not a single CLC without significant gender-oriented activities.

ii) Adult literacy

Adult literacy has been identified by policy makers and researchers as a fundamental precondition for a learning society and social uplift in rural Bangladesh. As pointed out above, levels of adult illiteracy are still extremely high in Bangladesh, with an even higher percentage in the rural areas. In this respect, especially FIVDB has undertaken a systematic approach towards literacy, by targeting from the outset illiterate women, and then build on the acquired knowledge by leading neo-literate women towards skills training and empowerment. This strategy is less visible in BRAC and DAM centers.

iii) Reading, writing and creating a literate environment

All CLCs focus on the habit of regular reading, from school-going kids to adult neo-literates. Policies for a literate environment vary: for example BRAC is running regularly reading sessions in all CLCs, targeting both young and old ones. As a specific lifelong learning strategy, joint or shared reading is widely appreciated by all generations and contributes to a literate environment. It was also evident that close-by primary schools benefited from such learning and registered an improved level of quality learning.

iv) Skills training and awareness raising

The issue tops the list of lifelong learning priorities and is considered as the logic extension of previously organized learning activities. The three NGOs have devised several strategies targeting adolescents, young women but also menfolk desirous to enhance their often limited technical knowledge. Cooperation with UP centres was often instrumental to achieve this goal.

v) Access to information and ICTs

Access to information is identified by many as the primordial element for emancipation. Duflo and Banerjee in their recent publication on 'Poor Economics' (2011), identified the non-access to information (health, education, entitlements, etc) as the principal cause of poverty. Hence many CLCs focus on providing access to recent and reliable information, either through information meetings, brochures and/or leaflets; and the ability to read acquires an essential status here! Increasingly however ICTs are being targeted and several CLCs plan to start computer course; there is also the growing trend to provide internet connections whenever possible. The major obstacle towards a wider use of ICTs is the persistent lack of access to energy and connections in rural areas.

Because of the current trend to quickly over-value the potentialities of internet and connectivity, it is worthwhile to add here a different voice on the issue of ICTs. Rosa Maria Torres (in IRE, vol 54, Nov.2008) stresses that « access to reading and writing continues to be the single most important entry point to the information/knowledge/learning society, much more than access to modern ICTs which require readers and writers in the first place » p 542. Then on p 560: » The introduction of modern technologies reinforces this tendency (neglect of the poorest/rural areas) given their inadequacy for rural areas (lack of energy, distances, etc)". On the same page she says: « the introduction of modern technologies is not bringing the expected renovation and positive outcomes ».

It is true that despite a slowly growing connectivity even un rural Bangladesh, the three NGOs do focus essentially all their energy on learning through face to face approach. However technology makes in-roads and the fast growing mobile phone network is already facilitating this low-key approach, allowing people to communicate easily for joint activities.

vi) Children's education

This is a major concern in Bangladesh where primary education enrolments are on the rise, but completion rates continue to be low.

Within the CLC project, the three NGOs employ different strategies to harness the educational potential of school-age children and adolescents. Obviously CLCs contribute indirectly towards a better quality of learning in near-by primary schools. The reasons are multiple: I) because of daily reading- and writing classes, and ii) the successful literacy classes targeting young mothers. It appears that this would plead in favour of a stronger association between primary schools and CLCs.

vii) Writing

As pointed out above, all CLCs visited or reported upon, practice regular reading classes. However "reading" is only one part of full literacy: writing, contrary to reading, remains a very personal and even creative approach to learning. Yet it has been found that currently only a few CLCs promote actively writing skills among neo-literates. Those who do, register higher levels of learning and participation in CLC activities.

CLC practice

After the identification of the principal CLC activities, closely linked to the overall objectives, the study focused on the identification of the practical ways and means employed to achieve or implement the above listed circles of action.

Principal Strategies or tools employed to achieve the above objectives:

i) Libraries and mobile libraries: almost all visited CLCs boast of some kind of library allowing occasional or regular visitors to borrow or else read on the spot. A special feature is the concept of mobile libraries operated by BRAC, where a rikshaw van tours several villages otherwise out of reach. Libraries target readers, enhance motivation for literacy and learning, and favor access to reading by girls and women. In addition children are encouraged to read regularly and on a wide range of issues. Finally and in view of the dramatic scarcity of reading materials in rural

areas, the library operations target a real and basic need for learning and further learning.

ii) The facilitator, is by all means the key element of any CLC. Almost everything depends on his/her availability to ensure learning and create new and lasting learning and training opportunities. Facilitators are multi-task operators: they teach, manage the library, and organize life-skills and other learning sessions, and always in close co-operation with the community. In many cases facilitators are women and thus have an easier access to womenfolk who otherwise may not feel encouraged to participate in relatively public learning activities. It appears that a successful CLC is one which has an efficient and motivated facilitator, open to new learning demands and in good terms with the local community. One caveat would be that increasing demands for learning and training put additional stress on facilitators who are not always in a position to respond. They are usually paid by the local community and some of them find it difficult to meet the growing demands in terms of time, activities proposed and adequate retribution.

iii) The CLC Management Committee and the issue of Sustainability: in addition to the role of the facilitator, this is a key element for the success of any CLC visited for this study. Both the facilitator and the management committee, working in harmony, constitute the foundation and condition sine qua non, for the sustainability of any CLC. In terms of the financial viability of a CLC project in a given community, the full involvement of all village inhabitants is a must and it has been seen that only those CLCs survive which have managed to identify local resources and at the same time meet the learning needs of the community.

iv) CLC as a delivery platform and social meeting place: An issue which does not appear in documents and reports, points to the role of CLCs as an essential and basic social meeting place, in an environment hitherto void of any infrastructure of the kind. These learning centers have often become social centers (real Gonokendros !) allowing locals to learn but also to meet informally, exchange, debate, and thus contribute towards a better networking in the community, using existing ties and creating new ones. All study visits revealed the strong social dimensions of these learning centers. The depth of the social/cultural dimension of the CLC depends however on the level, content and relevancy of learning inputs

offered. Not surprisingly the three NGOs, feeling strongly concerned by the need for sustainability, targeted and supported this dimension of the initial learning place integrating the function of social exchange and debate.

Field visits revealed that the facilitator, the community management committee and the learning center as a social meeting place, constituted the three pillars of sustainability of any CLCs. In addition, and as pointed out by many learners, local managers and facilitators, a fourth pillar of success would be the quality of learning opportunities. Frequently community members voiced their readiness to make financial contributions provided offers of learning met the demands of locals; not only basic literacy but also and increasingly vocational and livelihood training, providing possibilities of higher income. The study included also the intention to develop appropriate recommendations for further action on the basis of acquired insights and information, and in consideration of the concrete educational situation in rural areas in Bangladesh. All actors involved, at the local or policy level were certainly convinced that CLCs had the full potential to establish the basis for a learning society through lifelong learning, and that this objective would require a certain number of new initiatives.

Possible avenues for future action

1. Literacy, post-literacy

In the light of the persistent high levels of illiteracy in rural areas, especially among women, efforts targeting literacy, with a special focus on writing, should become the norm of every CLC. The report by Alia Ahmad, on p.92 specifically states "The adult literacy component needs to be added to the existing CLC programme".

2. Libraries and Mobile libraries

This is a complementary strategy to reading and writing and should receive wider attention within the CLC effort for a literate environment. The successful initiative of mobile libraries, by BRAC, needs to be implemented on a much wider scale in view of the huge needs for reading in village communities.

3. Keeping the focus on education of children: pre-school, primary and secondary school, and out-of-school

The three NGOs, though aware of the need to upgrade knowledge and motivation for school-going children, both primary and secondary level, need to widen the programmes, so as to avoid drop-out and reach the un-reached.

4. More facilitators, to enhance CLC performance

There is an increased demand on the time of facilitators; their duties multiply and it is difficult to see how all these demands could be met by a single person. A proposal has been made to hire, whenever possible, an additional part-time trainer, especially for literacy and reading classes.

5. Sustainability and community mobilization

The continued mobilization of communities remains the single most important factor for achieving sustainability. This is particularly relevant for the long-term financial contribution provided by the community.

6. Skills training: renewed focus on agricultural productivity and marketing (IGAs)

Within the CLC concept, skills- and vocational training should primarily focus on local needs, in particular agricultural extension, horticulture, fisheries, livestock and related marketing activities, with a view to enhance agricultural productivity and income.

7. Cooperation between NGOs and BNFE

The immediate future of CLCs in Bangladesh, and their sustainability, depends very much on an enhanced co-operation between the three NGOs: BRAC, DAM and FIVDB, particularly in light of the adopted NFE act 2014 where it is said: « establish a working mechanism of government, NGOs and broader civil society ». Yet it is well known that "a sustainability strategy incorporating resources from community, NGOs, local government and regular government budgets has not been developed" (M.Ahmed, 2014, p.9). Time has probably come to promote action in this respect, ensure

sustainability of existing CLCs and most of all enlarge rapidly the number of such centers and meet the urgent learning needs in rural areas.

Conclusion

Taking into consideration the above recommendations, which of course are all inter-dependant, there appears the urgent need for further close co-operation between private (NGOs) and governmental structures, like MOPME and BNFE. It is well known that the BNFE policy 2006 and Education Policy Act 2010 mentioned the CLCs as the implementing vehicle to promote a lifelong learning approach through NFE, for youth, adults and out-of-school children. With over 4000 CLCs being run for several years by the three NGOs under study, they could take the lead in co-operating with MOPME/BNFE, in developing and refining models of sustainable CLCs, and thus move towards creating a nation-wide network of community-owned, lifelong learning centres. Of course this would be a formidable undertaking, given that there are more than 60 000 village communities in Bangladesh. The persisting low levels of educational achievement, the still large numbers of out-of-school children and the high number of illiterate women, all point to the necessity to establish nationwide an informal learning structure like the CLCs, Their designed task would be to fill the gap between on the one side rigid and often inefficient educational institutions, and the learning needs and expectations of rural populations on the other side.

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Lifelong Learning in Indian Higher Education
- A Critical Review of UGC's Guideline in the Context of Globalization

Sayantan Mandal

During the tenure of the XIth National Fiver Plan, the University Grants Commission (UGC) published a document with the tile 'UGC Guideline on Lifelong Learning and Extension'. Although Lifelong Learning (LLL) has been mentioned before in public reports and documents, this one is most likely the first ever document for Indian higher education, which directly links higher education and LLL with a title of the same. From policy analyzing standpoint, this is a significant step, as globally, LLL is also gaining importance and its renewing principles are extensively being used in reforming higher education. Significantly enough, the concept of LLL is also changing in India and there has been a sea change in the perception of LLL, globally in recent times (Field, 2006; Shah, 2009; Bhatia, 2009). This renewing dimension of LLL is, in turn influencing in changing the educational landscapes of 21st century. However, according to many (Field, 2006; Fazal and Rizvi, 2010; among others), globalization has an enormous role to play to reorient the traditional practices of LLL, reform the education sectors globally and in fact influence several other aspects of our lives. It becomes even more relevant since India started aspiring to become a 'knowledge society' in near future and mentions the importance of LLL repeatedly in several policies, reports, and allied documents. Although the term 'knowledge society' is highly contested, nevertheless, the urge to improve education in general and higher education in particular, to reap the benefit from the globalizing economy is noticeable. In this sense, LLL, globalization and higher education seem linked in an intricate manner and as the first document of this kind in the contemporary changing socio-economic-educational landscape, the UGC guideline seems carrying an immense potential to be studied.

Therefore, the paper intends to review the document critically in the context of contemporary India, in the age of globalization by attempting to analyze UGC's rationale(s) and arguments to focus on LLL in Indian higher education. In this regard, it tries to analyze, what are the major factors

influencing UGC to emphasize on LLL including factors related to globalization and several other factors related to India's present socio-economic-educational scenario. To analyze the issue critically, and in a focused manner, the paper begins with a brief discussion of the salient differences between the traditional and modern understandings of LLL. This helps to open up several key issues, dilemmas and contradictions related to LLL in India. It is followed by the discussion of the UGC's Guideline on LLL and Extension.

Here, it is important to mention that the paper does not intent to compare different understandings of LLL or judge which is better for India. Rather, it tries to take an analytical stance towards the UGC document and examines it and its elements of LLL in the context of globalization. This study therefore, can help to get a rather focused view of the changing dimension of LLL in Indian education policies in relation to the changing dimension of LLL internationally. Nevertheless, it could also help to provide a base for the socio-economic analysis of the whole issue and encourage further studies in this regard.

LLL- a changing discourse

LLL is an idea that is interpreted and modified differently by different bodies and entities (Field, 2006; Aspin et. al., 2001, Jarvis, 2007; Rizvi and Lingard, 2010; Field and Leicester, 2000 among others.). Some defined it as a beautiful and simple idea, where people learn throughout their lives (Field 2006:1). Edwards (2000: 4) analyses that the present upsurge of LLL as a key for economic and educational development has emerged recently (Edwards, 2000; Field, 2006). To Parson (1990) LLL is fabricated as an industrial goal for education, whereas Wain (1991) thinks it is a moral duty, or an empirical reality to reconstruct, also perceived by Belanger (1995). As a result, there are presently several definitions and explanations of LLL and each one seem appropriate in its own environment (Longworth and Davis 1996:21). Nevertheless, these various forms of LLL incorporate all forms of learning; namely formal, non-formal and informal and LLL appears as a highly dynamic term and with different dimensions of meanings, understandings, explanations and implications changing with time.

Considering these overall differences and understandings associated

with the term LLL, it is however, still seems possible to identify the present dominant global discourse of it. It can be seen that, not only in developed countries, but also in many developing countries (Jarvis, 2008) the contemporary LLL is mostly perceived as a learning mechanism, a framework or guiding principle to reorient the education of 21st century. It promotes the mantra of learning throughout lives and upgrade their skills and competencies continually in order to be dynamic and competitive in the globalizing economy. LLL is also being related with socio-economic development of a society and often promotes the ambition of knowledge society and knowledge economy. This neo-notion of LLL is largely supported by the neo-liberal ideologies of open competition and market mechanisms (Field, 2006; Jarvis 2007, Bhola 2003; Dixit, 2009 among others).

This view of LLL is somewhat different from the traditional Indian understanding of the aforesaid, which harnessed the philosophy of 'learn as long as you live' to find the ultimate wisdom. However, it can also be seen from Shah's (1999, 2008) and Bhola's (2003) study that the priorities of LLL have also changed significantly over time in India. However, in common practice, LLL in India has largely been related with literacy, adult continuing education and allied educational activities, where it mostly considered as a voluntary initiative with a strong welfare approach.

According to Shah (1999, 2008) adult education in India became popular in pre and post independence (1947) period where illiteracy rate was very high (81.67 % in 1951[1]) and nation building was the main priority. Inevitably, the initial focus was on basic literacy and related initiatives. However, since then, it has changed several times. Shah (1999:5) divided these changes in three time-cycles. The first one (1947-66) was life-oriented education and the focus was on basic literacy where social education got prime importance. In the next cycle (1967-77), the focus had been upgraded to functional literacy as a next step to basic literacy where work oriented education was selected to make India a self-reliant nation. In a continuum, the next cycle (1978-90) was planned, where social education in the form of developmental literacy was introduced. This trend continued until the 90s, and then the focus started shifting once again, with the swift penetration of globalization in India. The notion to build a self-reliant nation without much help from outside, mostly championed by Gandhian thought, started to change. However, it took another decade or so to observe the initial impacts. Eventually, it started reshaping the education policies, both directly and indirectly as education

becoming the key for the success in an increasingly globalised world. This was the beginning of another major change in the perception of LLL where it is being linked with the Government's ambition to make India a knowledge society and economy.

Along with the improvement of the Indian economic situation, increased influences on reforming the national economy and education started to gain pace. Simultaneously, the increased influence of technological revolution and economic globalization penetrated India. These factors have enormous impact on changing the perception of LLL internationally and in India as well. Overall, the post 2000 period, therefore, could be termed as the 'era of LLL', where the understanding is different from that of the ancient times and seems much more lenient to its global/ international one. In the midst of these changes, UGC published its guideline of LLL, which recommended changes in the domain of higher education. Although it is largely designed for the university departments of Adult and Continuing Education, but the document, with its vision, statements and understanding could be considered as a milestone in terms of expressing a shift of focus in the domain of education and learning.

University Grants Commission on LLL

UGC's policies and guidelines are considered as one of the most important in Indian higher education arena. In present context, UGC recognizes the importance of a reform in higher education and as a part of this initiative; it publishes its guideline of LLL for the 11th Five Year Plan period (2007-2012). However, it is to note that UGC started its endeavor of including and promoting adult education and learning in 1970s. It tried to make universities closer to the common people by putting increased importance on 'extension' (Narang, 1997: 9). However, during the last decade, the present focus and meaning of LLL in UGC documents seems changing and incorporating elements from the global discourse of LLL. This section, therefore, discusses the role of the University Grants Commission in promoting LLL in contemporary context. It reviews UGC's view on LLL first and analyses the presence of dimensions and perspectives of LLL afterwards.

Summary: UGC Guideline on LLL and Extension

The document starts, how LLL was viewed in the major Indian education policies since independence and concentrates on the modern discourse(s)

of LLL. There, UGC clearly recognizes the importance of LLL and relates it with national economic progress and contemporary global challenges. It would accord maximum priority to LLL with a view to meeting the demands of emerging knowledge society and facilitate the process of developing a learning society (UGC 2010:2). It continues to mention why Indian higher education should focus on LLL in the present context by mentioning about-

- The Demographic Dividend India enjoys
- The Lingual diversity in India
- Increasing life expectancy
- Private initiative in higher education with a special focus on technology related subjects to meet the challenges
- Making universities more concerned about:
- Student employability skills
- Open distance learning
- Integration of formal and non-formal education
- Making universities more adult learner friendly
- Making departments more pro-active
- Human resource development by providing professional man power
- Opening dedicated departments for LLL

UGC advocates to bring the LLL programs 'in tune' with the global knowledge scenario as LLL has become a fundamental goal of recent educational policies and it is often advocated as a way to achieve socio-economic development and a tool for promoting knowledge based society (UGC, 2010:3). Therefore, it encourages universities to expand in the area of LLL based on their expertise, making it a separate discipline of study field and practice, strengthening the departments with faculty and involve more participation by introducing it into colleges, creating centre of excellence and by providing grants. Therefore, according to UGC, universities should focus on:

- Promoting the philosophy of LLL
- Put concerned effort to integrate formal, non-formal and out of school learning
- Outreach mainly to deprived sections
- Improve extension activities
- Introduce innovative courses
- Generate new knowledge through research and publication

These focal areas are further emphasized by providing a guideline of what should be the role of the department of LLL. UGC have mentioned a variety of learning programs and activities, which departments should or could take. Those are;

- Teaching, Training and Research
- LLL Programs
- Extension, which includes -
- Projects related to extension/field outreach within a discipline at the undergraduate or postgraduate level;
- Field work in respect of a subject of study;
- Participation in literacy, post-literacy, continuing education, population education and non-formal education programs;
- Participation in programs for enhancing employability and technology skills;
- Any other activity approved for the purpose by the University Authority with the approval of the Commission.
- Publication (including e-content development) and
- Population Education (PE)

A priority is given on the economically and socially deprived section of the population (UGC Guideline on LLL and Extension).

Initial Impression

As it can be seen, that UGC takes the idea of LLL, which was rather limited in scope in India, into a much wider level. It incorporates the aspects of economy, technological progress and global competition in its discussion of LLL, which were not this much prominent in the 1968 and 1986 (modified in 1992) National Policy on Education. The two major education policies (1968 and 1986), however, mentioned about the human resource development and national capacity building. They mentioned about eradication of illiteracy, women's equality, universalisation of primary education etc, but also considered LLL as a voluntary way of educational activity. Here, the UGC guideline apparently differs in two points. First, it recognizes higher education as a part of LLL and second, LLL is considered as a necessity of the citizens of the nation in order to make India an active global player. Therefore, along with the national five-year plans, UGC also focuses on vocational education and training, self-employment related programs, and career oriented courses. It mentions:

Globalization of education and economy has led the University Grants Commission (UGC) to reorient and reshape its policies and programs to make the current Indian Higher Education System more relevant and career-oriented with focus on quality and excellence. It is envisaged that professionally qualified graduates with a sound knowledge of their core disciplines and expertise in a concerned skill will have more openings in service, industry and self-employment sectors (UGC 2010:2).

In recent documents, UGC always mentions the necessity of modifying education in India with regard to India's changing socio-economic context. However, only recently, it establishes a rather more direct relation between LLL, globalization and the much needed educational reform in India. According to the UGC guideline:

The role and importance of LLL in India have increased in recent times due to several socio economic factors. In a technology-driven knowledge based competitive economy, the landscape of learning is fast changing in India. The growth of Indian economy at an average rate of 9.2% per annum during 2006-7 (Economic Survey 2006-7), tremendous expansion of Information Communication Technology and the rapid globalization have all been instrumental in bringing about changes in the job skills so that the workforce keeps on learning and updating their skills to be globally competitive. The country's economic performance depends critically on access to and the adoption of new technology and improving the skills of the labour force. Since 92.4% of India's workforce is in the unorganized sectors (National Sample Survey, 61st Round, 2004-5), they need regular upgrading of skills to compete in the globalize economy. Equipping the labour force with relevant skills implies the need for creating a variety of learning and training opportunities. In this process, the university system in India will have to play an important role (UGC 2010:1).

This above view on LLL is revolutionary in many ways, especially in the contemporary Indian context. It directly includes the aspect of skills and recognizes the instrumental values of learning. Significantly, it places it over the ancient concept of LLL for achieving wisdom. It also argues for the necessary arrangements and changing roles of universities. This concerned attitude to LLL indicates towards a more pragmatic stand and therefore it

seems initially different from the previous documents linking LLL and Higher Education.

Focus areas

From the discussion above, it seems plausible to find out several common key areas relating LLL and higher education. Primarily, the document focuses on the changing learning or educational landscape, which is prevailing in and outside India. Secondly, it tries to make an effort to change the existing dimension of higher education in India by making it as a tool to meet the demands and challenges of globalization. The focus is therefore on skills and competence development, knowledge up-gradation with utmost priority on practical knowledge acquisition, which can be utilized in the national development. The issue of diversified courses and course providers based on the market needs has been encouraged where increased importance has been given on partnerships. Extending the programs, education opportunities to the mass is another area, which is related to the partnership issue. In the report, need for innovation, quality and relevant research and development, networking, are given higher values. The issue of social inclusion, literacy initiative and up-gradation of the deprived sections are also mentioned with increased importance. Overall, the commission urge for a more dynamic and up-graded education system, which can live up to the dream to make India a knowledge society.

The later section, therefore, tries to look some aspects of this 'ambition of becoming a knowledge society' from a critical point of view to find out even more core factors, which are perhaps driving India to think about renewing its dimensions of LLL.

A deeper look: core changes in the Indian dimensions of LLL

Policy should match the context. This common notion leads the main discussion in this section. As India is undoubtedly one of the most diverse societies in the world, there are prominent regional, cultural, ethnic, lingual, religious, sub-religious (cast), economic and other diversities. This diverse condition means diverse needs and specializations based on local needs and expertise. UGC recognizes the diversity at regional and institutional levels, encourage the universities to specialize in their respective areas based on their expertise, and needs to undertake projects and programs. This could lead to a custom-made solution for the local issues and integrating

the departments of LLL more into the local communities. The same line of thought can be seen when UGC mentions that the departments of LLL would be non-conventional and should engage with various types of activities beyond academic nomenclature. They should involve students in literacy campaigns, impart soft skills and computer skills, consult with 'Jan Sikshan Sansthans[2]' and importantly; priorities educational activities in the areas with low literacy among scheduled caste and tribes (UGC, 2010). In the summary of the document, we can find out that the focus is on creating an integrated concept of LLL which combines formal, non-formal and informal learning, which can reach out to community more effectively, extend its services to them and provide more professional manpower through innovative courses. Therefore, the idea of LLL by UGC intertwines itself with extension. A sense of autonomy is also present with the freedom to identify, choose and implement projects, according to the diverse Indian socio-economic-educational contexts. The Five Year Plans (10th, 11th and 12th) also advocate for such localized solutions in their documents.

Another aspect of collaboration is also related with this document, i.e. the concept of information sharing. In this knowledge driven era, information sharing is one of the main tools for success. By sharing information and collaborating among other government and non government organizations, the ability to work in a group is tend to develop, which is also considered as a competence by many (e.g. by UNESCO, TUNING etc.). Programs such as participation in literacy, post-literacy and continuing programs; developing reading materials for neo-literates, skill training program and vocational educational and training programs, participation in enhancing employability and technology skills, populations education to generate awareness about the population explosion and gender issues are some example of programs that may require joint ventures. The interesting thing is that, any conventional university department does not commonly undertake joint efforts like these. It is also, to some extent against the elitist position of a university. However, it could be asked, why are the departments of LLL supposed to take a more unconventional path? And what are the major significance of it? These questions are provoking and urge the study to go even one more step deeper.

To analyze the issue further, we need to refer to India's socio-economic condition, related to its educational scenario to answer to the questions, raised above. Over the course of time, India has developed itself in many aspects of education. The literacy rate has gone up, enrolment in primary education has improved; but still the number of dropouts in primary and

secondary level is alarming. The largest number adult illiterates are also in India along with many poorly or semi literate people. There are many people, who have not completed the lower secondary (grade 8 or equivalent) and secondary (grade 10 or equivalent) education. There are even fewer, who complete higher secondary education (grade 12or equivalent). However, the total number of successful students is significant in terms of global competition and national development with a pool of competent human resource. It could perhaps be realized that, when the country is enormous by its size of population, the percentage as well as the total number, both are equally important and key factor for success (or failure).

However, although the total number of people, although representing a small national percentage, can bring good fortune for India, but there is no denying the fact that still, the problems related to the national socio-economic-educational development is alarming. Secondly, if not taken care of, it can further increase the number of illiterates, economically poor and more importantly cause the country a slower progress. According to Field, "the unskilled, unqualified and uneducated, it seems, are not only likely to face diminishing opportunities themselves; they also become a milestone, holding back the application of knowledge and preventing the educated and creative majority from enjoying to the full accessible fruits of the knowledge economy" (Field, 2006:25). Therefore, the government cannot just waive off its responsibilities.

These realizations lead the planners to form a guideline for LLL, which not only includes literacy initiatives, but also links it with several awareness generation programs. The inclusion of employment generation programs also links itself with other programs. For instance, an educated family is not only more prone to value the education of their infants, but also they have more chance to take the benefits of the available government schemes of birth control, girls child education, self employment, bank loans, and importantly, let their child continue with education. It is also possible that they engage themselves in different vocational education and training with the improvement in education and consciousness, which in turn contribute to the societal development. These issues are therefore quite interrelated and indigenous in Indian society. These problems are not this much acute in developed countries where they can directly focus on education, skill up-gradation and issues such as ageing population problems, which are relevant in their context and are main aims of their LLL.

The operational aspects of the guideline of LLL could also add to our understanding of UGC's view on LLL. Broadly, it can be divided into two major sections. One, we may call it as the 'academic section' and other is the 'applied section'. The first section includes the academic activities including research and publication; LLL as a subject of study. The other part, i.e. applied section, overall includes the programs, which are more operational in nature. This major classification shows that the intellectual section focuses more on the theoretical knowledge building, which could possibly strengthen the changing conceptualization of LLL in India and contribute in developing Indian education. The applied section, on the other hand, could break the traditional idea of a university department by fostering collaboration, extension, involvement, program design and study material preparations. This particular effort focuses towards building a national knowledge base through research, publication and collaborations. These could be referred as an effort to bring the department and the university closer the real world and promote applied knowledge and real-life coordination. From the point of the incorporation, it welcomes learners of different ages and needs and with different time to provide for the learning activities. These could also remind us that universities are encouraged to come closer to the world of work; it needs to participate, coordinate and contribute in the society in a progressive, practical and pro-active way. In this sense, it seems more result oriented, demanding and above all portraits a dynamic nature. This dynamism through diversity is essential if a large tertiary system has to meet diverse needs.

These efforts clearly indicate towards a more hands-on approach of LLL, which is wider in scope. The important point to note is that, almost all the new concepts introduced by the UGC resemble to the idea of making the universities a dynamic learning institute and in general, to promote a learning society, which is compatible with the contemporary changing world and can face its challenges. In other words, UGC guideline on LLL and extension focuses on a more experimental path of academic activity, explores the issue of extension and field outreach as their coordinating activity and together, venturing the changing notion of LLL in a more unconventional and exploratory way.

A critique

The exploratory nature of the UGC document tries to incorporate several things under the umbrella term of LLL. The inclusion of ample number

programs also shows their intention to explore all the possible corners of LLL and inclusivity. However, it could also lead to a blurred focus, as UGC seems trying to include everything without being coherent, which could make the situation as an amalgamation of stand-alone programs and fail to provide a clear direction. The reason could be:

> Sometimes, LLL has been used by policy makers as little more than a modish repackaging of rather conventional policies [...] with little that is new or innovative. This tendency to wrap up existing practice in a more colourful phrase can also be seen in the rush by providers to claim their adherence to LLL (Field, 2006:3).

Due to this less standardized nature of the term LLL, confusions have already started spreading among academics, also relating to the UGC's stand on LLL. Although some change in the names of departments could be observed, or some effort to include innovative practices, but largely, these changes are less likely to make any substantial differences without constant efforts from the UGC and related official entities. Hence, as of now, it is hard to say which way UGC's document might lead and will contribute to the changing conceptualization of LLL with specific focus.

Moreover, in this complex and somewhat confusing situation, the introduction of LLL is likely to face rigorous challenges as it promotes a highly flexible portrait of education. The first wave resistance is most likely to come from the universities itself. Noticeably, UGC, through it documents, opts for the idea of changing the traditional notion of universities to a much more flexible and dynamic learning place where all can learn, even being outside the institutional structure. The idea of a learning university could broadly be related with the idea of an institution, which itself learns and changes depending on the needs of the society. However, the idea of a 'learning university' suggests a paradigm shift and to some; it invades the university and corrupts its soul (Duke 2001:515). This non-elitist approach towards transforming universities poses a challenge to the traditional universities. It is almost equivalent to fundamentally challenging the traditional notion of considering universities as ivory towers. In general, this metaphor signifies something elite and far from the general life, which is not influenced by the quick changes in the society. Albatch (1998), H.S. Bhola (2006), Tilak (2005) have repeatedly mentioned their worries about the rigid nature of Indian universities and here, this could prove a major barrier in implementing LLL in the universities.

It is however, important to mention that the departments of LLL (or dept. of adult and continuing educations) are mainly under-resourced and overall, there are only few such department in India. Moreover, in the 12th Five Year Plan, no fund is allocated to these departments. It is perhaps not so difficult to imagine the approaching challenges in this regard. Firstly, the departments, which are already very low in number, have to cope with the new guideline and that means including new programs, new people and more outreach, without enough financial support from the commission or the government. Secondly, the limited scope of changing the universities into a learning institute would be less feasible as this is the only published guideline of this kind and more importantly, limited to only a single departmental boundary and not addressed to the whole university system. Thirdly, how UGC wants the departments and the universities to become more accountable and responsible to the community is less defined in the document. Even from a mere theoretical point of view, this could create problems as the departments of LLL could be stuck with their existing program and more importantly follow the same traditional way of executing programs with a changed name of the departments (in some cases). Hence, it carries the risk of failing and bringing marginal changes even within the department, let alone the whole university and the higher education system of India. Interestingly, some departments however, may try to reach beyond the academic boundary, to find new sources of funds, make collaborations and find innovative solutions to sustain and succeed.

The complex dynamics

It can be seen that UGC is proactive to react and deal with the present changes in global economy and educational systems. A closer look reveals a common thread between the changes in the perception of LLL globally and in India, which is globalization. Although it depends on the context, but all entities have a more prominent vision of economic development through education reforms, which can be seen while they promote knowledge economy, market economy, and global competition and so on. India seems want to promote a notion of overall development by overcoming the 'isolationism' and turning the adversity into opportunity, also for non-knowledge labours (Meredith, 2007:95). Similar trend can be seen in the recommendations of the 10th and 11th Five Year Plans and then followed by the UGC and again carried forward by the 12th Five Year Plan. Thus, it can be understood that globalization, specifically economic globalization plays a dominant role in policymaking in contemporary India.

