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Editor's Note

ARTICLES

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Editor's Note

From December 2018 a lot of bouncing and punching is going on in India both by the opposition and ruling party which reflect amply that they are getting ready for the cut throat competition in the parliamentary election to be held in April-May 2019 to elect members for the 17th Lok Sabha (Lower House). It is expected that the pace of bouncing may increase in the months to come. Election is not only important for the political parties but also equally important for the general public as once a government is formed it will be for five years unless it is voted out or it is fallen of its own weight. Hence, the onus of selecting the good government rests with the voters. India has already seen 16 parliamentary elections and almost equal number of elections for the state assemblies but the forthcoming one may be totally different as a lot of permutation and combination of parties forming together as bunches which may lead to coalition in the absence of any single party getting majority.

Coalition governments both at centre and states are not new to India. As the Indian National Congress (INC) was leading the freedom struggle, immediately after the country got independence, almost in all elections held INC got majority seats and formed the governments. This facilitated almost smooth functioning of the governments with power that is controlling top to bottom. This scenario changed for the first time in central government when Janata Party, an amalgamation of political parties opposed to emergency imposed between 1975 and 1977 came together to form the government and Morarji Desai became the Prime Minister of a non-congress national government. Unfortunately, this government could not continue for long and hence, Morarji Desai had to resign and Charan Singh became the Prime Minister. But again the government could not complete its five year term due to lack of support by the coalition partners. The general election held in 1989 once again a coalition government was formed under National Front which lasted until 1991 with two Prime Ministers and the 11th parliament produced three Prime Ministers in two years between 15th May 1996 to 4th December 1997 which forced parliament election again.

The same way many coalition governments have been formed in different states which failed to complete the full term of office though some have good success rates like that of Kerala and West Bengal. It is to be noted that the success in these two states was because of likeminded parties coming together to fight the election and forming the government.

However, the first successful coalition government at the national level which completed five year term was by National Democratic Alliance with Atal Bihari Vajpayee as Prime Minister from 1999 to 2004 followed by another government by United Progressive Alliance consisting of 13 separate parties ruled India for two terms from 2004 to 2014 with Manmohan Singh as Prime Minister.

In India whenever election takes place a huge sum is spent by the government for conducting the same along with mobilizing a large number of human resources. Due to code of conduct after the Election Commission of India notifies the date for election, the government can neither announce any new projects/programmes nor can implement new plans for the benefit of the people. Hence, the government machinery will be running very slow at the cost of benefit to common people.

The parliamentary election in 2019 is important as India has made a lot of progress in almost all the fields in the last 15 years which should not go waste in the years to come. Hence, it is the prime responsibility of the voters to choose a stable government which is able to carry forward the development of the country and people to further heights so that the country moves stead fast in the path of progress.

Dr.V.Mohankumar

Review of Adult Education in India Since 1951

R.P. Singh
Jagdish Singh

Education plays an important role in the all-round development of human being. It is crucial for sustained national growth and development of any nation-state. It is a unique investment in the present as it ensures the safety of the future. Every nation-state develops its own system of education to express and promote its unique socio-cultural as well as economic and political identity besides meeting the challenges of time to leverage the existing opportunities and realizing its strengths. For that purpose all the stages of education viz. Pre-Primary, Primary, Secondary, Tertiary, Vocational and Adult Education need to be emphasized as per the requirement of our population.

Adult education is more accurately defined thus: 'Adult education begins where vocational education leaves off'. Adult education offers some, who were not privileged, a last chance to learn. Some feel a need for training in basic skills of learning so they enrol for learning, reading, writing and arithmetic. If we examine this definition we will find the following essential elements that characterize adult education: (i) It is post-vocational education; (ii) It is education for the deprived classes; and (iii) It is training in basic skills of learning i.e. literacy (Lindeman, 1961).

"Adult education is part time or full-time education for men and women of all ages either organized by themselves or provided by schools, learning centres, or other agencies which enable them to improve their general or professional knowledge, skills and abilities by either continuing their education or resuming their initial or incomplete education of previous years (Reddy, 2000).

Adult education includes formal, non-formal and informal education which is imparted to the learners who are self-motivated and have some prior experience. They have a special motive to learn just reading, writing or arithmetic or to train themselves for some particular skill that can provide them opportunities in earning their livelihood. Adult education is beyond literacy and may be called as literacy+. This may include life-long education, continuing education, out of school children's education, education for the special focus and marginalized groups, street children, workforce and others.

Historical Background of Adult Education in India since 1951

Adult education was conceptualized as "social education" in 1948, envisioned so by the then Union Education Minister Maulana Abul Kalam Azad for whom education for adults had to go beyond the concept of educating the adults; rather it had to be geared toward overall social development. He laid more emphasis on the

development of production power in all the educated minds and among the masses. The Central Advisory Board of Education approved the scheme of Social Education in January, 1949 and discussed the same at the 'Conference of Provincial Education Ministers' held in February, 1949 which laid stress on the implementation of the programme by different State Governments. Social education showed significant achievement during 1950's during the first three Five Year Plans (1951-56, 1956-61 &1961-66).

The concept of functional literacy emerged during 1950's, that is, during the Third and Fourth Plan periods. The emphasis on functional literacy was fully endorsed by the Fourth Five Year Plan. The *Programme of Rural Functional Literacy* was associated with the establishment of National Board of Adult Education (1969), Directorate of Adult Education (1971) and launching of Non-Formal Education Programmes. On 2nd October 1978, the Government of India considered that the literacy is crucial for the overall development of the country and gave top priority to adult education and launched the *National Adult Education Programme*(NAEP). The Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90) envisaged the programme for training in functional skills which were thought to be over and above basic literacy skills. The importance of literacy was re-emphasized by the National Policy on Education (NPE), 1986which considered adult education to be a means for reducing economic, social and gender disparities in the country. The Programme of Action (POA), 1992 announced a new *National Programme of Adult Education*(NPAE) which was envisioned to be implemented in a phased manner and was to be a time bound programme, covering approximately 40 million by 1990 and another 60 million by 1995 (totalling the target of covering 10 million).The NPAE was considered essentially as a continuation of schemes of *Rural Functional Literacy Projects* (RFLP), *State Adult Education Programmes*(SAEP) and the *Programme of Assistance to Voluntary Agencies*.

National Literacy Mission (1988)

In order to make the Indian society literate, the Government of India launched the National Literacy Mission (NLM) on May 5, 1988. It was a by-product partly of the National Policy of Education (1986) and largely of evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of the *National Adult Education Programme* (NAEP).It reformulated the goals of imparting literacy to 100 million illiterates by redefining the concept of imparting functional literacy to 80 million adult illiterates in the age group of 15-35 (30 million by 1990 and an additional 50 million by 1995). In order to realise the goal of NLM, a National Literacy Mission Authority (NLMA) was set up as an autonomous body under Ministry of Human Resource Development, Department of Education in June, 1988. In order to realise the goals, the NLM launched various programmes in Mission Mode viz. (i) Mass Programme of Functional Literacy (MPFL), in Area Development Approach viz.(ii) Rural Functional Literacy Programme (RFLP), and (iii) State Adult Education Programme (SAEP).

The Mass Programme of Functional Literacy (MPFL) was started in 1986. The

State Resource Centres (SRCs) and District Institutes of Education and Training (DIETs) were set up in several districts to provide academic and technical resource support to adult education programmes. In the year 1988-89, the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) was launched in order to achieve Total Literacy in the selected pilot areas. It was based on the voluntary approach and involvement of voluntary organizations and National Service Scheme (NSS) units in colleges and universities was ensured in Ernakulam district of Kerala. Meanwhile, the United Nation General Assembly declared 1990 as the International Literacy Year (ILY).The ILY was launched in India on 22nd January, 1990. On 4th February, 1990 Ernakulam was declared as the first Total Literate district in India. Inspired by the successful endeavours in Ernakulam and Kottayam, the Total Literacy Campaign was further taken up in the entire State of Kerala and in April, 1991 the State was declared fully literate.

The success of Ernakulam and Kerala State persuaded the NLM to once again revise its target of making literate 80 million adult illiterates to 100 million by 1999 and to cover all the districts of the country under TLC. Many TLC projects were launched in various parts of the country which produced positive results. The success of TLC opened the door for introduction of Life-long Education Programme. It had three phases (i) Total Literacy Campaign, (ii) Post Literacy Programme (PLP) and (iii) Continuing Education Programme (CEP). The Life-long Education Programme started during 9th Five Year Plan continued throughout 10th Five Year Plan (2002-07) and during Eleventh Five Year Plan (2007-2012) up to September, 2009.

Saakshar Bharat Programme (SBP), 2009

Despite all the efforts of NLM, illiteracy continued to be an area of national concern. Although the precise number of non-literates at that stage was not available, 2001 Census had revealed that there were still 259.52 million (about 26 crore) illiterate adults (in the age group of 15+) in the country. Meanwhile, the Government of India in 2009 announced that literacy would be its key instrument for emancipation and empowerment of women as literate women could play crucial role in decision making. As per 2001 Census, while recorded male literacy was 75.26 per cent female literacy remained at an unacceptable level of 53.67 per cent. The gender gap in literacy was 21.59 percentage points. It was expected that increase in female literacy might become a force multiplier for all other social development programmes. The theme of the 11th Plan was "Inclusive Growth" which was not possible without bridging the gender gap in literacy. Therefore, the Plan was aimed at empowerment of women and in recognition of the fact that literacy, especially female literacy, was a pre-requisite to inclusive socio-economic development it was imperative that NLM was redefined as a programme to act as an instrument meant for focusing more on female literacy. In this context the Government of India declared that the NLM would be recast as **National Female Literacy Mission** with suitably modified strategies which aimed to focus on the empowerment of women and to make increased female literacy a force multiplier to the effort of the Government to give impetus to education

for all, universal coverage in health, nutrition and skill development for the all-round socio-economic development of the country.

The revamped Saakshar Bharat Programme (SBP) was formally launched by the then Prime Minister, Dr. Manmohan Singh, on 8th September, 2009, the International Literacy Day. Its implementation came into effect from 1st October, 2009. It was a revised version of NLM. The programme aimed at further promoting and strengthening adult education, especially of the women. It provided opportunity to those adults, who had lost the opportunity of access to formal education and crossed the standard age for receiving such education, but who now felt a need for learning of any type, including literacy, basic education (equivalency to formal education), vocational education (skill development), physical and emotional development, practical arts, applied science, sports and recreation. The aim of the revised SBP initially was to raise literacy rate to 80 per cent, to reduce gender gap to 10 per cent and minimize regional and social disparities with focus on women, SCs, STs, Minorities and other disadvantaged groups by the end of 11th Five Year Plan. Upon non-achievement of the objectives by the end of the 11th Plan period, the targets remained unchanged for the 12th Plan period also. The SBP had four broader objectives, namely (i) imparting functional literacy and numeracy to non-literates; (ii) acquiring equivalency to formal educational system; (iii) imparting relevant skill development programme; and (iv) promoting a learning society by providing opportunities for continuing education.

Adult Education during the Five Year Plans

Social Education was the priority of the Government in order to implement democracy in its true sense. Adult education was the inbuilt part of Social Education. During the **First Five Year Plan** (1951-56) opening of one Janata College in each of the districts of the country was envisioned in order to train social education workers, community organisers, and administrators. It was also envisaged that when some of these colleges were no longer needed for this kind of training they would be turned into rural colleges which would also serve as community centres.[1] During the **Second Five Year Plan** (1956-61) it was envisioned that the Ministry of Education would establish a "*National Fundamental Education Centre*" (which later became National Education Centre in NCERT) for training social education organisers and for continuing study and research in problems relating to social and basic education including literacy. The entire national extension and community development programme, social welfare extension projects, rural programmes undertaken by Government agencies in cooperation with the people, programmes of voluntary organisations (VOs) like the "Sarva Seva Sangh", the "Bharat Sevak Samaj" and others, the cooperative movement, the village panchayats, etc. were all facets of the nation-wide effort to move towards all-inclusive social education and rural improvement.[2] It was also envisioned that the Plans of State Governments would have provisions for the opening of literacy and social education centres for training of social education workers and organisers, opening of libraries, publication of literature and promotion of audio-visual education along with establishment of more Janata Colleges.

In the **Third Five Year Plan** (1961-66), Social Education continued with emphasis on working together by Social Education Organisers, Block Education Officers and individual educational institutions in order to place the facilities needed at the service of local communities. It was primarily for Panchayat Samitis, Village Panchayats and Voluntary Organisations (VOs) to create and maintain popular enthusiasm and develop adult education and literacy on a continuing basis in a manner related organically to their own needs and conditions[3].The Social Education concept which had done well and tried to consolidate the efforts of various government departments, VOs, Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) and above all the involvement of Community and Panchayati Raj (PR) bodies in order to make a good start in the direction of fulfilment of the objective of development of the literate society in order to strengthen our democratic values. The gear was shifted towards literacy in real sense after the Third Five Year Plan. The Five Year Planning was discontinued in the year 1966 and there were three Annual Plans (1966-69). The Government was forced to declare "Plan Holidays" (1966–67, 1967–68, and 1968–69) due to the miserable failure of the Third Plan. During 1966–67 there was again the problem of drought. The main reasons for Plan Holidays were the Indo-Pakistan war, lack of resources, and increase in inflation. In the year 1968 the "*Farmers' Education and Functional Literacy*" in the '*high-yielding variety*' was started. Thereafter, the concept of *Social Education* was replaced by the Concept of *Adult Literacy*. This was good in the sense that there could now be a focused approach on imparting literacy to illiterates. On the flip side, the momentum created for social development including improvement of literacy, with the involvement of various government departments and NGOs, VOs and others, was arrested. A broader concept of community development through social education was reduced to the smaller concept of adult literacy.

During the **Fourth Five Year Plan** (1969-1974) the initiation of Pilot Projects in Adult Literacy was envisioned in selected districts and the programme was to be extended to other areas in the light of results of the Pilot. It was also envisioned that for the development of the programme assistance would be sought from Industry, from the students working under the National Service Scheme (NSS), and from VOs which would be assisted financially and given technical guidance. The programme of "*Farmers' Education and Functional Literacy*" in the '*high-yielding variety*' was supposed to be extended to 100 districts in order to cover one million adult farmers. It was further envisioned that Adult Education would continue as an integral part of the community development programme. The pilot projects of opening of "*University Departments of Adult Education*" were started for conducting research and organise extension and extra-mural lectures on the subject. The "*National Board of Adult Education*" was set up in 1969 for advising the Government on the development programmes and for enlisting the cooperation of the interests and agencies concerned. The development of television and the experiments with satellite communications were supposed to begin from 1972-73, with significance for education, especially adult education. The Directorate of Adult Education (DAE) was established in 1971 in order to provide resource support and to produce literacy primers for the non-literates and neo-literates.