However, the adverse and unequal socio-economic-education scenario prevents the planners to take drastic measurement and directs them to go with a mix of traditional and global approaches of LLL. Jarvis (2008) explains this trend of balancing the situation. To him, this response from the governments, (according to Habermas 2006: 81 in Jarvis, 2008:52), is one of the general responses to globalization at national levels. Habermas (2006) however mentions about two effects, namely- the 'cushioned', and 'catch up'. In the first one, the government tries to provide safeguards and let the welfare sustain to improve the life conditions of the underprivileged, whereas in the other, the government opts for paradigmatic changes in policy, approach and implementation strategies to reap the benefits of globalization, before it is too late. By doing so, the policies use both approaches, which according to Jarvis, could be termed as the 'third way' (Jarvis, 2008).

India seems following this way more than other, while opting for a faster reform. UGC realizes the practical situation that a one sided policy is clearly, not sustainable. Hence, the guideline tries to incorporate all sectors and all types of learning into account and does not ignore the market either. In this regards, we may recall the analysis of Rizvi and Lingard, which shows that in a developing economy (like India), success depends on people's knowledge stock, skills level, learning capabilities and cultural adaptability. Therefore, policies are encouraged to go beyond deregulating the market and actively promote reforms of education and training so that it can better contribute in the national development (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010). This all-round approach, although not always focused, but can certainly show a trend that the change has already began in the policy level and it is most likely to trickle down into practices. LLL here is appearing more as an framework, rather than a group of educational programs and in this regard the UGC guideline has pioneered a step forward. However, how to use the potential of LLL as an effective learning and developmental tool for all remains a challenge. Therefore, the success of LLL in reforming higher education depends on well-thought policies and constant research on how to use it in the changing globalizing national contexts by making it *Indianised*.

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(Footnotes)

[1] Source- Premchand, Status of Adult Literacy in India: A Database for Literacy Programmes, New Dlehi, National Literacy Mission, 2007.

[2] The Jan Shikshan Sansthan (formerly known as Shramik Vidyapeeth) is an innovative educational Scheme in the field on non-formal and continuing education and training for adults started by the Government of India in the year 1967.

Political Empowerment of Women through Literacy Education Programmes in Edo and Delta States, Nigeria

Caroline O. Olomukoro
Omobola O. Adelore

Literacy is an investment that leads to national development especially in the political aspect. The empowering role of literacy and its significance for development have been recognized worldwide. For development plans to materialize, participation and commitment of people are essential. People cannot participate if they are not made politically conscious of the significance of development to them as individuals or as a nation. The empowering potential of literacy can translate into increased political participation and thus contribute to the quality of public policies and to democracy. As acknowledged at the UNESCO fifth International Conference on Adult Education held in Hamburg in 1977, "substantive democracy and culture of peace are not given, they need to be constructed."

For democracy to be achieved, literacy education is needed to educate citizens on the democratic culture as well as to inform them of their rights and responsibilities as democracy also requires people to actively participate at local, national and global levels. In addition, adult literacy programmes can produce more adult-specific outcomes such as political awareness and empowerment, critical reflection and community actions which are not so much identified with formal schooling (EFA GMR, 2006).

Literacy is crucial for economic development, social development, political development and environmental protection, yet almost 800 million adults 2/3 of whom are women are not literate (UNESCO, 2006). Similarly, UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) (2010) points out that women represent a persistent two-thirds of the world's illiterates. Several literacy studies have therefore been focused on them because of the indispensable role they play in developmental effort. There is a clarion call for their empowerment at all levels.

In Nigeria for instance, the 2006 population census indicated that women constitute 48.8% out of a total population of 140,000,000 people and majority

of them (about 2/3) are non-literates. For women to be able to participate effectively and meaningfully in the developmental process, they require basic literacy which will enable them to acquire proper awareness of their potentials, rights and higher responsibilities in society. Literacy empowers women by improving their living standard. Access to literacy is considered one of the main factors for empowerment, particularly empowerment of those excluded from formal system of education and development (Olomukoro, 2012).

Women over the years have had limited access to educational opportunities and this has hampered their contribution to national development. However, there is now the realization that sustainable human development cannot be effective if half of the human race remain ignorant and marginalized. It is notable that women literacy has gained greater prominence on political agenda over the past decades. Ever since the World Education Forum in Dakar at which government set the goal of halving the number of illiterates by 2015, the United Nation (UN) Literacy Decade running from 2003 to 2012 has given further impetus to reducing illiteracy (Ban-Ki Moon, 2010). Bolivia (2010) emphasized that literacy gives women a voice in their families, in political life, and on the world stage. It is a first step towards personal freedom and broader prosperity; when women are literate, it is all society that gains.

Furthermore, the fourth UN world conference on women held in September, 1995 in Beijing, China, has remained a compass for the evolution of women empowerment (Fadeyi, 1995). The agreement adopted at that conference in Beijing called for equal participation and partnerships between men and women in nearly all areas of public and private life. That conference actually set the tone and the emerging trend for the global campaign for women empowerment. According to Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies (1985), education empowers women by improving their living standard. The document further states that education is the starting point for women advancement in different fields of human endeavour and also the basic tool that should be given to women in order to fulfil their role as full members of the society. In a similar vein, Ojobor (2008) points out that the educational empowerment of Nigerian women is the spring board to every other form of empowerment, be it political, social, economic or cultural. In response to this call to empower women, the Nigerian government has taken several practical steps to improve women's participation in education, especially through adult and non-formal education programmes. These include: Women

Education Programmes, Mass Literacy Programmes, Activities of NGOs as well as private individuals initiatives. The National Commission for Mass Literacy Adult and Non-formal Education (MMEC) was set up in 1991 by the Federal government, with the mandate of eradicating illiteracy in the country. Women are specially targeted in the programmes of the commission with mass literacy classes being conducted in all nooks and crannies of the country. Education radio programmes, provision of supportive materials, and awareness creation were also part of the activities carried out by the commission.

In Edo and Delta states, literacy education programmes are being organized by government organizations and private institutions. In Edo state, there are 400 literacy centres spread over all the eighteen (18) local government areas with 5 women education centres. Also in Delta state, there are about 500 literacy centres, sixteen vocational centres and three women centres distributed within the 25 local government areas. Sensitization workshops and seminars are held to consolidate women's moral attributes as custodians of family values.

Women who constitute a large proportion of the nation's population have important role to play in politics and nation building. Yet a large population of these women is illiterates as indicated earlier. Consequently, their level of participation is low when compared with the participation of men. In addition, Okojie (2011) points out that cultural value which emphasize women's primary roles as wives and homemakers are psychological barriers to women. As a result, women are less interested in politics and see politics as a man's world. Corroborating this view, Egunjobi (2008) argues that the advantage of educating women cannot be overemphasized. Without education, women cannot be part of any decision-making process. Except women are there to represent the voice of women, they cannot expect to have gender-sensitive policies. The process of empowering women cannot be complete until women themselves become active initiators and participants in political decision making.

Generally, women are grossly underrepresented in leadership and key decision making bodies at all levels, federal and state legislatures, appointive positions, the civil service, public enterprises and private companies (FGN, 2010a). Though the situation must have improved slightly, compared to the population of women in Nigeria, only a few have been brought to the limelight. Individual women have been empowered; what of collective empowerment?

That is empowerment of women as a group. For majority of women, things have not changed especially for rural women as well as for poor women as pointed out by Okojie (2011).

In contrast to research on economic empowerment of women through literacy programmes, studies on political development of women through literacy programmes are limited in number. It is against this background that this study examines the political development of women through literacy education programmes in Edo and Delta states, Nigeria.

Hypotheses

H_{01}:   There is no significant relationship between literacy education programmes and women involvement in political activities.

H_{02}:   Literacy programmes have not significantly enhanced women's leadership role in the society.

Theoretical Framework

The word empowerment captures the sense of gaining control and participating in decision making.

In defining the term empowerment, Karl (1995) explains what power means as:

- having control or gaining further control
- having a say and being listened to,
- being able to define and create from a woman's perspective
- being able to influence social choices and decisions affecting the whole society, and
- being recognized and respected as equal citizens and human beings with a contribution to make.

The concept of empowerment in an individual or social group presupposes that a state of social oppression exists which has disempowered those in the group, by denying them the opportunities or resources and by subjecting them to an ideology and a set of social practices which have defined them as inferior humans, thus lowering their self-esteem. As a general goal, empowerment has been described as a political and

material process, which increases individual and group power, self reliance and strength (Nigel and Werner, 2001) cited in Adesanya (2006). In providing a framework for this study, Non zero-sum models power will be discussed. This model believes that one person's gain is not necessarily another's loss. These tend to be referred to as **power within, power to** and **power with** (Rowland 1998).

Power within, for example, refers to assets such as self-esteem and self confidence. In a sense, all power starts form here – such assets are necessary before anything else can be achieved. Rowlands (1998) points out that "A woman who is subjected to violent abuse when she expresses her own opinions may start to withhold her opinions and eventually come to believe that she has no opinion of her own. When control becomes internalized in this way, overt use of power is no longer necessary." The internalization of such feelings of worthlessness is a well-recognized feature of women's oppression and therefore many development interventions seek to bring about changes at this level.

Power to is defined as "generative or productive power (sometimes incorporating or manifesting as forms of resistance or manipulation) which creates new possibilities and actions without domination" (Rowlands 1997). In other words, this is power which increases the boundaries of what is achievable for another party. For example, if you learn to read it makes many more things possible for you. It does not restrict me (except, I suppose, from using you illiteracy to benefit myself.

Power with refers to collective action, recognizing that more can be achieved by a group acting together than by individuals alone. Many interventions aiming to empower women note the importance of creating opportunities for women to spend time with other women reflecting on their situations, recognizing the strengths they do possess and devising strategies to achieve positive change. To develop critical minds women need a place where new ideas can be discussed and new demands arises.

From the foregoing it can be inferred that the process of empowerment covers not only awareness at the individual level (power within) but also at the collective level (power with). An individual woman can be empowered if she has access to literacy, education, productive skills and capital which will pave way to get ahead. It is concerned with enabling women to advance within the present society, rather than through structural transformation.

The collective view of women empowerment puts emphasis on women collectively coming together to be recognized and address the gender issues which stand in the way of their advancement. It involves the transformation of patriarchal society through a process of enlightenment, conscientisation and collective organization and therefore necessitates collective action by women to discard the patriarchal beliefs and attitudes prevailing in the society.

The Non zero-sum models power is relevant to this study in that it emphasizes both the individual and collective empowerment as essential for political empowerment of women. It must also be stressed at this juncture, that individual empowerment (self esteem/self confidence) which literacy programmes seek to achieve precedes social action (collective efforts). In other word, an individual must have a strong sense of the self before embarking on public and collective efforts.

Methodology

The study adopted descriptive Survey research design. Stratified and random sampling techniques were used in selecting 1,022 women that were enrolled in basic, intermediate and advanced literacy classes organized by the agency of Adult and Non-formal education, non-governmental and private organizations in Edo and Delta States. The main instrument for the study was the questionnaire. The questionnaire was entitled "Women Political Empowerment Scale" (WPES). The questionnaire was divided into two sections. Section A sought personal information about the respondents. Section B focused on items designed to elicit responses on the political related contents of adult literacy programmes for women in Edo and Delta states. The questionnaire was structured on four-rating scale of strongly agree (SA), Agree (A) strongly Disagree (SD) and Disagree (D). The questionnaire was complemented by 4 sessions of Focus Group Discussion (FGD). The content validity of the instrument was established by giving experts in the department of adult and non formal education, university of Benin, Benin City for scrutiny. Test-retest instrument was used for reliability and reliability coefficient of 0.76 was obtained by subjecting it to Pearson product moment correlation coefficient.

Two hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance. Data were analyzed using Pearson product moment correlation (PPMC) and simple percentage.

Results

Literacy Education Programmes and Women Involvement in Political Activities

Table 1: Pearson's test on the relationship between women literacy programmes and their Involvement in Political Activities

Factors	N	Pearson's r	P-value
Literacy education programmes	1022	643[xx]	.000
Political activities q			

$\propto$ = 05, P<0.05   xx

significant   result

Table - 1 reveals that a significant relationship existed between literacy programmes and women involvement in political activities. The r value is 643 which is less than the alpha level of 0.05. Since the r value (.643) is less than alpha level of (0.05) the result was therefore significant. The null hypothesis is rejected. Consequently, the alternate is retained which states that there is a significant relationship between women literacy attainment and their involvement in political activities. This means that when the data was subjected to Pearson Correlation Test, it was found out that the value of r which is .643 was less than the alpha level of 0.05 and was therefore significant.

Literacy Education Programmes and Women's Leadership Role in Society

Table 2. Pearson's correlation test on women literacy programmes and leadership role in society.

Factors	N	Pearson's r	P-value
Literacy Education Programmes	1022	.634[xx]	.000
Leadership Role in Society			

$\propto$ = 05, P<0.05   xx

significant   result

Table - 2 showed a significant correlation between women literacy education attainment and their leadership role in society. The r value is .634 which is less than the alpha level of 0.05. The result is therefore significant. The null hypothesis is rejected. Consequently, the alternate is upheld. That is, there is a significant correlation between women literacy attainment and their leadership role in society. This means that when the data was subjected to Pearson correlation test, the r value which is .634 was less than the alpha level of 0.05. The result was therefore significant.

Discussion of Results

The study revealed that a significant relationship existed between literacy education programmes and political activities (r= 0.643) of the women in the two states under investigation. Corroborating the finding above, Stromquist (2005), observes out that the connection between literacy and political engagement is predicated on the assumption that as individuals become more exposed to information about their environment especially the public institutions and government, they will be more prepared to intervene to make such bodies more responsive to their needs. Stromquist (2009) further points out that the political dimension of empowerment has been found to emerge among neo-literates, particularly in their participation in such activities as election and community level decision making. Neo literates often register increase in political knowledge regarding political parties and laws as well as in voting and participating in community and group activities.

This finding is further confirmed by the views of Pucell-Gates and Waterman (2000) in Olomukoro (2012) that women who participated in literacy programmes had voice and were able to engage in sophisticated socio-political analysis. Also Carron (1989) and Kagitcibasi (2005) found out that women who took part in literacy programmes participated more in elections, local and community organizations than did illiterate women in Kenya and Turkey respectively. Moreover, Burchfield (2002) reported that among Nepalese women, those who had spent two years in state-run literacy programmes demonstrated more political knowledge (knew the minimum voting age, the names of political representatives) than those not in the programmes. The neo-literates were more likely to believe they could serve as political representatives. More literate women who participated in community groups were aware of women's and girls' experiences with trafficking and domestic violence. As women obtain literacy skills, their ability to negotiate relations in the private sphere of the household to their advantage

also increases. It is also noted that greater political changes occurred within the participation of women in higher classes. Participation in adult literacy programmes is also correlated with increased participation in trade unions, community action and national political life especially when empowerment is at the core of the programmes design (EFA, GMR 2006). UNESCO (2003) also indicates that as a social event, participating in literacy programmes, provides women with a forum to share their experiences, develop new insight and knowledge and support each other in bringing about beneficial change. From the analysis also, 74% of the women took interest in what goes on around them, 79% could vote, 74% knew the importance of registration exercise, 64% participated in political discussion, 73% sought elective positions. It can therefore be deduced from the study, that a significant relationship existed between literacy programmes and political activities of the women in the two states under investigation.

The study also indicated that literacy education programmes correlated significantly with women participation in leadership roles (r=.634) in the society. This finding is in line with the study of Pant (2004) in Olomukoro (2012) who found out that the impact of educational inputs had brought women into the public arena, engaged them within the power structures in society, enhanced their skills to take on leadership roles, take decisions and improved their capabilities to contribute to the family well being. Literacy education has granted women access to leadership positions in the society and thus has empowered them. In addition, Shrestha (2005) in the study carried out in Nepal revealed that the literacy skills acquired impacted on the women increase in the ability to speak-up for themselves, engage in conversation with outsiders, increase in self confidence and leadership skills.

From the analysis of the data in the area under study, it was discovered that 89% of the women participants became leaders of their various groups, 91% had better opportunities for leadership positions in their different organisations, 85% participated in religious activity groups and 70% attested to the fact that literacy skills prepared them for leadership roles in the society. It can therefore be established that adult literacy programmes correlated significantly with women leadership role in the society.

The focus group discussion results showed that self esteem is the strongest outcome of literacy programmes. The women participants attested to the fact that literacy programmes have increased their self confidence and self esteem. Self esteem or one's assessment of one's worth can be

considered a personal condition that precedes social and political action. In line with this observation, Bingman (2000), Archer and Cohinghan (1996) Beder (1999) and Young (1994) all concluded in their various studies that self-esteem is the strongest and the most consistent outcome of literacy programmes.

Conclusion

Based on the findings, it was concluded that literacy education programmes correlated significantly with women participation in political activities (r=0.643) and leadership role (r=0.634) in the society; Women constitute a high percentage of the population and majority of them are non-literates. For women to truly be empowered, they need greater access to educational opportunities, skill acquisition and position of authority. In order for this goal to be realized, government, international development partners and other stakeholders should ensure that the use of literacy education programmes towards women empowerment takes high priority attention.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are put forward for the promotion of political empowerment of women through literacy programmes.
• If the struggle to elevate the status of women and accord them increased political roles in the society must be achieved, the various women organizations and associations must form a coalition in order to fight against all the discriminatory practices against them and which stand in the way of their advancement. Women must be made to realize that lack of political power is responsible for their subordination in the society.

• Programmes relevant to the needs of women should be promoted. Emphasis should be placed on programmes that promote leadership skills, gender consciousness rising and emancipatory goals among women. Programmes should not be centered on women's productive and reproductive roles only but those that could lead to true emancipation should be pursued vigorously.

• Adequate awareness creation and enlightenment of adult literacy for rural women will go a long way in helping their situation in all respects, and stop violence against them.

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Lifelong Learning in Higher Education: A Review

Arabinda Bhattacharya

Lifelong learning should be understood in the light of objectives of education. Great thinkers have clearly stated the objectives and purposes of education. Purpose of education is not just a tool to one's bread and butter. It is much more than just earning and ensuring the smooth functioning of one's livelihood.

Tagore emphasizes the development of spiritual culture in education. The core of Tagore's educational ideals consists of the belief in some basic unity in the individual to be attained, an ideal of harmony where all the contradictory elements that constitute a human personality would be resolved. Tagore says, 'We may become powerful by knowledge, but we attain fullness by sympathy'. Tagore meant by 'sympathy' the capacity of any individual to adjust himself/herself successfully to his/her environment, be it that nature or society, to reach a degree of integration which would ultimately lead to a unified personality. (Aronson, 1961)

According to Gandhi, basic education links the children, whether of the cities or the villages, to all that best and lasting in India. It develops both the body and the mind, and keeps them rooted to the soil with a glorious vision of the future in the realization of which he or she begins to take his or her share from the very commencement of his or her career in school. (Gandhi's selected works)

To Paulo Freire, 'Conscientization' is the most important aspect of education. Conscientization is a political- education process which enables the masses to overcome 'false consciousness'. This, Paulo asserts, is absolutely necessary for the oppressed masses to get rid of "Culture of Silence". In other words, it is a process of gaining awareness of reality in order to transform the society consciously.

To summarize the above, it could be concluded that the physical, intellectual, emotional and ethical integration of the individual into a complete man is a broad definition of the fundamental aim for education. (Learning To Be, 1972). In this context, this is to be mentioned that the above premises stated by the great thinkers hold good for the basic education and they should also hold good for the higher education as well. Because the education should be seen as a very strong tool to develop the society in all respects, not merely from its economic point of view.

Lifelong learning 'from cradle to grave' is a philosophy, a conceptual framework and an organizing principle of all forms of education, based on inclusive, emancipatory, humanistic and democratic values; it is all-encompassing and integral to the vision of a knowledge-based society (CONFINTEA VI, Unesco). Lifelong learning is the ongoing, voluntary, and self-motivated pursuit of knowledge for either personal or professional reasons (Learning for Life, 2000). It not only enhances social inclusion, active citizenship and personal development, but also competitiveness and employability (Adult learning: It is never too late to learn, 2006) .The term recognizes that learning is not confined to childhood or the classroom but takes place throughout life and in a range of situations. Learning can be seen as something that takes place on an on-going basis from our daily interactions with others and with the world around us.

In this paper we will build up a conjecture concerning the progress of lifelong learning so as to understand the dynamics of the movement of building up a learning society.

Since the last quarter of the earlier century, there has been a change in the economic order at the global level which led to consolidation of the power of the all world level organizations. Coupled with this there is a significant change in the political systems in all the countries of the world. With the Socialist Block taking back seat, Capitalist counterpart led by US took the lead and has been a determining factor in formulating the political and economic rules of the Third World countries by encroaching the sovereignty of the concerned countries. Along with the political and economic change, the world has witnessed tremendous advancements of the Technology. This whole process calls for reorganization of the labour force and also restructuring of the business organizations. In this context, training and learning of the labour force at all level becomes absolutely mandatory.

This is our conjecture that because of the socio-economic-political change and also the fast changing pace of technological advancement, lifelong learning turns out to be absolutely important. In fact, it became a worldwide topic of discussion in the 70's with the publication of a report by Unesco (Borg & Mayo,2005).

It is followed from the objectives of the education that lifelong learning should also be associated with the Humanist aspect and Human Capital aspect. The former one ensures the process of self-development and cultural growth of an individual, and the latter is important for smooth running of the production system. In the Unesco report published in 1972, there is a mention of humanist background of the lifelong learning and lifelong education is seen as part of individual cultural growth. Joel Spring(2008) in his paper entitled " research on Globalization and Education" listed out the different documents where the topic for discussion concerning lifelong education was in sharp contrast to the humanist vision of education.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) re-conceptualized lifelong learning by making it part of human capital theory (Field, 2001). Lifelong learning is considered essential for individuals to keep pace with the constantly changing global job market and technology. The European Union gave it central prominence as part of the human capital requirements of the knowledge economy. (Commission of the European Communities, 2000). The statement in this document defines the lifelong learning as ' all purposeful learning activity, undertaken on an ongoing basis with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence'. In a later report published in 2005, the document gives a full account of progress in different European Countries in regard to this and in none of the accounts, humanist aspect of lifelong education is taken care of.

It is important to note that global discourses on education and knowledge economy changed from the earlier humanist vision of lifelong learning to one focused on the ability of workers to adapt to a changing world of work along with increasing importance of the field of adult education.(Spring, 2008). In one of Spring's writings, he raises the following questions.

1.   Is education for the state or corporation antidemocratic?

2.   Does education for development of human capital sacrifice the individual needs for the employment requirements of corporations ?

3.   Should the goal of government be economic growth or should it be human welfare?

In the following figure, only F needed training and the so called lifelong education for F is absolutely necessary to keep the technologically sophisticated production sector going and also to ensure the steady profit mark-up (if not increasing) for the large corporation sector. It is to be noted that this F would be insignificant compared to A. This is the basis for the Conjecture we have stated in the paper. This can be substantiated from the following table:

Table

Sector-wise distribution of employment in organized sector in India - 2011

Sectors	Public	Private	Total
Agriculture / Haunting etc.	4.77 (0.39)	9.18 (0.76)	13.95 (1.15)
Mining / Quarrying	10.90 (0.90)	1.32 (0.10)	12.22 (1.00)
Manufacturing	10.16 (0.84)	53.97 (4.46)	64.13 (5.30)
Electricity / Gas & Water	8.31 (0.69)	0.70 (0.05)	9.01 (0.74)
Construction	8.47 (0.70)	1.02 (0.08)	9.49 (0.78)
Wholesale / Retail Trade	1.70 (0.14)	5.46 (0.45)	7.16 (0.59)
Transport / Storage / Communication	23.84 (1.97)	1.89 (0.16)	25.73 (2.13)
Finance / Insurance/ estate	13.61 (1.12)	17.18 (0.39)	30.79 (2.54)
Community/ Social & personal Service	90.95 (7.52)	23.50 (1.94)	114.45 (9.46)
Total	172.71 (14.27)	114.22 (9.44)	286.93 (23.71)

Note: Indian Population in 2011: 1210.193422 millions

Figures in the bracket indicate the percentage of the population engaged in the sector

Source: National Informatics Centre (NIC), Department of Electronics and Information Technology, Ministry Communication & Information technology, GOI

The following figure shows division of total population (need to get exposure to education sector) into different segmentations:

```
              ┌─────────────────────────────┐
              │ Total population need to get │
              │ exposure to education sector │
              │              A               │
              └──────────────┬──────────────┘
           ┌─────────────────┴──────────────────┐
  ┌─────────────────┐                  ┌─────────────────┐
  │ Access to education │              │ No access to education │
  │     sector      │                  │      sector      │
  │        B        │                  │        C         │
  └────────┬────────┘                  └──────────────────┘
   ┌────────┴─────────┐
┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
│ Absorbed in      │  │ Not absorbed in  │
│ employment sector│  │ employment sector│
│        D         │  │        E         │
└────────┬─────────┘  └──────────────────┘
   ┌──────┴───────┐
┌──────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────┐
│ Employed in Capital │ │ Employed in labour │
│ intensive sector │  │ intensive sector │
│        F         │  │        G         │
└──────────────────┘  └──────────────────┘
```
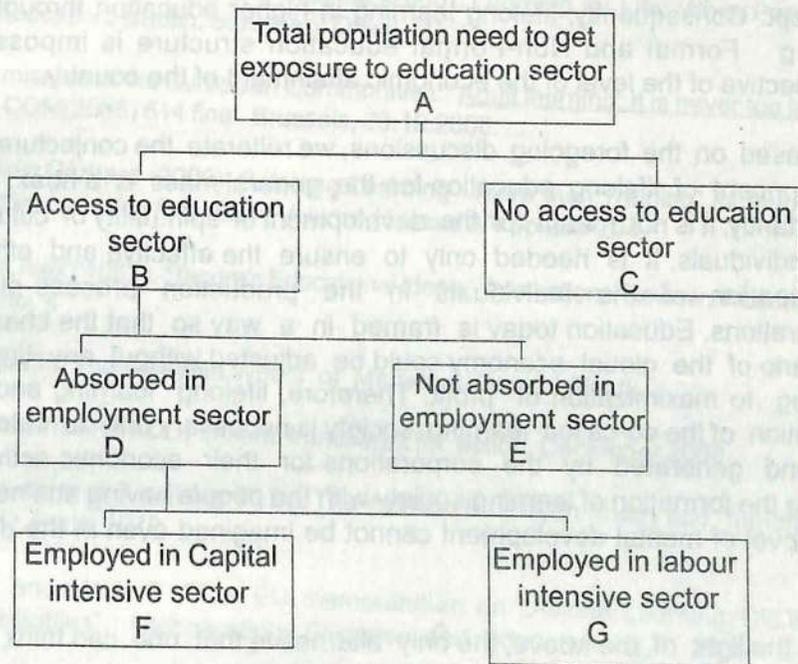
A very rough estimate of the percentage of the whole population which is (should be) exposed to the so-called lifelong learning turns out to be as insignificant as 5.30 % (the percentage engaged in Manufacturing). The major part (4.46 %) of this percentage is attributed to the engagement of the labour force in the private sector. Therefore it can be inferred that the so-called lifelong learning has no connection whatsoever with the general mass. It only facilitates the smooth running of the production process in the private sector ensuring the profit Mark-up in their favour.

It is also true that the formal and non-formal education infrastructure may not be sufficient in any country in the world as far as the lifelong learning in education is concerned. In India, its coverage is roughly 5.30% of the whole population. Extension of this coverage is also inconceivable because of the problems like, financial stringency on the part of the Government, high 'educated' unemployment rate in the country (resulting perceived devaluation of educational qualifications), low quality provision of private

higher education, ensuring high quality of academic provision etc. (Ru-Jer Wang, 2003). Therefore, Mass Higher Education becomes a utopian concept. Consequently, lifelong learning in higher education through the exiting Formal and Non-Formal education structure is impossible, irrespective of the level of the economic attainment of the country.

Based on the foregoing discussions, we reiterate the conjecture that the concept of lifelong education for the general mass is a hoax. More importantly, it is not meant for the development of spirituality or culture in the individuals. It is needed only to ensure the effective and efficient participation of the individuals in the production process of the corporations. Education today is framed in a way so that the changing scenario of the global economy could be adjusted without any time lag leading to maximization of profit. Therefore, lifelong learning and the formation of the so-called learning society is necessary only to cater the demand generated by the corporations for their economic activities. Hence the formation of learning society with the people having attained the high level of mental development cannot be imagined even in the distant past.

In the light of the above, the only alternative that one can think of is to develop a learning society and initiate a lifelong learning process through informal education, even in the domain of higher education. Informal education system is the oldest system in the history of mankind and everyone is exposed to this right after the birth and continues with it till the end of life. But there are some problems associated with it.

Unlike formal and non-formal education which is hierarchically structured, chronologically graded, informal education renders itself no such system. Informal education has different set of characteristics and becomes operative differently in different socio-cultural environment. Therefore the informal education needs to be redefined and different levels of education need to be conceptualized.

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Globalization, Transnational Policy of Lifelong Learning and University Grants Commission

Sk Aktar Ali

In recent years public policy in industrial and post-industrial countries have seen lifelong learning (LLL) as an instrument for tackling social problems. This has led to the conceptualising of LLL as social policy and thus an object of state policy (Griffin 1987; Poggeler 1990). By contrast, in transitional and less economically developed countries, LLL has been seen as a means of development, sponsored by both state and transnational organisations (Gelpi 1985). Policy making processes at the nation-state level, however, are no longer independent from, but rather blended in a transnational space that is *"instituted and sustained by nation states, international organisations, inter-state entities and global corporations"* (Moutsios 2010, p. 122). It is in this transnational space that the nature and the scope of LLL are currently being revised so as to respond better to the complexity that characterises globalised modern societies. Nation-state policies are affected by the relative positioning of adult education and learning on the policy agenda of major national organisations.

This paper investigates how globalization processes are constructed as policy problems when this national agent propose LLL a response. After reviewing the literature on globalization to elucidate the theories that inform current understanding of contemporary economic, political, cultural and ecological changes as political problems, the author presents the conceptual and methodological framework of his analysis. The author then examines how LLL is being conceptualized and put into operation across the Indian universities, in other words, investigate the nature of the educational and LLL discourses in India, and how they are changing.

Literature Review

The scientific community concurs in the recognition that in today's world, crises and prospects are no longer confined within national boundaries.

Nonetheless, universal agreement is lacking both upon how increased integration takes place and how it affects education policies. This section will address the main controversies in current debates, as these controversies also inform political understandings of the role played by LLL in modern societies.

Globalisation as a Contemporary Phenomenon

One controversy in current debates about globalisation deals with its historical emergence. David Held et al. (1999) identify three major positions: sceptics, hyperglobalists and transformationalists. Sceptics argue that globalisation is a phenomenon that has existed for centuries and that what is "new" is its scale and scope, rather than its inner characteristics. Hyperglobalists, though not denying the historical roots of globalisation, argue that contemporary globalisation is characterised by the loss of power and authority by nation-states in favour of transnational organisations, inter-state entities, and corporate business. Finally, transformationalists compromise between these two positions by arguing that socio-political and economic changes are reshaping modern societies and transforming, rather than eroding, the power and authority of the nation-state. Seen in this perspective, the "laissez-faire" approach of many governments that leads to neoliberal policy, for instance – often considered the result of a "weak" state – is itself the result of political decisions and "concerted" state action (Kinley 2009; Steger 2009).

Axel Dreher et al. take a slightly different approach. By taking into account the historical evolution of key aspects underlying globalisation, they distinguish between a historical dimension of globalisation, traced back to the mid-fifteenth century, and, since the 1970s, a contemporary dimension. The first phase was characterised by economic, political and technological changes that accelerated in the 21st century; in the second phase, the nature of globalisation processes increasingly altered as ecological and socio-cultural aspects also came to the forefront. In line with this argument contemporary globalization is defined as the intensification of cross-national interactions that promote the establishment of transnational structures and the global integration of cultural, economic, environmental, political, technological and social processes on global, supranational, national, regional and local levels (Dreher et al. 2008).

Dreher et al. recognise that globalisation processes strongly affect people's basic value orientations and ways of living (cultural globalisation), the ways in which knowledge is produced, used and legitimised for the production of goods and accumulation of capital (economic globalisation), the exploitation of natural resources (ecological globalisation), the reconfiguration of power relations among different interest groups (political globalisation), and technological innovation (technological globalisation) (Castells 1996; Luke and Luke 2000; Nash 2000). David Kinley (2009) goes further and addresses the universalisation of human rights as a supplementary force structuring the global stage, one that is infrequently taken into account when understanding contemporary globalisation.