However, the *Farmer's Functional Literacy Programme* (FFLP) which was in full swing and could cover 144 districts was rolled back and in its place it was thought of bringing another programme on adult literacy in the next Plan. The achievement under FFLP remained short of the target in terms of covering the number of farmers. Since then we have travelled a long way through various Plans and have seen a National Education Policy (1986) which also had placed due emphasis on Adult Education. No nationwide programme could be started in order to cater to the need of Adult Education until the **Fifth Five Year Plan**. It was not until the 2nd October, 1978 that the country could see the launch of its "*National Adult Education Programme*" for the first time. The programme had nationwide coverage and institutional structures to cater to the need of adult education right from grassroots Panchayat level to national level.

The Non-Formal Education Centres were opened as envisioned in the **Sixth Five Year Plan** (1980-85). Though there were no formal targets of enrolments, the total enrolments were around three million as against the expected eight million over the Plan period. Syllabus and instructional materials for use of learners enrolled in non-formal centres were developed following the integrated approach covering areas of health, hygiene, home science, agriculture, physics, chemistry, biology, history, geography and civics. The Sixth FYP indicated the goal of reaching the total literacy in the age-group 15-35 years by 1990. While no definite physical targets were laid down for the Sixth Plan, the adult education programme was to be developed on a large scale for the age-group 15-35 years to combat the problem of illiteracy among the productive segment of the population in general and, in particular, among the rural poor. During the Plan period Central Government funded 386 rural Functional Literacy Projects in the States besides giving assistance to 380 Voluntary Agencies and 49 Universities for running Adult Education Programmes. In addition, there were several programmes of the State Governments towards adult literacy. It was estimated that 20 million adult illiterates were to be covered by these programmes during the Sixth Plan. Fifteen State Resource Centres(SRCs) provided resource support to adult education centres in terms of curriculum formulation, preparation of teaching learning materials, development of methods and media, training of functionaries, monitoring and evaluation, and research and innovation. *Development of learning materials for women and weaker sections was given special attention*[4].

The National Policy on Education, 1986 came during the **Seventh Five Year Plan** (1985-90) which laid down greater emphasis on Adult Education. It was thought during the Seventh Plan that the task of covering all the illiterates in the age-group 15-35 years by 1990 was a formidable task. As motivation of the learner was considered crucial for success and as the number to be covered was about 90 million, the strategy to achieve the goal could only be through launching a mass movement involving social institutions, VOs, students, teachers, employers and the community. Therefore, the Plan was also important in the way it launched the first ever "*National Literacy Mission (NLM)*" in 1988 with very high targets. It was envisioned that active participation of Village Panchayats, Mahila Mandals and Community Centres etc

was essential for achievement of the huge number of illiterates. Employers were required to impart necessary functional education to all their illiterate employees. The programmes of Nehru Yuva Kendras (NYK) and the National Service Scheme (NSS) were also supposed to focus on eradication of illiteracy. The NPE and the Programme of Action (POA) envisaged that the Adult Education Programme (AEP) would cover 40 million (4 crore) illiterates by 1990 and another 60 Million (6 crores) by 1995. With the launching of the NLM in 1988, the targets of NPE were deemed unlikely to be met; therefore, the targets were reformulated and strategies recast. Accordingly, 30 million (3 crores) illiterates were expected to be covered by 1990 and 50 million (5 crores) by 1995.

To achieve these goals, Rural Functional Literacy Programme (RFLP) was launched. Additionally, post-literacy teaching-learning processes were modified; new strategies like area-specific and time-bound approach to achieve Total Literacy (TL) were evolved; massive participation of NGOs and students were ensured; and maximal utilisation of traditional and folk theatre forms in literacy work were effected. By 1991-92, the post-literacy programme was institutionalised in the form of 32,000 Jan Shikshan Nilayams (JSN). Apart from the introduction of Improved Pace and Content of Learning (IPCL) method, which reduced the duration of learning from 500 to 200 hours, technology demonstration programmes were initiated in 42 selected districts. The scheme of Shramik Vidyapeeths (SVs) was reviewed, suggesting a need for expansion. The number of State Resources Centres (SRCs) increased from 19 to 20. A *National Institute of Adult Education* (NIAE) was set up in January, 1991 to augment the technical and academic resource support base to adult education and to undertake quality research and evaluation studies. However, not much of the activities of NIAE have been highlighted, since it is present in the MHRD itself. Area-specific and time-hound mass campaigns for Total Literacy, first launched in Kottayam town and Ernakulam district in Kerala in 1989 with the active participation of students and Voluntary Agencies, was further extended to other districts. By March 1992, 25 districts had achieved total literacy (85 per cent literacy) and TL campaigns remained at different stages of progress in 80 districts in Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Gujarat, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Orissa, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh and West Bengal covering over 3 crore illiterates with the help of about 30 lakh volunteers[5].

The thrust in the **Eighth Five Year Plan** (1992-97) was on sustainability of literacy skills and on remediation. Learning of useful skills and their application in actual living and working situations was emphasised in the programmes. The main strategy emphasised an area-specific approach along with the campaign mode, with particular attention on women, disadvantaged groups and backward rural areas. The NLM along with the State Literacy Missions provided the main mechanisms for the implementation of literacy and post-literacy programmes. The services of NGOs were utilised for various literacy and post-literacy activities, including skill development among the adults. During that Plan, the organisation of campaigns and adoption of areas for intensive work constituted the two main elements of the strategy. The

strategy of total literacy campaign was reviewed in 1993 which envisaged funding the Tribal Area Sub-Plan in the ratio of 4:1 between the Centre and the State Governments, instead of the earlier ratio of 2:1; launching of an Operation Restoration Programme in those districts where total literacy campaign had not taken off due to various reasons. During the Eighth Plan about 75.66 million illiterates were enrolled out of which 40.96 million were estimated to have become literate. The scheme of Shramik Vidyapeeths, which offered specially designed non-formal programmes by integrating literacy, general education and skill training for identified groups, was expanded by establishing 25 new Vidyapeeths during the Plan period. The Centre provided assistance to State Governments for strengthening of administration and to Voluntary Organisations for various activities.

The National Literacy Mission continued in Eighth FYP (1992-97), Ninth FYP (1997-2002), and Tenth FYP (2002-07). By the end of the 10th Plan period, NLM made 127.45 million persons literate, of which, 60 per cent were females, 23 per cent belonged to Scheduled Castes (SCs) and 12 percent to Scheduled Tribes (STs). A total number of 597 districts were covered under Total Literacy Campaigns of which 502 reached Post Literacy stage and 328 reached Continuing Education stage. During the Eleventh Five Year Plan, the programme was revamped as "Saakshar Bharat Programme", which continued till the end of Five Year Plan Era, i.e. March, 2017. However, the programme was extended for another year upto March, 2018 with the provision for Third Party Evaluation and for getting fresh approvals for further continuation.

Saakshar Bharat, the new variant of earlier NLM, had set the following goals: to raise literacy rate to 80 percent, to reduce gender gap to 10 per cent and minimize regional and social disparities, with focus on women, SCs, STs, Minorities, other disadvantaged groups. All those districts, that had female literacy rate below 50 per cent as per Census 2001, including Left Wing Extremism affected districts irrespective of literacy level, were being covered under the programme. The principal target of the mission was to impart functional literacy to *70 million non-literate* adults in the age group of 15 years and beyond. The mission envisaged to cover 14 million SCs, 8 million STs, 12 million minorities & 36 million others. The overall coverage of *women was to be 60 million*.410 districts belonging to 26 States/UTs of the country were identified to be covered under Saakshar Bharat.

Assessment and Certification of Basic Literacy

Basic Literacy implies achievement of self-reliance in Reading, Writing and Arithmetic (Numeracy) and becoming aware of the causes of the one's deprivation. The programme entails identification of non-literates through a survey, area wise mapping of their learning needs and imparting them instructor based teaching of about 300 hrs spread over 3 months or beyond depending on motivation of the learners and local conditions. A volunteer acts as a mobiliser, trainer and teacher and is responsible for imparting literacy to on an average, to 8-10 learners.

Scientific Assessment and Certification of the competency levels of adults is a unique innovation introduced for the first time in the history of literacy movement in India. Only an adult, who conforms to prescribed competency levels in reading, writing and numeracy, is certified as literate. Assessments are conducted through a system developed by the National Literacy Mission Authority (NLMA) in consultation with National Institute of Open Schooling.

Learners are assessed in reading, writing and arithmetic skills. Assessments are also designed to gauge the learner's general awareness, including that of social issues. Learners who score 40% marks in all three components are declared successful and given a certificate jointly by NLMA and NIOS. Candidates who are not able to succeed are given further chances to improve the grade in the skills in which they have not been successful. This type of assessment improves confidence in neo-literates and opens up avenues for them. This also lends robustness and credibility to the programme. Bi-annual assessments are conducted every year on pre-decided dates in the month of August and March. National Institute of Open Schooling has conducted Sixteen rounds of Assessment Tests for Basic Literacy Programme under SBP from August, 2010 to March, 2018 in which 101 Million (10.1 crore) non-literates appeared for certification of which 70.42 per centwere females. Of the 101 million 76.4 million have been successful and certified of which 75.75 per cent are females (Annexure-2)[6] . These figures show that the targets of the programme have been met, albeit six years late.

Critique: High Points and Shortcomings:

(i)   The opening of Janata Colleges during first three Five Year Plans was a good move for involvement of the community and training of Social Development Workers including those involved in Adult Education. However, the fate of those Janata colleges was not known beyond the Third Five Year Plan.

(ii)   The Community Development Programme in first three Five Year Plans was based on the cooperative movements and extension programmes in adult education. Those movements and extension programmes were delinked from their different objectives and goals after the Third Five Year Plan.

(iii)   The momentum created under the Social Education Programme during the first three Plans could not be continued for long and the concept of Social Development which was a holistic community development programme was restricted to adult literacy only.

(iv)   Involvement of Panchayat Samitis, Village Panchayats and VOs to create and maintain popular enthusiasm for the programme of Community Development including Social Education was envisioned during the first three Plans. To some extent the effort was successful, but there were uncertainties in the way of involvement of NGOs, VOs, PR bodies and individual institutions. The mending of ways at different times and different aspirations created a hap hazardous situation in programme implementation and hence

the objectives of bringing literacy through mass involvement were defeated all the time.

(v)   The National Programme for Adult Education (NPAE) was a non-formal education programme. It was the first structured programme with piloted and tested outcomes. The Universities opened Adult Education Departments with different connotations. However, no exemplary work was reported from the University Teaching Departments on Adult Education. Hardly any UG/PG courses on Adult Education were initiated as seen from UGC's list titles of courses.

(vi)   The Farmer's Education and Functional Literacy Programme (FEFLP) was a good move towards achievement of self-sufficiency in food production and ushering in the green revolution. It was also necessary for covering the largest working population of the country by providing them not only the knowledge of 3Rs but also functional knowledge regarding betterment of farm produce by using science and technology. Despite the existence of FEFLP, India could not become self-sufficient in food production and remained far behind many countries in per hectare production in wheat, sugarcane, rice and pulses. The FEFLP or High Yielding Variety Programme was rolled back after its objective of covering 100 districts (later expanded to 146 districts.

(vii)   The National Programme for Adult Education (NPAE) started in 1978 continued for the next 10 years, provided a good institutional structure. The programme was discontinued in 1988 and revamped as a new programme with new administrative structure without caring much for the existing structure. The targets of making 100 million illiterates literate remained unmet after the end of the programme.

(viii) National Institute of Adult Education (NIAE) was set up in January, 1991 to augment the technical and academic resource support to adult education and to undertake quality research and evaluation studies. The fate of NIAE is not known.

(ix)   Area-specific and time-bound mass campaigns for TL first launched in Kottayam town and Ernakulam district in Kerala in 1989 with active participation of students and VOs was further extended to other districts. By March 1992, twenty-five districts had achieved total literacy. The programme was extended to 14 other States covering 3 crore illiterates through 30 lakh Volunteers. Further, Ernakulam experiment could not be scaled up to the expected levels.

(x)   The fate of Jan Shikshan Nilayams (32000 of them) which were meant for providing skill education to neo-literates is not known to anyone. Thereafter came the concept of Shramik Vidyapeeths (polyvalent institutes), which were very few, later rechristened as Jan Shikshan Sansthans (JSSs). More than 250 JSSs has now been transferred to Ministry of Skill Development after March, 2018.

(xi)   Under Saakshar Bharat the breakup of 70 million illiterates (including 60 million women) who were to be covered under the programme was 14 million SCs, 8 million STs, 12 million minorities & 36 million others depending upon

their population share. This was not based on the actual number of illiterates available in each group**.** A total of 410 rural districts belonging to 26 States/UTs of the country were identified to be covered under Saakshar Bharat, although only 404 could be covered. There was a big hole in the scheme as it covered only the rural areas and it left the urban slum areas altogether which altogether have about 50 million illiterates as per Census 2001.

(xii)   Further, the target of making 70 million illiterates literate remained unmet at the end of the 11th Plan (March 2012); therefore, the targets set were totally unrealistic. The targets remained same for the 12th Five Year Plan also. However, as per NIOS data, as against the 101 million illiterates who appeared for learner assessment tests, 76.1 million were declared successful in 18 rounds of tests between August, 2010 to March, 2018. Thus the target of making 70 million illiterates literate appears to have been met, albeit six years late. This shows that the targets set for the 11th and 12thPlan periods were unrealistic.

(xiii)   It was also intended to cover 47.85 million illiterates residing in 1.08 lakh urban slums out of the total 285 million illiterate in Census 2011 - which were left out under the main SBP - through India@75 or Rotary India Literacy Mission with PPP mode in Adult education. Those efforts were started late and were insufficient for larger target groups. To boot, all these efforts have been discontinued after March, 2018 with the termination of scheme period of Saakshar Bharat. Further, if the scheme is again revamped, there is no certainty of finding proper space for the urban literacy initiative which did not take off fully in the first place.

(xiv)   Furthermore, the fate of innovative programmes like *Maulana Azad Taleem-e-Balighan, Electoral Literacy, Financial Literacy, Digital Literacy, Legal Literacy* and *Equivalency* will be difficult to implement in the prevailing scenario.

Literacy beyond the Five Year Plan Period

The country is 71 years old in terms of independence, has its own constitution for 68 years, has seen two National Policies on Education, 12 Five Year Plans and 3 year Annual Plans due to Five Year Plan holidays, 14 Finance Commissions, 2 Education Commissions, 65 Central Advisory Board on Education Meetings (53 since independence), 5 major schemes in Adult Education (Social Development Programme, Farmers' Functional Literacy Programme, National Adult Education Programme, National Literacy Mission and Saakshar Bharat). Yet there are more than 250 million illiterates in the 7+ age group. There is thus a need for serious rethinking and relook at the mistakes committed so far, and a resolve not to repeat the same. Though our country is very diverse in terms of geography, languages, castes, religions, cultures, values, etc, it does not have a programme that can eliminate illiteracy in toto. There must be some permanent institutional structure from Central level to State, District, Block/Taluq, Village and town levels that can take care of the neo-literates, as the country cannot afford to make neo-literates once again illiterates.

For this literacy campaigns must be converted into Continuing Education and Life-long Learning Programmes so that the neo-literates remain literates forever.