Both Dreher et al. (2008) and Kinley (2009) lay emphasis on the influence of national structures, such as UGC, on integration processes that affect different geopolitical levels worldwide. One important aspect, however, is still missing to fully capture how the set of social processes understood as globalisation has also become a set of powerful discursive elements within the field of education policies. Manfred B. Steger (2009, p. 18) helps to supply this missing aspect of defining globalisation as a set of social processes that expand and intensify social relations while interacting with a *"consciousness across the world-time and world-space,"* (ibid., p. 22) which captures *people's growing consciousness of belonging to a global community... the rising of a global imaginary is also powerfully reflected in the current transformation of political ideologies – the ideas and beliefs that go into the articulation of concrete political agendas and program* (ibid., pp. 11–12). Each of these political ideologies assigns to the concept of globalisation particular values, meanings and norms about the world which become accepted truths. These truths, while legitimising certain political interests, set the agenda of what can be discussed, which questions can be asked, and which answers can eventually be provided.

Globalisation and Education

Another controversy in current debates about globalisation deals with education politics. Some scholars argue that the spreading of a set of universalistic values, norms, content and structure of education across countries leads to a "common world educational culture" (Meyer et al. 1992). Such a new institutional perspective *"assumes the existence of a world polity, which is not a physical body or institution but a symbolic and discursive entity"* (Daun 2006, p. 2). For some, this discursive entity can serve to

legitimise diverse political visions and interests (Fuller 1991); for others, it has been extremely powerful in creating politically convergent views on education (Apple 2000), with policy convergence considered a real and an unquestionable threat to the legitimacy of education as a state affair (Burbules and Torres 2000). Empirical analyses partly confirm this trend towards policy convergence (see for instance Brown et al. 2011); however, they also highlight the role of national governments in reinterpreting generic policy prescriptions in ways that support pre-existing policies and practices at local level (see for instance Steiner-Khamsi and Stolpe 2006). These apparently contrasting results are reconciled with Thomas S. Popkewitz's (2000) argue that certain discursive patterns (what Michel Foucault calls "govern-mentality") shape the space for local reinterpretations.

A critical reading of available research cautions against seeing LLL as either a global concern or a national affair, in favour of global–local interconnectedness. An example of the bonds between UGC, EU and nation-state policies in LLL is found in India, where university based department for LLL were established by order of the UGC's XI Plan in 2007, at a time when LLL was gaining international recognition. Nevertheless, a clear distribution of responsibilities within LLL is still ambivalent by the Indian State, Regions and Local Boards, upon ratification of the EU's Memorandum on Lifelong Learning (CEC 2000). Although the strength of global– local interconnectedness varies, and is beyond the scope of this paper, its acknowledgement justifies paying closer attention to the development of LLL policy at national and inter-state levels.

Conceptual Considerations

While LLL practices are "locally" implemented, it is the discursive patterns of globalisation substantiated by supranational and inter-state organisations that construct LLL as a policy object which transcends the nation-state polity. This section argues for a policy-as-discourse analysis approach to identify the constituents of the discursive patterns promoted by UGC.

A standpoint in Post-Structuralism

With its point of departure in post-structuralism, this paper defines "discourse" as the sum total of "all the practices and meanings shaping a particular community of social actors" (Howarth 2000, p. 5). This definition is rooted in the broader social constructionist perspective and therefore

shares its social constructionist premises, which refuse a taken-for-granted knowledge about the world, while also recognising the historical and cultural specificity of understandings and representations of the world through social interactions (Burr 1995). A conception of policy analysis, however, is highly dependent on the conceptual framework for understanding what policy is. Comprehensive reviews of current approaches to policy studies (Dalton et al. 1996; Colebatch 2006; Bacchi 1999) usefully elucidate this statement.

Positivist Approaches to Policy Studies

The so-called "authorised choice" or "scientific/comprehensive rationalism" tradition assumes the existence of predefined social problems to which public policy and governments simply react by identifying the best possible solution (see Simon 1961; Bardach 1981). A second tradition, "structured interaction" or "political rationalism", acknowledges the existence of competing views in identifying social problems that need to be addressed by public policy and governments (see Lindblom 1980; Wildavsky 1979). Both traditions share a positivist approach to understanding policy-making as a rational instrumental process.

Critical Policy Analysis and Post-Positivist Approaches to Policy Studies

In contrast to the above approaches, "critical policy analysis" sees policy-making as a process of domination of certain interest groups over others, while "post-positivist" perspectives include several approaches which despite certain differences share an understanding of the policy-making process as a "social construction". Here the role of analysing, rather than offering policy advice, is to look closely at how social problems are constructed and what sort of effects they produce (Bacchi 2009). From this perspective, policy-making is seen not as the identification of existing social problems to which public policy provides solutions, but as the "problematisation" of social conditions (Bacchi 2000) by political institutions in specific contexts and at a certain point in time (Gusfield 1989). Policy-as-discourse analysis thus aims to identify how policy problems are constructed while the responses to problems are being proposed.

Methodological Clarifications

The mode of analysis for this study rests within a social constructivist paradigm, as described above. It finds methodological inspiration in Bacchi's

(2000, 2009) suggestion for the interrogation of policy texts on their problematic representations, embedded conceptual logics and effects. In particular, this analysis focuses on "monumental documents" (Neumann 2001). These are policy texts with high political significance, as they represent a point of reference for a given discourse. UGC was selected for two reasons. First, UGC is the only institute addresses LLL as an explicit object of policy. Second, with the formulation the Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-2012), the Government of India put forward the idea of expanding the scope of the Continuing Education Programme by developing it as *Lifelong Education and Awareness Programme* (LEAP).

A basic condition for a comparative analysis is the selection of cases that represent single instances of the same phenomena (Winther-Jensen 2004). In this study the discourses of UGC, though reflecting different cultural and social settings in terms of member compositions, organisational aims, structure and ways of functioning, also represent single instances of the same phenomenon, as both entities transcend the national polity by addressing LLL as an explicit policy object.

The Emergence of LLL as a Transnational Policy Object

This analysis begins with a short introduction to UGC, and their active role in promoting LLL as a political object at both transnational and national levels.

UGC Discourses on LLL

The UGC of India is a statutory organisation set up by the Union government in 1956, charged with coordination, determination and maintenance of standards of university education. It provides recognition to universities in India, and disburses funds to such recognized universities and colleges. According to UGC's Policy Frame 1978, 'Extension' has been recognized as an essential dimension of higher education in addition to teaching and research. The UGC has established a separate extension department in over the universities in India. Recently the importance of LLL has been repeatedly stressed in several education policy documents and discourses in India. Therefore, with the formulation the Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-2012), the Government of India put forward the idea of expanding the scope of the Continuing Education Programme by developing it as *Lifelong Education and Awareness Programme* (LEAP). This may be partly

influenced by the global transnational policy discourse on LLL and partly due to the socioeconomic changes taking place within and outside the country.

UGC in 2007 began to encourage the universities and colleges to participate in LLL programmes and started funding it. Although the programme made a beginning with adult literacy, its scope was gradually widened over the next three decades to include, post literacy, continuing education, population education, refresher courses and a variety of extension and field outreach activities. Simultaneously the UGC encouraged and funded the universities to institutionalize the programme by setting up separate departments with core faculty to undertake teaching and research. With the beginning of the Eleventh Five Year Plan the UGC would accord maximum priority to LLL with a view to meeting the demands of emerging knowledge society and facilitate the process of developing a learning society. The improvements in the quality of life have led to the enhancement of the life span of the elderly population. The Department of LLL (DLLL) will have to design specific programmes for the senior citizens with the aim of enriching their lives. Further, private universities are being set up and international universities and educational institutions have already entered the country. Also, ICT is more frequently used in the field of learning. On-line learning and e-learning is being adopted by select institutions of higher education. It is therefore essential that the university system and especially the DLL should prepare themselves to meet these challenges. While universities have to enhance student employability skills through the formal system, the possibilities of strengthening the non-formal stream of education for catering to the needs of unreached cannot be ignored. There is a rapid growth of Open Distance Learning through the Open Universities and Open Schools in India. Universities have to integrate formal and non-formal education by opening their doors to adult learners for LLL programmes and by making the University an adult learner friendly institution. For the knowledge economy, the plan emphasises the need to expand higher levels of education, including secondary education, and to strengthen existing institutes of higher education and technical education, while improving the quality and standards of education. In the Eleventh Plan (2007-2012), enhancement of vocational skills has become an important priority area for meeting the changing skills requirements of the economy. However, the focus is on vocational education and training for the educated youth.

As already mentioned, in 2007 UGC adopted a recommendation for the development of LLL. However, the recommendation does not provide a comprehensive definition of LLL and sets out the 'principles' that universities shall apply to secure their provision of adult education by taking whatever legislative or other steps may be required, and in conformity with the constitutional practice of each state. Furthermore, it invites universities not only to' give full recognition to LLL, but also to take adequate measures to promote its implementation at local, national and regional levels. In the policy paper, LLL is considered a fundamental aspects of the right to education and thus, a universal human right, which gives full recognition to individuals' experiences ans supports the integration of educationally most underprivileged groups at all levels of communitarian life. In the Hambrug Delecration on Adult Learning, 1997 states in its preamble that LLL is more than a right, it is both a consequence of active citizenship and a condition for full participation in society. The definition of LLL introduces minor but a relevant element; the needs of society, to which individuals must adapt, are ascribed a higher priority. Societal needs that emerge in a world beset by accelerating change and growing complexity and risk.

The UGC discourses reaffirm LLL as an essential element of the right to education, and while acknowledging the progress made by different states, aims to overcome conditioning factors that still hamper the fulfilment of the right to education for adults and young people. The framework focuses on adult education in a lifelong perspective, characterised by inclusive, emancipatory, humanistic and democratic values. Much attention is paid in the Framework to need to develop comparable statistical indicators, benchmarks and monitoring mechanisms for universities, funding for structural improvement and UGC to examine progress in its implementation.

'Problem Representations' Embedded in the UGC Dscourses and their Effects

As argued earlier in this paper, post-structuralism and critical policy analysis assume that policy texts do not address social problems, but rather construct policy objectives. These constructions lead to the proposal of policy solutions, while alternative perspectives on the social world are ignored. This section discusses the problem representations and embedded logics substantiated by the above institutional discourses, and tease out the major effects that they produce.

Although the UGC documents analysed here cover a third of a century, at least two problem representations emerge vividly if they are considered as a coherent set of documents. First, national governments are unable to guarantee the basic human right of education to their citizenry; thus they perpetuate inequalities in access to national educational systems worldwide. Second, the social, economic and cultural features that characterise the 21st century pose challenges to national governments that cannot be faced in isolation. Both problem representations see the nation-state as the only social apparatus that can eliminate conditioning factors and limit individual agency within its territory, thanks to its legislative power. Nonetheless these problem representations acknowledge that conditioning factors may also hamper the nation-state in this specific function, thus advocating for supranational organisations like UNESCO, EU to act simultaneously as sponsors and watchdogs for nation-states.

LLL as a Human Right

The above problem representations embed clear conceptual logics depicted by a few key concepts. One of these concepts is "human rights", a concept which, in its broader interpretation, includes the rights and freedoms to which persons are entitled by virtue of being members of humankind. Although human rights are seen as universal and egalitarian, their specific nature is far from being easily interpreted, hence their support by legal rights at national or international levels.

For UGC, access to education and LLL is a human right. This position justifies both the organisation's status as a provider of services to states, and its identification of "educationally underprivileged groups", a many-sided concept. This term refers to biological factors that constrain the learning ability of an individual, who is therefore denied access to education (e.g. Physically and mentally handicapped and aged citizens). It also refers to socio-cultural factors that limit either the physical reach of available educational opportunities or the appropriateness of its content (e.g. Nomadic rural populations, prisoners and ethnic minorities). Furthermore, the concept includes economic factors that may force individuals migrate in search of job or educational opportunities, or, through poor educational achievements and structural market adjustments, deny them access to waged jobs (e.g. Migrant workers, school dropouts and unemployed people). In addition, the concept includes political and religious conditions that constrain peoples' lives, forcing them into new social-cultural and political environments, thus

limiting their access to education (e.g. Refugees). Finally, the intertwining of all these factors, biological, socio-cultural, economic, political and religious – factors which relegate individuals to predefined and powerless social roles or constrain their access to knowledge (e.g. Women, illiterate people) – yields a more complex understanding of the concept.

A closer look at the UGC documents considered in this paper shows two interrelated problem representations. One of these is constituted by Indian citizens, organisations and governments not "working together effectively", and thus not adapting to the social and economic changes resulting from the expansion of information and communications technologies and the expected India enlargements. The other is that national governments are not making "optimal use" of institutional, human and financial resources, available at both national and regional levels, to achieve the nation's agenda of making India the most competitive region of the world.

People as an Economic Asset

As already noted, the XI Plan Guidelines on Lifelong Learning and Extension (UGC, 2007) expresses a general concern with active citizenship and employability. Active citizenship has multiple dimensions. One dimension is the active use of existing knowledge as accessible to and acquisition of information and skills. A second dimension is active planning of one's own life. Finally, a third dimension is active participation in learning activities. Employability addresses the capacity to secure and keep employment at the individual level. Active citizenship and employability are interconnected. On the one hand, obtaining and maintaining a position in the labour market is a precondition for citizens take full responsibility for their own lives, while contributing to economic growth. On the other hand, accessing and acquiring knowledge and skills is a prerequisite for active participation in the labour market. This interconnectedness lays the foundations for the UGC's claim that people are India's main asset and should be the focal point of the UGC's policies.

A slightly different logic is introduced in the National Knowledge Communication and the Action plan by combining employability with social inclusion. Social inclusion refers to high levels of educational attainment (educational inclusion), having employment (labour market inclusion), and physical and geographical connectivity (public inclusion). A specific understanding of "change" also underpins the report, as a result of two

concomitant factors: the expansion in the use of information and communication technologies in both economic and non-economic sectors. In short, the UGC's discourse calls on universities to make more effective use of available resources to promote regional economic growth.

Conclusion

This paper makes the case that national entity not only represent the outcome of political globalisation processes, but also contribute to the discursive patterns of globalisation. I have illustrated how UGC puts forward specific 'problematisations' of LLL as a policy response to the challenges posed by globalization processes, which not only reflect diverse institutional aims, but also partial understandings of the complexity embedded in contemporary globalization processes. Further, I agree that both discourses produce effects. One raises the question of who is accountable citizens in modern nation-states; while the other raises the question of who is to decide what is good or bad conduct, and whose rights and obligations are not yet fully acknowledged.

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A Study on Educational, Economic factors and Emotional Intelligence as Determinants of Women Empowerment in Indore City

Bharti Joshi

Women in India have always been topics of concern since ancient times. The family as well as society at large considers them as second-class citizens. Though on one hand the society talks about the respect of women and praise them as Goddess Durga, Saraswati, Parvati and Kali, on the other hand the same society abuse them with child marriage, female feticide and infanticide, Sati, sexual harassment and many more. The epic Ramayana tells that Ravana, the King of Lanka abused Sita and hence, his entire empire was wiped out. Further, another epic Mahabharata tells that the Kauravas were killed because they dishonored Draupati in public. However, there are many evidences to show that in ancient India women enjoyed more or less equivalent status and rights with men in all spheres of life including education, in the early vedic period. References can also be found in the works of Grammarians such as 'Patanjali' and 'Katyayana' women got married at a grown-up age and also had the liberty and freedom to select their husbands. Popular scriptures like Rig Veda and Upanishad there are mention about women liberty and women seers. There are some kingdoms in ancient India, which had the custom of giving the title 'Nagarvadhu' that is the bride of the city. According to this tradition, women of a city competed to win this impressive title and Amrapali was the most well known 'Nagarvadhu'. This clearly shows that women in fact had superior position than their male counterparts. It is also said that in this period women were treated as Durga and Parvati in real tersm. There was a particular thread ceremony in which girls were tied threads of honor based on merit. Later this ceremony was replaced by 'child-marriage' and they were not permitted to get education.

The condition of women in society deteriorated more during the medieval period. At this point of time several evil practices like child-marriage, sati and female infanticide were practiced largely. 'Purdah' system started and

those women were also forced to practice 'Zenana'. Rajput women of Rajasthan practiced 'Jauhar', which refers to the practice of the immolation of all the wives and daughters of conquered warriors for avoiding arrest and subsequent molestation by the enemies. Polygamy was common in Hindu Kshatriyas. At the same time many women excelled in arts, literature, and music. Women were also rulers in the medieval period. Some of the great women rulers were Razia Sultana, the only woman monarch to rule the throne of Delhi. The queen of Gond Durgavati ruled the state for 15 long years before she lost the battle to Asaf Ali, the General of Emperor Akbar. Chand Bibi also fought the Mughals in 1590's. Nur Jahan is still considered as the most effective ruler. In spite of all these successful women the condition of poor Indian women was continued to be pathetic as they were compelled to marry at a very tender age and Sati practiced in which women were forced to jump in the burning funeral pyre of their husbands and Devdasi tradition was common in southern part of India where girls were married to temple deities or trees.

Modern India witnessed some developments in the status of women. There were many women reformers in India who worked for the betterment and upliftment of their female counterparts. The Begum of Bhopal discarded 'Purdah' and fought in the revolt of 1957. Many reformers like Ishwar Chandra Vidyasagar, Jyotiba Phule with his wife Savitribai Phule undertook various measures to eradicate social stigmas from the society. Sir Sayyid Ahmad Khan established the Aligarh Muslim University for the spread of education among the Muslims. He also abolished Purdah system among Muslim women. Many Acts were passed for the upliftment of women among those Widow Remarriage Act of 1856 was important. In the modern times, women in India are given freedom and rights such as freedom of expression and equality, as well as right to get education. But still problems like dowry, female infanticide, sex selective abortions health and domestic violence are still prevalent in the society.

Unfortunately, most of the women, particularly in rural areas, are illiterate and hence, they have poor knowledge about exercising their rights properly. Eventhough, there are rules and laws against female infanticide and dowry; it continues to haunt women due to which they suffer a lot. In independent India there are a number of constitutional safeguard for women due to which there is progress but still not the level it is expected of.

Empowerment of women

"Women Empowerment" has been defined by many with different meanings but key factor in all the definitions is of the ability of women to manage lives. While the empowerment has been described as both a state and a process in the literature, Duflo (2005) defined "...gender empowerment as improving the ability of women to access the constituents of development – in particular health, education, earning opportunities, rights and political participation." This understanding of women's empowerment gives a direct link between empowerment and equality of opportunities. The process of empowering women will improve their ability to manage their lives, i.e. it improves their access to education, access to formal sector employment, access to entrepreneurship, access to finance, control over fertility etc. This improved ability to manage their own lives entails an expansion of women's opportunities in the direction of equal opportunities in comparison with men. Different aspects of empowerment can be briefly summarized to understand the concepts discussed above:

- Gender equality refers to a state in which men and women have equal opportunities which does not imply equality of outcomes in all spheres of life.
- Women's participation refers to women's share and role in various activities in society.
- Empowerment is the process of increasing women's ability to manage their own lives through increased access to key resources and activities.

As the 21st century has evolved the Trans phase in India in terms of values, culture, social status, psychological framework of men and women, economic status, technological impact news through multinational tie-ups with cross cultural change in scenario, it has affected the status of both men as well as women. However, it has been proved that women excelled in many areas due to education.

To find out impact of education, economic factors and emotional intelligence on women empowerment, a study has been done limited to Indore city which is narrated below:

1. The objectives of the study were to find out
o   the impact of education on the empowerment of women

o   the impact of economic factors on women empowerment and
o   the impact of emotional intelligence on women empowerment

2. The sample size was 600 women.

3. The research tools used included Women Empowerment Scale and Mangal and Mangal emotional intelligence inventory.

4. Data was collected through a standard format and administered on all the sample women from diverse areas which included education level and economic status. Before collecting the data a good rapport was established between the researcher and the respondents to make them comfortable. The required instructions were explained to the respondents in easy and understandable language so that fair collection of responses could be obtained.

5.   Result and Discussion

Table - 1

ANOVA scores of effect of Education on Women Empowerment in respect of various levels

Sources of Variance	Sum of squares	Df	Mean squares	F
Between groups	2624887	2	1312443.65	**539.36
Within groups	1452690	597	2433.31	
Total	4077577	599		

** Significant at .01 level

The results indicate that the F value was **539.36** is found significant at 0.01 level. The mean squares values between the group and within the group are 1312443.65 and 2433.31. It is concluded that education plays a significant role in determining women empowerment. Due to increase in education level of women, the social level of women has also risen and appears to be

better than earlier. Education had strengthened the position of women in society. Self-independence has risen due to access in education and women have also realized and proved that they are worth and potential in the field of services and business. Education has helped women to unlock many mental blocks, which existed due to illiteracy and ignorance. Women empowerment is considerably influenced by education, access to media, socio-cultural norms of the community, job of women and household participation rate.

Education can play a vital role in bringing about the desirable behavioral changes among the women and make them well equipped in terms of knowledge, competence and capacity to deal with different socio-economic problems. Nevertheless one of the basic policy objectives should be education of woman, the lack of which tends to perpetuate the unequal status and other socio-economic problems. The popular UNESCO slogan also supports this. The slogan is:

"Educate a man and you educate an individual; educate a woman and you educate a family."

Female labour force participation is considered an important determinant of women empowerment (Ashraf and Ashraf, 1993; Kozel and Alderman, 1990; Azid et al., 2001). Various studies conducted in Pakistan concluded that education has strong positive relation with women empowerment and primary schooling for girls and enrolment rates are found to reduce gender inequality in education (Sathar and Lolyd, 1994; Sathar and Kazi, 2000; Rafiq, 1996; Chaudhry, 2007; Chaudhry and Rehman, 2009). The issues of gender discrimination and gender inequality are found obstacles in the way of empowerment. Education of the parents, media awareness and government policies are proved helpful to minimize its effects (Sathar and Lolyd 1993, Nazli and Hamid 1999). Nayak and Mahanta (2008) conducted a study and analyzed the status of women empowerment in India using various indicators like women's household decision making power, financial autonomy, freedom of movement, political participation, acceptance of unequal gender role, exposure to media, access to education, experience of domestic violence based on the data from different sources. The study reveals that women of India are relatively disempowered and they enjoy somewhat lower status than that of men in spite of many efforts undertaken by government. Lack of education has been found to be the major reason for this. Gender gap exists regarding access to education and employment. Household decision-making power and freedom of movement of women

vary considerably with their age, education and employment status. It is found that acceptance of unequal gender norms by women are still prevailing in the society for which they themselves are responsible factors. Fewer women have final say on how to spend their earnings. Control over cash earnings increases with age, education and with place of residence. Women's exposure to media is also less in comparison to men. Rural women are more exposed to domestic violence than that of urban women, mainly due to lack of education and ignorance. A large gender gap exists in political participation too. The study concludes by an observation that access to education and employment are only the enabling factors to empowerment, achievement towards the goal which depends largely on the attitude of the women and people towards gender equality. Education is making women aware of their rights that are considerably enforced by law. Many NGO's, government institutions, private concerns are taking interest in women empowerment for their status upliftment that is made possible primarily by education. Education is boosting knowledge, confidence, and status of women in multifold.

Table - 2
ANOVA scores of effect of Economic Factors on Women Empowerment in respect of various levels

Sources of Variance	Sum of squares	Df	Mean squares	F
Between groups	956301.4	2	478150.71	**91.45
Within groups	3121276	597	5228.27	
Total	4077577	599		

** **Significant at .01 level**

The results indicate that the **F** value **91.45** is found significant at 0.01 level. The mean squares values between the group and within the group are 478150.71 and 5228.27. It is concluded that income plays a significant role in determining women empowerment. Economically empowered women play a more active role in household decision making, with greater bargaining power to increase spending on education and health that relates to self and family (DFID, 2007).

Economic ability facilitates the decision making and empowers women to take major decisions. Rowlands (1997) stated that women empowerment is the ability to obtain an income that enables participation in economic decision making. Women become empowered when they obtain, the right to determine choices in life and to influence the direction of change, through the ability to gain control over material and non-material resources. Several development interventions use income transfers or micro finance for income generation as a way of inducing empowerment. Evidence on impact of micro-finance on women empowerment has been well documented by comprehensive studies. Several studies (Bali Swain 2007, Pitt et al. 2006, Goetz and Gupta 1996, Hashemi et al. 1996) show that credit programmes lead to a greater value for women in household decision making, access to financial and economic resources, social networks and greater bargaining power within the household and freedom of mobility. Economic power is opening various avenues of success, which the women of today are achieving. It may directly relate to the decisions affecting her or even decisions concerning her family. Saving and purchasing power of money is related to her sense of worth that is taking her to success path of empowerment.

Table - 3
't' value of effect of Emotional Intelligence on Women Empowerment in respect of two levels

Category - EI	N	Mean	SD	't'
High >=50	395	264.38	67.69	**25.27
Low <=50	205	139.46	28.56	

** Significant at .01 level

The results indicate that the 't' value **25.27** is found significant at 0.01 level. The mean values between the higher and lower groups are 264.38 and 139.46. It is concluded that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in determining women empowerment. Emotionally intelligent women play a binding role in handling situations in any circumstance due to their emotional maturity and stability.

Giles and Zidan (2008) in their study examine changes in the attitudes towards sex roles, needs and obligations of Arab women studying early childhood education and change in emotional awareness of both Arab and Jewish women and men. The intervention experienced by 94 students over the course of one or two semesters is a multidisciplinary approach called beyond words. Significant differences were found in the first part of the study dealing with attitudes towards sex roles both before and after measures and in comparison with the control group. The findings indicate the emotional change experienced upon the completion of the course. According to these personal testimonials, it seems that the course significantly increased emotional awareness and flexibility in thinking and feeling as well as acceptance of and empathy for others.

It has been observed that more emotionally satisfied females performs well in school and when they are disturbed due to certain reasons they do not fare well in studies.

Even genetic built is also a major factor in the academic performance, but again children of intelligent parents not always do well academically. Here also emotional stability plays major role. Academic performance with emotional stability in people becomes crucial affect on behavior.

6. Recommendations

On the basis of the findings of the study conducted, following recommendations are proposed:

- Draw women friendly personnel policies to encourage them to participate effectively in the developmental process
- Create awareness with regard to the opportunities for women to get educated
- Formulate policies to empower the women through economic advancement and development
- Provide adequate opportunities for women to pursue self-employment in both rural and urban areas
- Encourage women to actively participate in the decision making process concerning women empowerment
- Create awareness on Laws concerning protection of women and their development

- Encourage women to form societies to extend support educational and economic development programmes
- Take special measures to eliminate discrimination, universalize education, eradicate illiteracy, create a gender-sensitive educational system, increase enrolment and retention rates of girls and improve the quality of education to facilitate lifelong learning as well as development of occupation/vocation/technical skills of women
- Gender sensitive curricula for the development of women at all levels of education
- Strengthen legal system aimed at elimination of all forms of discrimination against women
- Create powerful legal-judicial system for more responsive and gender sensitive to women's needs
- Encourage and support NGOs who have proven record of success in taking-up women's issues so that they work more in this field.
- Use mass media to spread widely the messages relating to women's equality and empowerment

Conclusion

The study concludes that women's empowerment in Indore is a process. It is the process by which women become social agents, defining and accomplishing their goals. It requires strong determination and willingness to take proactive steps to achieve those goals for which it requires institutional support from both women's organizations and micro-financial institutions. Apart from this national and international organizations should take better initiatives to strengthen the concept of accessibility. At the same time it is also important to educate women and raise their awareness with regard to harmful traditional practices still followed in the society to create congenial atmosphere for gender equality. It is state here that empowerment is a moving state; it is a continuum that varies in degree of power. It is relative... One can move from an extreme state of absolute lack of power to the other extreme of having absolute power.

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A Comparative study of Academic Anxiety Level of the Students Studying in Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur

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Anxiety is a common phenomenon of everyday life. It plays a great role in human life because it affects us in many ways. Generally Anxiety can be of two types either a trait anxiety or a state anxiety. Trait Anxiety is a stable characteristic of a person at any moment of life so it is a lifelong characteristic, while a state anxiety is one which is aroused by some temporary condition or the environment such as examination, accident and punishment etc and it affects any person for a short time. Academic anxiety is a state anxiety which relates to the impending danger from the environment of academic institutions, including teachers, certain subjects, like Mathematics, English, Sanskrit etc and it is a normal response to the pressure of school. Sometimes the academic anxiety can reach the level that hinder academic performance instead of improving it. Some students procrastinate while others cannot concentrate on studies. Thus, academic anxiety can adversely affect performance of students.

Various studies have been conducted on academic anxiety by Brown, et. Al.(1986), Abe and Masui(1981), Lewinsohn, et. Al. (1988), Muris, et. Al. (2001) Seeley, et. Al. (2001), Khelek (2002), Turner and Barrett (2003), Essau, at. Al (2004), Locker, et. Al (2004), Singh and Asha (1984), Verma (1990), Mishra (1992), Roy and Roy (1994), Sud and Prabha (2006), Awasthi, O.P. (2010), Chaube, A. Singh, R. (2010), Hemamalini, H.C. (2011), Velayudhan, A. and Gayatri Devi, S, (2012) etc.

Thus the work on academic anxiety is not much. Review of related literature reveals that mainly academic anxiety has been co-related with academic achievement, life skills, decision making etc. But level of academic anxiety between the students of two different types of schools has not been compared by any one till now in the knowledge of researcher. So the present study is relevant.

Statement of the Problem

"A Comparative study of Academic Anxiety Level of the Students Studying in Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur"

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are:

- To study the Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur

- To compare the Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur

    o   To compare the Academic Anxiety Level of boys of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur

    o   To Compare Academic Anxiety Level of girls of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur

- To determine gender bias in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur

    o   To determine gender bias in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir of Shahjahanpur

    o   To determine gender bias in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Covent Schools of Shahjahanpur

Hypothesis

To achieve the objectives of the study, the following hypothesis were formulated and tested:

H_1 -   There is no significant difference in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of   Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur.

$H_{1.1}$ - There is no significant difference in Academic Anxiety Level of boys of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools.

$H_{1.2}$ - There is no significant difference in Academic Anxiety Level of Girl of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools.

H_2 - There are not significant biases in Academic Anxiety Level of the Students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur.

$H_{2.1}$ - There are not significant gender biases in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir.

$H_{-2.2}$ - There are not significant gender biases in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Convent Schools.

Methodology

The Comparative method of descriptive survey method has been employed in the study.

Population

The population of the study is the students of 8th, 9th and 10th standard studying in Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur District.

Sample

The sample size taken was 320 with each Tehsil having 80 samples i.e. 40 students from Saraswati Vidya Mandir and 40 students from Convent Schools consisting 20 boys and 20 girls selected through random sampling method. The distribution of sample is given below:

Table - 1
Distribution of Sample

	Name of Tehsil	Name of the School	Boys	Girls	Total
SHAHJAHANPUR	Powayan	Cambridge Convent School	10	10	20
		Little Flower Convent School	10	10	20
		Saraswati Vidya Mandir Inter College	20	20	40
	Shajahanpur (Sadar)	St. Paul's Inter College	20	20	40
		Sanjay Kumar Saraswati Vidya Mandir Inter College	20	--	20
		Saraswati Vidya Mandir H.S. College	--	20	20
	Jalalabad	Cambridge Public School	20	20	40
		Saraswati Vidya Mandir H.S. School	20	20	40
	Tilhar	Renensha Public School	20	20	40
		Saraswati Vidya Mandir Inter College	20	20	40
		Total	160	160	320

The tool used was Academic Anxiety Scale for Children (AASC) by Dr. A.K. Singh and Dr. A. Sen Gupta. The total number of items in the tool is 20. There are two types of items, one is Positive and the other one is Negative. The maximum possible score of this test is 20. High score on this test indicates High Academic Anxiety and low score on this test indicates Low Academic Anxiety. The test, retest reliability of the test is 0.60 and split half reliability of the test is 0.65 both significant at 0.01 level. The Validity Coefficient for AASC against Neuroticism Scale, Sinha Anxiety Scale and CAA T are 0.31, 0.41 and 0.57 respectively significant at 0.01 level.

Statistical Techniques

Mean, Median, Mode, Standard Deviation (S.D.), t- Value and Percentile were used for analysis of data.