Therefore, for bringing about universal literacy we must set the target of achieving universal literacy within a span of 5 years as well as establishing a permanent structure with clear achievable targets and realistic goals. Sometimes, there is a dire need to change the gear for meeting different priorities. Time has come to move away from the practice of merely creating infrastructure and human capital for certain specified goals and then abandoning the schemes/programmes without making proper assessment and analysis. All this costs the general public a lot of social and economic loss and prevents them from getting the fruits of the schemes/programmes.

It is a travesty of the adult education planning process that whenever any variant of literacy programme became well-adapted in the system and a well-defined structure came into existence for taking care of the nitty-gritty of adult education schemes, it has been replaced by another programme. Not only the scope of the established literacy programme was changed due to one reason or the other, but the strategy and methodology of implementation were also changed. It is because of such abrupt and unlikely changes that the targets and outcomes of literacy programmes are missed quite often. Such mistakes happened during the different Plan Periods and are happening now as well during the post-Five Year Plan era.

The continuation of the existing SBP or introduction of a new restructured programme coterminous to the remaining 14th Finance Commission period (upto March 2020) was supposed to be in place in April, 2018. However, since then there is a programme vacuum or a forced programme holiday in the absence of a revised scheme that can look after the needs of adult and continuing Education. The estimated number of illiterates in India is more than 200 million. Reportedly, the spectre of yet another change in the targets and methodology for achievement of universal literacy by revamping the existing programme in terms of structure and outreach is looming large over the literacy horizon.

Target 2022

The year 2022 is going to be very significant for the country in many ways, particularly in view of its demography. The population pyramid of India shows that by 2022 India will have maximum employable population in terms of their age range and it will remain so for some more years. If this chunk of population is not brought into the mainstream of development, we will be losing a big chance of becoming a developed nation in the next few years. This is a one-time gift of demographic transition which shall provide windows of opportunities to our workforce. If it can be exploited to the benefit of the nation and its people, then India would reap its advantages in near future. Otherwise, the demographic dividend could turn into a demographic disaster. We have four years in hand and these four years can work miraculously, if we all

work towards it. The year 2022 will also be India's 75th National Independence day. If India becomes fully literate by that year, it will be the greatest tribute to the father of the nation (Mahatma Gandhi) who had envisioned a fully literate society.

Strategies for Achieving the Target of Ending Illiteracy by 2022

India has achieved a literacy rate of 75.4 per cent as per NSS 71st Round in 2014. By now it would be nearing 78.0 per cent at the pace with which it is increasing i.e. nearly 1 per cent per year. So the quantum of target population to cover is approximately 22per cent in three years and a half (by August 2022). As we all know, 100 per cent literacy is only a notion and ideally is not possible as there is some percentage of population which cannot be brought into this fold because of learning disorders such as dyslexia, illness etc. No country has 100per cent literate population. If we consider this to be 2.0 per cent in a country like India, we have the target of covering approximately 20 per cent population in the 7+ age group to be brought into the fold of literacy by August 2022.

However, since the rate of enhancement of literacy is nearly 1per cent per year it will take 20 years to achieve the target of total literacy. We therefore need to substantially speed up the processes to achieve this target in 3 to 4 years by using some foolproof strategies. Earlier we have been using Mission Mode Programmes like National Literacy Mission, Saakshar Bharat Programme etc. Now we have to use **Jet-Mode Programmes** which can take off vertically. The strategies required for covering almost 20 per cent of the population to be brought into the fold of literacy cannot be singular. No single strategy can achieve this. We have to have a perfect blend of a combination of strategies. Dominant strategies of the Saakshar Bharat Programme have yielded some positive outcomes. Literacy rate moved from 64.8 percent in 2001 to 72.99 in 2011. Urban-rural literacy differential also declined and the literacy rate for females increased at a faster rate than that for males (12 per cent). However, gender and regional disparities still persist.

Saakshar Bharat was launched to create alliterate society through a variety of teaching- learning programmes for neo-literates of 15 years and above. This mission targeted 70 million beneficiaries, of which 60 million were women and nearly 50 per cent of the target groups comprised SCs/STs and minorities. The programme's focus was on rural areas, especially districts with low (50 per cent and below) female literacy rates. Nearly 1.70 lakh gram panchayats in 365 districts were covered. Residual illiteracy in urban areas was also to be addressed through innovative partnerships with NGOs and private sector convergence. Major bottlenecks in success of this programme were inadequate participation of state governments, low motivation and training of volunteer teachers and *prerak*s, lack of convergence under CEP, and a weak management and supervision structure.

Considerable achievements of Saakshar Bharat Scheme in Basic Literacy area on the one hand reduced the need for Basic Literacy Programme at such a large

magnitude and, on the other, increased the need of creating opportunities for the other dimensions of Adult Education Programmes like continuing education and equivalency programmes. In course of time, there is also a drastic change on demography and requirement of people. Now, the people need literacy in English Language, Literacy in Information and Communication Technology, Digital Literacy, Constitutional Literacy, literacy on different schemes launched by Government of India and most importantly the opportunity for continuing education and equivalency programmes. A redesign which seeks to cover such dimensions of education will go a long way in improving the literacy status of the country.

Apart from this, the following Jet-Mode strategies can be dovetailed with the existing Mission Mode strategies:

I.   In a county like India, where we have a lot of youth population, involving youth in this programme can yield very good results. We can devise a project with titles '**Each One Teach/Preach Ten'** or '**University Action on Illiteracy'** in universities and high schools where each student should have a compulsory credit/marks based assignment of *teaching/preaching* 10 illiterate people in the surrounding areas. Word Preaching can be defined and used as a technical term for this purpose which would comprise three components: (i) creating awareness towards literacy; (ii)imparting functional literacy; (iii)making them ready for continuing education. This can be a two and half year project for graduate students of three year course. Credits/ marks of this assignment may be made compulsory for achieving the degree. If we tap all the students of universities and colleges who are doing three year course this year, we can achieve the target in three years and a half i.e. 2022. Similarly, we can induce students of other courses also.

II.   We can involve the university youth through inter-university Youth and Cultural programmes and campaigns.

III.   We can have competition for the youth of the country like '**Teach India**' or '**Preach India'.**

IV.   We can have **20-20 Literacy Matches** like **20-20 Cricket Match**. In this a team of twenty people can impart literacy to 20 non-literates each in illiteracy clusters. Thus 400 people can be made literate in one year in each illiteracy cluster.

V.   We can run *Saaksharta Trains* and *Saaksharta Buses* involving the youth who can go to remote places to impart literacy.

VI.   We can use Information Technology like computers and smart phones/mobiles in a large way. *Computer Kiosks* can be installed in each village with a technician and a tutor. The kiosks should be left to the learners to learn at their pace and time. Manpower is not much required in this.

VII.   We can involve educated housewives to impart literacy to nearby areas on payment of honorarium.

VIII.   Students of Teacher Training courses, both B.Ed. and D.Ed., can be involved on compulsory marks/credit based assignments. Their internships can be used partially for this purpose.

IX.   Giving targets to all district collectors to achieve literacy targets in their districts.

X.   We can forge a network of institutions and agencies, both Government and Non-Government and CSR wings of corporate sector which are involved in literacy activities, into a National Literacy Consortium. Through this network we can keep a track of activities and avoid overlaps and gaps in the process. The consortium can network with international agencies also.

Factors which can contribute to achieve the target

Now India is poised to achieve this target of ending illiteracy by 2022 due to many positive factors. Some of them are:

I.   ICT boom in the country: Smart phones / Mobile phones have become very popular and easily accessible and economically viable devices to reach out to every nook and corner of the country. People are also becoming more and more mobile savvy. Other ICT media like Televisions, Computers, DVDs etc have also become very common. Use of this technology is indeed a tangible proposition to impart literacy and end illiteracy.

II.   Urbanization and globalization is another factor influencing the awareness of people towards education and literacy. By 2022 more than 35% population will move towards urban areas.

III.   Last but most important factor is 'Political Will' which is very strong towards this aspect. This was discernible in the inaugural speech of Hon'ble HRD Minister at 'Festival of Education' held at Jaipur recently.

Physical Performance during the Five Year Plan Periods

Table-1: Decadal Population of Literates and Illiterates (1951-2011) in millions

| S. No.	Census Year	Literates			Illiterates			Literacy Rate		Gender Gap
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
1.	1951*	42.39	12.91	**55.30**	113.8	132.8	**246.6**	27.16	8.86	**18.30**
2.	1961*	77.94	27.58	**105.52**	115.02	152.30	**267.32**	40.40	15.35	**25.05**
3.	1971*	112.04	49.37	**162.31**	131.81	175.38	**307.19**	45.96	21.97	**23.99**
4.	1981$	158.22	77.51	**235.73**	122.40	182.92	**305.32**	56.38	29.76	**26.62**
5.	1991$	229.56	129.76	**359.32**	128.32	200.51	**328.83**	64.14	39.29	**24.85**
6.	2001$	336.57	224.18	**560.75**	110.64	193.51	**304.15**	75.26	53.67	**21.59**
7.	2011$	434.76	328.88	**763.64**	102.95	179.95	**282.90**	80.9	64.6	**16.30**

5^+ Years of age Group; $^\$ 7^+$ Years of age Group

1981 census excludes Assam and 1991 excludes Jammu & Kashmir (Source: Status and Trend of Literacy in India: Database for Literacy Programme-2011 by Indian Adult Education Association (P-8))

The Table-1 shows that since 1951 till 2011 the total number of illiterates has increased from 55.3 million to 763.64 million. On the other hand, it may also be noted that the number of illiterates are always more than 200 million and remained nearly constant. This is a serious issue that despite a lot of programmes/schemes in school education and literacy we are not able to achieve the target of 100 per cent literacy.

Serious thought is required in the era when the country is heading towards the digital revolution, that we still have more than 250 million illiterate persons in the 7[+] year age group. The gender gap remained consistently above 20 per cent for five decades and came down to 16.3 percent in 2011. This percentage shows great inequality in literacy levels of the male and female population.

Central Government's Financial Performance under Adult Education vis-a-vis Education Sector
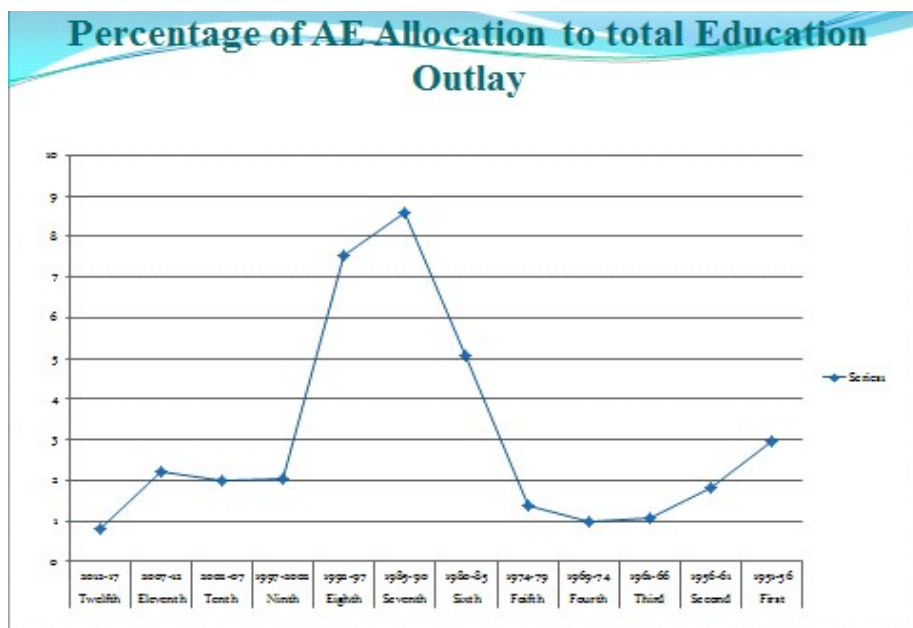
st Five Year Plan (1951-56) which was just 2.96% of the total Plan outlay of Rs.1690.0 million for Education Sector. In terms of percentage it was continuously reduced to less than 1% during the Fourth Five Year Plan (1969-74). Thereafter, the outlay picked up and reached the peak of 8.60% during Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90).

This was the period of introduction of National Literacy Mission in 1988. The outlay was marginally reduced to 7.33% during the Eighth Five Year Plan (1992-97). Thereafter, it has been reducing continuously to less than 1% (Rs. 36605.0 million) of the total Plan Outlay for Education Sector (Rs. 4537280.0 million) during the Twelfth Five Year.

The expenditure in the Adult Education could not meet the targets except First, Fifth, Sixth and Seventh Five Year Plans. During Eleventh Five Year Plan the expenditure was just 30%, while during Twelfth Five Year Plan it was 47% of the total outlay under the Adult Education Head. This explains the dismal picture of expenditure in the head of Adult Education, which may be considered as one of the benchmarks in the future for implementation of any programme catering to the need of the adult and continuing education.

Annexure-1

Five Year Plans and Annual Plans in Chronological Order

S.No.	Plan Name	Plan Period
1.	First Five Year Plan	1951-56
2.	Second Five Year Plan	1956-61
3.	Third Five Year Plan	1961-66
4.	Three Annual Plans	1966-69
5.	Fourth Five Year Plan	1969-74
6.	Fifth Five Year Plan	1974-79
7.	Sixth Five Year Plan	1980-85
8.	Seventh Five Year Plan	1985-90
9.	Two Annual Plans	1991-92
10.	Eighth Five Year Plan	1992-97
11.	Ninth Five Year Plan	1997-02
12.	Tenth Five Year Plan	2002-07
13.	Eleventh Five Year Plan	2007-12
14.	Twelfth Five Year Plan	2012-17
15.	Beyond 12th Plan (Period coterminous to Fourteenth Finance Commission)	2017-20

Annexure-2

National Institute of Open Schooling - Summary Status of Sixteen Assessment Tests for Basic Literacy Programme under SBP

S.No	Assessment	Appeared					Successful						
		Female	%	Male	%	Total	Female	%	Male	%	Total	%
1	Ph-I 20th Aug 2010	324317	62.56	194068	37.44	518385	212303	65.46	122202	62.97	334505	64.53
2	Ph-II 06th March 2011	3568686	81.88	789924	18.12	4358610	2517581	70.55	585284	74.09	3102865	71.19
3	Ph-III 20th Aug 2011	3020576	65.55	1587763	34.45	4608339	2057992	68.13	1125147	70.86	3183139	69.07
4	Ph-IV 18th March 2012	7629075	71.32	3068482	28.68	10697557	5801030	76.04	2219921	72.35	8020951	74.98
5	Ph-V 26th Aug 2012	2678179	71.91	1045924	28.09	3724103	1935470	72.27	764145	73.06	2699615	72.49
6	Ph-VI 17th Mar 2013	3886570	72.15	1500330	27.85	5386900	2836790	72.99	1122309	74.80	3959099	73.49
7	Ph-VII 25th Aug 2013	3268074	70.59	1361269	29.41	4629343	2412333	73.82	1023497	75.19	3435830	74.22
8	Ph-VIII 09th Mar 2014	3772853	71.38	1512454	28.62	5285307	2771483	73.46	1114101	73.66	3885584	73.52
9	Ph-IX 24th Aug 2014	2691263	71.23	1086813	28.77	3778066	1987802	73.86	806638	74.50	2794440	74.04
10	Ph-X 15th Mar 2015	4914774	71.12	1995501	28.88	6910275	3679595	74.87	1471604	73.75	5151199	74.54
11	Ph-XI 23rd Aug 2015	7628191	69.23	3391067	30.77	11019258	5638221	73.91	2457799	72.48	8096020	73.47
12	Ph-XII 20th Marc 2016	6176334	69.54	2705906	30.46	8882240	4680535	75.78	2034398	75.18	6714931	75.60
13	Ph-XIII 21st Aug 2016	6376018	67.40	3083292	32.60	9459310	5051595	79.23	2417979	78.42	7469574	78.97
14	Ph-XIV 19th Mar 2017	6938470	69.66	3021755	30.34	9960225	5654922	81.50	2503459	82.85	8158381	81.91
15	Ph-XV August 2017	4964141	70.42	2085432	29.58	7049573	4011041	80.80	1691367	81.10	5702408	80.89
16	Ph-XVI March 2018	3157891	69.36	1394843	30.64	4552734	2548606	80.71	1130508	81.05	3679114	80.81
	TOTAL	70995402	70.42	29824823	29.58	100820225	53797297	75.78	22593358	75.75	76390655	75.77

Annexure-3
Outlay and expenditure on education sector in Five Year Plans
(Rs. In millions)

Plan Period	Outlay & Expenditure	Elem. Edn.	Adult Edn.	Sec. Edn.	Hr. Edn.	Others	Genl. Edn.	Tech. Edn.	Total
1st Plan	Outlay	930	50	220	150	110	1460	230	1690
	Exp.	850	50	200	140	90	1330	200	1530
2nd Plan	Outlay	930	50	490	470	280	2220	510	2730
	Exp.	950	40	510	480	230	2210	490	2700
3rd Plan	Outlay	2090	60	880	820	230	4080	1420	5500
	Exp.	2010	20	1030	870	640	4570	1250	5820
4th Plan	Outlay	2560	80	1180	8130	1190	6840	1060	8090
	Exp.	2390	60	1400	1950	880	6680	1060	7740
5th Plan	Outlay	4100	180	2500	2920	1220	10920	1560	12480
	Exp.	3170	230	1560	2050	660	7770	1070	8840
6th Plan	Outlay	9050	1280	3980	4860	2450	21620	2780	24400
	Exp.	8900	1534	7430	5370	1326	24560	3180	27740
7th Plan	Outlay	19640	5490	6680	4200	11740	47750	6830	54480
	Exp.	28280	6098	18290	11900	632	65200	10850	76050
8th Plan	Outlay	92010	15550	34980	15160	10440	168140	27860	196000
	Exp.	124240	11707	57890	23610	11513	228960	25180	254140
9th Plan	Outlay	273630	11020	95260	43500	26780	450190	47790	497980
	Exp.	268110	8905	93840	42890	33105	446850	46900	493750
10th Plan	Outlay	452651	17734	161936	77112	61690	771123	85197	856320
	Exp.	649951	14037	109013	69543	63670	906214	59457	965672
11th Plan	Outlay	1273800	60000	515500	735430	-	2584730	114000	2698730
	Exp.	1239967	17459	170652	224661	-	1652739	173517	1826256
12th Plan	Outlay	2885560	36605	508115	682000	-	4112280	425000	4537280
	Exp. *	1716511	17333	404925	427715	43831%	2610315	364494	2646809
2017-18$	Outlay*	341187	3686	118691	147823	38930	650317	144040	794357
	Exp.*	341199	3686	125172	151108	45691	666856	149326	816182
2018-19$	Outlay*	373195	3590	123215	143896	34296	678192	143391	821283
	Exp.*								

* For the year 2017-18 the Expenditure has been taken from budget headof Revenue Expenditure, since Plan and Non-Plan budget heads were replaced by Revenue and Capital heads. The expenditure of Revenue Head for 2016-17 has been taken from the GBS 2018-19.

$ The era of Five Year Planning has been done away with and the period of 2017-18 to 2019-20 is coterminous with the Fourteenth Finance Commission, whose funds have not been tied up, therefore, the annual expenditure for revenue head can be noted.

% Others head of Higher Education

Note-1: the Source for outlays and expenditure for 11th FYP and 12th FYP are Plan documents and Demand on Grants (www.finmin.in) of Departments of School Education and Literacy Department of Higher Education and for years 2007-08 to 2017-18

Note-2: The segregation for Elementary and Secondary in the GBS has been done away from GBS 2017-18. The estimation for Elementary includes National Bal Bhawan, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, Mid-Day Meal in Schools, School Assessment Programme, Strengthening of Teacher Training Institutions and Education Scheme for Madarssas and Minorities.

Note-3: For estimation of Secondary Education outlay and Expenditure Establishment Expenditure of the Secretariat, Central Sector Schemes/Projects, other Central Sector Expenditure (Except National Bal Bhawan), Rashtriya Madhyamik Shiksha Abhiyan, and Appointment of Language Teachers

Note-4: For estimation of Adult Education outlay and Expenditure Establishment Expenditure of Directorate of Adult Education, Others and Saakshar Bharat Programme

Note-5: Source for outlays and expenditure up to 10th Plan 'Policy Planning and Implementation of Adult Education in India: Five Year plans and Adult Education', IGNOU, 2009 (P-24)

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(Footnotes)

[1]First Five Year Plan Document, Planning Commission, New Delhi (1951-56)
[2]Second Five Year Plan Document, Planning Commission, New Delhi (1956-61)
[3]Third Five Year Plan Document, Planning Commission, New Delhi (1961-66)
[4]Seventh Five year Plan Document, Vol. II, Planning Commission, New Delhi (1985-90)
[5] Eighth Five Year Plan Document, Vol. II, Planning Commission, New Delhi (1992-97)
[6]*Source NIOS data*

The Theory and Practice of Andragogy in Adult Education

Chris Olusola Omoregie

Adult Education as a discipline co - exists with other educational fields such as Educational Management, Guidance and Counseling and Special Education. These courses are professional courses residing in most faculties of Education. In Nigeria, Adult Education in higher institutions has its peculiar characteristics that it is misunderstood by the society and candidates who later find themselves in the field. Andragogy remains the most popular idea in the field of adult education and its understanding would give the discipline the deserved professional coloration. What are the basis for referring to Andragogy as a theory when other scholars argue that its practices fall short of the claim that it is a theory? There are gaps between Andragogy as a theory and practice which include the nature of the adult learner as different from some assumptions of Malcolm Knowles. For example, there are some subjects of study which may not allow much involvement of the learner and the varied learning situations. Yet, the conditions for the practices of Andragogy include individuality, freedom, and self actualization. In a knowledge economy, it is high time Adult Education evolved more ideas on teaching and learning of its clientele based on changing social and cultural factors rather than mere age of learners.

Adult Education

The discipline of Adult Education as a subset in the genre of other specializations in Faculties of Education prides itself on its practice of deploying Andragogy in its teaching and learning process. It differs from pedagogy, the art and science of teaching children. Based on humanistic theory of personality that human thoughts, feelings and beliefs are important factors in learning, Andragogy assumes self concept; role of experience; readiness to learn; orientation to learning; internal motivation and need to know as justification for its distinct method of helping adults learn.[1] As lofty as Andragogy is and even with the extended strides of influences it has made even on every other system of education by its emphasis on knowledge transfer, there are no strict means by which it can be practiced and measured as such. This creates a problem of how it ought to be practiced.

Adult Education in Nigerian Higher Institutions

The rating of Adult Education in Nigerian higher institutions is such that many students come to the Department not as their first choice course but accept it just to have University education. This wrong notion, approach and lack of knowledge of these students is not unconnected with the level of awareness of the course among

members of the society who misinterpret it as education for the aged. Lecturers in most Departments of Adult Education have now seen it as a burden to introduce and attract their students to the discipline if only for the fact that the discipline should survive for their own sustenance.

While one may pardon the new students for lack of knowledge of the discipline one remains shocked at the responses professional adult educators give on the highly priced idea of Andragogy in Adult Education. Andragogy is almost synonymous to the discipline of Adult education but it is not practiced the same way by professionals. The preliminary interview of lecturers for this study was to ask them how they have been practicing Andragogy in their field. The answers ranged from, "it is not practicable" to simply "an involvement of students in the teaching and learning process in the classroom".

Is Andragogy a theory?

There is no consensus in literature as to whether andragogy is a theory. Some authors are satisfied to say it is a principle or an assumption. A theory refers to a formal statement of the rules on which a subject of study is based or of ideas that are suggested to explain a fact or event or more generally an opinion[2]. Andragogy qualifies by this definition as a theory because it has assumptions which can be considered as rules. It is also an idea which is suggested to explain the reality of adult learning. Theory can also be an assumption or system of assumptions, accepted principles, and rules of procedure based on limited knowledge, devised to analyze, predict, or otherwise explain the nature or behaviour of a specified set of phenomena.[3] In this description of a theory the rules of procedure for practice are emphasized. This element could be the reason Mintzberg proposed that a theory is the how several things are related and the why of an observable event.[4] Andragogical assumptions could be a justification for a different method for adult learning but falls short of other relationships in adult learners apart from age. Theory is then a supposition or a system of ideas intended to explain something, especially one based on general principles independent of the thing to be explained.

Andragogy has been mired in controversy in the academic adult education literature since Knowles popularized the idea. Critics have questioned Knowles' assumption on Andragogy that adults and children learn differently and thus should be taught differently. They argue that Andragogy falls short of a learning theory because it provides little insight into the process of adult learning. Adult educators have argued that Andragogy is more useful as a guide for teaching, although they claim that the assumptions on which Andragogy teaching model is based are not universally true.[5]

Andragogy further loses admirers for promoting the illusion of a generic adult learner. Andragogy ignores the relationship between self and society by de-contextualizing the learning process and describing the individual in psychological

terms separate from social, political, economic and historical contexts. Consequently, Andragogy does not account for structural systems of privilege and oppression based on race, gender, and class that influence learning and does not consider how culture affects a person's development and ways of learning.

Since Andragogy prides itself as neutral while upholding mainstream values, it omits a critical analysis of commonsense assumptions about cultural, socio-political and institutional constraints on learning thus it is critiqued for sustaining hegemonic social arrangements and for supporting exploitative structures and conservative agendas.

The Gap between the Theory and Practice of Andragogy

Concerns regarding the link between theory and practice are not new and efforts to address this problem have taken several forms. What is needed is a shift in how we engage the interplay between theory and practice, with an emphasis placed on developing initiatives that target opportunities to develop, test, and refine theories[6]. A theory's value rests on its ability to provide an accurate account of the factors that regulate people's behaviour. Rothman[7] interpreting Lewin's[8] dictum 'nothing is more practical than a good theory' sees all as resting on the assumption that good theories are available to address practical problems. This assumption raises a question of what practical problems Andragogy is solving in educational practices. Andragogy does not apply to all adults in all situations. Knowles ignored the socio historical context of learning – including differences in culture and gender[9]

Conditions for the Practices of Andragogy

Andragogy has been applied in many teaching and learning situations ranging from workers training and educational programmes to children and teenage classes. For example, Avoseh's experience in grade 12 where he used andragogical approach was to tap into the children's worldview and inchoate experiences to achieve effective teaching[10.]

This experiment and indeed the promotion of learners' centredness prove that the biological age of learners do not matter for the use of Andragogy.

The general idea from Knowles principles of Andragogy is that there is need to involve learners in the learning process. But then in participation, there are questions of how this can be done. Is it only allowing them to share their opinion on particular subjects? Involvement of learners should start from knowing and taking their interest into consideration in planning the learning programme and in what and how they want to learn. Their individuality, freedom, self actualization, and sitting arrangement are essential aspects which professionals and practitioners of Adult Education should use to strengthen andragogical principles. Andragogy also needs to be assessed or

evaluated as a teaching and learning process. A rigorous empirical testing is needed to validate the guidelines of Andragogy especially among adult learners.

Conclusions

Andragogical method is no longer peculiar to Adult Education practice though it was Knowles, a professor of Adult education that popularized it. Before its promotion in Adult Education it had existed in many other forms. Academic adult educators are turning the contents of their research agenda toward emerging issues of adult learning, but practitioners continue to claim that Andragogy remains useful as a guiding set of assumptions about adult learners and continue to practice andragogical methods in their teaching and learning experiences.

Instead of promoting Andragogy as the only theory in Adult Education which pushes professionals into dogmatizing and indoctrinating other professionals with it, there is urgent need to avail the discipline of more ideas from other disciplines, or rather evolve other neologisms - newly coined words or phrases that are just emerging into mainstream use. Adult education needs more neologisms for its practices.

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Empowering Rural Youth with Digital Literacy and Life Skills Education

Anjali Makhija
Susmita Guru
Richa Saxena

Young people, aged 15 to 29, comprise 28% of India's total population (National Youth Policy 2014). That is a crucial period in life when one creates an identity outside one's family and constantly faces numerous physical, social, and emotional challenges. Channeling young people in the right direction during this sensitive and adaptable age can lead to positive social transformation. This age range includes adolescents who "can make an immense contribution to society if they are given proper support and space through handholding and informed interaction. In this connection, life skills education plays a vital role in creating awareness and providing guidance and direction to them. (Dinesh, et al., 2014)

Young people play an integral and essential role in the development process in rural India. Many have an important place in local self-government as elected members of panchayats. However, their limited knowledge and understanding about different aspects of village governance can restrict them from effectively addressing the grassroots problems. Life skills education that includes governance training serves as an important tool to create and expand their awareness on various government schemes and programmes and impart useful skills for accessing them.

Bringing transparency and accountability in effective service delivery is another major challenge in rural governance in India. Digital literacy education is one promising solution to overcome this challenge. However, there is a huge gap between urban and rural youth in access to information and communication technology (ICT). As per the National Sample Survey, 71st Round, only 7.8% of the rural population is able to use a computer for word processing/typing vs. 28% of the urban population. The percentage of the rural population using the internet for searching desired information is far below (7.3%) compared to the urban population (27%) (NSS, 25th Round). Further, the gap intensifies considering parameters such as gender, age and social power structures. "Digital divide relates to the different opportunities and uses of communicative and informational resources, which depend on traditional sociological variables such as socioeconomic status, gender, and age." (Scarcelli, C.M, et al., 2016).

S M Sehgal Foundation (Sehgal Foundation) implements Digital Literacy and Life Skills Education programme for rural youth against the above backdrop. The programme provides a platform for youth to come together, gain knowledge, and collectively address problems related to village governance. Youth are trained on life

skills education and awareness of various government schemes and programmes. They have an opportunity to use the internet as a tool to access information on government programmes. This forum instills a spark for individual and collective action and young people are able to use the knowledge gained in the classes in their practical lives to avail government services or participate in government programmes.

This paper describes the project components of digital literacy and life skills education programme at Sehgal Foundation, and elucidates the successes and outcomes of the five-month curriculum used with the young boys and girls in villages of Nuh and Alwar districts of Haryana and Rajasthan.