Analysis and Interpretation

First objective of the study: "To study the Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur". To fulfill this objective the raw data was t abulated as shown in Table – 2 below:

Table - 2
Frequency Distribution of the Academic Anxiety Scores

C.I.	Saraswati Vidya Mandir			Convent Schools			Total		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
00-04	1	2	3	2	2	4	03(1.9%)	04(2.5%)	07(2.2%)
04-08	20	5	25	29	25	54	49(30.7%)	30(18.7%)	79(24.7%)
08-12	35	15	50	42	38	80	77(48.1%)	53(33.1%)	130(40.1%)
12-16	23	44	67	6	15	21	29(18.1%)	59(36.9%)	88(27.5%)
16-20	1	14	15	1	0	1	02(1.2%)	14(8.8%)	16(5%)
Total	80	80	160	80	80	160	160	160	320

From the above table it is clear that most of the units fall into the class interval of 08-12, only 86 units are in the class interval 00-04 units come into the 12-20 class intervals. A further glance at the table also reveals that 41% students have Average Academic Anxiety Level, 27.5% student high in their Academic Anxiety Level, and 32.5% have low   Academic Anxiety Level.

Second objective of the study: "To compare The Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent School of Shahjahanpur". For this Mean, S.D. and t-value have been calculated which are given in Table-3.

Table – 3
Mean, S.D. and t-value for Academic Anxiety Level

Groups/ Statistics	Boys		Girls		Total Students	
	SVM	Convent	SVM	Convent	SVM	Convent
NUMBER	80	80	80	80	160	160
MEAN	10.15	8.75	13.15	9.3	10.65	9.02
S.D.	3.19	2.8	3.56	3.02	3.7	2.93
T-VALUE	2.98		7.37		4.37	
P	>0.05	>0.01	>0.05	>0.01	>0.05	>0.01

It is clear from the table that students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools differ in their Academic Anxiety Level and this difference is significant at 0.05 level and 0.01 level also.

Thus (H_1) "There is no significant difference in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur" is rejected. Similarly ($H_{1.1}$)" There is no significant difference in Academic Anxiety Level of Boys of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools" and ($H_{1.2}$)" There is no significant difference in Academic Anxiety Level of Girls of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent School" are also rejected, because boys of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools and also girls of both the schools differ separately in their Academic Anxiety Level. These differences are significant. Studies conducted by Brown, et. Al (1986), Sreewastva and Sinha (1974), Singh and Singh (1973), Sharma (1971), Murlidharan and Sharma (1771) also support these results.

Third objective of the study: "To determine the gender biases in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of the Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur". For this purpose again mean, S.D. and t-value have been calculated which are in Table – 4.

Table -4
Gender-wise Mean, S.D. and t-value

Groups/ Statistics	Boys		Girls		Total Students	
	SVM	Convent	SVM	Convent	SVM	Convent
NUMBER	80	80	80	80	160	160
MEAN	10.15	8.75	13.15	9.3	10.65	9.02
S.D.	3.19	2.8	3.56	3.02	3.7	2.93
T-VALUE	2.98		7.37		4.37	
P	>0.05	>0.01	>0.05	>0.01	>0.05	>0.01

From above table it is visible that male and female differ significantly in the Academic Anxiety Level and this difference is significant at 0.05 level and 0.01 level also.

Thus (H_2) "There are no significant gender biases in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and Convent Schools of Shahjahanpur" is rejected. Similarly ($H_{2.1}$) "There are no significant gender biases in Academic Anxiety Level of the students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and ($H_{2.2}$) "There are no significant gender basis in Academic Anxiety Level of the Students of convent schools are also rejected because male and female students of Saraswati Vidya Mandir and of Convent Schools differ separately in their academic anxiety level and these differences are significant at 0.05 level and 0.01 level. Researches done by Abe and Mausi (1981), Khaleek (2002), Lewinsohn, et.al (1998), Prabhawati Devi, et.al and Locker, et. Al (2004) and Awasthi (2011) also support these results.

Conclusion and Educational Implications

On the basis of the findings related to first objective, it may concluded that Academic Anxiety level is normally distributed in the universe. It means most of the students have average Academic Anxiety Level.

With regard to second finding it will be safe to conclude that Saraswati Vidya Mandir have students from rural background, most of the parents of these students are neither prosperous nor well educated. So they are unable to guide and provide facilities to their children. As these children belong to the families of low economic status, they always worry to succeed and raise their status through studies. Consequently their Academic Anxiety level increases. On the other hand most of the students of convents schools are from urban background, from high society and with good economic status.

Also most of the parents of these students are well educated. So they are able to provide better facilities to their children. So these students have no much anxiety for their studies because they have other options also. So they are not much anxious.

Thus, environment, parent's support, socio-economic status of family and education of parents seem to play an important role in Academic Anxiety Level.

Hence, on the basis of the findings of this study Saraswati Vidya Mandir may be suggested to start job oriented programmes, carrier counseling and group discussions to decrease students' Academic Anxiety levels. The schools may also provide them extra classes for better results. The parents may have to help their children by providing all facilities and more options for good life.

With regard to gender bias it may be concluded that in Indian families boys have more freedom in comparison to girls. They are provided more facilities for studies than that of girls. Beside, boys are by nature not much more anxious. They are of carefree nature. On the other hand girls are by nature very anxious. They have many challenges before them in life. They are much more sensitive than boys. They are afraid lest anyone should say anything if they don't succeed in their studies. So girls worry for their studies and their Academic Anxiety Level increases.

Thus, gender, basic nature, family types seem to play an important role in Academic Anxiety Level.

On the basis of these findings guardians may be suggested that they should not regard girls as inferior to boys in any way. They should provide them more freedom and more chances in their life. Schools may be suggested to start some special counseling programmes for girls as well as for parents to decrease their Academic Anxiety Level.

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Announcement

Annual Subscription of Journals Revised

As **Indian Journal of Adult Education** and **Proudh Shiksha** are regularly uploaded in **IAEA Website: iaea-india.org** and is available online for the users it has been decided to print only limited copies for **those who pay the annual subscription for these journals in advance**. Keeping in view the increase in printing and postage cost the annual subscription of these two Journals have been revised as under:

Name of the Journal	For Life & Institutional Members	For others
Indian Journal of Adult Education	Rs.300/-	Rs.500/-
Proudh Shiksha	Rs.100/-	Rs.200/-

The Life and Institutional Members will continue to get only IAEA Newsletter free of cost.

The revised annual subscription **will come into effect from January 2016** onwards.

Indian Journal of
Adult Education

INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION

Indian Journal of Adult Education, 1939

Indian Journal of Adult Education, first published as a monthly in 1939, is now brought out as a quarterly by the Indian Adult Education Association. The journal has special interest in the theory and practice of Non-formal Education with special reference to the relationship between Adult Education, Development and current experiments in the field. Contributions on a wide range of themes within this broad framework are welcome.

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). Articles can be sent by E-mail at iaeadelhi@gmail.com

INDIAN JOURNAL OF ADULT EDUCATION

Editor's Note

ARTICLES

A murder happened in Dadri, Uttar Pradesh recently has become a burning issue because he was from Minority community, the reason for the murder being beef eating. Murder here and there happens not only in India but also elsewhere in the world which is always condemned by one and all. Such happenings subside fast and people move forward searching for other issues to highlight but in this case it did not happen. Eventhough, the print and electronic media hipped the issue for a few days but subsided thereafter. But in a few days again the matter got importance and attracted the attention of media as women and men of eminence who are the national award winners started speaking against such incidents as 'intolerance' and subsequently started returning their awards. Initially it started with one but soon followed by many. The eminent people who returned their awards included persons from the field of literature, art, culture and entertainment.

There are few issues which needed to be looked into closely in this sudden eruption of opposition to a murder happened in a corner of India becoming an intolerant issue. First can a group of people oppose the food habits of anybody by linking it to religious issues? Cow is sacred for one but not for another. Mouse is sacred for another one as it is a wahan for Lord Ganesh but not for someone else as they like its meat by tradition and practice. Hence, there cannot be an insistence on one's will on another about the food. Secondly, is the beef cow meat alone? In most of the states people mean beef for buffalo meat. This is what had happened in Kerala House, Delhi (Govt. of Kerala Guest House) where on a complaint by someone Delhi Police barged into Kerala House and started taking action against the caterers for serving cow meat in the meals which was opposed strongly and firmly by many including the Chief Minister of Kerala. At the end it was found that the meat served was buffalo one and not of cow. It is to state here that in many states of India Cow Protection Act is in force and hence, slaughtering the cows is not possible. Thirdly, what has happened in Uttar Pradesh is a law and order problem of the state government which infact tackled peacefully by convincing the family of the deceased to accept the compensation announced by it. In this regard the observation of Shri Deve Gowda, the former Prime Minister of India holds good when he said to the press men that the issue is of the state's jurisdiction and not of the centre. A general analysis of the issue reveals that the anger of the intelligentsia was that while all the political parties and top leaders condemned the issue, none condemned from the side of the ruling party of the centre. This has half truth. The channels while covering the Prime Minister's election meetings in Bihar telecast his address in which he was appealing to the public "whether you accept the advice of anyone or not, please take the advice of the President of India who has appealed for tolerance for peace in the country".

At the same time the recent statement of Shri Prakash Javadekar, the Union Minister of State for Environment, Forest and Climate Change is also important in which he said that his party should have condemned the entire incident immediately with all force which would have smoothened the entire issue.

Fourthly, by returning awards can a problem be solved? Who gave the award and for what? The awards are given not simply by the government or by any individual but they belong to the nation and hence, they are national awards. They are given for the outstanding work done/contribution made in the respective fields by eminent persons for whom the symbol of recognition is the award. Hence, returning the award means insulting the nation which no patriotic person can do. Here the famous cine actor Vidya Balan's statement holds good. She flatly told the press that whatever the award she got is the national recognition and will never think of returning the same as it is a prestigious one for the entire life. Another famous actor Kamal Hasan reflected the same thinking and even gone one step ahead by stating that the award winners should forcefully start writing and speaking more about intolerance which will be of great help to the mankind and the nation. Another side of this is that the national awards are normally given away by the President. By returning the awards are we not disrespecting the first person of the country who has no political colour attached to the post he is occupying? One more dimension is that what will the organizations/agencies/departments do with the awards returned? They can neither exhibit nor re-use by giving to others. Finally, the prestigious awards will gather dust in the corners and will one day become scrap item.

India cannot be belittled before the eyes of international communities that intolerance is growing in this country due to which a lot of murders take place every day which will greatly hamper not only the prestige of the nation but also the economic growth and development of the country. As patriotic Indians we must be very careful to put forth our opposition to a certain limit to make the concerned people understand and the media should restrain painting the country as an epicenter of intolerance. Otherwise the country will lose its name and not the individuals or any political parties.

Dr.V.Mohankumar

Functional Literacy in India with Special Reference to Scientific Literacy for Neo-Literates and Rural Adults

R.M. Kalra

Introduction

"Literacy is not the end education not even the beginning. It is only one of the means where man and woman can be educated".

-Mahatma Gandhi

Education in democratic is meant for the benefit of all people and it must be ensured that they become aware of the advantages which education can bring to their lives. The education needed to make democracy work effectively is not just any kind of education, but is an education which may discipline the mind, enrich the spirit and improve their living conditions. This knowledge may provide a "literacy system" which is not only comprised of 3R's, i.e., Reading, Writing and Arithmetic but a new system of literacy that will enable neo-literates and rural youth/adults to develop skills and acquire knowledge producing a better understanding of their environment and which will help them to continue learning and discover knowledge. Such a literacy system cannot put emphasis on theoretical educational endeavors that are unrelated to the placed on the application of knowledge to the lives of the neo-literates and rural youth/adults so as to formulate long range goals.

It is gratifying to note that numerous literacy missions in various developing countries have been launched.

In India, promotion of literacy has been identified as one of the major five national for spreading scientific literacy among the neo-literates and rural adults. In Jamaica, the promotion of literacy has been identified as JAMAL (Jamaican Movement for the Advancement of Literacy) which envisaged that the person may be able to read and write to the fourth standard and may be able to apply the mental skill for exploration of one's environment. Tanzania and Indonesia have also Launched Literacy Missions for eradication of mass illiteracy.

Coming to the specifics of the use of functional scientific literacy, one has to give due emphasis on teaching/learning to neo-literates and rural youth/adult, to think scientifically which may involve development of scientific attitudes, scientific temper and -development of skills to improve living conditions.

In this article, an attempt has been made to suggest a Functional Scientific Literacy Programme for Neo-Literates and rural youth/adults who had perhaps four to ten years of schooling and range in age from 15 to approximately 35 years. The curriculum suggested in this proposed scientific literacy Programme emphasizes practical application of scientific knowledge and is meant for approximately five per cent of urban disadvantaged youths, literate young farmers, tribal and hilly Youth. The objective of this Programme is to provide a scientific literacy to these neo-literates and rural youth/adults to develop skills and help them in improving their living conditions.

Meaningful Science Education for Neo-Literates and Rural Youth/ Adults

"There are geniuses in every village, town and city. We must penetrate among the masses, learn from them, organize their experience into systematic principles and urge them to practice them in order that they may solve their own problems and enjoy freedom and facility".

-Mao Tsetung

In recent years there-has been some increase in number of students in classrooms from non-formal systems. The problem of illiteracy is being overcome to a certain extent with laudable efforts of national and international agencies (UNESCO-APPEAL, UNICEF and Commonwealth). Literacy Mission and Literacy for development Programmes/projects have been launched. Many non-formal educational Programmes/strategies are being adopted for young people who have been "forced out" by the formal school system. India's Comprehensive Access to Primary Education (CAPE)-UNICEF Assisted Project China's Spare lime Primary School Programme, Viet Nam's Complementary Education Programme, Indonesia's post literacy Programme, Republic of Korea's Saemaul Movement, Thailand's Equivalence Programmes are some of the non-formal Programmes which are being implemented in Asian and the Pacific Region in the above mentioned countries.

Before coming to the specifics of meaningful science education experiences for these neo literates and rural youth/adult, it may be worthwhile to have an overview of enrolment trend by level of education in Asia and the Pacific. The following table provides the data of enrolment by level of education in Asia and the Pacific (1970-1982). The table 1 also presents the overall enrolment trends.

The statistical data indicates that there has been a marked increase in the number of neo-literates at the primary level, i.e., Sixty one per cent of the increase was in primary education, 35 per cent at second level and four percent at the third level. It is gratifying to note the above positive enrolment trend in Asia and the Pacific. To maintain or improve this enrolment trend, it may be imperative to have a closer look at the existing formal system of education especially in the field of Science Education (because of the scope of this book).

The authors' experience and contacts with various Science Educators of the formal school/rural youth/adults in rural areas suggests that the Science education curricula in the formal system offer no solutions to the problems of teaching Science to the rural and disadvantaged section of the works, while these existing science curricula may go a long way to filling the needs of coverage urban student. It appears that something further especially in the field of Science education is needed to meet the needs of our neo-literates/rural youth/adult.

What then should be the nature of Science Education for these neo-literates and rural youth/adult?

Basically, a totally new system of Science education is needed that will enable these neo-literates and rural youth/adults to develop skills and acquire knowledge which has a higher probability of producing a better understanding of their environment and which will make possible for them an acquaintance, with the process of discovery of knowledge. Such a curriculum in Science would lay emphasis on a practical understanding of Science which is relevant to the needs of the people and may be termed as "Functional Scientific Literacy (FSL)".

A science content in such a Programme would not lay emphasis on theoretical and scientific principles that are Unrelated to the neo-literates and rural youth/adult's daily life, but rather, the emphasis would be placed

on the application on scientific knowledge to improvement of living conditions and other aspects of daily life.

The above conviction concerning a new system of Science education as envisaged in the Functional Scientific Literacy Programme (FSLP), suggests a need for practical educational philosophy (*i.e.,* the concept of true education) and achievable objects for the development of this Programme concerning neo literates and rural youth/adult.

Philosophy of the Proposed Functional Scientific Literacy Programmeme (FSLP)

A philosophy of science education in the FSLP consists objectives of education in general and of science teaching in particular. For this reason, a science instructor needs some understanding of practical educational philosophy or at least the concept of true education.

Mahatma Gandhi has aptly described the concept of "true education" in the following paragraph:

True Education is that which draws out and stimulates the spiritual, intellectual and physical facilities of the learners. The education ought to be for them a kind of insurance against unemployment.

The objectives are derived from the philosophy and may be classified into categories which are different in scope. The kind of science education as envisaged in the Functional Scientific Literacy Programme (FSLP) concerning neo-literates and rural youth/adults is categorized below. These objectives are also applicable to other formal students as well.

The first objective of Science education in the FSLP (Functional Scientific Literacy Programme) for nee-literates and rural youth/adults is that they shall demonstrate the knowledge of "fundamentals of Science". The major objective of the 'discipline of Science has been, and will continue to be, the discovery and confirmation of new knowledge, the establishment of general laws of truth. Any new course must contain this historic objective as any current curriculum must build upon the past.

A Scientific Literacy Programme should be introductory in nature and should help to familiarize neo-literates and rural youth/adults with

fundamentals of science suiting their intellectual capacity, needs and interests.

In the opinion of this writer, another objective of Science education in the non-formal centers must be to supply foundational knowledge of Science which may be brought into the use in daily life.

Thus, the main object of the course in Science is to provide a systematic and practical idea of the discipline of Science and to change neo-literates and rural youth/adult's behavior through this knowledge.

Another objective of Science to these neo-literates and rural youth/adults is that the neo-literates/rural youth/adults shall demonstrate knowledge of the contributions made by these people in the scientific world. In the opinion of this writer, an important thing for a science instructor to do is to develop pride in the contributions made by these people in scientific literature. It is necessary for a science educator to believe in the competence of the native people. The teacher must stress their achievements in science so that neo-literates and rural youth/adults may develop pride in the scientifically rich heritage and consequently in themselves.

Another objective of science education in the Functional Scientific Literacy Programme is the implementation of seven cardinal principles of education. They are – Health, Command of fundamental process, Worthy home membership, Vocation, Citizenship, Worthy use of leisure and Ethical charter.

Another object of science education is to demonstrate the .ability apply what is learnt to practical situations in the community for the improvement of life.

The sixth important aim of science education in the Functional Scientific Literacy Programme to these better equipped is to improve the community life. In order to achieve this aim, the course content in science should have practical applications to daily life. The relationship of science instruction to the non-formal centers attempt to help every individual lead a worthwhile life is admirably stated by Brusson and Dowling.

A responsibility of the learning institution is to help every individual to lead 8/ worthwhile life. Those situations which can be better met by an

understanding of the basic concept of science become facts of Science instruction. Physical and mental health which is affected by sleep, rest, fatigue, diet 'exercise, posture and drugs can be assured for the public. Self assurance which comes from a sense of achievement and understanding of normal variability is necessary to the best adjustment and can be built by the study of Chemistry. Through an understanding of organic and inorganic changes, the pupil gains appreciations which help him to see himself in his proper place with relation to the world about him. By constant practice in reorganizing problems seeking evidence to weigh and arriving at the conclusions, the scientific method becomes a basis for action with the pupil. Science can help; present certain fundamental principles which should be understood through taking part in and preparing for home making."

Thus, in the opinion of this writer, the Science content in the functional scientific literacy Programme may be aimed at raising the level of scientific knowledge, skills and attitudes of these neo-literates and rural youth/adult, to allow them to be more productive in their home environments. To accomplish this, science in this Scientific Literacy Programme may be taught on four levels, the facts level, the concept level, the values level and everyday life experience level.

Schematic I

Science Teaching in a Functional Scientific Literacy Programme with a Focus on Values and Everyday Life Experiences:

For example, in teaching a **unit on water**, the science instructor might pose the following questions:

Level I (Facts Level)

1.   In how many physical states does water exist?
2.   What are the common sources of water?
3.   What are the methods of making water potable?
4.   What are common solvents?
5.   What is the chemical composition of water?

Level II (Concepts Level)
1.   Demonstrate via certain lab experiments the various methods employed in purifying water.

2.   How do you know water is pure?
3.   What are the effects of drinking impure water?
4.   Demonstrate, via lab experiment, the chemical composition of water.

Level III (Values Level)

1.   Why is water important to you?
2.   What would you do without water?
3.   Is the drinking water in your community fit for drinking?
4.   If note, make a list of things you could do in your community to improve the quality of drinking water.
5.   What action if any, are you going to take along these lines?
       Note the emphasis on the "you" in each of the above values level questions (level III). Although question in level I and II may recognize application in today's world, they do not become level III questions until they are directly related to the neo-literates and rural youth/adults' daily lives environments and attitudes.

The author wants to emphasize that Levels I and II (Facts level and Concepts level) are very important in this functional scientific literacy Programme. The major discipline of science has been and will continue to be, the discovery and confirmation of new knowledge and the establishment of general laws of truth. But, in addition levels III and IV (Values and Everyday life experiences level) are .also important because this level directly relates science to the neo-literates/rural youth/adults own life. Levels III and IV questions help to provide neo-literates/ rural youth/adults with a systematic and practical idea of 'the discipline of science and encourage them to change their behavior by applying this knowledge to their own lives.

Base on which the Proposed Functional Scientific Literacy Programme for Neo-literates and rural youth/adults is to be designed

To understand adequately the role of Science education in the neo-literates' and rural youth/adults' environment (tribal areas, hilly areas, rural areas, socio-economic and weaker sections of the society, etc.) it is necessary to ask the following question:

What are the major problems of these people, which science 'should prepare nee-literates and rural youth/adults to tackle intelligently and purposefully?

In India, these people generally live in "Bastees", "Chawls" 'or rural communities', where all people work or at least under 'social healthy conditions all should work. And this work is practical. Also, in these places there are many problems of sanitation, health, and hygiene and water pollution. The common life facilities are very few economic conditions of these people is very pathetic, The above problems may suggest inclusion of the concept of cottage industry and other farm machinery maintenance in the functional scientific literacy Programme (FSLP), This implies the designing of the functional scientific literacy curriculum, which is closely related to the real problems of their community life and which is so presented that the conventional gap between scientific knowledge and life situations disappear.

If the Science curriculum in the Functional Scientific Literacy Programme (FSLP) remains bookish, if in the organization of its time table, teaching methods and discipline it does not allow for the special needs and problems of the neo literates/ rural youth/adults this Programme is to transform non-formal centers into miniature communities where these neo-literates/rural youth/adults learn through applying knowledge. In order to achieve this aim, the curriculum in the functional scientific literacy Programme (FSLP) should be based on the needs of the community.

Thus, the first factor to be taken into consideration for designing functional scientific literacy Programme (FSLP) may be to include science education experiences, which may bring the non-formal centre out of its isolation and connect it with all the worthy aspect of community life. Thus, the Functional Scientific Literacy Programme (FSLP) may involve the utilization in the non-formal centers of the neo-literates and rural youth/adult's outside experiences, the basing of his studies on and integrating them with the knowledge, information and interests he brings him to the centre.

The second factor to be taken into consideration while designing the curriculum is the need of adolescents in economic: relationships consistent with community structure. In order to achieve the above aim, the designed curriculum should also be vocational in nature, and this might be a terminal course which may help the neo-literates/rural youth/adults to get a job.

The third factor to be taken into consideration is the educational level of the nee-literates/rural youth/adult. The designed curriculum would be based

on the science education which neo-literates/rural youth/adults received earlier.

The fourth factor for curriculum design is the availability' of the materials, library and laboratory tools. The designed curriculum should emphasize the utilization of local resources.

The fifth and last factor for curriculum design is the knowledge of the basic concepts in the discipline of Science. Unless the neo-literates have sound fundamentals of any knowledge, they will find it quite impossible to transform the knowledge for use in a variety of situations.

The real purpose of functional literacy is to change the mind set of adults in urban and rural India with reference to economical, community development, healthy and hygienic living habits in consonance with reference to their values system.

Conclusion

To conclude, as an adult educator, let us think, organize and strive together as professionals so that adults in India and the third world countries can discover the value of logical enquiry and deploy the scientific approach temper to the functional scientific literacy among adults. The scientific functional scientific literacy for neo-literates and rural youth/adults in India and should be a way of life, a process of thinking, a method of acting and associates with our fellow human beings Teaching of literacy among rural & urban area should be part of all our community development Programme.

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'Cosmicism' the True Eternal Theism: Realizing the Supreme Cosmic Reality through Basic Cosmic Education for Global Adults

M. V. Lakshmi Reddy

Global Human Context: Need for Basic Cosmic Education for Adults

Many of us are aware that the Earth is very minute particle in the infinite cosmos. This fact might spin a great surprise among most of the global adults. For them, many facts about the Earth, the Moon, the Sun, the stars, the galaxies and the cosmos as a whole might be quite surprising, because of their lack of knowledge and understanding of these basic cosmic objects and related facts. So, often they may get easily carried away by myths, blind-beliefs and misinformation about these objects. By providing basic cosmic education they can be enabled to appreciate the established facts about these objects, including the supreme cosmic reality.

In the global human context, the existing level of knowledge and understanding of adults about basic cosmic objects and facts can be understood by looking at the following questions, with a rider as to what percent of them might be aware of the relevant answers: Is the Earth a huge moving sphere in the space? What is the diameter of the Earth across its poles and across its equator? What is the distance between the Earth and the Sun? Is the Earth rotating around itself and also revolving around the Sun? What is the speed of rotation and revolution of the Earth? How is the Earth spinning with such speed in space? Is Moon rotating on its axis and also revolving around the Earth? What is the distance between Moon and the Earth? How many other planets are there revolving around the Sun, at what distances and with what speed? What is the size of the Sun? How big is the solar system? Does the Sun also rotate and revolve around some other cosmic object? What is meant by lunar month, Earth year, planet year and cosmic year? Is the Sun just like any other star we see in the night sky or is it different? Do all stars have planets, like Earth, revolving around them?

Is there possibility of life on the exo-planets of other star systems? What is a galaxy? Do all the stars revolve around the core of their galaxy? How many stars might be there in a galaxy? To which galaxy does the Sun belong? How many galaxies are there in the cosmos? Of these, how many stars and galaxies can we see at best in the clear night sky? What are the units generally used to measure very long distances such as those between the stars and galaxies in space? What is the size of the cosmos? Is the size of cosmos constant forever? What is the supreme cosmic reality? These questions might be mind-blowing. Nevertheless, the astronomers and the space scientists, among others, could find answers to these questions — some answers precisely and some, of course, approximately.

The answers available to the above questions, among others, form very strong basis for providing basic cosmic education to the global humanity, which is crucial for raising their knowledge, understanding, common consciousness and appreciation of cosmic reality to a higher level. Hence, adult educationists need to formulate a 'broad framework of basic cosmic education for global adults' that will set the beginning of an irreversible march towards ultimate realization by the humanity of the eternally integrated comprehensive cosmic whole, which is termed as 'cosmicism' (sic). This paper is precisely an attempt towards this end.

Cosmicism: What, Why and How?

There exists large number of philosophical 'isms' (Just to mention a few, Idealism, Naturalism, Materialism, Realism, Pragmatism, Existentialism, and so on). These 'isms' have set their own concepts, the goal of human life and interpreted the ultimate truth in their own way and, accordingly, identified diverse means and methods of realizing the same. All the 'isms' have their own peculiarities, inherent merits and limitations. Nevertheless, there is no universal agreement on any one of these 'isms' for various reasons. The context and purpose of this paper limits the author from naming all these 'isms' or touching upon their aspects.

The fact therefore is that, all 'isms' till date have, independently and collectively, remained inadequate to firmly, objectively and harmoniously guide the humanity towards realization of the supreme cosmic reality. Fortunately, the unimaginable pace of advancement in science and technology could help the space scientists, physicists, astronomers and others to establish some undisputed facts about the eternally integrated basic cosmic objects.

The comprehensive articulation about these objects and facts constitutes 'cosmicism' (sic), which the author introduces here. The concept of 'cosmicism' thus coined is delineated in reasonable details below.

A.   Concept of 'Cosmicism': The True Eternal Theism

'Cosmicism' espouses an orderly articulation of facts about universally established basic cosmic objects. It embraces absolute rationalism and empiricism intrinsically underlying the inseparable hierarchical interlinks between and among these objects finally leading to human realization of the supreme cosmic reality in the integrated comprehensive cosmic whole, which is the goal of cosmicism. It begins with the proximate cosmic objects which are visible to the unaided human eye and extends to those in the far cosmos which are invisible and intelligible to humanity only based on objective understanding and perfect reflection about the same.

Cosmicism believes that through proper education centering around the basic cosmic objects every human being is capable of understanding, reflecting and appreciating the supreme cosmic reality. It thus embodies basic cosmic education aimed at presenting these objects and related facts in lucid and systematically articulated manner to promote highest reflective appreciation among global adults for their collective realization of such reality. Here, 'adult' is considered to be a person of any physical age but has enough mental or intellectual ability and maturity to understand, reflect upon and appreciate the indisputably established facts about these cosmic objects.

Basic cosmic education, thus, forms the core of 'Cosmicism' — the true, supreme and eternal theism. Here, the author uses the term 'cosmicism' to mean *"an objective and perfect appreciation by the global humanity of logically, empirically and hierarchically inter-linked cosmic objects with wide-ranging mass, size, gravity, rotation and revolution existing as the integral components of well-integrated comprehensive cosmic whole, with supremely mighty cosmic entities eternally interspersed as core components at invisible distances in the farther spaces of the infinite cosmos"*. 'Objective' here implies without any subjectivity or bias in their appreciation in favour or against the objects based on their proximity or distance; and 'perfect' implies recognizing the objects as they existed, existing and will be existing in space and time. 'Cosmicism' is, thus, an absolutely objective and perfect appreciation of the depiction of these objects in the eternal cosmos.

B.   The Goal of Cosmicism and the Path to its Realization

One and the only one goal of 'cosmicism' is the ultimate realization by the entire global humanity of the supreme cosmic reality eternally integrated in the comprehensive cosmic whole. How to realize such supreme cosmic reality?

The path to such realization is 'basic cosmic education for global adults'. It aims at enhancing the entire humanity's basic level of knowledge, awareness, understanding, common consciousness, critical reflection and appreciation about the basic cosmic objects and related facts. Such appreciation must be universal and unified, and attainable through purely and precisely object-centric and fact-centric education intrinsically directed towards realizing the supreme cosmic reality.

C. The Core Content of Cosmicism

The core content of cosmicism includes only the indisputably established facts about the basic cosmic objects, including the inter-relationships existing between and among them. Its frame must provide for such content organized in logical and hierarchical order of integration starting from the most proximate one to those infinitely far and supreme. The content per se must be absolutely objective. The content should be depicted in simple, systematic and easily intelligible manner to provide an exalted experience to the global humanity for their realization of the comprehensive cosmic whole. With such perspective, the author here presents Cosmicism, depicting a broad framework of its core content as basic cosmic education, which is given in the form of relevant questions and answers in Table -1.