About the programme

The digital literacy and life skills programme has three main components: digital and internet literacy training, life skills education, and generating awareness of good village governance. The specific objectives of the programme are:

- The empowerment of young girls and boys to be able to make their own choices.
- The development and enhancement of leadership qualities among young girls and boys using participatory methodologies.
- The bridging of the digital knowledge divide between rural and urban youth.
- Creation of increased awareness about local governance issues that lead to greater participation of young people in local governance.

- Program components

  - *Life skills education*
  - *Awareness of rural governance*
  - *Digital literacy*

The digital literacy and life skills education centers started in a village enroll 25–30 young people in each. The centers are typically set-up in government schools and operate after school hours, or they are held in a common location that is accessible to all participants. Before the creation of a center, a dialogue is held with the gatekeepers, consisting of meetings with teachers and parents. A discussion with the intended beneficiaries helps to understand their needs and gauge their interest in the programme. After receiving consent from the community and completing a needs assessment, enrollment takes place. The pre-designed curriculum for the course includes three components - life skills education, digital literacy training and rural governance awareness training. Participants fill out a pre-evaluation questionnaire before starting the classes. After completion of a five-month course, participants fill out a post-evaluation questionnaire, which helps to assess the outcomes of the programme.

Importance of Life Skills Education: Findings and evidences from the field

"Youth-centered programmes make an effort to build strengths so that they respond to diverse interests, talents, and circumstances." (Hamilton, S.F., et al., 2004). The programme designed by Sehgal Foundation covers the modules including life skills education topics such as self-identity, value identification, goals setting, communication skills, interpersonal relationships, community engagement, and gender equity.

Center facilitators share these modules in experiential interactive sessions where the participants explore their own world, reflect, and make decisions about their own lives. "Life skills education programme is a series of self-building sessions consisting of basic skills for personal and social development, which will help young people in coping with the challenges they face." (Nasheeda, A., 2008).

> Tarmeen, a student enrolled in one of the centers shared, "I am seventeen years old, and my parents had chosen a boy for my marriage. When I learned at the center that the legal age of marriage is eighteen, I convinced my parents to wait until I am older. My friends from the center coached and helped me greatly, and I feel very happy."

Data from two time periods established that participants' perceptions about the maximum education limits for boys and girls have changed. After completing the five-month curriculum in 2017, one baseline survey finding was that 20% of the boys and 32% of the girls said that there is no limitation on the education of girls; this percentage increased to 100 percent for boys and 96 percent for girls post evaluation." (Guru, S.,2017). The training widened the perspective of enrolled students and changed their perceptions about education and other areas of life. This course also enhanced their decision-making abilities and empowered them to make informed decisions and choices about their lives. At the same time, their awareness level about the legal marriage age for girls increased to 15% for girls and 46% points for boys. (Saxena, R., 2018).

Awareness about the legal age of marriage of girls increased from 84 to 99% and awareness about legal age of marriage of boys went 53 to 99%. (Saxena, R., 2018). The training programme made a significant impact in building the confidence of participants in sharing their opinions; 99% participants were confident in sharing their views with their parents vs. 72% during the baseline. (Ibid)

"A relevant and proper implementation of life skills education is a need of the hour. Imparting life skills education helps in motivating, providing practical, cognitive, emotional, social, and self-management skills for life adjustments." (Prajapati, R,et al.,2017). The centers established by Sehgal Foundation provide the necessary skills required by adolescent girls and boys to gain a new perspective about their lives and how to manage themselves by making informed choices.

Awareness on Rural Governance over a period

A "huge gap exists between users and non-users of e-government services." (Nagaraja, K., 2016) The Government of India has digitized many services, and many departments are providing information on various government programmes using online platforms. However, rural communities are not accessing this information, as they do not have the digital skills required to avail these services.

"Young people are at the forefront of the technology revolution, which is the driving force behind global emergence and evolution of the information and knowledge based society. Youth are often the leading innovators in the development, use, and spread of ICT." (World UN Report, 2015) However, a large number of rural youth remain excluded from the ICT revolution due to a lack of opportunities to gain digital skills. Digital literacy and life skills centers enhance their digital skills so they can access information online. This leads to involvement of young citizens in governance, which leads to transparent and accountable governance.

The curriculum includes information on the functioning of various village-level institutions such as *panchayats* (village councils), School Management Committees (SMCs) and Village Health Sanitation and Nutrition Committees (VHSNCs). Information on various government programmes such as Public Distribution System (PDS), Integrated Child Development Scheme (ICDS), pensions, Swachh Bharat Abhiyaan (SBA), Right to Education (RTE) and Mid-Day Meal (MDM) helps youth to know about their entitlements. The young boys and girls use this increased awareness to participate in their development and create synergies with different government departments to avail benefits.

After completion of the five-month programme, the following findings emerged in the study conducted in 2017:

"The knowledge about existence of VHSNCs has significantly improved from 6 to 90%; knowledge about existence of SMC has improved significantly from 27 to 96%; knowledge about reservation of women in Panchayati Raj has significantly improved from 24 to 91%." (Guru, S., 2017) The knowledge about existence of ICDS has improved by 31%; MDM awareness has improved by 13%; existence of pension schemes has improved by 13%; awareness about SBA has improved by 49%, and awareness about RTE has improved from 65 to 98%. (Ibid)

Another study conducted in 2018 after completion of the five-month curriculum, found the following about the knowledge on village governance (Saxena, R., 2018):

"No participant was aware about functioning of VHSNCs; after the completion of the course 95% participants became aware. Awareness about SMCs improved from 1 to 97% while awareness on responsibilities of SMCs increased significantly from

nil to 99%. All respondents became aware about RTE against 27% at baseline. Awareness about Panchayati Raj increased from 68 to 96%; awareness on reservations of women in Panchayati Raj increased from 12 to 96% and on panchayat elections increased from 68 to 99%; awareness of Gram Sabha was 83% post evaluation while no one was aware about this before the training. With regard to pension 78% were aware before training which increased to 100% after completion of the course; awareness on SBA increased from 17 to 93% and on ICDS improved from 69 to 95%."

> Sukhiram Prajpat from village Kalsada, Alwar, used his digital knowledge to check his family's PDS status online. Knowing about the gaps in service delivery, he mobilized his parents to ask for the right amount of grains from the PDS depot holder and was able to get the full ration entitlement.

Increased awareness of government programmes and schemes has empowered the youth to share this awareness with their family members and within the community, and they are able to use this information in accessing benefits.

"A clear and purposeful programme of youth education is essential if the youth are to be made useful and responsible members of the society. Their education should include instruction in skills and values." (Murty, B.S.,1989). The digital literacy and life skills education programme tries to address the various facets of life affecting rural youth; creating awareness on village governance is an important aspect of this programme. The increase in awareness level translates into micro plans taken up by the youth that lead to positive outcomes.

Digital Literacy: a Key priority area for rural youth

ICTs are vital to a knowledge economy and are the cornerstone of many development processes across the world. ICTs can be effective in providing alternative opportunities for education and providing knowledge-based support to children. ICT-enabled interventions have the potential to extend education delivery even to the most marginalized population." (Handoo, A., 2007). The initiative of Sehgal Foundation to impart digital literacy to boys and girls belonging to marginalized communities has provided knowledge and skills that have opened doors to a plethora of opportunities and has mainstreamed them to an exciting alternate system of education, which they can explore on their own using their digital literacy skills.

After imparting digital and internet literacy to a group of students for five months, the following findings emerged:

"Knowledge about internet improved from 17 to 84%; about internet banking improved from 14 to 85%; about ecommerce improved from 7 to 79%." (Guru, S., 2017) "Very few students knew how to operate a computer before joining the course;

almost all participants said that the course gave them a chance to operate a computer."
(Ibid)

> Having learnt about computers and internet at the digital literacy and
> life skills education center, Mubarak helped his brother set-up a Common
> Service Center in the village. This center has helped to supplement the
> family's income.

In another study, "almost all the respondents reported to have operated a computer
against a baseline figure of 5%; awareness on internet increased from 11 to 93%,
knowledge of internet banking improved from 3 to 84%; awareness on social media
improved by 75%." (Saxena, R., 2018) "At the time of initiation of the course, none of
the respondents had an email account; post training 97% had email account." (Ibid)

"The Government of India is adopting e-governance strategies to achieve good
governance through ICT. This concomitantly leads to the need to provide citizens
with digital skills so that they have the capacities to digitally access the information."
(Nagaraja, K., 2016) In the programme run by Sehgal Foundation, many boys and
girls have started using digital skills to access services, gain employment, or start
an enterprise. The use of digital technology has led to collective transformation and
this has a potential to provide an impetus for social change.

Conclusion

The Digital Literacy and Life Skills Education programme has thus met its intended
outcomes."Digital India Programme has paved way to myriad educational and
occupational opportunities for the country's youth." (Makhija, A., et al., 2018). These
opportunities for rural youth have provided essential skills so that the young boys
and girls are able to make decisions about their lives. It is recommended that both
digital literacy skills and life skills education be integrated into the mainstream
curriculum. The information on good rural governance is also imperative although the
content designed for governance curriculum will depend on the environment and
socioeconomic context of the areas where the youth reside.

"Youth today are not mere passive spectators of various social-cultural changes
facilitated by modernization in society but are accelerating such changes by active
participation. They are inclined to accept new ideas with eagerness to effectively
play a role as active citizens of the Indian Republic." (Jayaswal, R.,1992). The Indian
Constitution gives a right to vote at the age of eighteen. This bestows the youth with
a greater responsibility to exercise their vote by making informed choices. They
therefore need to be more aware about the socioeconomic and political environments
in their villages and in the country. The Digital Literacy and Life Skills programme by
Sehgal Foundation creates this awareness in youth.

India has a large population of young people, and their most burning need is employment. While the government and private sector are working and functioning assiduously to create jobs or enterprises, many youth still lack a purpose in life. In the absence of satisfactory livelihoods, they might go astray and factors such as race, ethnicity, class, and gender can affect them adversely. Therefore, a well-designed youth programme can build a strong peer culture and create a surrounding environment that positively influences the youth and addresses various facets of their lives. This includes their knowledge and use of technology.

"A vast majority of youth in our country lack proper awareness and direction and are not involved in any development activity. They can play a significant role in bringing about socio-economic and political transformation in the villages." (Kennedy, J.J., 2011) Once informed, involved, and empowered, youth have the key to our country's bright future. It is our responsibility to instill in them the right values and provide them avenues so that they bloom and become effective citizens of India.

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Gender in Governance as Research Field in Adult and Lifelong Education: Issues and Perspectives

Mandakini Pant

The sustainability and legitimacy of formal institutions of governance depends on political agency of people's representatives in terms of *articulating* the needs and priorities of their community related to rights, entitlements and basic service provisions; *participation* in decision making processes to influence the public decision making relating to social planning and policy development and *acting* upon them. Political participation and representation is premised on fundamental principles of equality between women and men. The criteria of equality between sexes afford women the right to participate and represent in formal political decision-making without any discrimination. But do women really participate equally with men in policy and decision-making bodies?

Limited access to critical resources such as income, information, education, skills; and the denial of opportunities due to gendered roles and responsibilities constrain the capacities of women to exercise independent political agency. Knowledge, awareness, and skills are needed to transform gendered discourses and practices as well as to empower women to participate fully in leadership roles in the mainstream governance. Education, training, and learning are important gender mainstreaming strategies. (Clover, 2015)

Education, training and learning are the entry points in adult& lifelong education research and practice to understand myriad issues related to adult learning processes, instructional &curriculum design and innovation, delivery methods as well as political economy of adult education. The over-arching assumption underlying adult education theory and practices has been that all adult learners were same, and notions of social equality, justice and change were universally applicable across gender(s). Such universal assumptions guiding adult education research have by and large glossed over women's various and differing experiences, needs, and knowledge and problematic power differentials between women and men within community, family and society.

Unless we engage in research practices that investigate and interrogate the political agency of both women and men, the discourses and beliefs that maintain political inequality, the particularities of women's experiences in political life, we cannot understand how inequality between men and women in the political sphere is produced, maintained and reinforced. Feminist analysis entails systematic uncovering of gender-based discrimination, exploitation, and oppression and its implications.

> **The author expired on January 6, 2019 due to Pancreatic Neuro-Endocrinal Cancer. She was 63 years.**

The feminist adult education research infuses feminist analyses into the content, process and methods of teaching, learning and educative-activism. We need to explore the ways both men and women learn about governance, political learning and educational needs of women leaders, and how particular forms of educational practices influence women's exercise of political leadership. The understanding the reality of political agency of women leaders; their educational needs and concerns can help us design quality adult education programmes that strengthen and sustain women's political agency.

This paper, by focusing on the political agency of women leaders holding official positions in formal public domain of governance, reflects on gender in governance as important research theme in adult education. It draws upon the insights from research on leadership of elected women representatives (EWRs) in the lower tier of rural local self governance institution in India, also known as Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs).

The paper is structured as follows. Section II elucidates the key terms. Section III highlights the context of gender mainstreaming in governance in India. Section IV analyses the effects of gender role stereotypes on the agency of EWRs in panchayats. Section V elucidates some potential research themes on political agency of women in governance processes in adult and lifelong education.

Key Terms

Gender

The term *gender* refers to a set of roles, attributes and behaviours expected from women and men by their societies. *Gender relations* represent the ways in which the *socially constructed* categories of women and men relate over a wide range of social interactions within different institutional contexts within society e.g., family, community, economical and political contexts. Rules, norms and practices of gender relations have a strong ideological content as it reflects the normative or prescriptive version of female and male roles. They create and reproduce systemic differences in the positioning of women and men in the society.

Governance

Governance is about the structures, mechanisms and processes of public decision-making on mobilization and use of public resources for common public good (Mohanty & Tandon: 2002). It entails (a) network of efficient public institutions— political, economic, administrative or otherwise — for providing responsive public services to the citizens; (b) creation of enabling environment where multi-stakeholder processes including public and private sector, as well as civil society interact to foster effective local development processes; and (c) an active political agency of

citizens in influencing public decision making to secure for themselves genuine citizenship and attendant benefits. Public participation in influencing decision making, transparency, and accountability are the hallmarks of good governance.

Political Agency

Agency is the ability to define needs and priorities and to act upon them. The political agency refers to the ability of citizens to articulate their needs and priorities clearly for their rights, entitlements and provisions to basic services; negotiate from a position of strength and participate effectively in the working of public decision-making bodies at the national, state and local level. The term political agency includes sub-set of concepts viz., rights, citizenship, participation and representation. A brief description of each concept is as follows:

Rights

Rights are the fundamental normative rules about what is allowed of people or owed to people, according to some legal system, social convention, or ethical theory. The notion of rights as universal suggests that rights are 'neutral', applicable to all irrespective of their social positioning in society. But in reality the universal rights tend to ignore the subjective and contradictory experiences of people rooted in a particular physical / geographical space, in a certain kind of community or social arrangement and social relations.

Citizenship

Citizenship in statutory sense confers on citizen a juridical status and a political identity as the members of a nation-state. Civil, political and social rights and entitlements enable all citizens to be a member of nation state, to participate equally and meaningfully in matters that govern their lives. Renewed concerns on citizenship, however, question the centrality of citizens' rights in the legal, constitutional and political framework. The constitutional equality, however, glosses over the prevailing inequalities amongst and within various citizenry based on their socio-economic and community positioning. Citizens on the fringes of society such as the poor, low caste and tribals including women are extremely heterogeneous and fluid with diverse range of needs. They have, by and large, not benefited from their nation's Constitution regarding their citizenship rights and entitlements.

A new conceptualization of citizenship recast it as citizen participation, involving expressions of diverse identities. This entails developing a greater understanding of poor people's perception of their rights and responsibilities. Citizenship is increasingly being seen as a substantive notion capturing a range of issues that manifest the lived experiences of people. Multiculturalism, plurality, diversity and difference are significant terms of reference in citizenship. This means that citizenship rests at the

intersection between the citizenship rights and citizens' multiple identities. The understanding of citizenship needs to be embedded on the ways legal-political-constitutional rights interweave with the multiple: socio-cultural-regional identities.

Participation

Participation is an expression of human agency. In an electoral system, people engage in political activities to influence decision-making processes and policies to bring in desired socio-political changes. Political participation includes voting, standing for elections, and supporting candidates. Since the last decade of 1990s the meaning, nature and scope of public participation have shifted considerably. Now the focus is on agenda of good governance i.e. increased influence of the poor and marginalised over wider decision-making processes; and simultaneously increased responsiveness of governments to their voices. Participation is both a right and a means for ensuring effective governance. People with active participation can deepen democracy and influence the agenda of good governance.

Representation

Political representation, in a representative democracy, refers to elected officials nominally speaking for their constituents in the government. Elected representatives participate in governing the affairs of their constituency and engage themselves in making decisions on behalf of the constituents. There are two ways in which the elected representatives participate in the elected bodies. Firstly, they work for the development of their constituency. They participate in the meetings and discussions to plan various activities for the overall development of their constituency. Secondly, they interact with their constituents to gauge their interests and needs and work towards meeting them. Participation is closely linked with the issues of responsiveness and accountability of elected representatives to their voters.

Context: Gender Mainstreaming in Governance in India

The mandate on gender equality has been articulated in many forums. These include international conferences of the 1990s, particularly the International Conference on Population and Development in Cairo, and the Fourth World Conference on Women, in Beijing. Beijing platform for Action (1995) clearly mentions that without the active participation of women and incorporation of the perspectives of women in all levels of decision-making, goals of equality and development cannot be achieved. Unless women constitute a critical mass of at least one third of those in the decision-making, their presence would make little difference to the outcomes of governance. (Panda, 2008) Gender-mainstreaming strategies are best complemented with targeted interventions for women's empowerment. Mainstreaming requires explicit acknowledgement of equality goals: redistribution of power, resources and opportunities in favour of women. Governments across the world have committed to address gender inequities in governance in their various programmes and operations.

In 1992, the Government of India passed the 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act creating local government at the rural level across India. The Article 243G of the Constitution empowered State Legislatures to endow Panchayats with such authority to enable them to function as institutions of self-government as parliament at the federal level and legislative assemblies at the state level. The amendment prescribed regular elections every five years and election within six months of the dissolution of any PRI. To ensure free, fair, and timely elections a provision for setting up of state election commission was created. The amendment laid down 29 functions to be entrusted to the PRIs. To maintain a democratic ethos, popular accountability, and transparency, the amendment emphasised the need for periodic meetings of *Gram Sabha*, composed of all adults in each village, which would approve ongoing programmes and financial allocations. In brief, the amendment visualised the allocation of funds, functions, and functionaries to these bodies to ensure genuine and effective democratic decentralisation.

The most revolutionary provision was the reservation of one-third of the seats for women in local bodies, along with reservation of seats for scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in proportion to their regional populations. Article 243D of the Constitution, by instituting the provision of one-third reservation for marginal groups viz., Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and women, gives them an opportunity to them to hold formal positions of power and, in turn, participate in the decision making process.

The provision of one-third reservation for women guaranteed their representation and participation as group in Panchayats. The 73rd Constitutional Amendment provided the following provisions for women:

1.   Not less than of the one third of the total number of seats reserved for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in every Panchayat shall be reserved for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes or Scheduled Tribes.
2.   Not less than one third (including the number of seats reserved for women belonging to the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes) of the total seats to be filled by the direct election in every Panchayat shall be reserved for the women and allotted by rotation to different constituencies in a Panchayat.
3.   The Act also provides for reservation of one third of the total number of offices of chairpersons in the Panchayats at all levels for women including women from the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes.

On August 27, 2009, the Union Cabinet of the Government of India approved 50 per cent reservation for women in PRIs. Many Indian states as Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Kerala, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Odisha, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Tripura and Uttarakhand have implemented 50% reservation for women in PRIs.

To date, more than one million elected women are occupying constitutionally mandated public offices. Absence of similar constitutional provisions with respect to elected positions in state assemblies and the national Parliament acquires greater significance given these numbers. Globally this is the largest absolute number of women in grassroots politics.

Women in Leadership Positions

A cursory glance over leadership of women elected representatives in the post-73rd CAA phase reveals a mixed scenario. During the first term of Panchayats, the community was suddenly exposed to conflicting sets of expectations. A large number of women got elected to the political seats for the first time ever with no precedence or role models. Governance was new to them. They lacked knowledge, skills and capacities to govern. The family members, especially the male members, took over and provided guidance on governance-related matters. As a result, women stepped back and behaved as mere token representatives (dummies) not finding the space or opportunity to make their voices and opinions heard.

It was in the second term, that the community began to recognize to some extent the role of women in governance and leadership. Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and the government were more prepared with training programmes for EWRs on the functioning of local bodies from day one. Women were redefining the very essence of leadership in terms of openness about the available resources, decision-making and implementation of schemes in their own constituencies/wards. In many instances, they used their elected authority to address several critical issues such as children's education, drinking water facilities, family planning facilities, hygiene and health, quality of healthcare and village development such as roads and electricity in their panchayat areas. They also brought alcohol abuse and domestic violence on to the agenda of political campaigns. At the same time, there have been evidences of backlash against them. EWRs often faced serious problems in performing their duties. There are stories of violations of their rights, exploitation, violence and harassment too. The third term of women's participation in PRIs has revealed increased visibility of women leadership. Women leaders are now exposed to processes and mystic of governance.

It was assumed that affirmative action would build a critical mass of local leadership who would overcome their limitations and actively participate in the strategic political decision-making process. The political representation would give them the voice and a solidarity base to change the entrenched gender-biases. Despite their increased visible political representation, the gender role stereotypes embedded within prevalent socio-cultural, institutional and training practices constrained their ability to exercise independent political agency.

Socio-Cultural Constraints

Unequal gender relations within private (personal) and public spheres

The private - public divide associated with women and men hinder women to negotiate in the public domain. The private domain is associated with household, reproductive work and femininity, whereas the public domain is associated with political authority, public decision-making, productive work and masculinity. The social image of women as housewives renders the political work of many women leaders invisible. Lack of formal educational qualifications, information, skills and inexperience makes them dependent on men in matters relating to governance. They are made to believe that allowing their husbands to take over the political reins from them is only natural; and it is in their own and the interest of the community that they allow the male members of their family takes decisions on their behalf. Men have exploited their naivety to their advantage.

Mobility restraints

The capacity for mobility plays a key role in determining women's location in politics because it determines their access to resources and opportunities and the actual ability to engage in mobilization. Elected representatives need to interact with the agents of the administration or state institutions, all of which are located outside the private spaces of their home. Women leaders faced constraints of physical mobility when they had to visit Panchayat Samiti offices at block headquarters. Men (male leaders/husbands/male relatives) 'offered' to do their job, instead of creating the possibility of safe mobility (Pant & Farrell, 2007)

Gender insensitive political and bureaucratic cultures and trends

The processes of governance are heavily skewed in favour of men. Within the community and political parties as well, there have been instances of direct backlash for women candidates who are vocal, extrovert and exercise their independent decision-making powers. They meet resistance, particularly from upper-caste males, and are often subjected to violence, threats, attempts of bribery, and charges of incompetence, no-confidence motions, and false rumours. In connivance with other men and functionaries, women Sarpanch (chairperson) have faced proportionately higher incidence of no-confidence motions and are forcibly removed from elected offices. There are covert threats and structural impediments that dissuade or stop women from exerting their leadership. For instance, indifference, vested interests, abusive language and non-cooperation of many male elected representatives and public officials hold back women leaders to participate actively. They deliberately choose not to attend the meetings. As a result, they are less informed on the issues related to governance. It also inhibits them from critically deliberating on policy choices from an engendered perspective. The ambivalence about their public role as elected

representatives and dependency on male family members render their participation in governance meaningless. They merely function as 'add on', who came to politics only because of policy imperatives. (Pant &Farrell, 2007)

Intersecting hierarchies such as class, caste, ethnicity, religion and rural/urban locations

Women also face hurdles of caste and class when they enter political domain. These factors play an influential role in determining the authority, power, resources, time and spaces of women. Women from low caste groups, despite reservations, seldom wield any real political power due to the strongly entrenched notions of caste and gender hierarchy. Women leaders with no economic entitlements are often under the control of those who owned and controlled resources (usually males). Dependency curbs their independent decision-making powers. (Pant & Farrell, 2007)

Institutional Constraints

The organizational structures steered towards quantitative targets, i.e. achieving numerical presence of women leaders in political deliberations, have by and large been 'add women' structures, without questioning the basic assumptions, strategic objectives or ways of working with women leaders. They are distantly related to institutional change for gender equality and broader social issues of rights.

The simplistic appeals for increased participation of women generally overlook the institutional issues such as the timings of Gram Sabha meetings, problems of quorum and procedures adopted for finalizing development plans and projects, articulations of priorities and issues in the meetings, the quality of deliberations and manipulation of discussions by dominant groups, rules for filing nominations and travel allowances, constraints of physical mobility, violence and sexual harassment issues of WERs, etc. Important issues such as roads, irrigation, public buildings construction are discussed without much participation from women, in the belief that women have little knowledge, interest, or opinion on such matters. Such stereotypes severely undermine participation, inclusion, and leadership of women in governance. Consequently, women including the elected representatives rarely attend local body meetings and hardly ever articulate their priorities. (Pant& Farrell, 2007)

Capacity Building Constraints

Training for building capacities of local leaders has a 'deficit' perspective. This perspective assumes that the elected representatives 'lack' governance skills; that training in governance procedures and programmes would be sufficient to impart requisite functional skills. In this approach of capacity building, the gender component is missing. Training does not address issues of unequal gendered power relations that generally constrain women's participation politically. The change agents, facilitators, are not motivated to change the status quo. (Pant & Farrell, 2007)

Researching Political Agency of Women in Governance in Adult Education: Potential Research Themes

Gender is a critical component of adult education and lifelong learning. An important understanding that emerges from discussions in the preceding sections that the gender role stereotypes and the intersectionality of caste, class and gender created impediments in terms of inequitable disparities towards exercise of choices, access to opportunities, education and training. Effects of gender role stereotypes on women's lifelong learning for leadership roles in governance need to be examined to remedy the inequities and break the glass ceiling. Some of the potential research themes may be elucidated as below:

Agency in Governance

▪ Patterns of leadership of both women and men within formal public domains of governance.
▪ Stakeholder perception of effective agency in governance: (a) managerial skill sets such as administration and management, development planning and decision making, gender mainstreaming; (b) individual competencies such as personal development skill, leadership skill, communication skill as public speaking, media interfacing, organizational skills as agenda setting, networking and alliance building, lobbying, negotiation, and facilitation etc. The stakeholders include women leaders, male political leaders, Govt officials, citizen leaders, NGOs, family members, community-based organizations etc.
▪ Review of existing policies, norms and rules, work environment / administrative machinery and necessary support services from a gender perspective

Women in Leadership roles

▪ Profile: demographics and psychographics
▪ Exclusion, marginalisation and invisibility of women political agency
▪ Enabling factors e.g., networks, mentoring, handhold support

Education and Learning for Governance

▪ Ways both men and women learn about governance
▪ Ways forms of educational practices influence women's exercise of political agency
▪ Capacity gaps
▪ The political learning and educational needs: Training need assessment
▪ Pedagogical Practices: Objectives, curriculum, content, process, methodology, delivery and resources
▪ Learning settings

Women Collectives and Forums

- Understanding the ways women collectives and forums facilitate women's political agency
- Building and strengthening of women's forums and organising women around it to facilitate their political agency

Constituency Building
- Role of diverse players (government, educational institutions, media, NGOs, women collectives) towards strengthening and sustaining women political agency

Training of Facilitators (Adult Educators)

- Profile
- Training need assessment
- Training of adult educators: Objectives, curriculum, content, process, methodology, delivery and resources

Documentation of Micro-Case Studies

- Success stories of strengthening and sustaining political agency of women in governance

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Dr. S.C. Dutta's Contributions towards Professionalization of Adult Education in India

S. Y.Shah

Dr. S. C.Dutta (1919- 1987) occupies a unique place in the history of Indian adult education not only as a person who dedicated forty long years (1948-1987) to the cause of adult education but also made some significant contributions to the professional development of adult education as a field of practice and a discipline of study mainly though his voluntary work, leadership, advocacy, writings, speeches, interventions in different policy making bodies and expert committees. However, his main concern and contribution was towards building organizations specially the Indian Adult Education Association (IAEA) as a dynamic professional organization which he served in various capacities as Honorary Secretary, Associate Secretary, Vice President, Treasurer and President. Besides, he played a crucial role in setting up and serving in leadership position of two international organizations viz; Asian South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (*ASPBAE*) and the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE).He was one the most fascinating and unassuming adult educator who worked with ease with grassroots level workers, administrators, academicians, political leaders both at national and international levels. He belonged to that remarkable generation of adult educators who not only believed in voluntarism but also practised it and set an example by serving the cause of adult education with deep commitment and passion. A review of his four decades of association with IAEA bears testimony to his inherent belief in the democracy of adult education, success in creating a space in the academic world for the study of adult education, building institutions and shaping the policy and programmes of adult education.

Getting to know Dr.Dutta

Dr. Shib Chandra Dutta was born on August 26, 1919 in Ambala, Punjab in middle class family. After his early education in Ambala, he did graduation from Hindu College and Masters in History from the University of Delhi in1946. He was actively associated with literacy programme during his college days and organised literacy programmes under the Student Literacy league of Delhi University. Because of his interest in literacy work, he joined IAEA as a paid staff for six months during 1948 and left soon when he was selected as a Gazetted Officer in the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting of Government of India. Dr. Dutta continued his association with IAEA and interest in adult education even after joining Government service. He devoted after office hours and Saturdays to work for IAEA.