Table-1
Cosmicism: A Broad Framework of Basic Cosmic Education for Global Adults

Sl. No.	Question	Answer (Established fact)/Estimated or Approximate Answer
I.	**About the Earth**	
a)	Is the Earth a spinning sphere in the space? How can we convince everyone about this fact?	Yes, the Earth is a spinning sphere in space. There are two straightforward explanations for this, which are indistinguishable from one another.[1] • The entire sky, along with all the stars in it, spins around the Earth within a period of 24 hours. As we observe, all the stars appear to change position gradually throughout night, and Sun also appears to change his position throughout day. • The entire sky, to the best of our observations, is *stationary*, but appears to spin because the Earth is rotating beneath sky.

b)	What exactly is the shape of the Earth?	Earth is not a perfect sphere. It is an oblate spheroid, i.e. it is a <u>rotationally symmetric</u> ellipsoid having a polar axis shorter than the diameter of the equatorial circle whose plane bisects it.[2]
c)	What is the diameter of the Earth across the poles and across the equator? What is its mass?	• Polar Diameter: 7,901 miles (12,715 kilometers).[3] • Equatorial Diameter: 7,926 miles (12,756 kilometers).[3] (i.e. equatorial circumference is more than 40,000 km). • Average Diameter: 12,742 km.[4] • Mass: 5,972,190,000,000,000 billion kg.[5]
d)	Is the Earth rotating on its axis?	Yes, it is rotating on its polar axis. It completes one rotation per day.[1]
e)	Is the Earth also revolving around the Sun?	Yes, the Earth is revolving around the Sun in an orbit, which is elliptical or slightly oval-shaped.[6]
f)	What is the speed and direction of rotation and revolution of the Earth?	• Rotation speed: 1,670 kilometers/hour (1,037 miles/hr).[7] • Revolution speed: 108,000 km/hr.[8] • Direction of rotation and revolution: Eastward (i.e. counter-clock wise).[8]
g)	What time does the Earth take to make one revolution around the Sun?	• The Earth completes one orbit every 365.242199 mean solar days (i.e. one year) travelling about 946,700,000 km in each orbit.[9]
II.	**About the Moon (the Earth's Satellite)**	
a)	What is the shape of Moon	Moon is slightly similar to the shape of typical bird egg that is larger on one end than on the other.[10]
b)	What is the size and mass of Moon? How far is the Moon from the Earth?	• Average Diameter: 3,475 km.[11] (i.e. its circumference is about 10,910 km). • Mass: 73,476,730,924,573,500 million kg.[11] (i.e.1 Earth = 81 Moons). • Average Distance of Moon from Earth: 384,400 km.[11]
c)	Does the Moon also rotate on its axis? Does it revolve around the Earth?	• Moon's rotation exactly matches its orbit around the Earth, which is why it looks like it never rotates.[12] • Moon rotates about its axis in almost the same time it takes to orbit the Earth. This results in it nearly keeping the same face turned towards the Earth.[13]
d)	What time does Moon take for its rotation and revolution? How much distance it travels in its revolution around the Earth?	• To complete one rotation on its axis, Moon takes approximately 27 days.[14] • Moon revolves or orbits round the Earth once every 27.322 days.[15] • In each orbit, Moon travels about 2,424,240 km.[15]
e)	What is the speed of Moon's rotation and revolution?	• Rotation speed: About 400 km/hr.[11, 13 and 14] • Revolution speed: About 3,700 km/hr or 2,300 mi/hr.[15]

III.	**About the Sun (the Solar system)**	
a)	What is the size of the Sun? How big is it in comparison with the Earth?	• Sun's Diameter: About 864,938 miles or 1,391,980 km. (i.e. about 109 times that of the Earth).[16] • Volume: 1,299,400 times bigger than that of Earth.[16]
b)	What is the distance between the Earth and the Sun? What is this distance called?	• Farthest distance (Aphelion): About 94.5 million miles (152 million km).[17] • Closest approach (Perihelion): About 91 million miles (146 million km).[17] • Average distance: 92,955,807 miles / 149,597,870 km, i.e. approximately 93 million miles or 150 million km. It is called 1 AU (Astronomical Unit).[17]
c)	What is a solar (star) system?	A solar (star) system refers to a star and all the objects that travel in their orbits around it. Our solar system consists of the Sun, the planets and their natural satellites, dwarf planets, asteroids and comets.[18]
d)	What is the mass of the Sun and its proportion in comparison with the entire mass of the solar system?	Mass of Sun: 1,989,100,000,000,000,000,000 billion kg (i.e. equal to 333,060 Earths). This mass of Sun constitutes 99.86% of the total mass of our Solar System. (i.e. the mass of all planets, their satellites, asteroids, comets, etc together constitute just 0.14% of the mass of solar system).[19]
e)	What is the Sun made of? What is its temperature?	• About three quarters of Sun's mass is hydrogen and the rest is mostly helium.[19] • Its surface temperature: 5500 °C.[19]
f)	How many planets are there revolving around the Sun, and what are their sizes?	Sun's planets and their sizes include the following:[20] • Mercury (diameter 4,880 km) • Venus (diameter 12,104 km) • Earth (diameter 12,756 km) • Mars (diameter 6,794 km) • Jupiter (diameter 24,000 km) • Saturn (diameter 120,000 km) • Uranus (diameter 52,400 km) • Neptune (diameter 48,000 km). • The 'dwarf planets' are: Pluto, Ceres and Eris.
g)	Do all other planets also rotate on their axes as well as revolve in their orbits around the Sun? At what distances do these planets revolve in their orbits around the Sun?	Yes, other planets also rotate on their axes and revolve around the Sun.[21] The average distances of planets from the Sun in AUs (1 AU = 150,000,000 km) are as follows [21]: • Mercury (0.387 AU) • Venus (0.722 AU) • Earth (1 AU) • Mars (1.52 AU) • Jupiter (5.20 AU) • Saturn (9.58 AU) • Uranus (19.2 AU) • Neptune (30.1 AU) • Pluto (39.5 AU)
h)	What time does each of these planets take to make one revolution in their respective orbits around the Sun?	One revolution time of each of the planets of the Sun is as follows:[22] • Mercury (88 days) • Venus (224.7 days) • Earth (365.24 days) • Mars (687 days) • Jupiter (4,332 days) • Saturn (10,760 days) • Uranus (30,700 days) • Neptune (60,200 days) • Pluto (90,600 days)

i)	What is the cause of Earth's and other planets' revolution around the Sun? Will their speed of rotation ever slow down, increase or remain constant forever?	• Revolution of the Earth and other planets is due to the combined effect of gravitational pull of the Earth plus other planets and the centripetal force of the Sun operating on its planets.[23] • Planets keep rotating because of conservation of angular momentum which always remains constant, when it is not influenced by any external force or twist.[23] • The planets will spin on their axes forever unless they are hit by some other huge body or influenced by any external force. As the planets are spinning in the vacuum slowing down of the rate of their spin is negligible.[24]
j)	Is the Sun like any other star we see in the sky? Does the Sun also rotate and revolve? Around which body does the Sun revolve?	• Yes, the Sun is just the star nearest to us. The Sun also rotates and revolves. The Sun revolves around the centre of its galaxy (called Milky Way galaxy).[18]
k)	Do all the planets rotate and revolve in the same direction? Is the direction of the Sun's revolution same as that of its planets?	• Most of the planets rotate and revolve in the eastward (anti-clock wise) direction. However, Venus, Uranus and Pluto rotate in the opposite direction.[25] • The direction of revolution of Sun is same as its planets.[23]
l)	Whether the plane of rotation and revolution of the Sun and all its planets the same?	All the planets, except Pluto, orbit the Sun in essentially the same plane. The ecliptic plane then contains most of the objects which are orbiting the Sun.[26]
m)	Where is our (Sun) solar system located in the space?	Our solar system is located in a galaxy called Milky Way.[27]
IV.	**Important Units of Distance in Space and of time**	
(A)	**Units of Distance in Space**	
a)	What is an Astronomical Unit (AU)?	AU is the average distance between the Sun and the Earth. It is 92,955,807 miles or 149,597,870 km (i.e. About 93 million miles or 150 million km).[17]
b)	What is the speed of light in space or vacuum?	Speed of light is 186,282 miles per second or 299,792 kilometers per second.[28] (i.e. approximately 300,000 km/sec.)
c)	What is a light year? How big is it compared to AU? How is it useful?	• Light Year: It is the distance that light can travel in one Earth year at the velocity of about 300,000 kilometers per second. One light-year is equal to 9,500,000,000,000 kilometers (i.e. 9.5 trillion km).[29] • A light-year is about 63,333 times longer than an AU.
d)	What is a parsec? How big is it compared to a light year?	Although the light year is a commonly used unit, astronomers prefer a still bigger unit called the parsec (pc). A parsec is equal to 3.26 light years. We often put a prefix in front of it -- like kiloparsecs (kpc), equal to 1000 parsecs, or Megaparsecs (Mpc), equal to a million parsecs.[30]

(B)	Units of Time in Space	
e)	What is a lunar month?	A *lunar month* is the amount of time Moon takes to pass through all its phases -- new moon, half moon, full moon and then return back to its original position (i.e. no-moon phase), which is a point in its orbit where the Sun is in the same position from our point of view. It takes 29 days, 12 hours, 44 minutes and 3 seconds for the Moon to complete one lunar month.[31]
f)	What is Earth year?	A *Earth year* is the time the Earth takes to make one orbit around the Sun. It is 365.24 days.[32]
g)	What is a planetary year?	A *planetary year* is the length of time it takes any particular planet to revolve around the Sun. The planets revolve around the Sun in different amounts of time, so a "year" on each planet is different (See answer against question at Sl. No. III) h) above for different planet years). Thus, farther a planet is from the Sun, the longer its year.[33]
h)	What is a cosmic year?	*Cosmic year.* Time one journey of our solar system around the center of the Milky Way galaxy takes is sometimes called a cosmic year. It's approximately 225-250 million years.[34]
V.	**Stars and the Galaxies**	
a)	What is a galaxy in the space?	A galaxy is a <u>gravitationally bound</u> system consisting of stars, stellar remnants, an <u>interstellar medium</u> of gas and dust (nebulae), and <u>dark matter</u>.[35]
b)	How many stars are there in Milky Way galaxy?	Stars in MW galaxy: More than 200 billion stars.[36]
c)	Which is the star nearest to the Sun? What is the distance between the Sun and this nearest star?	Proxima Centauri is the star nearest to the Sun. It is at 4 light-years (i.e. about 38 trillion km) away from the Earth.[37]
d)	Which is the largest known star? How bright is it? How far is it from the Earth?	VY Canis Majoris is the largest known star at 5,000 light-years away from the Earth. It is about 1800-2100 times the radius of the Sun, 500,000 times brighter than our Sun, about 30 times more massive than our Sun,.[38 and 39]
e)	Which is the brightest known star? How far is it from the Earth?	Eta Carinae is the brightest known star. Its size is about 800 times that of our Sun; mass about 100 times that of our Sun; and about 4,000,000 times brighter than our Sun. (Note: Though it is much smaller than VY Canis Majoris, yet it is 8 times brighter than VY Canis Majoris).[39]
f)	How big is Milky Way galaxy? What is the mass of Milky Way galaxy? What is the distance of the Sun from the centre of Milky Way galaxy?	• Maximum size of MW galaxy: About 120,000 light years across[39] or more than 30 kpc.[30] • The mass of MW galaxy is equivalent to the mass of 1.9 trillion Suns[36] or 8kpc.[30] • Sun's distance from the MW galaxy's centre is about 28,000 light-years.[40]
g)	How many solar systems have been discovered from Milky Way galaxy?	More than 500 solar systems have been discovered so far and new ones are being discovered every year.[36]
h)	Whether every star has planet(s) revolving around it? How may planets are there in Milky Way galaxy?	• Yes, nearly every star hosts at least one alien planet orbiting it.[41] • There are about two-to-three trillion planets in MW galaxy alone.[42]

i)	Is there life on the planets of every star system?	About 20% of the stars (i.e. every fifth star) harbor a planet between one and two times the size of the Earth in the habitable zone.[43] So far 10 of the known exo-planets are most likely to host alien life.[44] (Note: What those worlds are like is not known).[41]
j)	What is the average speed at which the Sun is revolving around MW galaxy's centre and how long does it take to complete one round?	• Sun is revolving around centre of MW galaxy at an average velocity of 828,000 km/hr (i.e. 230 km/sec).[40] • Sun takes about 230 million years to complete a round in its orbit around the Milky Way galaxy's centre.[40]
k)	Whether all the stars also revolve around the centre of their respective galaxy? What is the shape of a galaxy?	• Yes, all the stars also revolve around the centre of their respective galaxy.[44] • The shape of a galaxy is like 2D plane (spiral like). All galaxies are spiral like in their shape.[45]
l)	Can we see Milky Way galaxy every night with our unaided (naked) eye? How does it look like?	• Most of the stars we see as little twinkling dots in the night sky are part of the Milky Way galaxy.[46] • Milky Way looks like a giant swath of milky haze in the clear night sky.[27]
m)	Which is the next big galaxy, nearest to our Milky Way galaxy? How far is it from Milky Way galaxy? Can we see it also?	• The Andromeda Galaxy, also a spiral galaxy, is the one nearest to MW galaxy. It is at 21 quintillion km away (i.e. 21,000,000,000,000,000,000 km).[47] • It's the most distant galaxy we can see with our unaided eye.[48]
n)	How many stars and galaxies are there in the universe or the cosmos?	The best estimates suggest that there are at least 70 billion trillion (70 sextillion or 7×10^{22}) stars of various sizes and brightness in the cosmos, which probably contains more than 100 billion galaxies.[49 and 50]
o)	What is the size of a smallest star and that of a largest star in the universe?	The smallest mass possible for a star is about 8% that of the Sun, otherwise nuclear reactions do not take place. Very large stars called Super Giants have diameters up to 1000 times that of the Sun and luminosities often 1,000,000 times greater than the Sun.[51]
p)	How many galaxies and stars can we see at best in the night with our naked eye?	• When observing the sky with naked eye, we might see 9 galaxies including MW galaxy and about 13 nebulae (i.e. illuminated interstellar gas and dust).[52] • On a clear moonless (dark) night, with our unaided eye we can see at best about 2000 stars at a time.[46]
q)	What is the shape of the universe or cosmos? How are the galaxies arranged in the cosmos?	• The shape of universe or cosmos is like a sphere, but the galaxies are not arranged on the surface of this sphere.[53] • The galaxies in the cosmos appear as an intricately connected web of clusters and nodes on long strings or lines.[54]
r)	Why can't we see the whole universe or cosmos? Does the Universe have an edge, beyond which there is nothing?	• We can see only as far as nature allows us to see. The galaxies extend much further in every direction than we can see. From Earth, we can observe at best about 10 billion light-years or 6 billion trillion miles only, while the universe is much bigger.[53] • There is no evidence that the universe has an edge. The universe has been evolving and expanding with time. The light from most of the galaxies at very far distances has not yet reached the Earth, and hence we cannot see them all.[53]
s)	Is the size of cosmos constant? What is the	Scientists found that the cosmos or the universe is ever expanding and hence they could not put a number on it. As on

VI.	Dark Matter Objects -- Black Holes (Supermassive, Monster and Colossal)	
a)	Does a star have lifespan or lifecycle? What happens to a star at the end of its lifecycle or lifespan?	• The mass of a star defines its lifespan. The least massive stars will live the longest, while the most massive stars will use their fuel up in a few million years and end in a spectacular supernova explosion.[56] • A star has lifecycle with different stages, which are evolutionary in nature. In the end stage, each massive star becomes a Black Hole (BH).[51]
b)	What are Black Holes in space?	• Black Holes are believed to form from massive stars as remnants at the end of their lifetimes. The gravitational pull in a BH is so great that nothing can escape from it, not even light. BHs distort the space around them, as they can suck neighbouring matter into them including stars. Hence, the density of matter in a black hole cannot be measured.[57]
c)	What is a Supermassive Black Hole?	A Supermassive Black Hole (SBH) has a mass equivalent to 17 billion Suns.[58]
d)	What is a quasar? What is a Monster Black Hole (MBH)? How many SBHs are there in a galaxy and where are they located?	• A quasar is the bright galactic core powered by a huge black hole called a Monster Black Hole.[59] • There are two SBHs, one on either side of MBH, in the core of each galaxy.[60] • Each of these two SBHs receives bright beam of light from a mysteriously far away galaxy on one side, and from the other side it is finishing up its merger into the MBH in the core of a galaxy toward which it is facing (moving) on its other side.[60]
e)	What is a Colossal Black Hole?	A Colossal Black Hole (CBH) exists chowing down on gas from a distant collision between two doomed disk-like spiral galaxies.[61]
VII.	Age of the Universe, the Sun, the Earth and the Humans, and their Relative Sizes	
a)	How old is the cosmos or the universe?	Cosmos is about 13.8 billion years old.[37]
b)	How old is the Milky Way galaxy?	Age of the Milky Way is about 13.6 billion years.[62]
c)	How old is the Sun? Will it remain the same forever?	Sun is about 4.6 billion years old. (i.e. 4,600,000,000 years). In about another 5 billion years it will change into its next stage (Red Giant) of its lifecycle.[63]
d)	How old is the Earth? Will the life continue on the Earth forever?	• Earth is about 4.54 billion years old. (i.e. 4,540,000,000 years).[64] • Life on Earth will cease to exist after about next 3.5 billion years.[64]
e)	How old are homo sapiens or the human beings?	Human beings are about 200,000 years old.[65]
f)	How small is the Sun in comparison with its (MW) galaxy and with the cosmos?	• Sun is just one of about 200 billion stars of MW galaxy.[36] • Sun's size in comparison with that of cosmos is like a small twinkling particle of negligible mass in comparison with that of the cosmos.
g)	What is the size of the Earth in the solar system and in the Universe or cosmos?	• Earth is like very minute particle in the solar system. • In comparison with the cosmos, the Earth is like a minutest invisible particle with its size and mass of almost no significance at all.

The core content in Table-1 may be suitably elaborated by any adult, who understands and appreciates it, to other adults with any appropriate additional content and illustrations as may be required for their better appreciation of cosmicism.

D.   Realization of the Goal of Cosmicism: The Supreme Cosmic Reality Eternally Integrated in the Comprehensive Cosmic Whole

From Table 1, it is clear that the Earth, the Moon, the Sun and Milky Way galaxy as a whole are in continuous motion – rotation and revolution. In terms of the increasing order of their size, mass and gravitational force, these basic cosmic objects form broad groups: the satellites, the planets, the star systems (the solar systems) and the galaxies. Similarly, the black matter objects in terms of their increasing mass and gravity include: the Black Holes (BHs), two Supermassive Black Holes (SBHs) and a Monster Black Hole (MBH) falling within each galaxy, and a Colossal Black Hole (CBH) falling between the two doomed galaxies. All these black holes have inestimably supreme density and gravity that nothing can escape from their gravitational sphere, including the light. Thus, all these dark matter objects which are in billions and falling within and between galaxies together constitute a vast map of the supreme cosmic reality spread across the cosmic sphere of about 92 billion light years of diameter today. Realization of such eternal supreme cosmic reality by the global humanity through basic cosmic education is the ultimate goal of cosmicism. Also, they need to realize that while the cosmos is about 13.8 billion years old, our galaxy is of 13.6 billion years old, our Sun is about 4.6 billion years old, our **Earth is about 4.54 billion years old, we the human beings (homo sapiens) are about** 200,000 years old **only. There will be no life at all on the Earth after about** 3.5 billion years more, while there may be life in other star systems within Milky Way galaxy, and also among other galaxies in the eternal cosmos.

E.   Scope and Significance of 'Cosmicism'

Cosmicsim should not be confused with cosmology, which is more research-oriented. Cosmology is the scientific study of the origin, properties, evolution and ultimate fate of the entire Universe. This is the job of cosmologists, physicists, astronomers, etc who keep on exploring the cosmos to discover the truth about cosmic objects. As against this, 'cosmicism' promotes an absolutely objective and perfect appreciation among the entire global humanity about the basic cosmic objects through

comprehensive exposition of the indisputably established content having its basis in cosmological findings. It emboldens them to distinguish reality from what is unreal about these objects and ultimately unifies them into a non-religious, objective, true eternal theism – the Cosmicism.

F.   Means and Methods of Realizing the Goal of Cosmicism

The sole merit of the path to realization of the goal of Cosmicism lies in its absolute objectivity, acceptability, practicability and universality. Basic cosmic education is the effective means or the only path to realize the goal of cosmicism. It is possible only through simultaneous learning of truth and unlearning of untruth about the basic cosmic objects.

Simultaneous Learning of Truth about Cosmic Objects and Unlearning of Untruth or Myths about them: Basic cosmic education provides a basis for simultaneous process of learning of truth about the cosmic objects and unlearning of myths or untruth about them. Such a process of learning and unlearning instills only the truth in human mind by dispelling untruth about the cosmic reality. It ensures steady progress of human mind towards the goal of cosmicism. For transaction of its content, it does not require any artificial structures; and informal and non-formal discussions are enough in this regard. Assessment and evaluation of cosmic learning is inherently integrated in the learning process itself, i.e. without perfectly appreciating the answer to the first question in Table-1, the human mind cannot appreciate the rest that follow therein.

Therefore, all the means and methods of cosmicism must: be inherently valid and universally reliable; be ubiquitous, natural, and freely and equally available for the entire global humanity at all times from any and every part of the globe; be amenable for use either in rudimentary natural settings or in sophisticated set-ups; and enable the mankind to understand the eternal motion of cosmic objects in their hierarchical order. To be precise, the day and night sky serves as the most objective, eternal cosmic education lab of all times for all kinds of observations, research, and cosmic educational discourses. It suits everyone from every part of the globe. Sophisticated settings such as the planetariums, and access to equipments such as telescopes, among others, can always provide the enriched environment for observation and explanation of some special phenomena such as lunar and solar eclipses, etc. Further, the web references given at the end of this article also form vital sources for visual, graphic, electronic and animated tools and techniques, among others.

To put cosmicism in practical, experiential and observable perspective, we, the humanity on Earth are inseparable part of the cosmos or the sky we see every day and night. Every fraction of second we (by being on Earth) are all in continuous motion in the space, i.e. rotating at 1,670 km/hr, revolving with it around the Sun at 108,000 km/hr and further revolving (being part of solar system) along with Sun around our galaxy (Milky Way galaxy) at 828,000 km/hr (i.e. at 230 km/sec). We also see Moon which is at 384,400 km distance from us and moving at a speed of 3,700 km/hr. It means, we all are continuously rotating and revolving or endlessly journeying at enormous speeds in the cosmos seeing the infinite sky only to the extent our vision allows. What a fantastic realization of the cosmic fact or reality! Once the entire humanity realizes this fact, that is the day for declaration of attainment of the goal of 'cosmicism' all over the globe.

Conclusion

Every human being who appreciates 'cosmicism' can, with full confidence, hope for such a day when the entire globe will be eternally filled with unified cosmicist humanity. With whatever the pace the 'cosmicism' may start as 'basic cosmic education for global adults' it will become the inevitable and surest means to realize the goal of cosmicism. If just one complete generation of human world becomes the 'cosmicists', then it will have its eternal cascading effect on all its successive generations easily sustaining the eternality of cosmicism on the globe.

To conclude, if the communication between 'this world' (global village) and 'other worlds' (i.e. exo-global villages) existing within the Milky Way galaxy ever becomes possible in the farthest future (be it after a few million years), then the 'Cosmicism' will gradually extend to the 'intra-galactic interstellar worlds', and later to 'inter-galactic stellar worlds'. This is possible only with merger of interstellar cosmic-communication technologies with cosmically communicable languages that might emerge over billions of years through eternal inventions and discoveries and their channelization across the 'intra-galactic global villages' and later across 'inter-galactic stellar worlds' in the cosmos. Then that will be the day of beginning of eternal march for convergence of all 'intra-galactic global villages' into 'a galactic village', and final convergence of all 'galactic villages' shrinking them into the 'cosmic village' — the ultimate collective attainment of 'cosmic life' as a whole.

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Determinants of Fertility in Bihar

Barna Ganguli

Pace of Fertility Transition

Fertility is one of the three components of population dynamics[i] and holds an important place in population study. It is responsible for biological replacement and continuation of the society. Fertility levels decide the age structure of the population, which in turn governs the social, cultural, psychological, economic and political variables.

The twentieth century has witnessed the remarkable changes in Indian society, polity and economy. The demographic transition also began in the same pace. The change from moderately high fertility, nearly unregulated within marriage, to fairly regulated moderate to low fertility has been impressive. India experienced annual growth rates exceeding two percent for quite some time. Soon after independence, a population programme was introduced by the government primarily aimed at reducing fertility. But initially, hardly any change in fertility was seen. Since 1980s, stagnation was seen[ii]. Hardly any rise in contraceptive use and no decline in fertility which led to frustration and despair. ; but, by the end of the decade, impressive fertility decline was seen in many parts of the country and soon this became widely pervasive, covering all parts of India and all sections of population though to varying degrees. Progress towards low fertility is by now well established throughout the country. The results since 1981 Census reveal that population growth rate has continuously fallen [Figure 1]. In the most detailed study of recent fertility trends by educational level, Bhat [2002] shows that 65 per cent of India's fertility decline during the 1990s was due to the fall of fertility among illiterate women. The remainder is attributed to declines among educated women and to changes in the distribution of women by educational level, Arokiasamy, Mcnay & Cassen [2004].

Figure - 1
Total Fertility Rate in India since 1951[3]
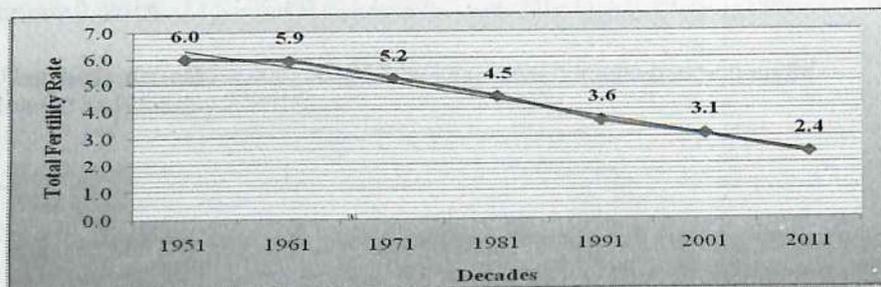
Fertility levels in India are governed by the prevailing social and economic conditions, as well as, cultural and religious traditions. On an average, the Hindi-speaking belt in the north, characterized by patriarchal value system, low level of economic development, predominance of religious customaries and exclusion of women from education, leads to higher birth rate in North Indian states compared to the Southern states. Even the indicative of population transition in India has been faster in Southern states compared to the Northern ones. The Total Fertility Rate (TFR) in Hindi heartland states like Bihar, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh lies between 2.8 to 3.4 children per women (as per SRS)[iv] . As against this, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka etc. has been pioneering state with respect to fertility transition[v]. Among all the Indian states, Bihar tops the list with 3.4 TFR. Corresponding patterns exist for contraceptive use; in general, illiterates have lower contraceptive use than more educated groups, but again there is marked variation within educational groups across states.

Fertility Trends in Bihar

The decadal Census and the SRS are the major sources of information on the fertility trends in the state. Bihar has throughout been one of the most populous states of India with highest density of population among the major states. Comparing the fertility rates of India and Bihar we find that, in 1981 Census, TFR for India was 4.5 children per woman, whereas, it was 5.7 children per woman in Bihar, denoting difference of 1.2 percentage points. However, after 30 years i.e. in 2011Census, the TFR for India is 2.7 children per woman and it is 4.2 children per woman for Bihar, denoting a difference of 1.5 percentage points. Thus, it could be inferred that though the TFR for Bihar has come down by 1.5 percentage points over last 30 years, but the irony is that the difference with national average has increased by 0.3

percentage point. Figure 2 portrays the fertility trend of Bihar between 1981 and 2012.

The decline in fertility in the state was largely attained through contraceptive use and particularly and largely through female sterilization. Despite having a rich heritage and abundance of natural resources, Bihar is still under privileged because of its huge population pressure and is lagging behind in economic prosperity.

Figure - 2
Total Fertility Rate in Bihar (1981-2012)
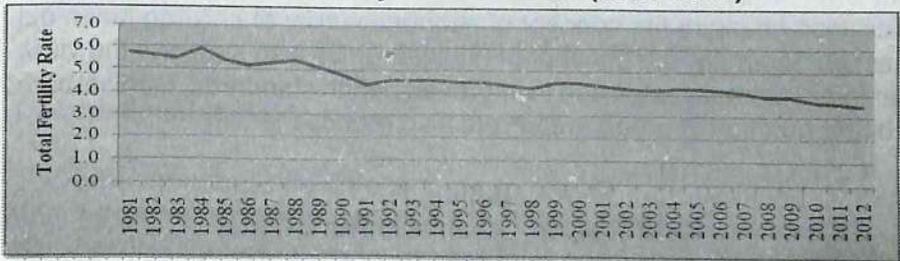
The districts of Bihar also have been characterized by regional heterogeneity which would manifest the levels of fertility. In 2001 Census, the variation in fertility was from 5.3 in Kishanganj and Katihar to 3.9 in Patna but in 2011 Census, it ranged between 5.7 in Kishanganj to 3.5 in Patna. Mostly all the district of Bihar has shown very high fertility rate except Patna, the state capital, which is higher than the national average.

Determinants of Fertility in Bihar

We all know that though the wide range of determining factors of societal status, demography, economic conditionality etc. are independent ones but play a crucial role in population growth as a net result of highly cohesive interplay among them. Low fertility in a society is a complex issue. Different theories have been postulated regarding the mechanisms to reduce the fertility factors, but are highly unpredictable in how well these fit to the circumstances. A rapid decline is experienced in many developing countries across globe with many adversities in the recent past. Traditional demographic transition theory primarily emphasized the role of economic or modernization factors towards reduction in fertility. Similarly, the neoclassical demand theories too emphasized the role of economic forces primarily stressing two variables, viz, quantity-quality swap and the allocation

of mother's time [Schultz 1981]. As far as developing countries are concerned, economic factors do not seem to explain the full course of fertility transition. Thus, few factors influential in fertility decline could be:

Rural-Urban Indicator

The level of fertility has been lower in urban areas in all ages and all civilizations compared to rural, factors being levels of education, income, age-sex structures etc. of the respective populations. A better idea of the differential in recent years can be held from table 1 which confirms rural and urban birth rates during the period 1981 to 2011. Table reveals that urbanization changes the concept of economic utility of children as an old age asset. Secondly, the concept of nuclear family also supports the view. Lower infant mortality rates due to improved health standards, medical care and better nutrition in urban areas[vi] etc also reduces fertility.

Table - 1
Birth Rate in Urban and Rural Bihar

Bihar	Urban	Rural
1981	33.9	39.7
1991	25.5	31.3
2001*	23.4	32.3
2011	22.0	28.8

Source: Sample Registration System (SRS), GOI
*From 2001 onwards, figures represent divided Bihar

Economic Status Indicator

Becker and Tomes [1976] suggested that an increase in the rate of growth of income over time has additional implications because it increases the endowment of children relative to the income of their parents. Meaning, increased income affects preferences and norms for the disposal of income and may tend to lower fertility by raising the relative desire for material goods. An increase in child endowment reduces the parent's investment, which in turn reduces the shadow cost per child, resulting into more investment in human capital for betterment of child's future. Table 2 confirms this inverse relation between income and fertility; the people on highest wealth quintile have less children and vice-versa.

Table - 2
Percent Distribution of Birth and Total Birth according to Wealth Index

Wealth Index	Percent Distribution of Births	Number of Births
Lowest	33.8	7389
Second	37.4	8277
Middle	16.6	3726
Fourth	8.8	1954
Highest	3.3	734

Source: DLHS, Bihar, 2007-08

Occupational Indicator

To be more specific on economic indicative part, the most commonly referred term is occupational status. Studies show that an inverse relationship between economic well being and fertility level is a universal phenomenon. The occupation of husband and the activeness of involvement of wife in gainful employment are often considered as an indicator for socio-economic status of the family and positioning in the society. Studies have also highlighted that there are significant variation in fertility level by income level dependent upon occupational standards. Likewise, there are indicators that women who are gainfully employed have lower birth rate. According to study done by Sanku Dey and Sankar Goswami[vii] in North Eastern parts of India, for both husbands and wives, more involvement in agricultural activities resulted in upward movement in fertility. Even in Europe, the women whose husbands were in agricultural sector reported higher fertility compared to those whose husbands were engaged in non-agricultural occupations [UN, 1976-49].

Religious and Social Group Indicator

Religion is conceptualized as affecting demography in two ways: through its philosophical content, and in terms of the socio-economic 'characteristics' of different religious groups. Systematic comparison of Islam and Hinduism shows little difference in their theological positions on demographic issues, with the exception of their position on birth control[viii]. In most states and union territories, Muslim fertility is higher than Hindus. The difference is narrow

or negligible in South and West India, whereas, it is significantly higher in Eastern and North- Eastern states. The regional variation in fertility is well known and many studies have emphatically concluded higher fertility in the north, compared to the southern and western parts of India [Bhat 1996; Guilmoto and Rajan 2001].Irrespective of religious affiliation, fertility among Muslims and Hindus has declined alike and in other states both religion show high fertility as a common phenomenon. In Bihar, although Muslim fertility is higher than that of Hindus [Table 3] but two important things to be noted here is that fertility transition phase in Hindus started earlier than that of Muslims and secondly, although TFR is higher in Muslims still their contribution to the Indian population is less than the Hindus because Hindu community is too large[ix.] Hindu population according to 2001 Census is 69.08 million, whereas, Muslim population is 13.72 million. If literacy is taken as one of the important factors of fertility then interestingly, all the districts having low literacy rate among females have higher fertility irrespective of Hindu and Muslim community.

Social Groups in Bihar continues to be a determinant factor in demography. It is strongly associated with the socio-economic class, differentials in fertility and mortality at this stage of demographic transition. Even after affirmative action taken by the State government, the SCs / STs are still outside the cultural mainstream. As is discerned, the TFR for OBCs is less than that of SCs, however, there is still a big gap between wanted fertility rate and present fertility rate (Table 3). Until and unless, this group is educated and made aware of contraceptive uses, fertility will remain unchecked.

Table - 3
Fertility, Religion and Social Group

Religion	Total Fertility Rate	Total Wanted Fertility Rate	Mean number of children ever born to women age 40-49 years
Hindu	3.86	2.44	5.1
Muslim	4.81	2.47	6.4
Social Groups			
Scheduled caste (SC)	4.87	2.79	6.4
Other backward class (OBC)	4.03	2.41	5.3
Others[1]	3.36	2.18	4.6

Source: NFHS-3, Bihar

1 Not belonging to scheduled castes, scheduled tribes, or other backward classes

Educational Indicator

Many studies have been conducted at the national and international level to understand and interpret the relationship between female education and fertility and effect of education on fertility decline [Graff, 1979, Caldwell, 1980, Jain1981, Dreze and Murthi 2001, Bhat 2002, Kravdal, 2002]. Many researchers argued that wife's education has a strong effect than husband's education on determining couple's number of children [Cochrane 1983, Cleland and Rodriguez 1988].