Although my association with Dr. Dutta was only for a year prior to his demise on December 4, 1987- it left a lasting impact on me. It was during the train journey to Surat (Gujarat) to participate in the international seminar organised by the Commonwealth Association for the Education and Training of Adults that I got a

chance to meet him and discuss various aspects of adult education. When late Shri J.C. Saxena, the then General Secretary of IAEA, who was travelling with me introduced Dr. Dutta as the President of the Association, I felt honoured and delighted to meet a stalwart in the field of Indian adult education and learn more about IAEA.As I was working on a project on   the History of Adult Education in India commissioned by the Directorate of Adult Education of Government of India, I was eager to get as much information and guidance from Dr. Dutta about the historical development of adult education. I was quite surprised to know   that he had deep understanding and knowledge about the subject. Unlike academicians whose knowledge often depended on reading from secondary sources, Dr. Dutta had first-hand experience as he was associated with most of the adult education programmes planned and implemented in India since the independence. Being a repository of vast experience and varied expertise, he was very happy to answer all my questions till late night in a very scholarly but informal manner. He suggested that I visit IAEA library and consult several publications related to my research and if need be, contact him again. Subsequently, I decided to record his views in a systematic manner by drafting a detailed questionnaire. He invited me to his house to record the interview which covered several facets of his work and views on adult education. After making use of the interview for my research, I forgot about it. However, after the demise of Dr. Dutta, the interview was published in a special volume *of Indian Journal of Adult Education* brought out in his memory.

Although, I have been associated with IAEA over the last three decades and undertook various activities and interacted with a number of adult educators, I did not realise the manifold contributions of Dr. Dutta to adult education in general and IAEA in particular till I started working on a coffee table publication on seventy five years of the Association. As I started going through the vast collection of primary and secondary sources at the IAEA Library and conducting interviews with a number of adult educators, I realised the key role of Dr. Dutta in building up the Association and his deep commitment to adult education. It was at this juncture that I came into contact with Shri S.K.Dutta, the son of Dr. Dutta when I shifted my residence to the building where he was residing . My informal interactions with him provided me lot of insights into the life of his father besides providing me with rare photographs from family album.

Developing training as a professional development programme

Dr. Dutta had realized the importance of professionalization of Adult Education and took various initiatives during 1950s and 1960s. Apart from building strong professional organizations at national and international levels, Dr. Dutta worked to introduce adult education as a course of study at the university level and organised a variety of training programmes for adult education functionaries and undertook researches and brought out publications. After having planned and organised several training programmes for adult educators at national and international levels, Dr. Dutta

had realised the need for and importance of strengthening the training of adult educators as a   professional development programme by designing short and long duration professional courses in adult education developed in cooperation with universities. With this idea, he visited Jawaharlal Nehru University to discuss the possibilities of developing a professional course. Dr. Anita Dighe who was the then Director of Adult Education at JNU and myself, an Assistant Director were very happy to work with Dr. Dutta in designing a professional course. Since the course was to be of six week duration and residential in nature and JNU did not have guest house facilitates, Dr. Dighe suggested that we should collaborate with the National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) as it had better facilities. Following week, when the meeting was convened at NIEPA and Dr. Dutta came despite not feeling well, he collapsed while arguing the case for developing a course. After the sad demise of Dr. Dutta, JNU and NIEPA collaborated and organised the first residential course for Directors of State Resource Centres. Subsequently, IAEA discussed the idea of designing a series of short duration courses for adult educators and made a beginning by launching a ten days course on   Research Methodology in 1991 in collaboration with university of Kerala. Subsequently, the course was expanded by including a section on recent developments in the field of adult education and continued to be offered in collaboration with Jawaharlal Nehru University for over a decade.

In order to encourage the university community to introduce adult education courses, Dr. Dutta worked closely with Dr. Mohan Sinha Mehta, the then President of IAEA and set up the Indian University Association for Continuing Education (IUACE) which organised a series of conferences at different universities to sensitise university community about adult education. The office of IUACE was located at IAEA for several years and Dr. Dutta served as the founding Secretary. Dr. Dutta, continued to work with higher education system to establish Departments of Adult Education in Indian Universities. In 1952, he submitted a proposal to the University of Delhi to set up a Department of Adult Education. Though it did not materialise due to lack of funding support from government, he succeeded when the University of Delhi introduced a paper on Adult Education in the Bachelor of Education programme and later set up an Extension Lecture Board to organise extension lectures by the teachers of the university in different parts of Delhi on themes of contemporary relevance. Dr. Dutta along with Dr. Mohan Sinha Mehta continued to liaise with University Grants Commission (UGC) to fund Adult Education programme in Indian Universities and succeeded when the UGC drafted guidelines and allocated funds to Indian Universities to set up University Departments of Adult Education during 1980s.

The extensive international travels and interactions with eminent scholars in different countries motivated Dr. Dutta to work towards establishing an Asian / Commonwealth Institute of Adult education in an Asian country to offer courses and conduct researches in adult education. Mainly due to the shortage of resources, the idea remained a pipe dream. His idea, however, materialised in 2002 when IAEA set up an International Institute of Adult and Lifelong Education at its premises.

Publications

Research and publications being the two crucial components of professionalization of adult education, Dr. Dutta made systematic efforts to bring out several publications besides encouraging others to write on adult education. He felt that adult education being an emerging discipline needs scholarly publications. Apart from the three important publications viz; *History of Adult Education in India; On To Eternity* Vols. I-IV; his other publications include —*Adult Education in South Asia; Literacy to Liberation; New Trends in Adult Education in India; Place of Recreation in Social Education; Social Education– Ten years in Retrospect; Unity in Diversity: Role of Adult Education* and *ASPBAE Comes of Age (1964-85)*. Dr. Dutta collaborated with Dr. John K. Friesen of University of British Columbia and brought out an important publication on *University Adult Education* based on the papers presented in the conference of Vice Chancellors organised at Bhopal. As a part of the forthcoming Golden Jubilee celebrations of IAEA in 1989, Dr. Dutta had planned to bring out a series of monographs on history of adult education in different states and commissioned several scholars. Since he had difficulty in finding a person to write on adult education in Bihar, he requested me to write as he had seen my paper on the "Mass Literacy Campaigns in Bihar (1938-1939)" published in the *Journal of Education and Social Change*. Accepting Dr. Dutta's request, I wrote a monograph on *Adult Education in Bihar* which was published by IAEA and released during the Golden Jubilee conference. . Some of the important publications released during Golden Jubilee year -1989 were: *Mass Movement for Adult Education* by B.R.Patil, *National Literacy Mission : Problems and Prospects* by J. C. Saxena & Sachdeva J.L.; *Adult Education : a Focus for the Social Sciences* by James A. Draper, *Adult education: Some Reflections* by B.B. Mohanty.

Dr. Dutta contributed to planning and policy making in adult education mainly through participation as an expert member of several committees viz; Central Social Welfare Board, Workers Education, Social Education, Ministry of Education, World Confederation of Teaching Profession. However, his significant contribution to policy making was when he along with Dr. Roby Kidd, drafted the chapter on Adult Education in the *Report on Indian Education Committee (1964-66)* which continues to be referred by adult educators even today. He took great pains to edit and publish the *Indian Journal of Adult Education* during 1950s when there was dearth of resources and staff. He also edited the ASPBAE journal for over a decade. He had realised the importance and role of publication of journals to further the cause of professionalization.

Setting-up International professional organizations

Dr. S.C. Dutta, the then Honorary General secretary of IAEA along with Mr. Arnold Hely, Director of University of Adelaide, Australia played a key role in setting up the Asian South Pacific Bureau of Adult Education which brought together several

non-governmental organizations in the Asia Pacific region .He served as the founding Chairman of ASPBAE for twelve years (1964-1976) and organised several international conferences and seminars in India and other Asian Countries. He was instrumental in organising   "Celebration of 21 years of ASPBAE" in New Delhi in 1975.

Dr. S.C .Dutta played an important role in the formation of the Commonwealth Association for Education and Training of Adults (CAETA) during the international conference held at UKAI Dam in Surat in 1987. Dr. Dutta served as a UNESCO Consultant to Asian Regional conferences in Saigon in 1962 and in Sydney in 1964. In recognition of meritorious services rendered to adult education, Dr. Dutta received several international and national honours. viz; Honorary Doctorate by Keimyopung University of Republic of Korea, (1979). Arnold Hely Award by ASPBAE (1985) and Nehru Literacy Award (1985).

A dedicated Adult Educator

Not only did he serve IAEA in all the key positions in a purely honorary capacity but also encouraged his wife also to work for IAEA. However he did not encourage his children to join the Association mainly to avoid nepotism, thereby setting an example to others. As mentioned by his wife, he had no time for family and he dedicated his life to IAEA. It would not be an exaggeration to state that his first love was adult education and he was married to IAEA. His wife also joined him in most of the activities of IAEA and even served as a Vice President of IAEA during 1990-97. She edited the Hindi Journal – *Proudh Shiksha* for some years. It seems that Dr. Dutta was very passionate about his work and spent all the free time to work for the IAEA. According to his wife, he was a workaholic and ignored his health which led to his early death. He took great pains to collect funds for the building of IAEA headquarters by personally approaching the Union Ministers and pubic and often felt very worried when the work did not progress as planned due to the shortage of funds. Being Delhi based and staying at Daryaganj, near to the Indraprastha Estate, he regularly supervised the building work as if his own house. In the early days, the office of the Association functioned from his house.

Irrespective of his wide contacts with dignitaries and achievements, Dr. Dutta kept a low profile and remained as a humble voluntary worker of IAEA. A review of his work at IAEA shows that he was a rare combination of scholar, activist, effective speaker and an institution builder   par excellence. His wife considered *him as a yogi who was above caste, creed colour, provincialism or communism. According to her, he was a socialist, a communist, a revolutionary and a reformist.* Dr Dutta's role in IAEA cannot be expressed better than the following observations made by the late Dr. Mohan Sinha Mehta, then President of IAEA on the occasion of the inauguration of Shafique Memorial building on April 26, 1961.

"The world outside may not know but it deserves to be reported with deep appreciation that if there is any single individual more than anybody else responsible for the development of the scope and services of this Association, it is undoubtedly our Honorary General Secretary, Shri S.C. Dutta. It is my duty to express our deep appreciation and gratitude to him for his long and selfless service to the Association. He works in an honorary capacity and makes his wife also to give her service to the Association. He is so modest and works so quietly that nobody knows with what hard work, thoroughness and salient sacrifices he has built up the Association over a number of years. The country owes a great deal to him."

A Co-relational and Comparative Study of Internet Addiction, Depression, Anxiety and Stress between Under-Graduate and Post-Graduate University Students

Gopal Chandra Mahakud
Nandita Babu
Khagendra Nath Gangai

Frequent usage and easy accessibility of smart-phone, i-phone, and the computer is some of the reason for internet addiction in adolescents and young adults. Nowadays, the accession of internet not only changes the ways of adolescent's life and communication but also has a profound influence on adolescent's behavior and mentality (Mahakud & Bhola, 2014). Currently, in the area of advancement of technology and its excessive usage in day to day life, one of the most common of problems is called Internet addiction (Murali & George, 2007; Shapira, Lessig, Goldsmith et al., 2003; Young, 1998). Some researchers (e. g. McKenna & Bargh, 1998; Morgan & Cotton, 2003; Ko & Kuo, 2009, and Mahakud & Bhola, 2014) proved the positive relationship of the use of social networking sites with the physical and mental well being. On the other hand, Young (1996) stated that excessive uses or addiction to the Internet may create problems for the users. Following the negative effects of excessive Internet use, some researchers termed it as pathological Internet use (Beard, 2005; and Frangos & Frangos, 2009), excessive Internet use, and compulsive Internet use (Kim, 2008). Some authors (e.g. Davis, 2001; and Lin & Tsai, 2002) have used numerous terms such as Internet dependents, problematic Internet users, or pathological Internet users. Numbers of researchers (e.g. Lenhart, 2007; and O' Keefe, Clarke-Pearson & CCM, 2011) affirmed a negative relationship of Internet addiction, especially use of social networking with both psychic and psychological well being. From their study, Griffiths (2000) and Greenfield, (1999) have affirmed that the excessive usage of the Internet leads to negative impact which further creates both physical and psychological disorders. In their research (Brenner, 1997; Nie & Erbring, 2000; and McKenna & Bargh, 2000) have also linked excessive uses of the Internet with an increase in psychological difficulties such as depression and loneliness. Due to the uses of the internet, some other symptoms were also often identified such as pre-occupied with the internet, an inability to control use, hiding or lying about the behavior, psychological withdrawal, and continued use despite consequences of the behavior (Young, 2007). The researcher stated that stresses among Internet users are very common; especially those are more prone to Internet use. In this regard, Nie et al., (2002) stated that due to the excessive uses of the Internet, users usually forget the time spent for Internet access and neglect some other important personal and family responsibilities. As a result, he/she feel higher levels of stress and loneliness.

The psychological problems and excessive uses of the Internet are quite correlated. Internet addiction is usually related to many psychological problems such as psychomotor agitation, anxiety, craving (Ferraro, Caci, D'Amico, et. al., 2007); depression, hostility, substance experience (Ko, Yen, Chen et al., 2006; Yen, Ko, Yen et al., 2007; Kraut, Patterson, Lundmark, Kiesler, Mukophadhyay, & Scherlis, 1998; McKenna & Bargh, Kraut, Kiesler, Boneva, Cummings, Helgeson, & Crawford, 2000; and Nie, Hillygus, & Erbring, 2002); preoccupation, loss of control, withdrawal, impairment of function, reduced decision-making ability (Ko, Yen, Chen et al., 2005), and regular online surfing despite negative effects on social and psychological welfare (Shaw & Black, 2008; and Tao et al., 2010).

Besides the physical and psychological problems due to the excessive use of the Internet is also linked with some social and psychological variables such as, declines in the size of social circle, depression, loneliness (Kraut et al., 1998); lower self-esteem and life satisfaction (Ko, Yen, Chen et al., 2005); sensation seeking (Lin and Tsai, 2002); poor mental health (Yang, 2001; and Young & Rogers, 1998); and low family function (Armstrong, Phillips, & Saling, 2000). In this regard, Kandell, (1998) conducted a study among college students and found that there is a significant relationship exist between the Internet addiction with depression, anxiety, and stress. Internet addiction among individual is also affected by anxiety and stress level (e.g. Egger & Rauterberg, 1996; and Yu, 2001).

The results of excessive usages of Internet and individual's behavior due to anxiety and stress, manifested by some communicating problems, interacting with others in an unhealthy, negative, and less meaningful way. Besides the common stress it is also found that excessive uses of the Internet may also create psychiatric symptoms such as somatization, obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation and psychoticism comparatively more than students those are not excessive Internet users (Mustafa, 2011; and Akin, A. & Iskender, 2011). After all, there is also a significant difference between male and female in their uses of Internet, especially in social networking (Hasanzadeh, Beydokhti, & Zadeh, 2012). Further Duggan and Brenner (2013) affirmed that the female uses the Internet (social networking) comparatively more than to their male counterparts.

Although numbers of studies stated that excessive internet has numbers of negative effects, still there are very few studies conducted on depression, anxiety and stress in relation excessive use of the internet among college going adolescents and young adults, especially in developing countries like India. Therefore the present study was planned to find out the relationship of excessive internet users stress, anxiety, and depression level and to compare the usage internet and the level of stress, depression, and anxiety between male and female participants of both UG and PG students that may directly or indirectly affect academic, occupational, physical and psychosocial well-being in their later life.