Thus exiting studies proved that though overall education has an impact in reduction of fertility, female education performs more crucial role. Education depresses the fertility by increasing the age of marriage, strengthening the propensity to be in labour force, fostering a favourable attitude towards small size norm and improving the awareness of the use of family planning methods [Patnaik 1985; Arora 1990; Vashisht et al.1991]. Bogue [1969] , analyzing the relative impact of nine indexes of modernization on fertility found that education alone accounted for 56 percent of the variance in the movement of nations from high to low fertility, whereas, all other indexes of modernization combined accounted for an additional 16 percent of the variance.

Female education affects wide variety of factors such as age at marriage; employment opportunities outside the home, social mobility, husband-wife communication, religiosity, infant mortality, exposure to contraceptive information devices have direct impact on fertility.

Table 4 proves that fertility is definitely influenced by educational level. As seen, in Bihar, out of all the levels, fertility is highest in illiterate women followed by women without any formal education. As we move up the ladder, total fertility declines. Perhaps uneducated women are influenced by the fertility behaviour of educated women which results in fertility decline in illiterate group in the corresponding years.

Table - 4
Total Fertility by women's Educational Level in Bihar

Educational level of a woman	2011	2012	2013
Illiterate	4.7	4.6	4.4
Total Literate	2.5	2.5	2.5
Without any formal education	3.5	3.0	3.3
Below Primary	3.1	2.8	3.0
Primary	2.8	2.7	2.6
Middle	2.6	2.7	2.7
Class X	1.9	2.0	2.0
Class XII	1.4	1.6	1.3
Graduate and above	1.6	2.1	1.7

Source: Sample Registration System

Conventional Factors

The role of conventional factors in demography states that women's autonomy is highly correlated with several demographic outcomes. On the basis of available literature it's seen that gender-power relations, as dictated by the existing cultural norms in the Indian patriarchal kinship system leave women with little or almost no autonomy and provide the central explanatory factor for the very high levels of fertility and infant, child and maternal mortality in Bihar. Preference for boy child also plays an important role in fertility determination. Son preference has important social and economic implications and it can substantially influence patterns of fertility and mortality as well.

Diffusion of factors

The essence of diffusion dynamic is that the information or behaviour of one person can have spillover effects on the motivation of another which could be either positive or negative [Montgomery and Casterline 1998]. Social diffusion can occur through different means, e g, education, mass media, government's Information, Education and Communication programmes and so on. It is yet to be established clearly which of these programmes is most important in fertility reduction. The attempt to analyze Indian fertility decline

through a diffusion process is quite new. At the same time it is highly difficult to quantify the diffusion and thus still remains at the theoretical level. It is rather easy to attribute diffusion when a change has already taken place. Bihar's fertility decline was explained in terms of political and economic policies and development strategies identified through land reforms, increased wages of agricultural labourers etc.

Conclusion

Thus, there are several factors that emerge from this paper that influence the fertility in the state. Firstly, out of all the factors, the effect of female literacy is quite robust to the inclusion of other variables. Secondly, it is the 'son preference' which arises as an important determinant of fertility levels. Third, the strong effects of female literacy and son preference on fertility levels contrast with the tenuous correlation between the other indicators of overall development and modernization such as occupational indicator, urbanization and religious and social groups etc. None of these variables exert a statistically significant influence on fertility. Therefore, Bihar has still a long way to go with more focused approach to achieve the state's net replacement of fertility levels. It has to implement high-impact strategies to achieve the expected levels on various family planning methods to fulfill the ambitious state-specific goals [Couples Protection Rate [65.0%] and Total Fertility Rate [2.7]] for the 12th Five-Year Plan period by 2016– 17. As cultural rigidities and taboos are still prevalent in Bihar, so the state will have to play a mega role to overcome all these barriers and direct itself towards development path.

Endnotes

[i] Other two are mortality and migration

[ii] Hardly any rise in contraceptive use and no decline in fertility which led to frustration and despair.

[iii] Source : Sample Registration System

[iv] TFR in Bihar was 3.4, Rajasthan was 2.8, Uttar Pradesh was 3.1 and Madhya Pradesh was 2.9 as per SRS,2013

[v] TFR in Kerala was 1.8,Tamil Nadu was 1.7 and Karnataka was 1.9 as per SRS,2013

[vi] See V. Prachuabmoh: 1Rural and urban population of Thailand: Comparative profiles", ITS Research Report No. 8, Bangkok 1972.

[vii] Dey Sanku and Goswami Sankar (2009): Fertility Pattern and Its Correlates in North East India; J Hum Ecol, 26(2): 145-152.

[viii] In India, the difference in the number of children per woman between Hindus and Muslims is exactly one child –   with Muslims being higher (3.1 for Hindus and 4.1 for Muslims).

[ix] Hindu population according to 2001 Census is 69.08 million, whereas, Muslim population is 13.72 million.

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Tagore's Concept of Knowledge Communication through Rural Library Services: Experiment of Rural Extension Centres, Visva-Bharati

Atanu Kumar Sinha

Introduction

Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941), is known as a great poet and writer, but he was also an educator, social reformer, musician, composer, actor, painter, philosopher and is also considered as the pioneer of mass literacy movement and rural development programme in India as well as of Indian Library Movement. At a time when the country was faced with the twin challenges of colonialism and nationalism, he took attempts to put forward before his countrymen the ideal of village welfare. He made his pioneering efforts before Indian independence in the field of rural development, which was started at Silaidaha, now in Bangladesh and took proper shape at Sriniketan (*adobe of Lakshmi*), the poet's laboratory for his work in relation to rural reconstruction, long back in the year 1922.

Rabindranath Tagore used the term 'Rural Reconstruction' instead of "Rural Development". He wanted "to bring back life in its completeness into the villages, making them self-reliant and self respectful, acquainted with the natural tradition of their own country and competent to make an efficient use of modern resources for improvement of their physical, intellectual and economic condition" (Tagore, 1928). Tagore in his rural development project laid emphasis on economy (with special emphasis on agriculture and local handicraft), education, health, village organisation, research and training and also on different methods in knowledge communication mainly based on traditional folklore of Bengal. Tagore considered educational development as foundation of rural reconstruction as he observed "reform of education and generation of villages are the major tasks of my life" (Tagore, 1972).

Rural Extension Centre, Visva-Bharati at a Glance

The Rural Extension Centre (REC) (Department of Adult, Continuing Education & Extension), under Palli Samgathana Vibhaga is one of the oldest departments under Visva-Bharati, listed in the Visva-Bharati Act, 1951. It has been actively engaged in improving the socio-economic condition of the villagers in its vicinity since its inception. Over the years, the centre has been giving emphasis on extension programmes to encourage the villagers to become self-reliant through their own enterprises and in different spheres of their life. REC is actively engaged in Village Development Societies (VDSs), strengthening Self-Help Groups (SHGs), Youth Organisations, Mahila Samitis (women's forum) as well as rural library services at village level.

Rural Libraries

Tagore's philosophy regarding rural transformation becomes clear from his writings such as 'Palli Prakriti' (Nature of the Village), 'Atma Shakti' (Self Empowerment), 'Samabay Niti' (Cooperative Policy), 'Rasiar Chithi' (Letters from Russia), etc. as well as from his speeches in some conferences [viz, Provincial Conference at Nator (1897), Provincial Conference of Pabna Congress (1908)], and from 'Pitrismriti' (Memoires of my Father) written by his son Rathindranath. Tagore believed, "If we could free one village from the shackles of helplessness and ignorance, an ideal for the whole of India would be established ... Let a few villages be rebuilt in this way and I shall say they are my India. That is the way to discover true India" (Tagore, 1928). Tagore also realized about the retention of the acquired knowledge and the literacy skills without which the goals of human life could not be achieved. For that he suggested, "the highest educational institutions should assimilate knowledge from all sources and disseminate it for the benefit of the masses in order to strengthen their own foundation" (Tagore, 1931) as it has clearly been started in one of the objectives of Sriniketan "to carry the knowledge and experience gained in the class-room and farm to the village" (Tagore, 1976).

Tagore was in favour of community education through library services. To fulfil this motto Tagore opened a new horizon of library services establishing "Chalantika Granthagar" (mobile library services) or "Circulating Library" in order to support his rural reconstruction activities at Sriniketan in 1925, with an initial collection of 200 books. In this programme, books were circulated from one village to another round the year through the persons in-

charge of *Chalantika* Branch Library/Centre, the purpose was to create enthusiasm among the rural people having no opportunity to avail the facilities of a library.

The basic objectives of establishing Rural Libraries under Rural Extension Centre at Visva-Bharati are:

- Development of knowledge power and dissemination of information and a progressive outlook and thereby enhance the capabilities of the villagers and with the ultimate objective of empowering them,
- Promotion and retention of acquired literacy skill,
- Development of reading habits among the rural people,
- Nurturing the cultural instinct by enriching indigenous culture,
- Open up a platform for sharing ideas and views with others,
- Creation of logical thinking and scientific attitude of the villagers,
- Dissemination of knowledge aimed at enhancing income and quality of life.

During the initial period the total number of books of the library and number of books issued is shown in the Table below:

Table-1
Collection of Books and their use – 1929 to 1934

Year	No. of Books	No. of Books issued & re-issued
1929	450	729
1930	390 (including 5 periodicals)	709
1931	400	600
1932	461	950
1933	512	1474
1934	1087	2457

[**Source**: Visva-Bharati Annual Report, 1929-1934].

In the year 1984, the Government of Japan, donated a Mobile Van to the Department of REC. The programme was running successfully for a long period, but, unfortunately, from 2001 the service of mobile library was disrupted due to breakdown of the van.

Rural Extension Centre of Visva-Bharati collaborates with Raja

Rammohan Roy Library Foundation (RRRLF) which comes under the Ministry of Culture, Government of India. This foundation has come forward in the year 1975 to finance establishing permanent rural libraries in the villages with library buildings, furniture, books, journals and equipments.

Initially there were only 9 permanent libraries and in course of time the number increased to 38. Besides these permanent libraries there are one Health Library, 12 Children's Libraries and one Children's Corner which are being run within the radius of 10-15 kms, These libraries are situated in 8 Gram Panchayats of two Development Blocks, viz, Bolpur-Santiniketan and Ilambazar of Birbhum district. Out of 38 permanent libraries, 2 have been temporarily suspended and another 2 have been issued show cause notice as they were not functioning well (libraries not opened regularly, not shown enthusiasm to acquire books and furniture, not interested to attend monthly seminars, etc.). Thus the number of functioning libraries as on date is 34 only.

Year-wise establishment of Rural Libraries is given in the Table below:

Table - 2
Establishment of the Rural Libraries

Year	No. of Libraries Established
1975	9
1977	2
1980	4
1983	3
1986	4
1987	1
1991	6
1994	4
1999	2
2002	1
2005	1
2010	1
2012	1 (Health Library)

Geographical distribution of the Rural Libraries under REC, Visva-Bharati is given in Table-3 below:

Table - 3
Geographical Distribution of the Rural Libraries under REC, Visva-Bharati

Bolpur-Santiniketan Block Gram Panchayats	No. of Rural Libraries	Visva-Bharati Area	Ilambazar Block (6) Gram Panchayat	No. of Rural Libraries
Ruppur	9	1	Ilambazar	6
Sattore	6			
Raipur-Supur	8			
Kosba	3			
Konkali	3			
Sian-Muluk	1			
Albandha-Sorpolehna	1			

Chart below shows villages covered under Rural Services of REC

In order to assess the effectiveness of the Rural Libraries a small study was conducted, the details of which are given below:

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study conducted were:

1. To study the average number of readers using the libraries
2. To know the gap between male and female readers using the libraries

3. To assess the growth of collection of books during the last five years
4. To trace the use of books by the readers of the libraries
5. To study the provision of funds during the last five years.

Methodology

In this study, the secondary data was collected from Annual Reports of REC, Visva-Bharati from the year 2009-10 to 2013-14, different library records such as accession register, users' register, issue records, etc. Apart from this data was also collected with regard to the background of REC, its activities, average number of readers using the libraries, number of books collected, use of books by readers and the funds received.

Outcome of the Study

The rural libraries running under the control of Rural Extension Centre are managed either by the Librarians or Assistant Librarians. The monthly seminars/meetings organized by REC are attended by Librarians and Assistant Librarians as they provide an effective platform for exchange of views and opinions about the functioning of the libraries.

The total number of readers using the libraries during the period of study was 10,811 out of which 6064 were males and 4747 were females. There seems to be the number of males using the library was more than females. The year-wise breakup of readers also shows that the number did not progressively increased year after year and instead oscillated up and down which can be seen in the Table below:

Table-4
Number of Readers used the Libraries from 2009-10 to 2013-14

Year	Males	Females	Total
2009-10	1560	1280	2840
2010-11	970	700	1670
2011-12	1104	800	1904
2012-13	1394	1094	2488
2013-14	1036	873	1909
Total	6064	4747	10,811

[**Source**: Annual Report of REC, 2009-10 to 2013-14]

The libraries need to acquire new books for which the rural libraries of RCE are not exception. For acquiring books there should be regular financial allocation. Fortunately, the rural libraries are financially supported by Raja Rammohan Roy Library Foundation alongwith Visva-Bharati to purchase books with the result the libraries got its stock increased every year. The purchase of number of books was directly related to the available funding and hence, there is no progressive increase in the purchase year after year. During the 5 year period 21,164 books were added to the stock. Year-wise addition is given in the Table below:

Table-5
Growth of Collection

Year	No. of Books	No. of Books Added during the Year
2009-10	1,02,356	5082
2010-11	1,06,606	4250
2011-12	1,12,216	5610
2012-13	1,14,970	2754
2013-14	1,18,438	3468
Total	5,54,586	21,164

[**Source**: Annual Report of REC, 2009-10 to 2013-14]

The analysis of the use of books by readers during the five years is shown in Table-6. It has been observed that during the year 2013-14 there was a big drop in the use of books:

Table - 6
Use of Books by Readers

Year	Use of Books	Decrease (-)/Increase (+)
2009-10	32,540	-
2010-11	26,970	(-) 5570
2011-12	26,784	(-) 186
2012-13	34,119	(+) 7335
2013-14	26,069	(-) 8050

[**Source**: Annual Report of REC, 2009-10 to 2013-14]

As already said earlier the Raja Rammohan Roy Library Foundation provides matching grant to Visva-Bharati for maintenance as well as

augmentation of library resources. The funds received are mainly used for procurement of books and equipments. The Table-7 shows the fund received from the foundation and the matching grant given by Visva-Bharati in the last five years:

Table-7
Funds given by RRRLF and matching grant by Visva-Bharati

Year	RRRLF	Visva-Bharati	Total
2009-10	3,50,000	3,50,000	7,00,000
2010-11	3,50,000	3,50,000	7,00,000
2011-12	5,00,000	5,00,000	10,00,000
2012-13	Nil	5,00,000	5,00,000
2013-14	3,51,078	5,15,000	8,66,078

[Source: Annual Report of REC, 2009-10 to 2013-14]

Apart from annual fund release by the Foundation, it also regularly sanctions amount to conduct workshops or seminars on rural libraries.

Following are some of the suggestions and recommendations to improve the functioning of the rural libraries established and run under Rural Extension Centre:

- The rate of establishment of rural libraries are very poor (only three) after the year 2000.
- Proper survey needs to be conducted in the villages before establishing the rural library.
- In the year 2013-14 the number of readers used the libraries was the lowest in 5 years. This may be due to the onslaught of e-media, timing of the library hours, lack of motivated volunteers to facilitate library services, managing the libraries by non-professionals (like the persons with even class 8th passed) as Librarians or Assistant Librarians. Hence, there is a need to appoint qualified persons to manage the libraries.
- There is a need to increase the community support to run the libraries including the support of opinion makers, local leaders and civil society organizations.
- The books selected for libraries should be user centric, especially reference books, books on general knowledge and career guidance. Apart from the books, the libraries should have information on women

welfare, health, hygiene, nutrition, agriculture, employment opportunities, government's welfare policies, laws relating to protection of common people, eradication of social evils, etc. The libraries can also organize special lectures on chosen topics of interest to the readers to increase the motivation.

- There is a need for increased fund allocation to meet the additional requirements.
- Libraries should have sufficient number of Newspapers, particularly in vernacular language so that rural readers are aware of the happenings around them.
- It may be appropriate that people who are non-literates or less literates get an opportunity in the libraries some sort of functional literacy.
- By establishing a nodal computer centre basic awareness programme or computer literacy programme can be conducted (for the minimum knowledge of computer operation and scope and benefits of computer use) at a regular interval for the library managers and also for the library users.
- Community Information Centres (CICs) play a vital role in rural areas by providing necessary information needed by the people. In this respect, in the operational areas of the REC, Visva-Bharati by establishing CICs can extend services through mobile information kiosks, like 'Kiosk-on-Wheel'.

Conclusion

Rabindranath Tagore's writings on objective of education are "to give man unity of truth" and "the full realization of all the ideals in life through work and wisdom" (Tagore, 1959). His idea of a library was alike with his idea of rural development as he states "reform of education and regeneration of villages are the major task my life" (Tagore, 1961). Tagore gave stress on rural library services as he felt "a natural bond between education in the schools and colleges and the country outside them is immensely necessary" (Tagore, 1972). This is necessary to fulfil the objectives of education as "the highest education is that which does not give us information but makes our life in harmony with all existence" (Tagore, 1929). For this, a library as the storehouse of the recorded knowledge has a tremendous role to play. But to ensure fullest use of its resources Tagore suggests, "it is necessary that its contents should clearly and specifically brought to notice" of readers with human touch because "the library by itself imposes a responsibility – the responsibility relating to riches. In so far as the library contains books, it

attains fulfilment only through having those books read. It will not remain
inactive; may it play an active role by issuing a call. Tagore always believed
"*Jannstam yanna deeyate*" (Tagore, 1929a).

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Women Education in India: Where Do India Stands

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Vinod Joon
A. Jeganathan

Background

Education is a good indicator to determine the pace of development in any society. It is a key factor to improve the wellbeing of the individual, family and society. It is the greatest single factor which can incredibly improve the status of women in society and enable her to acquire better quality of life. Educational achievements of woman can have ripple effects regardless of whether she is working or not. Education empowers women as it enables them to respond to the challenges, to confront their traditional role and change their status in society. India is developing at a fast pace in every sphere and is expected to be a developed country by 2020. This can became reality only when the women of this nation become empowered through education. Literacy rate in India has shown improvement since independence but current rate of women education is not satisfactory. From the fifth five year plan (1974-78) onwards there has been a marked shift in the approach to women's issues from welfare to development. In recent years, the education of women has been accepted as the gateway for determining the status of women in the Indian society. The National Commission of Women was set up by an Act of Parliament in 1990 to safeguard the right and legal entitlements of women. Moreover, the Central Government of India has recently launched the Saakshar Bharat Mission for Female Literacy, which aims to reduce female illiteracy and spread education and awareness even in the most remote and rural parts of the nation. Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) set by United Nations also laid emphasis on the education of women; two of the eight MDGs pertain to education-namely, universal primary completion and gender parity in primary and secondary schooling. Investing in women's education yields high dividends; it has a direct and proven impact on the goals related to child and reproductive health. Research studies have indicated that basic education of women plays major role in increasing their productivity. Educated women have a greater voice in household decisions, more autonomy in shaping their lives and better opportunities for participating

in the community service and achieve social status. Education also promotes economic growth of the nation by increasing productivity and innovation. Moreover, it strengthens the values of democracy and social cohesion by encouraging transparency and good governance. Education is a fundamental right. Despite great progress in the last 15 years, millions of children are still denied their right to education, due to many barriers and obstacles that are hindering their access to education.

Status of Women Education in India

The percentage of educated women is significantly lower as compared to men in India. In urban areas gender disparity in education exists but to lesser extent while in rural area this gender difference widens and increases with years of education completed. In the urban areas of the country the female literacy rate is 79.9% while in the rural areas it is only 58.7% (Census of India, 2011). Illiterate women have little autonomy, living first under the control of their fathers, then their husbands, and finally their sons (Chatterjee, 1990; Desai, 1994; Horowitz and Kishwar, 1985; The World Bank, 1996). Lack of education also exerts negative impact on the health status of women. Poor health has repercussions not only for women but also their families as women in poor health are more likely to give birth to low birth weight infants. They also are less likely to be able to provide food and adequate care for their children. Finally, a woman's health affects the household economic well-being, as a woman in poor health will be less productive in the labor force. Table 1 shows the difference in literacy rates among male and female in India as per census reports since 1951.

Table -1
Difference in Literacy rates among male and female in India

Census Year	Total Literacy (%)	Males (%)	Females (%)	Male-Female gap (%)
1951	18.3	27.2	8.9	18.3
1961	28.3	40.4	15.3	25
1971	34.5	46	22	24
1981	43.6	56.4	29.8	26.6
1991	52.2	64.1	39.3	24.8
2001	64.8	75.3	53.7	21.6
2011	73	80.9	64.6	16.3

Source: National Commission on Population, 2011

The effective literacy rate for India in census 2011, works out to 73.0 percent. The corresponding figures for males and females are 80.9 and 64.6 percent respectively. Thus overall 3/4th of the population aged 7 years and above is literate in the country. Four out of every five males and two out of every three females in the country are literate. The country has continued its march in improving literacy rate by recording a jump of 8.2 percentage points during the decade 2001-2011. The improvement in literacy rates in males and females are 5.6 % and 10.9% respectively. This is indeed encouraging that in the present decade the gap between male and female literacy rates has reduced to 16.3% points in 2011 which was 21.6% points recorded in 2001 Census. But still India has to go a long way to reach the MDGs set by UN. As per report of UNESCO, on current trends, India is less likely to achieve the goal.

Under the Right to Education (RTE) Act of Government of India, passed in 2009, a free and compulsory education is guaranteed for all children aged between 6-14, and the most recent figures for primary school enrolment stand at an impressive-sounding 98%. But merely increasing the school enrolment to meet the millennium development goal of achieving universal primary education will not serve the purpose. Now we should focus on the quality of the education as the students face numerous challenges in schools such as overcrowded classrooms, absent teachers and unsanitary conditions.

Factors Responsible for Low Literacy among Women in India

Despite remarkable progress towards achieving gender equality in education, gender disparities remain in many countries including India. 31 million girls are still out of school around the world. The number of primary age children not in school in India was put at 2.3 million in 2008, but other estimates suggest it could be as high as 8 million. According to an Indian government report, the primary drop-out rate in 2009 was 25%. Of the out-of-school children in 2008 in India, 62% were girls; they make up two-thirds of illiterate 15- to 24-year-olds. And two-thirds of those not in schools were from those lowest in the caste system, tribal groups and Muslim communities. There are many obstacles that prevent girls from getting an education. Factors responsible for low literacy level among women in India including socio-cultural, economic, demographic, political and administrative and so on. The following are the some of the important factors which could be attributed to low literacy among women in India.

(i) Low Enrolment and high Drop-out from School

The lower enrolment of girls in schools especially in rural, tribal and slums areas is one of the basic factors for low literacy of women in India.
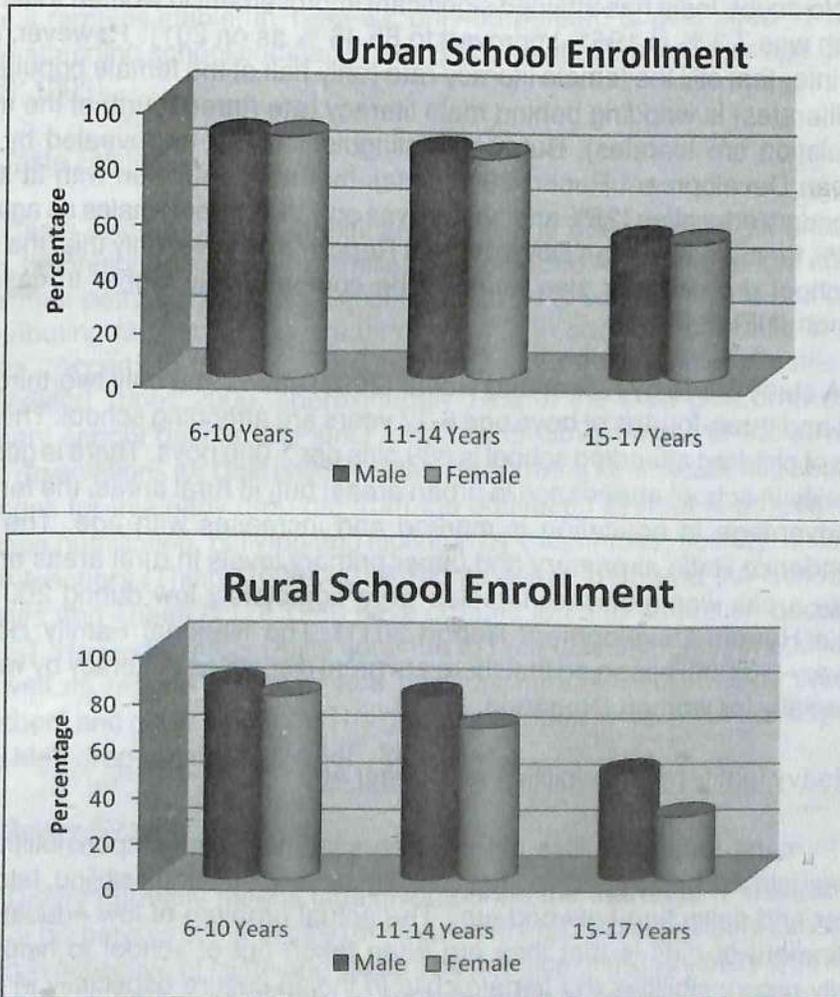

Figure 1. (a) & 1. (b) Difference in School enrolment among male and female in urban vs. rural areas (NFHS-III, 2005-06)

As evident from figure 1 (a) and (b) in urban areas gender disparity in school enrollment is negligible but in rural India, gender disparities in school enrollment not only exist but also increase sharply with age (NFHS-III, 2005-

06). The incidence and prevalence of drop outs among girls of most marginalized groups especially in rural, tribal and slums areas are quite high compared to the urban girls.

No doubt, India has attained significant improvement in women's literacy which was 7.3 % in 1951, improved to 65.46 % as on 2011. However, one can infer that still the female literacy rate (only half of the female population are literates) is wadding behind male literacy rate (three fourth of the male population are literates). But, one distinguishing fact as revealed by the Human Development Report-2011 states that the population with at least secondary education (25% and above) was only 26.6% for females as against 50.4% for males (Human Development Report-2011). Not only this, the rate of school drop outs is also found to be comparatively higher in case of women (NFHS-3).

A study made by Kishor and Gupta (2009) states that only two-thirds of girls and three-fourths of boys age 6-17 years are attending school. The sex ratio of children attending school is 889 girls per 1,000 boys. There is gender equality in school attendance in urban areas; but, in rural areas, the female disadvantage in education is marked and increases with age. The Net Attendance Ratio at primary and upper primary levels in rural areas and in urban areas was found for females were completely low during 2007-08 (India Human Development Report-2011). The National Family Health Survery-3 (2009) observed that there are great disparities in literacy by wealth especially for women (Nagaraja, 2013).

(ii) Heavy family responsibilities at younger Age

In many Indian families girl children assume major responsibilities of household work such as cleaning, cooking, looking after their sibling, fetching water and collecting firewood etc. The actual problem of low educational attainment of girls is that they are often taken out of school to help with family responsibilities the female child in Indian culture especially in rural, tribal and poor families is expected to develop the qualities of inferiority; subservience and domesticity which place sever limitations on her education and development. In rural areas girls are conditioned by the attitude of elders who gives less priority for girl children going to school. Girls are also likely to be taken out of school when they reach puberty as a way of protecting their honor. It is girls, and marginalised groups such as the very poor and the disabled, who are often left behind. While girls attend primary school in

roughly equal numbers to boys, the gap widens as they get older and more are forced to drop out to help with work at home or get married (Pankaj Kumar Baro & Rahul Sarania, 2014). The data on school attendance by age show the proportion of girls attending school decreases with age while for boys it remains stable. In 1992-93, only 55 percent of girls aged 11 to 14 were attending school compared with 61 percent of the younger age group (IIPS, 1995).

(iii)Caste System

Caste system plays a significant role in the education of girl children. Girls belonging to low caste families are forced to learn household chores and other petty work and not encouraged to go to school. This is one of the contributing factors for low status of women in society especially in rural areas. According to the National Commission for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes 2000, approximately 75% of the Dalit girls drop out of primary school despite the strict laws of the Government of India, which hold reservations for Dalit children. Despite showing keen academic aptitude, reasons for this early drop out from the education system is poverty or to escape humiliation, bullying and isolation by classmates, society, and even their teachers (Thind, 2000). Civil Rights Act of 1955 and the Scheduled Castes and Tribes Act of 1989 have created job and education quotas for SC/ST. However, many Dalits continue to face discrimination in education, as well as reports of verbal and physical harassment towards them by teachers and other students. The group continues to have low literacy rates and high drop-out rates (MoSJE, 2013-14).

(iv)Dowry System

Dowry normally means gifts given during the marriage to the son–in – law or his parents either in cash or kind. Dowry is practiced widely throughout India irrespective of caste and class. The practice of giving dowry was meant to assist a newlywed couple to start their life together with ease. When daughters are born, families hold back on economic resources to save for gifts to the woman's future husband and his family. For example, Girls are denied the right to education, since expenses on their education is not considered to be an investment of higher returns. However, now it has degenerated into a commercial transaction in which monetary considerations receive priority over the personal merits of the girl including her education. Dowry system and other associated socio-cultural practices act as the prime

reasons for the neglect and discrimination of the girl children. In many poor families parents and other elders think that if their daughters are educated more, they have to look for equal match and provide more dowries at the time of marriage. So they prefer to stop their girl children's education at the elementary level. This is more prevalent in the underprivileged communities.

(v) Child Labour Practice

Though the Government of India has taken serious steps against the practice of child labour, still large segment of child population below the age 14 years is engaged in child labour practices. These children are working in match factories, fireworks, beedi works, carpet making, bricks, mining, quarrying, glass, bangles, gem polishing, and handloom works, zari, embroidery, coir industry, domestic works, construction etc for a meager amount. In most of these industries girl children are preferred for high productivity and low cost. But recent studies on out-of school children show that most of them are neither engaged in full-time work nor they attend the school (Ramachandran et al. 2004). Even today, the evil of bonded labour system exists in certain parts of the country and it acts as a barrier for girl's education particularly in rural areas. Indian constitution and various legislations pertaining to education of children assure free and compulsory education to all children of this nation but unfortunately the enforcement machinery fails to discharge its duties and responsibilities to the satisfaction of the public interest.

(vi) Lack of Basic Amenities in School

In many parts of India, the school environment for girls is not really encouraging. The curriculum and methods of teaching are mostly out dated, rigid and uninteresting. The basic amenities such as drinking water, toilet facilities, proper building, Studies indicate providing private and separate sanitary latrines in school can increase girls' enrolment and help keep them in school as they enter adolescence. A study released by non-governmental organization Child Relief and You (CRY), 'Learning Blocks,', conducted in around 750 schools across 71 districts in 13 states, found that one-fifth of schools lack a drinking water facility, and that in 12% of the schools the drinking water source is outside the campus. The study further reveals that 11% of schools don't have toilets, and that 34% of school toilets are unusable. Only 18% of the sample schools have separate toilets for girls and close to half have common toilets for staff and students (TOI, 2013).

The adequate numbers of trained teachers are not available in all the schools, this is more so in rural and remote areas of the country. Parents especially in rural areas prefer to send their girls to schools where there is female teacher. A 2010 report by the National Council for Teacher Education estimated that an additional 1.2 million teachers were needed to fulfill the RTE Act requirements, and in 2009 the RTE Forum, a civil society collective of around 10,000 non-governmental organisations (NGOs), found that only 5% of government schools complied with all the basic standards for infrastructure set by the act. The RTE Forum also reported that 21% of teachers weren't professionally trained.

(vii) Early Marriage

Child marriage is a major barrier to progress on girls' education. Over 60% of child brides in developing countries have had no formal education. Many girls aren't in education because schools are inaccessible or expensive, because of the traditional role girls are expected to play in the household, or simply because parents don't see the value of education for their daughters. Child marriage and a lack of education for girls are both underpinned by girls' low status. Child marriage often means the end of education for girls. It is closely linked to girls dropping out of school, denying children their right to the education they need for their personal development, their preparation for adulthood, and their ability to contribute to their family and community. Out of school and in marriage, child brides are denied the ability to learn the skills that could help them earn an income and lift them and their children out of poverty. There is significant association between female literacy and female age at marriage. Though there is legislation on the female age at marriage of 18 years, it is not followed strictly in India especially among the families of parents with low literacy particularly in rural areas. This practice of early marriage discourages female children to continue their schooling and higher education as they enter into family life at the early age which is not advisable from the physical and mental health point of view and also of social development. Education can also be one of the most powerful tools to enable girls to avoid early marriage and fulfill their potential. The longer a girl stays in school, the less likely she is to be married before the age of 18 and have children during her teenage years.

(viii) Poverty as a Barrier

Sending a child to school involves direct costs such as school fees,

clothing and shoes, school books/supplies and the indirect costs in the form of "opportunity costs"- child labour and work. In much poverty stricken families, children especially girls are considered as economic assets as they bring income for livelihood as well to save from economic crises due to death or incapacity of parents (sick/ handicapped/aged). Such families cannot afford the loss of income or labour contribution of their children, so their children do not enroll or attend the schools or they drop out in between. There is a gender dimension to this problem as well; if a choice has to be made between sending a boy or a girl to school, the boy will usually be given precedence. Majority of the invisible workforce like domestic workers are girls only. Culture and tradition can also play a "big role" in preventing girls from receiving a quality education.

(ix) Demographic Factors

The high population growth rate, rapid urbanization, migration etc also attribute immensely for the poor literacy level of girls in India. Movements from rural areas towards towns and cities (urbanization) are now a regular feature in our country, and it is these movements that have the greatest effect on educational development. As the parents keep moving from one place to other in search of employment which make the children particularly girls to continue their education difficult. Besides gender dimension such as early marriage of girls, low status of women and predominately the patriarchal societies in most of the Indian states often result in lower priority on education of girls.

Advantages of Educating the Women
(a) Better child care

As educated girls are likely to marry later and to have smaller and healthier families, they can provide better care to their children. Mother's education has a positive effect on child nutrition. Education is vital to eliminate malnutrition in the long term – especially education that empowers women. Malnutrition is the underlying cause of more than a third of global child deaths. Educated mothers are more likely to ensure that their children receive the best nutrients to help them prevent or fight off ill health, know more about appropriate health and hygiene practices, and have more power in the home to make sure children's nutrition needs are met (UNESCO, 2011). They can recognize the importance of health care and know how to seek it for themselves and their children. An educated woman is more likely to have

her children immunized against childhood diseases (LARRDIS, 2013). They can plan their family in a better way than their uneducated counterparts. As a result, their infants and children have higher survival rates and tend to be healthier and better nourished as compared to uneducated mothers.

(b) Decision Making

When it comes to decision making, the educated women have advantage over their uneducated counterparts. As per NFHS-III data, it is disheartening that 23.5% of rural and 14% of urban women do not have any say in simple household decision making. These simple decisions on day today life have bearing on other important decisions that affect women and her children 's health Studies show that the educated women are more involved in decision making on matters such contraceptive use, reproductive health and child health care. Education empowers women to overcome discrimination. Girls and young women who are educated have greater awareness of their rights, and greater confidence and freedom to make decisions that affect their lives, improve their own and their children's health and chances of survival, and boost their work prospects. The education of mother has greater effect on her children's educational attainment. Her greater influence in household decision may allow her to secure more resources for her children. Ensuring girls stay in schools is one of the most effective ways of averting child marriage and early births. Education is also a key factor in hastening the demographic transition to lower birth and mortality rates. Women with formal education are much more likely to use reliable family planning methods, delay marriage and childbearing, and have fewer and healthier babies than women with no formal education. It is estimated that one year of female schooling reduces fertility by 10 percent. The effect is particularly pronounced for secondary schooling of the female (UNESCO, 2011)

(c) Improvement in Health

Higher levels of education is strongly associated with women's improved use of pre-natal, delivery and postnatal care services which in turn improves the health status of both mother and child. The World Bank has stressed investment in female education as an important development strategy for developing countries and this strategy is broadly agreed across a range of agencies and governments. In particular the World Bank has stressed the high social rates of return to female education. It is widely claimed that educated women marry later, want fewer children and are more likely to use

effective methods of contraception. Large differences in fertility rates are found between those who have completed at least seven years of education and women who have not completed primary education. The more educated the mother, the lower is maternal mortality and the healthier is the child (World Bank 1995). It is calculated that child mortality falls by about eight percent for each additional year of parental schooling for at least the first eight to ten years of schooling Education has a greater impact on women's knowledge on HIV prevention. Studies of HIV in Africa and Latin America find that education lowers women's risk of HIV infection and the prevalence of risky behaviors associated with sexually transmitted infections (Jewkes, 2003; Wolff, 2000).

(d) Promote Gender Equity

Research study conducted in India in 2001 reveals that women with higher levels of education do not have a strong societal preference for a son. Also they are empowered to tackle the discrimination they may experience for giving birth to a daughter (Pande and Astone 2001). The educated mothers give equal care to son and daughter and promote gender equality at household level which in turn facilitates better environment in the society. Education of girls can help them in avoiding the domestic violence. Research shows that higher education has a stronger effect than primary education in reducing rates of violence and enhancing women's ability to leave an abusive relationship (Jejeebhoy 1998). Studies show that the benefits of education in reducing domestic violence are greater in the less patriarchal state of Tamil Nadu in southern India than the more patriarchal state of Uttar Pradesh in the north. In the latter case, only secondary schooling for women leads to lower domestic violence rates (Jejeebhoy 1998).

(e) Employment Opportunity and Supplementing Family Income

In 2010, as per data from the National Sample Survey, women's labour force participation in urban areas was at 14.6 per cent and in rural areas at 26.5 per cent. This is in stark contrast to developed economies such as the United States, where the labour force participation rate for women has increased and currently stands at 57 per cent. As per the International Labour Organization, India ranks a low 120 out of 131 countries along the female labour force participation index. In developed economies, women are increasingly obtaining top jobs at firms. However, in India, the vast majority of women are still employed in agriculture, as domestic help or in otherwise

unorganized sector that lack career prospects. This is because most of the women are either not educated or inadequately educated/skilled to be employed in formal sector. In India, a research study conducted by Mammen and Paxson in 2000 found that women with higher levels of education are more likely to work in the formal employment market where earnings are higher and her chances of exploitation are less as compared to informal sector.　　　Also education helps women to know their rights and to gain confidence to claim them. Moreover, educated mothers on job can support their families financially by supplementing the income (Aparna Mathur, 2014).

(f) Nation Building

Educated women can play an equally important role as men in nation building. Education provides women an entry to other opportunities by enabling them to gain more knowledge about the world outside of their home. It helps them to get status, positive self esteem, self confidence, necessary courage and inner strength to face challenges in life. Education has significant role in women's empowerment. Indeed women's education is the basic step to attain equality with men. Besides, employed women can contribute in poverty reduction of the nation. The fact is that women's productive participation in the economy is critical to sustaining growth. As per an estimate by the UNESCAP, if India's female labour force participation rates matched that of the US, India could experience significant increases in economic growth rates. Further, with economic independence, women can improve their bargaining power within the family, which is critical for the well-being of both women and children.

Initiatives taken by Government of India for Promotion of Women Education

The Government has made the right to education as a fundamental right. Further, policies and programmes have been formulated to spread literacy through schemes such as the Saakshar Bharat Mission which focuses on female literacy, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) and Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan which seeks to universalize education at the primary and secondary levels. Further, the Government has introduced and strengthened various programmes and schemes to facilitate education among girls at different levels, particularly those belonging to the disadvantaged sections such the SC, ST, minority communities and with disabilities. Some of the important initiatives of Government are:

(i) Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan

Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) was launched in 2001 with the aim of universal access and retention, bridging of gender and social category gaps in elementary education, and achieving significant enhancement in learning levels of children. Under this programme, special focus is on girls, children belonging to SC/ST Communities, other weaker Sections, Minorities and urban deprived children (LARRDIS, 2013). It is the Government's flagship programme for achievement of Universalisation of Elementary Education (UEE), as mandated by the 86th amendment to the Constitution that made free and compulsory education to children in the 6-14 years age group a fundamental right. It is being implemented in partnership with State Governments to cover the entire country and to address the needs of 192 million children in 1.1 million habitations. Under the SSA, access to primary education has improved to 99% and out-of-school children have been reduced to below 4% in the age group of 6-14 years. The Committee on the implementation of the Right to Education Act has suggested that the provisions of the SSA be modified in accordance of the requirements of the Right to Education (RTE). SSA has made efforts to mainstream gender concerns in all activities under the programme. A two pronged strategy is adopted for the promotion of girls' education, namely to make the education system responsive to the needs of girls, and generate a community demand for girls' education. A strategic shift has been made in education planning to target low female literacy pockets and reduce gender disparity. Special effort is also made to bring out-of-school girls, especially from the disadvantaged sections, to school.

The overall retention rate has also increased from 73.71% to 74.01% during the same period. 186. The SSA has made special provision for girls such as back to school camps for out-of-school girls, bridge courses for older girls, recruitment of 50% women teachers, gender-sensitive teaching-learning materials including textbooks, intensive community mobilization, setting up of an 'innovation fund' per district for need-based interventions for ensuring girls' attendance and retention, and separate toilets for girls.

(ii) Right to Education

One of the important developments of this period is that right to education has been recognized as a Fundamental Right under Article 21(A) of the Constitution. The Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act

or Right to Education Act (RTE) was passed by the Parliament on 4th August 2009, makes education a fundamental right. The Act aims to provide free and compulsory education for children aged between 6-14 years till the completion of elementary education. The appropriate Government and local authority have been entrusted with the duty of establishing schools within neighborhoods limits in 3 years from the commencement of the Act and provide infrastructure such as school buildings, teaching staff and learning equipment. They are also assigned with the responsibility to ensure and monitor attendance and completion of elementary education of every child. 79. Under the Act, private schools are directed to reserve 25% of the total number of seats for students from disadvantaged sections of society such as SCs, STs and backward classes. Some states have made reservation for HIV/AIDS affected children mandatory. For example, the Government of Karnataka has set aside five % out of the 25% reservation in private schools for HIV positive children as well as orphaned and disabled children apart from reserving 10% of the seats for SCs, 4% for STs and 6% for backward classes as notified by the State government. 80. It also prohibits all unrecognized schools from practice, and makes provisions for no donation or capitation fees and no interview of the child or parent for admission. There is also a provision for special training of school dropouts to bring them at par with students of the same age. As per the Act, children are not to be subjected to corporal punishment or mental harassment and provides for a grievance redress mechanism. Also, the RTE Act mandates that State Commissions for Protection of Child Rights (SCPCR) and in their absence the Right to Education Protection Authority (REPA) should be constituted by the department of education for monitoring the implementation of the Act.

(iii) Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya

Kasturba Gandhi Balika Vidyalaya (KGBV) was launched in July 2004, for setting up residential schools at upper primary level for girls belonging predominantly to the SC, ST, OBC and minority communities and is implemented in educationally backward blocks of the country where the female rural literacy is low and gender gap in literacy is above the national average. The scheme provides for a minimum reservation of 75% of the seats for girls belonging to SC, ST, OBC or minority communities and the remaining 25% to girls from families that live below the poverty line. The scheme is being implemented in 24 States of the country. From April 2007, the scheme is a component of the SSA and is implemented mainly by SSA societies as also by Mahila Samakhya, other government agencies and

NGOs. KGBVs are set up in areas of scattered habitations where schools are at great distances and are a challenge to the security of girls.

(iv) National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary Level

National Programme for Education of Girls at Elementary Level (NPEGEL) was launched in 2003. It is a focused intervention of the Government to reach the "hardest to reach" girls, especially those not in school and those who are enrolled in school, but do not attend school regularly. The programme is implemented in educationally backward blocks. The scheme addresses obstacles to girls' education at the micro-level through flexible, decentralized processes and decision making. A "model school" has been developed in every cluster with intense community mobilization and supervision of girls' enrolment in schools. The NPEGEL recognizes the need for support services to help girls with responsibilities with regard to fuel, fodder, water, sibling care and paid and unpaid work, and has made some provisions to assist them, such as childcare for the two and three-year-old children. Gender sensitive teaching and learning materials as also additional subjects like self-defense, life skills and legal rights have been provided in the scheme. The NPEGEL works through village level women and community groups to follow up girls' enrolment, attendance and achievements. The outreach of the scheme has been good so far and it is reaching out to girls who are enrolled in school, but do not attend school regularly. NPEGEL also emphasizes the responsibility of teachers to recognize vulnerable girls and pay special attention to prevent them from dropping out.

(v) Mid-Day Meal Scheme

The National Programme of Nutritional Support to Primary Education is popularly known as the Midday Meal Scheme (MDMS). It is a national school feeding programme that reaches out to around 11.77 crore children in over 9.50 lakh schools across India. This Centrally sponsored scheme was launched to raise the level of nutrition of children and enable them to develop in a healthy manner. Launched in August 1995, the scheme consisted of free supply of food grains with subsidy for its transportation to schools. However, in September 2004 it was revised to provide a cooked midday meal with 300 calories and 8-12 grams of protein to all children studying in class I-V in Government, aided and centers run schools. In October 2007, the scheme was further revised to cover children studying in classes VI to

VIII with a midday meal comprising of 700 calories and 20 grams of protein per child per school day. In April 2008, the Scheme was extended to cover Muslim children studying in Madarasas and Muktabs supported under SSA. Due to these efforts, in 2009-10, 8.41 crore primary students and 3.36 crore upper primary students have benefited from this scheme. The MDMS also provides a useful source of employment for women and helps liberate working women from the burden of cooking at home during the day. This was expected to enhance enrolment, retention, attendance of children in schools apart from improving their nutritional levels. Studies indicate a positive impact of mid day meal scheme in primary school enrolment; Khera (2002) reported a 23% increase in enrollment following the introduction of school lunches in her 63 Rajasthan schools. A study on the impact of MDMS in Madhya Pradesh conducted by NIPCCD, Indore has shown a marked increase in the enrolment, attendance and retention rates and decrease in the dropout rates of children, especially girls, in primary schools. Teachers were of the opinion that the midday meal aided in active learning of children and therefore indirectly improved their academic performance, while the parents were of the view that it had reduced the burden of providing one time meal to their children and considered it as a great support to their families. Some states like Karnataka, Delhi and Andhra Pradesh have successfully involved private sector participation in the programme. The more successful of one such venture is Akshaya Patra, in Karnataka where midday meal is served to almost ten lakh children in Bangalore Municipal Corporation schools. India's midday meal scheme is the largest school nutrition program in the world. In 2006, it provided lunch to 120 million children in government primary schools every school day (Kingdon 2007).

(vi) Construction of Women Hostels

Girls' Hostels for students of secondary and higher secondary schools is a centrally sponsored scheme which was launched in 2008-2009 and is being implemented in 2009-2010. The aim of the scheme is to retain girls in secondary school and to prevent them from being denied education due to financial and societal reasons. The target group of the scheme is girls in the age group 14-18 studying in the IXth to XIIth standard and belonging to SC, ST, OBC, minority and BPL communities located in educationally backward blocks in the states. University Grants Commission (UGC) has been providing assistance for construction of women hostels and other infrastructural facilities for college girls to achieve the goal of bringing about gender equity. The main objective is to support all eligible colleges for

construction of hostels for women in order to provide a residential place for women students, researchers, teachers and other staff. For colleges located in nonmetropolitan cities, the assistance is from Rs. 40 lakhs to Rs. 80 lakhs whereas it is Rs. 80 lakhs to Rs.120 lakhs in the case of colleges in metropolitan cities based on the number of women enrolled in the college. During the XI Five Year Plan the UGC sanctioned 233 women's hostels in 19 districts with high concentration of minorities.

(vii) Saakshar Bharat Mission

The earlier programme of National Literacy Mission has been modified suitably to meet the contemporary challenges and named as Saakshar Bharat to cover all adults in the age group of 15 years and beyond with its primary focus is on women. It was launched on September 8, 2009 but became operational from October 1, 2009. It is a centrally sponsored scheme of the Department of School Education and Literacy, Ministry of Human Resource Development. It aims to strengthen adult education of people above the age of 15 years and raise the literacy rate. The main objectives of the Mission are to impart functional literacy, to enable adults to acquire equivalence in the formal education system, and to impart skill development programmes to improve their livelihood opportunities. The main target of the programme is to impart functional literacy to 70 million adults of whom 60 million are women. Of the 60 million women, SCs and Muslims constitute 10 million, STs 6 million and others 34 million. The mission also targets 1.5 million adults under the basic education programme and the vocational programme, with a special focus on women. In order to reduce regional disparities in literary rates, the programme places special focus on regions with a literacy rate of 50% or less as per the 2001 census. The Mission also focuses on rural areas before expanding to urban areas, with special emphasis on women, especially those belonging to SC/ST, minorities and other marginalized groups. Women are engaged in large numbers as volunteers and instructors to encourage women learners to participate in the programme. A noteworthy feature of the programme is the vibrant participation of the State Governments, PRIs and the communities. Monitoring and evaluation systems have been incorporated. Further, women are engaged in large numbers as volunteers and instructors to encourage women learners to participate in the programme.

In spite of all the sincere efforts taken by the state and central government through various schemes over six decades, the plight of women in terms of education is still in the state of an enigma in India.

Conclusion

As various socio-cultural and economic factors such as dowry, child marriage, poor enrolment, high drop-out, caste system, poverty and other practices deprive rights of education for girls particularly belonging to poor and underprivileged families; they should be eliminated through well-designed social welfare measures involving public, political parties, NGOs and government agencies. Also there should be an efficient monitoring system to ensure proper implementation of the welfare schemes launched from time to time by the Government to assure free and compulsory education for all children.

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Buffering Delinquency and Crime:
Litmus Test of Juvenile Justice

Atul Gautam

It's been a year when the Rajpath of Lutyen's Delhi was flooded with youth, moved by an unknown anger and almost equally oppressive and confused State Government. The winter of Delhi was heated by Candle light Marches and water cannon beams courtesy Untrained "Men in Uniform". Never in the history of IT in India, the Social Media has been used for an Unknown Girl, but for an Omnipresent Fear, lived by half of the population, across the Globe. "Rape" was at the core of discussion like never before. The Law was amended, the policies were in place, a swift action by the police lead to the arrest of all the accused and fast track special court announce the sentence. Death was pronounce for four convicted but not for the youngest one. He had survived because he was few months short of being eighteen years of age.

Though the case is still pending in the court of law, and News Channels are busy discussing the punishment for the juvenile. Almost a year late, 50 years jail imprisonment is announced for a 10 year old boy in Pakistan for murder of a under trail. This article is not an attempt to compare the cold blooded brutal Gang rape to spontaneous act of revenge, spreading fire out of Gun. Neither to go into the Psycho-social study of the juvenile. It is important to do the critical review of the existing Juvenile Justice Act (JJ Act) present in the country. What does it serve to the therapeutic justice system? What are the basic tenets of JJ Act and recent amendments with respect to Correction Center and Shelter Home? Does it serve any purpose to the behavioral correction?

Juvenile Justice

The perception of children has changed over a period of time. Initially a child was recognized as a person, but merely a source of pleasure and joy. By the beginning of the 17th century the second idea of childhood emerged

when the child was perceived as a miniature adult who could be groomed and trained because the belief was that the child was a miniature adult with all the inclinations towards evils and potential for a fallen human nature.[1]

The Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000[2], passed to reform the 1986 Act of Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Rules, 2007 (as amended in 2011)[3], is designed as a comprehensive legal framework by which the Indian government has pledged to alleviate the devastating impact that underdevelopment, poverty, and crime have on children. The Act spells out the government's responsibilities in the care, protection, and the development of neglected children, and also tackles issues related to crime prevention and the rehabilitation of juvenile delinquents. The Act has been formulated in pursuance of the international obligations and standards regarding juvenile offenders. The basic principles under the Beijing rules are - (a) that the reaction to juvenile offenders should always be in proportion to the circumstances of both the offenders and the offence; (b) that the placement of the juvenile in an institution should be a disposition of last resort and for the minimum necessity period; (c) that detention pending trial should be used only as a measure of last resort and for the shortest possible period of time; (d) that police officers dealing with juveniles should be specially instructed and trained.[4] Even with the passing of the enactment, child protection in India remains a low priority of the center with an annual allocation of 0.027% of the union budget in 2007-08. The Nithari killing case, increasing child trafficking, malnutrition, child labor, girl child neglect all seem to vindicate the hypothesis that the plight of children in India has remained largely neglected.

Deficiencies in the Act

The preamble of the Act of 2000 and 2007 reads that the Act seeks to amend the law relating to juveniles by providing for proper care, protection and treatment by catering to their development needs, and by adopting a child-friendly approach in the adjudication and disposition of matters in the best interest of children'. Sadly, none of these aims have been fulfilled because of glaring insufficiencies in the Act itself which are not very difficult to point out. Both, in procedural as well as substantive portions, there is a lot that needs to be added to the Act in order that it may actually be useful for the purpose for which it has been established. Some of the very evident loopholes are as following:

Usage of the word 'may'

A lot of the implementation part has been left to the States by way of the rules that the States may formulate. The usage of the word 'may' as far as the framing of rules by the States is concerned, is a major fallacy because until and unless, the formulation of rules is not made mandatory, the implementation of the Act will remain a dream. Section 8 of the Act is an example of the above mentioned problem. According to Section 8 (3) of the Act, the State may formulate rules and standards for the observation homes that are to be established. Leaving something as important as maintenance of standards to the discretion of the State is a major problem and should be made mandatory for the State to regulate such basic areas.

Even the appointment of inspection committees for the children's homes has been left to the discretion of the States and they 'may' constitute such committees according to Section 29. Something as important as after care organizations, to check up on the juveniles who have left the special homes and have been adopted or rehabilitated, has also been left to the discretion of the States according to Section 44. There are several places in the Act where the usage of the word 'may', will wreck havoc with the implementation of the Act.

Extension of period regarding inquiry

Section 14 says that any inquiry regarding a juvenile, needs to be completed within a period of four months unless there are some special circumstances in special cases. There is absolutely no mention of what the maximum period for inquiry should be and what may be the special circumstances under which the period should be extended. This discretion permits cases to languish in the system indefinitely.[5] Section 14 gives a lot of scope for arbitrariness and any lackadaisical attitude on behalf of the Juvenile Justice Board may be sought to be explained as the special circumstances of the cases and hence, they have the option of getting away with it. This is extremely dangerous for a juvenile, in whose case the inquiry should be completed as soon as possible.

Punishment for cruelty to a juvenile

According to Section 23, a person responsible for cruelty to a juvenile will be punished with imprisonment for a period of 6 months or with fine or

with both. It is very strange that at a time when the government is trying to curb the menace of cruelty with juveniles, the punishment that they have prescribed is in no way going to act as a deterrent to such erring individuals. The punishment needs to be increased and also the fine amount needs to be specified so that it may discourage the potential law breakers in this area.

Substantive Issues

Age: Count Beyond Days

The need to pay attention to empirical research findings on children's cognitive capacities has been largely ignored by policy makers, with an inevitable arbitrariness in legislation. During early adolescence, young people's thinking tends to become more abstract, multi-dimensional, self-reflective and self-aware, with a better understanding of relative concepts. Not only do young people become increasingly able to consider the long term consequences of their actions, they also tend to think about such consequences more in terms of their own sense of responsibility and with increased awareness of the effects of their action on other people.[6]Overall crime rates, including crime by juveniles, have greatly risen in the past century.[7]

Offenders being children

A nine year old boy earned the dubious tag of being the country's youngest rapist after raping a six year old girl, in Indra, Kangra. Three ten year olds in a Haryana school were booked for molesting a ten year old girl from the same school.[8]Horrifying incidents like these should force the government to do a rethink on the policies regarding the juvenile offenders.

It is very evident that there is something drastically wrong in the society where such incidents take place. The basic cause of juvenile delinquency and neglect were poverty coupled with lack of parental or societal care, industrialization and slums, bad cinema, substandard education and so on.[9] First, there are explanations based on individual risk factors as genetic influences, low IQ and poor educational attainment. Secondly, it could be because of changes in living conditions and socio-economic factors. Thirdly it could be based on family and socialization factors, including the influence of mass media.[10] Whatever may be the reasons for such behavior by

children, apart from improving the society and the environment in which the children grow, the fact remains that such children need to be dealt with in a manner that ensures that they do not repeat such acts. Apart from looking into the psychology of such children and getting to the root of the problem, it needs to be ensured that theory of deterrence is used which will discourage the other potential offenders.

Offenders being teenagers

Other than the Fact that, the December 16 Nirbhaya case (*SC No. 114/ 2013 FIR No. 413/2012 P.S. :Vasant Vihar, New Delhi*) and its verdict which challenged the notions and the legal framework of JJ Act, a number of other cases grabbed the attention of India. The accused was just few months to 18 years of age. The 2007 case of the gruesome murder of a 16 year old boy, Adnan Patrawala, by his teenager friends, who later pleaded delinquency is a very important case as far as the age is concerned. In a very recent case of a similar kind, a 17 year old boy was kidnapped and killed by his close friends for money.[11] Section 2 (k) of the Act has defined a juvenile as anyone below 18 years of age. This section will protect the offenders in the above mentioned cases because they were below the age of 18 years.

The logic behind the existence of the Act was to protect the juveniles because they were not supposed to have the necessary mental element required to commit crimes. This is the reason behind having milder laws and punishments to deal with juvenile offenders. However, in the above mentioned cases, it is very evident that the offenders had the necessary knowledge and mental element regarding the commission of the crime. During the debate regarding the Act, Smt. Lakhanpal said that the problem of delinquent children 'is a difficult one and not understandable for all. The tendency of these children is corrupt, morbid and quite different from the ordinary ones. They have extraordinary leanings for crime. It is an essential, though difficult task to make them good citizens.[12] It is not fair that an offender of 19 years of age get life imprisonment for a murder while an individual of 17 years of age gets away with a minor punishment.

Need for the policy of waiver

In Nirbhaya's Case[13], other than that socio-economic condition, which anyway, does not justify the gruesome act, was overlooked alongwith the peer group he (accused) owned. In Reepak Ravindran[14]case, the 15 year

old boy was convicted for rape of a 7 year old girl. The fact that the boy was working in a lodge where he was exposed to the acts of adults, and blue films while serving guests were considered as mitigating circumstances leading to the commission of offence. Even if the crime is shocking to the conscience and the conduct abhorring, still Section 22, being aware of it, provides for keeping them in safe custody.[15] In case the offence was serious or the child is of depraved nature, the courts suggested that the appropriate course for the juvenile courts was to send the matter to the government[16] for deciding the term of detention.[17]

The concept of waiver has been extensively used in the United States of America. There exists an underlying acceptance that juveniles who engage in felonious offences should be treated as adults, because the harm to society committed by youths is identical to harm committed by adults.[18] There are three kinds of waiver- legislative waiver, judicial waiver and prosecutorial waiver. In case of legislative waiver, the legislature excludes certain crimes from the jurisdiction of the juvenile court. Some crimes such as murder, rape, etc. are so severe that no leniency should be shown to the offenders. In judicial waiver, the juvenile court judge has the discretion to waive of the jurisdiction of the juvenile court keeping in mind the nature of offence, age of offender and the past record of the juvenile. The same powers are given to the prosecutor in case of prosecutorial waiver.[19] In most states judges decide whether a youth is a criminal or a delinquent in a waiver hearing and base their discretionary assessments on a juvenile's 'amenability to treatment' or' dangerousness'.[20] Legislatures increasingly use age and offence criteria to redefine the boundaries of adulthood, coordinate juvenile transfer and adult sentencing practices, and reduce the 'punishment gap'.[21] There are some juveniles who are extremely dangerous to others and who do not appear to be amenable to rehabilitation. Most of the states have established mechanisms for transferring or waiving jurisdiction to adult courts in such cases.[22]India needs to include something on the lines of waiver in the Act in order to take care of juveniles committing serious offences and also in cases where the juvenile is a teenager and well aware to understand the implications of his act. An assessment of a minor's level of competency should constitute the first legal decision so decide the manner in which the minor should be treated. To promote a more coherent juvenile justice policy, and to permit alternatives to the current system to be implemented, a different rhetoric should be developed, based on the competency and responsibility of individual juveniles.[23]

The Juvenile Justice (Care And Protection Of Children) Amendment Act, 2011

In order to meet the implementation challenges this is an Act further to amend the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000. As enacted by Parliament in the Sixty-second Year of the Republic of India as Short title and commencement –

1.   This Act may be called the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Amendment Act, 2011. It come into force on such date as the Central Government notified in the Official Gazette, appoint.

2.   Amendment of section 48.- In the Juvenile Justice (Care and Protection of Children) Act, 2000 (56 of 2000) (hereinafter referred to as the principal Act), in section 48, sub-section (2) shall be omitted.

3.   Substitution of new section for section 58.-For section 58 of the principal Act, the following section shall be substituted, namely – 58. (1)

Where it appears to the competent authority that any juvenile or child kept in a special home or an observation home or a children's home or a shelter home or in an institution in pursuance of this Act, is a mentally ill person or addicted to alcohol or other drugs which lead to behavioral changes in a person, the competent authority may order his removal to a psychiatric hospital or psychiatric nursing home in accordance with the provisions of the Mental Health Act, 1987 (14 of 1987) or the rules made there under. (2)

In case the juvenile or child had been removed to a psychiatric hospital or psychiatric nursing home under sub-section (1), the competent authority may, on the basis of the advice given in the certificate of discharge of the psychiatric hospital or psychiatric nursing home, order to remove such juvenile or child to an Integrated Rehabilitation Centre for Addicts or similar centres maintained by the State Government for mentally ill persons (including the persons addicted to any narcotic drug or psychotropic substance) and such removal shall be only for the period required for the inpatient treatment of such juvenile or child.

Explanation -For the purposes of this sub-section, - (a) "Integrated Rehabilitation Centre for Addicts" shall have the meaning assigned to it under

the scheme called "Central Sector Scheme of Assistance for Prevention of Alcoholism and Substance (Drugs) Abuse and for Social Defence Services" made by the Government of India in the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment or any other corresponding scheme for the time being in force; (b) "mentally ill person" shall have the meaning assigned to it in clause (l) of section 2 of the Mental Health Act, 1987 (14 of 1987); (c) "psychiatric hospital" or "psychiatric nursing home" shall have the meaning assigned to it

in clause (q) of section 2 of the Mental Health Act, 1987 (14 of 1987).'.

Procedural Issues

More than the substantive issues, it is the procedural issues that have played spoilsport for the Act. Lack of properly trained officials and allocation of proper funds have been responsible for the widespread violations of the Act. Judicial officers are not used to being overshadowed by social workers while dealing with persons committing offences, nor are the social workers familiar with the idea that their opinion counts as much as that of the magistrate's. In addition, the magistrates usually do not have occasion to acquire special knowledge of child psychology and welfare, which is an essential qualification under the Act, before being appointed to the Board.[24]Social workers need to know the laws applicable to children lest the magistrates subdue them. The members of the committee, too, need to know the scheme and provisions of the Act under which they operate. Complete knowledge regarding the various laws applicable to the juveniles is required. Special training of police officers in each police station is essential for the special juvenile/child welfare officers and special juvenile police units in each district to discharge their duties effectively.[25] Rather than avoiding harm, police interactions with juveniles tend to involve abusive interrogation techniques, sometimes bordering on torture.

Jurisprudential Analysis

Two distinct reasons compel a re-examination of juvenile justice jurisprudence:

1.   There do exist systems where either juvenile justice has not fully evolved, or a common understanding of the concept is lacking.

2.   Even in advanced countries serious doubts and rethinking is under way in the field that is manifest in the process of "Re-criminalizing Delinquency" and measures like juvenile justice jurisdiction, waiver provisions and statutes.[26]

The Convention on the Rights of the Child provides an elaborate catalogue of children's rights that can be grouped into four main categories. They are Right to Survival, Right to Protection, Right Participation, and Right to Development.

The rights impose obligations not only on the state, but also on parents and the community, which means a change in approach: from kindness and charity to children to moral and legal obligations to them.[27] However this system has come in for criticism because like the needs of the children, their rights are also a creation of the adult institutions, in which children have no say eventhough they have a positive contribution in the construction of their own lives and in the lives of others. Applying John Rawls' theory of justice, which is about equality of opportunity and the difference principle[28], it would be perfectly in order not to grant to children same liberty rights as adults, but they ought to be accorded protection rights and rights based on needs.[29] Therefore, all children should be provided with resource and opportunities that will allow them to develop their freedom since not being able to participate effectively in taking choices that governs one's life would be a capability deprivation since both material and political control over one's environment is a central human capability.[30]

Essentially, there are three components to the juvenile justice system: They are 1) identify the patterns of thinking that have led the child to perform acts of crime and violence in the past and that pose a risk of such behaviors in the future; 2) learn specific skills for intervening in and controlling these patterns of thinking; and 3) summarize these patterns and interventions in the form of a plan for controlling their high-risk thinking in the community.[31]

Conclusion

The story of the Juvenile Justice Act is one of broken promises and dashed hopes.[32] Passing of the bills without the necessary resources is merely eyewash as implementation is the crux of the matter.[33] The general quality of juvenile justice remains coarse and arbitrary with little regard for fairness and justness to the juvenile concerned.[34]Though the concept of

juvenile justice comprises two important ideas, viz., fairness or justness to children and alternative standards of administering justice, there is preoccupation with the second idea due to the utilitarian grounds of serving the public.[35]

As of now, the Government of India has made a serious note of the Justice Verma Committee report that will hopefully offer solutions to the present problems. The Ministry of Women and Child Development is creating Model Rules as an addendum to the Juvenile Justice Act, with the intention that all states will adopt and comply with them. These rules will hopefully take care of all the inadequacies of the Act, and will provide for set guidelines regarding the implementation of the Act. The Ministry is also overhauling the Department of Women and Child's organizational structure and policy, creating an Integrated Child Protection Scheme ("ICPS"). The Rules advocate for a stronger relationship between NGOs and government agencies, an acknowledgement of the positive impact NGOs can have within the Observation Homes and throughout the system. The Integrated Child Protection Scheme will hopefully address implementation concerns, through an entirely new bureaucratic structure and increased expenditures for child protection.

Three different justifications have been advanced for a separate juvenile system:[36] They are 1) compared to adults, children are more treatable; 2) compared to adults, children are less culpable; and 3) compared to adults, children are less deterrable.

All these criteria need to be utilized to ensure that the objective of the separate juvenile justice system is fulfilled. It has been discovered that deterrence-based interventions do not have their quisite effects on children and it is therefore better to go in for reformative justice. In order to have effective functioning of the juvenile justice system, there must be close coordination between police, magistracy and social services. The involvement of NGO's in the juvenile justice system is a boon as they seem to be more aware of ground realities and problems facing the children.[37] Mental health and juvenile justice systems must work together to address the psychological components of rehabilitating delinquent youth. Therapeutic jurisprudence, which lies in the use of community based programmes for the mentally ill juvenile offenders, needs to be applied in the juvenile justice system.[38] Fairness and justness to children does not only demand that their liability ought to be diminished, but also ordains that they must be subject to

protective and restorative measures as are most conducive to their reintegration into the society.[39]It needs to be ensured that the child does not end up getting the worst of both the worlds; he gets neither the protections accorded to adults nor the solicitous care nor regenerative treatment postulated for children.[40]

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Status of Implementation of the Right to Education Act in Southern States of India: A Comparative Analysis

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Deepa Neeli

Education is one of the primary agents of transformation towards development. It is an activity, or a series of activities, or a process which may either improve the immediate living conditions or increase the potential for future living. It plays an important role in bringing tangible benefits by developing the skills of the people. The emerging knowledge based economy and rapid technological changes have placed education systems all over the world under tremendous pressure. Economic and social progress in the coming years will depend on the quality of human resources and educated people. The education system in India also is in the midst of this situation and demands structural reforms. To make this a reality, a positive beginning was made by the Government of India and the Right to Education Act (RTE Act), was passed by the Indian Parliament on August 4, 2009. The Act describes the modalities having the provision for Free and Compulsory Education for Children between 6-14 years under Article 21A of the Indian constitution. The basic theme of free education implies that the children of prescribed age-group shall be exempted from any fees, charges or expenses for pursuing elementary education. However, this free and compulsory elementary education is restricted to education from class first to eight only. The Act is having 37 sections which are part of 7 chapters and one schedule.

Despite the enactment of the RTE Act, today more than 7 million children who should be in the schools are still out of school and are sweating in and out in farms and factories as child labourers. India has the second largest education system in the world after China. Indeed, over one third of population below is 18 years of age constituting 19% of the world's children reside in India. Every third illiterate person in the world is an Indian. The number of girls not attending schools in the 6-11 years age-group is high in number. This is still higher in tribal communities. There are problems relating to drop-out rate, low level of learning achievement and low participation of girls, Scheduled Tribes and other disadvantaged groups. This Act provides 25%

reservation of seats in all schools for the poor children of disadvantaged and economically weaker sections of the society, including the private unaided schools in the neighbourhood.

The experience however, shows that the RTE Act is not being implemented in all seriousness in letter and spirit. The Act was also called as "Harbinger of New Era" by the then Minister of Human Resource Development, Shri Kapil Sibal and was welcomed by the child rights organizations. RTE Act puts emphasis on quality of education which has been considered as an integral part of right to education. Chapter V of the RTE Act enumerates some terms and norms under which the quality of elementary education is to be ensured, i.e. adequate teacher-pupil ratio (1:30 ratio specified in the Act), mother tongue should be the medium of instruction as far as possible, development of various skills in child, good and effective infrastructure, qualified and competent teachers and advanced evaluation methods, etc.

The success of any legislation or Act lies in its implementation. The Act has been put in to implementation with effect from April 1, 2010 and what should be achieved before March 2013 is given below:

- Section 6 of the RTE Act states that the local authority and the appropriate government shall ensure that there is a school in every neighborhood within a period of 3 years from the commencement of the Act.
- Section 19 of the Act states that where a school, established before the commencement of the Act, does not fulfill the norms and standards specified in the schedule, it shall do so within a period of 3 years from the commencement of the Act.
- Every school must fulfill the norms and standards specified in the schedule of the Act. These norms and standards include:
- Pupil-Teacher Ratio norms;
- All weather proof building;
- At least one classroom for every teacher;
- Barrier free access;
- Office-cum-Head Teacher's room;
- Separate toilets for boys and girls;
- Safe and adequate drinking water facility for all the children;

- Arrangements for securing the school building by boundary wall or fencing;
- Kitchen shed where mid-day meal is cooked in the school;
- Library providing Newspaper, magazines and books on all subjects, including story books;
- Teaching-learning equipments to be provided to every class, as required;
- Play material, games and sports equipments to be provided to every class, as required.

It has been clarified by the Union Government vide guideline dated October 26, 2012, that it is not necessary to have a playground within school premises. However, schools must provide alternative arrangements in the nearby parks for children to play outdoor games and other physical activities.

Demography in Southern States of India
Figure No.1: Demographic Indicators
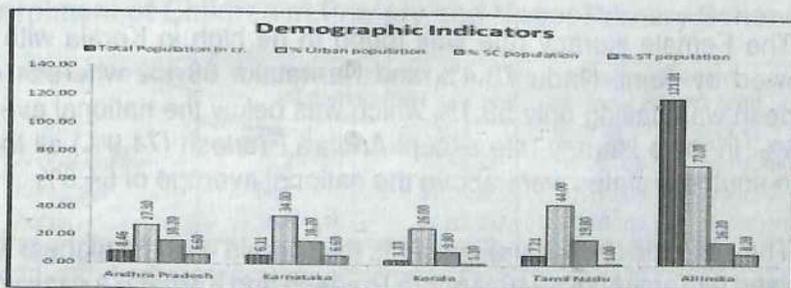
Source: Census 2011

The demographic indicators as per Census 2011 in the four southern states show that highest percentage of population was in Andhra Pradesh with 8.46 crore followed by Tamil Nadu 7.21 crore and Karnataka 6.11 crore whereas in Kerala the population was 3.33 crore. The percentage of urban population was found to be high in Tamil Nadu (44%) followed by Karnataka (34%), Andhra Pradesh (27.3%) and Kerala (26%). At the same time the Scheduled Caste population was high in Tamil Nadu (19%) and the Scheduled Tribe population was high in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka with 16.2% each.

Literacy Rate
Figure No. 2: Literacy Rate in Southern States

Literacy Rate in Southern States
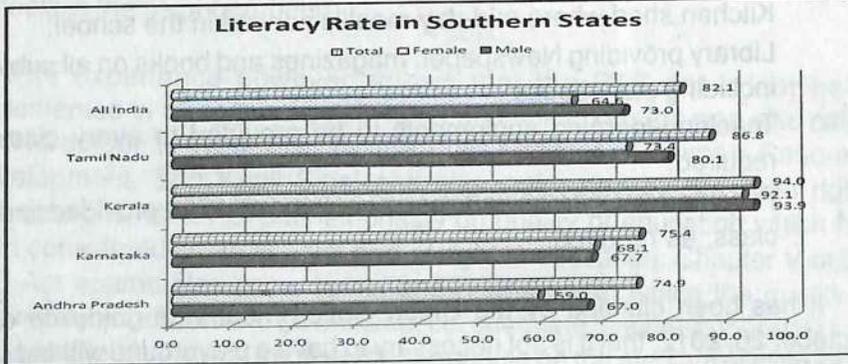
Source: census 2011

The literacy rate as per 2011 Census figures in the four southern states reveals that Kerala was having the highest with 94% followed by Tamil Nadu with 80.1% and Karnataka 75.4% whereas Andhra Pradesh was having only 67% which was below the national literacy rate of 73%.

The Female literacy rate was found to be high in Kerala with 92.1% followed by Tamil Nadu 73.4% and Karnataka 68.1% whereas Andhra Pradesh was having only 59.1% which was below the national average of 64.6%. In male literacy rate except Andhra Pradesh (74.9%) all the other three southern states were above the national average of 64.6%.

The sex ratio (0-6 years) indicates that Kerala was the highest with 959 followed by Tamil Nadu 946, Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka each with 943. It is to mention here that in sex ratio (0-6 years) all the four southern states were above the national average of 914.

Analysis of Implementation of Right to Education Act in Four Southern states

Legislations and Notifications related to RTE

The Implementation of RTE in all the four southern states indicates that state rules related to the Right to Education Act have been notified and Constitution of *State Commission for Protection of Child Rights* (SCPCR) and *Rules for Educator Preparation and Accountability* (REPA) and Academic

authority have also been notified. Policy on eight year schooling is already in place in Tamil Nadu whereas in Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Kerala it is still in the process. In all the four states the notification has already been issued with regard to the rules on no corporal punishment, no board examination upto the elementary level, ban on screening procedure and capitation fees and minimum working days and instructional hours.

Implementation of RTE in India: Status for four years

The status of implementation of RTE across India in 4 years of implementation reveals that majority of the states have notified the rules and other legislations related to academic authority, no detention, no corporal punishment, no board examination and minimum working days and instructional hours. However, in many states, the constitution of SCPCER and REPA has not taken place.

Enrolment of children

Table – 1
Enrolment of Children at Primary and Upper Primary Schools

S.No	Name of the State	Total enrollment at primary level		Total enrollment at Upper Primary level	
		2009-10	2013-14	2009-10	2013-14
1	Andhra Pradesh	72,29,193	72,18,831	36,22,055	38,70,384
2	Karnataka	54.18,842	53,52,623	22,17,903	29,70,933
3	Kerala	19,87,815	24,82,397	13,68,183	16,19,549
4	Tamil Nadu	61,90,928	57,69,685	37,33,633	36,26,756
	All India	13,34,05,581	13,24,28,440	5,44,67,415	6,64,71,219

Source: District Information System for Education (DISE) data

The enrolment after four years of implementation of RTE indicates that in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka compared to 2009-10 there found to be a drop in the year 2013-14 at primary level but there was a substantial increase in upper primary level. In Kerala there was an increase in the enrollment both at primary and upper primary level in 2013-14. In Tamil Nadu there was a decrease in the number both at primary and upper primary level.

Girl Child Enrolment

Table - 2
Percentage of girls to total Enrolment during 2009-10 to 2013-14

S.No	State	Percentage of Girls to total enrolment			
		Primary		Upper Primary	
		2009- 10	2013-14	2009-10	2013-14
1	Andhra Pradesh	49	49	49	49
2	Karnataka	48	48	48	48
3	Kerala	50	49	49	49
4	Tamil Nadu	49	49	48	49
	All India	48	48	48	49

Source: District Information System for Education (DISE) data

The percentage of girls to total enrolment at primary and upper primary level reveals that Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka have maintained the same level both in 2009-10 and 2013-14. However, in Kerala the percentage of girls to total enrollment in primary schools was one percentage point less in 2013-14 in comparison to 2009-10 but in upper primary the same percentage has been maintained both in 2009-10 and 2013-14. With regard to Tamil Nadu the percentage was same in both the years as far as primary level is concerned but in upper primary level there found to be one percentage point increase in 2013-14.

Enrolment of Children belong to Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

The percentage of enrolment of Scheduled Castes children to total enrolment among the four southern states reveals that Tamil Nadu is on top with 24% followed by 19% each in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. Kerala has 9% which is lower than the national average (20%). As far as percentage of enrolment of Scheduled Tribes children is concerned, Andhra Pradesh has the highest percentage of enrolment with10% followed by 8% in Karnataka, 2% each in Kerala and Tamil Nadu.

Quality of Teachers

Quality is the integral part of the RTE Act. Part V of the RTE Act clearly indicates the terms for ensuring quality of elementary education. The quality

includes a comfortable Pupil-Teacher Ratio, curriculum reform and improvement in evaluation methods.

1)   Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)

The prescribed Pupil-Teacher Ratio under RTE in primary schools is 1:30. The PTR in Elementary schools in India is 26 which reveal that it is less than the prescribed PTR. It has been found that in Kerala the ratio is 1:15, Tamil Nadu 1:18, Andhra Pradesh 1:21 and Karnataka 1:26. The percentage of primary schools with PTR less than 30 is high in Andhra Pradesh 20% followed by Tamil Nadu (15%), Karnataka (8%) and Kerala (4%).

The percentage of Upper primary schools with PTR less than 35 at the national level in the year 2009-10 was 36% which decreased to 31% in the year 2013-14. However, it was 15% in Tamil Nadu which is considered as high, followed by 14% in Karnataka, 13% in Andhra Pradesh and 7% in Kerala. Except Andhra Pradesh in all the southern states the percentage of upper primary schools with PTR less than 35 have decreased when compared to the situation in 2009-10. Whereas in Andhra Pradesh it is reverse and the percentage of schools have increased from 9 to 13.

2)   Teacher trainings

The Act specifies that the schools should have qualified teachers and also makes way for teachers to receive training to enable them to acquire the requisite qualifications within a period of 3 years. Teacher's preparation and organizing teaching and learning, current knowledge and experience are important factors contributing towards teacher effectiveness. The in-service teacher training helps the teachers to be more systematic and logical in their teaching style. The government and aided schools in all the four southern states have qualified teachers.

The percentage of teachers with professional qualification is found to be high in Tamil Nadu and Karnataka with 99% followed by Andhra Pradesh and Kerala with 98%.With regard to single teacher schools the national average is 8% whereas among the four southern states Andhra Pradesh is having 16% single teacher schools followed by 7% in Karnataka and Tamil Nadu and Kerala with 2%.

Availability of total teachers in government and aided schools during 2009-2014 indicates that there was a decrease in number of teachers in all the four states. National average also indicates decrease in number of teachers available in schools despite the teacher recruitment in many states as per the requirement under RTE.

The RTE directs each State to identify an academic authority which will determine and improve curriculum, evaluation and training. The four southern states have notified the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT) as the academic authority which organize teacher training programmes. But there is a need to revisit the minimum qualifications required for teachers and also there is a need to re-look into and in-service teacher training programmes through proper institutionalization and arrangements in consonance with the National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (NCFTE), 2015.

3) Improvement of Evaluation

In all the four southern states the improvement of evaluation has taken place with full coverage of continuous comparative evaluation. Teachers have been given training on the implementation of continuous comparative evaluation. At the national level 32 States/Union territories are implementing continuous comparative evaluation in Elementary Schools as per RTE Act.

4) School working hours as per RTE

In Tamil Nadu the school working hours are 46, whereas, the other three states Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka and Kerala the working hours are 42. However, as per RTE norms the school should function 200 days and 800 instructional hours for Classes 1-5, and 220 days and 1000 instructional hours for Classes 6-8.

5) Attendance rate of Teachers

Teacher's attendance plays an important role in implementing the classroom instruction and delivery of quality of education. The average attendance rate of teachers at primary level indicates that in Tamil Nadu it is 89, Andhra Pradesh 86, Kerala 84 and Karnataka 80, whereas, at the national level it is 84. In case of upper primary teachers attendance rate it is high in Tamil Nadu with 85, followed by Andhra Pradesh 84, Kerala 80 and Karnataka 79. The average rate at all India level is 81. On the whole in Tamil Nadu the

teacher's average attendance rate in both Primary and Upper Primary schools is better than the other three states.

6) School Management Committees

To encourage the parent and community participation is school activities and improvement, the RTE Act has a provision for the schools to form School Management Committee (SMC) with at least 75% parents of children in the school of which 50% should be mothers. SMC's are to be empowered to monitor the performance of schools and make use of school grants, prepare school development plans and fulfill other functions prescribed by the state government. In Andhra Pradesh 97% of schools have SMCs followed by 94% in Tamil Nadu, 90% in Karnataka and 73% in Kerala.

Physical Infrastructure in Elementary schools of four southern states
a)   Availability of teachers

The available data indicates that during the period 2009 to 2014 there was a decrease in the number of elementary schools in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka. The number of schools in Andhra Pradesh was 83,235 in 2009-10 which decreased to 78,231 in 2013-14. Similar situation has been seen in Karnataka also where the number has decreased from 49,018 to 48,945. In Kerala there found to be an increase in the number of elementary schools from 11,863 in 2009-10 to 12,333 in the year 2013-14 and the same trend is observed in Tamil Nadu which has shown an increase from 44,040 in 2009-10 to 45,397 during 2013-14. The details are shown in Table below:

Table -3
Elementary Schools under Government and Aided management in the southern states

S.No	Name of the State	No. of Elementary Schools (Govt+Aided)	No. of Elementary Schools (Govt+Aided)
		2009-10	2013-14
1	Andhra Pradesh	83,235	78,231
2	Karnataka	49,018	48,945
3	Kerala	11,863	12,333
4	Tamil Nadu	44,040	45,397
	All India	11,20,968	11,61,789

Source: **District Information System for Education** (DISE) data

b)   Student Classroom Ratio (SCR)

Student Classroom Ratio is an important indicator of infrastructure facility in schools under Right to Education Act. The data reveals that the there is a decrease in SCR in three southern states as well as at national level also. In Andhra Pradesh the SCR in 2009-10 was 24 which decreased to 22 in 2013-14 followed by Kerala which decreased from 27 to 24 and Karnataka from 25 to 22 where as in Tamil Nadu the SCR is found to be stable with 27 both in 2009-10 and 2013-14. The SCR at all India level shows a downward trend - 32 in 2009-10 decreased to 28 in 2013-14.

The percentage of Primary schools with SCR>30 at the national level is 40 in the year 2009-10 and decreased to 25 in the year 2013-14. This percentage of schools is also decreased in all the four southern states. In Andhra Pradesh it decreased from 32 to 20 followed by Tamil Nadu from 16 to 11, Kerala 12 to 5 and Karnataka 8 to 5. The highest decrease of percentage is seen in Andhra Pradesh.

The percentage of Upper primary schools with SCR>35 at the national level is 36 in 2009-10 which decreased to 31 in the year 2013-14. Similar decrease is seen in Kerala from 23 to 21 followed by Karnataka from 22 to 12. However, the percentage of Upper Primary schools with SCR>35 has increased in Andhra Pradesh from 30 to 34 and Tamil Nadu it was 30 to 34 during the year 2013-14. The details are given in the Table below:

Table-4
Student Classroom Ratio during the year 2009-10 to 2013-2014

S.No	Name of the State	Student classroom ratio SCR	Student classroom ratio SCR	%primary school with SCR>30	%Primary school with SCR>30	%Upper primary schools with SCR>35	%Upper primary schools with SCR>35
		2009-10	2013-14	2009-10	2013-14	2009-10	2013-14
1	Andhra Pradesh	24	22	32	20	27	32
2	Karnataka	25	22	8	5	22	12
3	Kerala	27	24	17	5	23	21
4	Tamil Nadu	27	27	16	11	30	34
	All India	32	28	40	25	36	31

Source: District Information System for Education (DISE) data

c)   Other infrastructure facilities in Elementary schools

The Act specifies that school building should be an all-weather proof structure and should include an office-cum-store for the Head Teacher, separate toilet for boys and girls, a kitchen for cooking the mid-day meal and students should have access to safe drinking water, library, playground and barrier free access.

Among the four southern states, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka show 100% schools have drinking water facility followed by 99% in Kerala, and 91% in Andhra Pradesh. The average percentage of schools which have water facility at the all India level is 95%. In providing separate toilet facilities for girl children in schools Karnataka stands first with 100% whereas Andhra Pradesh it is only 57%. The national average is 85%.

Provision of Ramp facility for *barrier free access to children with special needs* (CWSN) in the schools shows that Karnataka and Kerala have 91% each followed by 85% Tamil Nadu and only 69% in Andhra Pradesh. The national average in this regard is 82%.

With regard to playground facility Tamil Nadu is top among the four southern states with 76% followed by 71% in Kerala and 63% in Karnataka. Andhra Pradesh stands last with 57% which is less than the national average of 58%.

The provision of kitchen for cooking mid-day meal indicates that in Tamil Nadu 95% of the schools have kitchen sheds followed by Karnataka with 94%, Kerala 85% and Andhra Pradesh with 74%. At national level 75% schools have provision of kitchen sheds at schools to cook the mid-day meal.

The last but not the least infrastructure facility in the schools under RTE Act is boundary wall. Kerala state shows the highest percentage of schools with boundary wall, i.e. 82% followed by Tamil Nadu with 78% and Karnataka with 73%. However, Andhra Pradesh has only 61% of the schools have boundary walls. At the national level also 62% of the schools have boundary wall.

Challenges in Implementing the RTE Act

A major obstacle behind the implementation of RTE Act, as put forward by the states, is paucity of funds. The center estimated an annual budget of Rs. 231 crores for implementation of the RTE Act. The Expenditure Finance Committee gave it a go-ahead, with Centre-State contribution ratio of 68:32. For states providing 32% of the budget for education is quite heavy and also a burden. Education is a big sector with a number of departments - School Education, Adult Education, Social welfare, Child Welfare, dealing with issues relating to children and addresses many more issues like child labour, out of school children, deprived children, migrant children, etc.

RTE has made compulsory for all aided and unaided private schools to reserve 25% seats of the total elementary education for disadvantaged and economically weaker section children at the entry level. All the four southern states have notified the 25% admission provision in private and unaided schools at entry level but mostly it is followed.

The Act has already made compulsory for all schools to maintain a Pupil-Teacher Ratio of 30:1 but the statistics indicate the maintenance of this ratio and many schools are running with just a single teacher. Many positions for teachers are vacant and maintaining the prescribed PTR uniformly across the schools is a challenge. Effectiveness of a teacher depends on accountability and performance and is directly related to delivery of quality education. Attaining the quality in terms of learning levels of the children, retention and improving the transition rate of children from primary to Upper Primary levels is quite challenging. To improve the teacher effectiveness and motivation of teachers is very important. Institutionalization   of pre-service and in-service training and institutional building is the major challenge and it should be addressed with all seriousness. Involvement of NGOs and community in implementing RTE Act for improving the quality of education is essential in the present situation. Apart from the above the state governments' apathy and their poor economic conditions is another challenge which seriously affect the implementation of RTE Act.

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Making Adult Learning more Interesting and Enjoyable

A S K Ghori

Introduction

Though there has been considerable work done, on continuing development for adults. It is still a challenge at times, to keep the retention level intact of a learner, when knowledge transfer of content or experience needs to happen, only through a lecture mode. As Andragogy is the theory of practice of education of adults and the word being a combination of andro meaning "men" and gogy meaning "to lead"

This article explores in the context of seven principles of Adult learning[1], how different methods apart from conventional lecturing can be used, that can help in making knowledge transfer more powerful and thegrasp ofany concept easy for the recipient and alsoin the process, make the andragogical[2] approach more effective.

Recapitulating the Seven Principles of Adult Learning:

1. Adults must want to learn – Learning can be effective for adults, only when they are able to exercise their independent free will, to direct their learning and have a strong inner motivation to acquire knowledge or a specific skill and make the recipient a good adult learner[3].

2. Adults will learn only what they feel they need to learn- Adults are normally more direct and clear in their expectation from learning, what they want. They always look at relevant content connection and Application and see how the learning is going to help them and make the adult education relevant[4].

3. Adult learning focuses on problems and the problems must be realistic- The approach of adults is more on looking at problems and then finding a solution[5] unlike children who learn skills sequentially.

4. Experience affects adult Learning– As adults have more experience than children. This can be an asset, in the form of applying frameworks and assessing suitability of models. This canalso take the shape of liability, where learners in adulthood [6] may not accept new concepts which they don't think would work, based on their experiences in life.

5. Adults learn best in an informal situation – Adults prefer to learn in an informal situation not necessarily as per a set curriculum but scope defined, by taking responsibility on the need and value of the content based on the goals the learning would achieve. An inviting environment[7] with an active involvement, as a contributing participant will make the learning process efficient.

Now in this context having understood the reason from the above philosophy, andragogical method of learning[8] needs to be customised based on the requirement of learning. The following methods have been suggested to make the learning more effective

•   Story telling: From time immemorial the art of storytelling, has passed on from generation to generation. Though story telling became both popular as a profession as well as an informal[9] way of instilling values to children by telling them stories with morals and also as bed time stories. This still is a very powerful way of imparting knowledge to adults by adult educators[10] by sharing stories which have a link with the context being handled. The popular traditional forms are fairy-tale[11], folktales[12], mythology[13], legends[14], fables[15] etc. It has extended[16] itself to representing history[17], personal narrative political commentary[18] and evolving cultural norms[19]. Contemporary story telling is also used to address educational objectives.

•   Sharing anecdotes[20] and personal experience: Though this is quite close to storytelling this is also a very powerful way of experiential sharing. As lot many types of learning would be more effective when people have to practically handle things and theoretical learning may not help.

•   Playing games- Lot of topics like team building[21], assertiveness[22], communication[23] etc. can be effectively handled through management games which are in built into the learning modules and help in experiencing, the discussed competency in a live

environment. Lot of learning happens in a short span by doing things individually or in groups.

• Teaching each other- Exploring the process of teaching each other, also helps in making the learning process faster, as different topics can be easily handled by different individuals, as they tend to grasp some concepts faster than the othersand are also good at imparting the same to others. Also this being an informal approach to learning has been found to be quite effective also.

• Self-study[24] by reading books and presenting book reviews- This is also a good way of enhancing adult learning ,as lot many people enjoy reading books and it is easier for them to grasp the concept by reading on their own than learning, by enrolling in courses or attending lectures

• Using artistic and creative methods like Theatre[25]- It is a well-known fact that theatre is not only a powerful mode of communication but also a powerful medium of imparting knowledge to people on the theme being discussed or dealt. It has various modes of knowledge transfer which includes audio, visual and also the emotional mode of communication making it more effective.

• Showing videos on the topic of learning- These days lot of learning happens through the process of seeing videos, on the topic that is being taught. This is both very effective and also tends to communicate the message in an entertaining[26] way. Also this is becoming an increasingly interesting way, to help people in developing their knowledge, on the topic of knowledge transfer.

• Using sense of humour[27] as an advantage and break- Monotony of learning can be broken by having sufficient short breaks of humour, with jokes and funny recollections. This helps in calming the mind and introducing a more relaxed demeanour, in grasping lot of content in a short span of time. In case the humour is connected to the tropic being discussed, it can be more effective.

• Implementing assessment[28] as a part of the topic being discussed- This helps in getting continuous feedback, on the learning by the student. Lot of courses have pre- assessment and post –assessment

to strengthen the learning feedback. However having more frequent assessment at various stages of learning, especially if the content is slightly voluminous and one stage of learning is connected to the other stage of learning.It isalso important that he/she has learnt the basic concepts before attempting the advanced concepts and these assessments help in the same.

· Exploring using e-learning[29] modules to strengthen the basic learning process- There are a lot of e-learning modules offered by many educational institutions[30] across the world wherein a learner at his place, pace and convenience can pick up the skill of his choice and build the required competence through an on line mode of education. These courses are quite popular and are known to help people in developing themselves.

Conclusion

Adult learning has evolved a great deal in the last few decades, it is very important to constantly explore, better and smarter methods to transfer knowledge from the facilitator to the participant in the learning process. The article has explored, the various methods of imparting learning and discussed them in depth, explaining the why and how of each method. Care has also been kept, in viewing the seven principles of adult learning constantly.

The list is not a comprehensive list, but would be evolving as time passes and should in no way treated as one. It is the ability of the facilitator to constantly experiment with newer and effective methods and look at exploring and experimenting innovative methods. We are in an era lately, where constantly a trainer or a teacher or a facilitator needs to look at a pull[31] strategy where the trainee or the learner or the student needs to be attracted to what is being transferred or imparted. The days of using a push[32] strategy to learn something or being literally, pushed with content he/she is not interested in absorbing through the lecture mode are gone.

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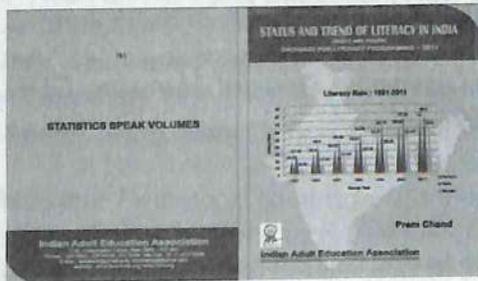
Indian Adult Education Association has brought out recently a book titled **Status and Trend of Literacy in India (Adult and Youth) Database for Literacy Programmes – 2011**. This book has 200 pages with 8 chapters and 17 tables. Annexure also gives district-wise information regarding literates, illiterates and literacy rates by sex and rural/urban areas for the age group 7 and above and illiterates, literates and literacy rates by sex and areas for adolescent (10-19) and youth (15-24) population – 2011.

The price of the book is Rs.800/- (US $ 90) per copy. Purchase order can be made by mail (directoriaea@gmail.com) indicating number of copies required and Demand Draft for total amount sent by post. The Demand Draft be drawn in favour of "Indian Adult Education Association" payable at New Delhi.

Books for Sale

Indian Adult Education Association has published two books - *Adult and Lifelong Learning: Selected Articles* (Edited by Dr.V.Mohankumar) and *Skilling India: Initiatives and Outcomes* (Authored byV.Mohankumar and B.Sanjay). Both the books are for sales and price is Rs.300/- per copy. The discount given is 20% and hence, each book costs Rs.240/- only.
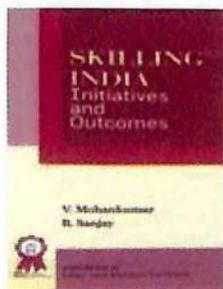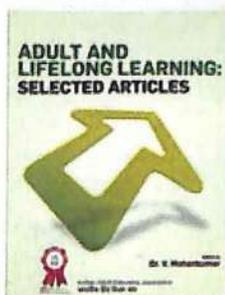
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Indian Adult Education Association, 1939

The Indian Adult Education Association founded in 1939, aims at improving the quality of life through education, which it visualizes as a continuous and lifelong process. It directs its efforts towards accelerating adult education as a process, a programme and a movement.

The Association co-ordinates activities of various agencies – governmental and voluntary, national and international – engaged in similar pursuits. It organizes conferences and seminars and undertakes surveys and research projects; it endeavors to update and sharpen the awareness of its members by bringing to them from all over the world expert views on and experiences in adult education. In pursuit of the policy, the Association has instituted the Nehru Literacy Award and Tagore Literacy Award for outstanding contribution to the promotion of Adult Education and Women's Literacy in the country respectively. It has also instituted Dr. Zakir Husain Memorial Lecture, which is delivered every year by an educationist of eminence.

The Association has brought out many publications on themes related to adult education, including Hindi editions of several UNESCO publications. It brings out the Indian Journal of Adult Education, Proudh Shiksha and IAEA Newsletter.

The Association acts as the Indian arm of the International Council for Adult Education, International Federation of Workers Education Association, International Reading Association and the Asian-South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education. Its membership is open to all individuals and institutions who believe in the aims and objectives of the Association.

It's headquarters is located in Shafiq Memorial at 17-B, Indraprastha Estate, New Delhi – 110 002.