Method

Objectives

The main objective of the study was to find out the role of Excessive Internet use and its relation to depression, anxiety, and stress among college going adolescents.

Hypothesis

On the basis of above mentioned objective and supportive review of literature, the following hypothesis can be formulated:

1.   There is a significant relationship between Internet addiction and psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, and stress

2.   The level of depression, anxiety and stress are also significantly different between UG and PG participants.

3.   There is a significant difference of Internet addiction, level of stress, depression, and anxiety between male and female participants of both UG and PG students

Sample

The participants for the study were collected following purposive random sampling process. From a pool of Internet-addicted participants, a total of 120 participants were selected for the present study. Those students were used to using the excessive Internet (for a period of 4 hours per day, Young, 1994), especially accessing social networking sites were included in the study. Out of the total participants, n1=60 were undergraduate and n2= 60 were postgraduate students. Further, the participants were subdivided into four categories: 30 male and 30 female from each group. The age range of these participants were 18-24 (Median age=22). The data were collected from students studying at the University of Delhi, Delhi, India.

Design

The study followed a non-experimental field survey method of research design. The information regarding the excessive use of Internet and DASS (Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale) was collected individually after purposive random selection.

Material

1.   Internet Addiction Test, (Young, 1994). Internet Addiction Test (IAT) is a reliable and valid measure of addictive use of the Internet, developed by Dr. Kimberly Young in the year 1994. It consists of 20 items that measure the mild, moderate and

severe level of Internet Addiction. The Internet Addiction Test based on 6 point scale of measurement starting from 'Does not apply (0) to Always (5).

2.   *Depression, Anxiety, Stress Scale (Lovibond and Lovibond, 1995).* Depression, Anxiety, Stress Scale (DASS) was developed by Lovibond, S. H. & Lovibond, P. F. in the year 1995. This scale was intended to measure depression, anxiety, and stress levels among the elderly people to correlate if emotional intelligence and spirituality have any effect on depression, anxiety, and stress. The DASS is based on a dimensional rather than a categorical conception of psychological disorder. The assumption on which the DASS development was based (and which was confirmed by the research data) is that the difference between the depression, the anxiety, and the stress experienced by normal subjects and the clinically disturbed, are essentially differences of degree. The DASS, therefore, has no direct implications for the allocation of patients to discrete diagnostic categories postulated in the classificatory systems such as the DSM and ICD. However, recommended cut-offs for conventional severity labels (normal, moderate, severe) are given in the DASS manual.

Procedure

Before starting the data collection informed consent was taken from each participant. After rapport formation participants were administered with Internet addiction test followed by DASS. Whenever the participants were confused or in doubt for comprehension of the items of the tools, researchers helped him/her stating in simple and comprehensive language. The scoring process was for both measures were followed the manual of respective tests

Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics using Mean, SD, Pearson's product movement correlation and Student's t-test were calculated dividing the data for male, female and total participants using SPSS 20.0. Data were compared between adolescents of undergraduate and postgraduate students and also compared between gender with among the variables such as Internet addiction with depression, anxiety, and stress.

Results

The results of the present study indicate that in under-graduate male participants the variables of depression shares a significant relationship with the variable of stress ($r=0.650**$) followed by anxiety ($r=0.623**$) and Internet addiction ($r=0.489**$). Similarly, the stress score and anxiety are highly correlated ($r=0.613**$) but Internet addiction and stress among male undergraduate internet users are correlated, but not significantly ($r=0.268$). Further, the results indicate that Internet addiction and anxiety

are correlated with each other (r=0.509**) among the male undergraduate students. The results female undergraduate students depression, anxiety, stress in relation to Internet addiction (**Table-1**) indicate a highly significant relationship. In this context, it can be said that excessive use of the Internet may produce the psychological problems such as depressions, anxiety, and stress. From the result, it is found that the Internet addiction of the female has a significant relationship with depression (r=0.562**), followed by correlation of Internet addiction with anxiety (r=0.544**) and stress (r=0.481**). In this regard, it can be affirmed that excessive use of the Internet may lead to anxiety, stress, and depression among college adolescents, especially among females. Further, the correlation matrices indicate a high correlation between stress and depression score (r=0.906**); anxiety and depressions (r=0.923**) and anxiety and stress (r=0.909**) among the female adolescents.

Table – 1
Inter-correlation between Depressions, Stress, and Anxiety of Undergraduate Students

Categories	Depression scores	Stress score	Anxiety scores	Internet Addiction scores
Inter-Correlation of Depression, anxiety, and Stress with Internet Addiction UG **Male Students**				
Depression scores	1	0.650**	0.623**	0.489**
Stress score		1	0.613**	0.268
Anxiety scores			1	0.509**
Internet Addiction scores				1
Inter-Correlation of Depression, anxiety, and Stress with Internet Addiction UG **Female Students**				
Depression scores	1	0.906**	0.923**	0.562**
Stress score		1	0.909**	0.481**
Anxiety scores			1	0.544**
Internet Addiction scores				1
Inter-Correlation of Depression, anxiety, and Stress with Internet Addiction **Total UG Students**				
Depression scores	1.00	0.802**	0.793**	0.581**
Stress score		1.00	0.802**	0.484**
Anxiety scores				0.579**
Internet Addiction scores				1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The inter-correlation between depression, anxiety, stress and Internet addiction

among combined gender of total undergraduate students (n1=60) represents the correlation between Internet addiction and depression (r=0.581**), followed by Internet with anxiety (r=0.579**) and Internet with stress (r=0.484**). The result shows a significant relationship between Internet addiction, stress, anxiety, and depression (**Table-1**). Further, the Internet addiction may lead to depressions, anxiety, and stress among teenagers or college going adolescents. The results of combined total undergraduate students also proved a significant relationship between stress with depression (r=0.802**), followed by anxiety with depression (r=0.793**) and stress with anxiety (r=0.802**). In this regard, it can be concluded that females having stress and anxiety are more prone to depression.

The inter-correlation result between Internet addiction, depression, anxiety, and stress among postgraduate male students (**Table-2**) represent a significant relationship. The inter-correlation between Internet addiction score with depression (r=0.570**); followed by Internet addiction with stress (r=0.532**) and Internet addiction with anxiety (r=0.518**) indicate a significant correlation among the postgraduate male participants in the present study. The result proved that due to excessive usage of the Internet the postgraduate male students may suffer depression, anxiety, and stress. Similarly, it was observed that there is a significant correlation between depression and stress (r=0.667**), depression and anxiety score (r=0. 775**) and anxiety and stress (r=0.791**).

Table-2
Inter-correlation between Depressions, Stress & Anxiety of Postgraduate Students

Categories	Depression scores	Stress score	Anxiety scores	Internet Addiction scores
Inter-Correlation of Depression, anxiety, and Stress with Internet Addiction PG **Male Students**				
Depression scores	1	0.667**	0.775**	0.570**
Stress score		1	0.791**	0.532**
Anxiety scores			1	0.518**
Internet Addiction scores				1
Inter-Correlation of Depression, anxiety, and Stress with Internet Addiction PG **Female Students**				
Depression scores	1	0.685**	0.526**	-0.230
Stress score		1	0.763**	0.012
Anxiety scores			1	0.063
Internet Addiction scores				1
Inter-Correlation of Depression, anxiety, and Stress with Internet Addiction **Total PG Students**				
Depression scores	1	0.667**	0.644**	0.179
Stress score		1	0.791**	0.532**
Anxiety scores			1	0.288*
Internet Addiction scores				1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

A contradictory correlated result found, among the female postgraduate participants in the present study, the inter-correlation results (**Table-2**) indicate a negative correlation of Internet addiction with depressions (r= -0.230) and a low correlation of Internet addiction to stress (r= 0.012) and internet addiction with anxiety (r=0.063). Further, it is found that the inter-correlation between female postgraduate students indicate the correlation of depression with stress (r=0.685**); depression with anxiety (r=0.526**) and stress with anxiety (r=0.763**). The results proved that the excessive usage of Internet in case of female postgraduate students was not prone to stress, anxiety, and depression. The inter-correlation results **(depicted in Table-2)** of combined gender total postgraduate student's (n2=60) Internet addiction with depression (r=0.179) and Internet addiction with anxiety (r=0.288) show no significant relationship between the variables. On the other hand, there is a significant relationship exist between Internet addiction and stress (r=0.532**).

In this context, it can be stated that postgraduate participants who are addicted to the Internet are not prone to depression and anxiety but they are prone to stress. The cause might be the educational maturity enabled them to handle the factors of Internet addiction related to depression and anxiety. The stress among these participants might be due to some other reasons. Further, it is also found that there is a significant relationship exist among the combined gender postgraduate participants of their depression score with stress (r=0.667**), followed by depression with anxiety (r=0. 644**) and stress with anxiety (r=0.791**).

The gender comparison results of UG male and female (**Table-3**) reveal a significant difference of Internet addiction between UG Male (47.13±12.75) and UG Female (30.40±14.47) at P =0.000**. Similarly, for depression score, it indicates a significant difference among UG Male (33.49±19.31) and female (22.14±18.35) at P = 0.023*. The result is identical to the anxiety score of UG Male (32.86±14.51)and UG Female (21.98±18.27) and stress score UG male (40.72±19.97) and female (28.57±22.02) at P =0.013** and P = 0.029* respectively.

In this regard, it can be said that Male at the undergraduate level are more addicted to the Internet than to their female counterparts and similarly male under-graduate participants are victimized to stress, anxiety, and depression comparatively higher than to female undergraduate participants.

Table-3
Male vs Female Comparison of Internet Addiction, Depression, Anxiety and Stress among UG and PG Participants

Parameter	Categories	Mean	SD	t	P-Value
Internet addiction	UG Male	47.13	12.75		
	UG Female	30.40	14.47	4.75	0.000**
Depression	UG Male	33.49	19.31		
	UG Female	22.14	18.35	2.33	0.023*
Anxiety	UG Male	32.86	14.51		
	UG Female	21.98	18.27	2.55	0.013**
Stress	UG Male	40.72	19.97		
	UG Female	28.57	22.02	2.24	0.029*
Internet addiction	PG Male	35.90	15.18		
	PG Female	29.33	11.05	1.92	0.060
Depression	PG Male	15.87	14.43		
	PG Female	19.37	15.40	0.91	0.368
Anxiety	PG Male	19.52	11.44		
	PG Female	16.90	11.33	0.89	0.376
Stress	PG Male	25.08	13.10		
	PG Female	26.75	14.02	0.48	0.636

*e"0. 05 and 0.01 level of significance (α 0.05=2.00 and α 0.01=2.66 at df=58)

As earlier, it has been stated that both postgraduate male and female participants are less addicted to Internet use, which indirectly manifested in their stress, anxiety and depression level lower than the undergraduate participants. In this context the results **(See Table-3)** indicate that there is no significant difference of the Internet addiction score (P=0.060), Depression, (P=0.368), stress (P=0.636) and anxiety score (P=0.376) between the male and female postgraduate participants. But still, the mean scores of both male and female participants in Internet addiction, depression, anxiety, and stress revealed that male participants are more prone to Internet addiction and suffer depression, stress, and anxiety comparatively more than for their female postgraduate counterparts.

Finally, the comparison between UG and PG participants of Internet addiction, depression, anxiety and stress score (**Table-4**) indicate the mean Internet addiction score of UG male (47.13±12.75) and PG Male (35.90±15.18) at P = 0.003** stated a

significant difference between these two groups. In other words, it can be said that UG male participants are more victimized by Internet addiction than to PG male participants. The identical results were found in the factors of depression UG male (33.50±19.31) and PG Male (15.87±14.43) at P=0.000**; a factor of anxiety UG male (32.86±14.51) and PG Male (19.52±11.44) at P=0.000** and factor of stress UG male (40.72±19.97) and PG Male (25.08±13.10) at P =0.001** which proved a significant difference between UG and PG male participant groups even in depression, stress and anxiety due to the usage of internet. The cause might be the immaturity and unawareness of the negative effects of Internet addiction among the UG male participants.

Table-4
Comparison of Internet Addiction, Depression, Anxiety and Stress among UG and PG Participants

Parameter	Categories	Mean	SD	t	P-Value
Internet addiction	UG Male	47.13	12.75	3.10	0.003
	PG Male	35.90	15.18		
Depression	UG Male	33.50	19.31	4.00	0.000
	PG Male	15.87	14.43		
Anxiety	UG Male	32.86	14.51	3.95	0.000
	PG Male	19.52	11.44		
Stress	UG Male	40.72	19.97	3.59	0.001
	PG Male	25.08	13.10		
Internet addiction	UG Female	30.40	14.47	0.32	0.749
	PG Female	29.33	11.05		
Depression	UG Female	22.14	18.35	0.64	0.528
	PG Female	19.37	15.40		
Anxiety	UG Female	21.98	18.27	1.29	0.201
	PG Female	16.60	11.33		
Stress	UG Female	28.57	22.02	0.38	0.703
	PG Female	26.75	14.02		

*e"0. 05 and 0.01 level of significance (α 0.05=2.00 and α 0.01=2.66 at df=58)

On the other hand, the Internet addiction score of UG female (30.40±14.47) and PG female (29.33±11.05) Participants show no significant difference (P=0.749). Similarly, the depression score of UG female (22.14±18.35) and PG female (19.37±15.40) shows no significant difference (P=0.528). The anxiety score of UG female (21.98±18.27) and PG female (16.60 ±11.33) indicates no such significant difference at (P= 0.201). Finally, the stress score of UG female (28.57±22.02) and PG female (26.75±14.02) also proved no significant difference between both the undergraduate and postgraduate female participants (P=0.703). In this regard it can be said that females are less prone to Internet addiction as a result, in-spite of their educational level they are less victimized by depression, anxiety, and stress.

Discussion

The inter-correlation of depression, anxiety, stress in relation to Internet addiction indicate high correlation in the undergraduate male who were addicted to the Internet, whereas depression and Internet addiction is correlated but not so sturdily. Similarly, Internet addiction among female undergraduate participants shows high correlation with depression and anxiety. The combined male and female undergraduate results also proved that Internet addiction is highly correlated with depression, anxiety, and stress (**See Table-1**). Further, the results of postgraduate male participants addicted to the Internet, are more prone to depression, anxiety, and stress. But postgraduate female participants, addicted to Internet use showed negative and less correlation between stress and depression. They still victimized to the problem of anxiety due to excessive use of the Internet. The combined gender, participant addicted to Internet proved that postgraduate participant addicted to the Internet has no such problem of depression and anxiety, but have a significant relationship with stress (**See Table-2**). In this context, the combined gender results which indicate the negative relationship between Internet addiction and depression might be the repressive negative relationship of female postgraduate participants Internet addiction score with depression. In this context, the 1st hypothesis of the study has fulfilled and stating that teenager addicted to the Internet has a positive relation to depression, anxiety, and stress.

Internet addiction among both male and female undergraduate participants shows a significant relationship between depression, anxiety, and stress, but male participants are more depressed than their female counterparts. The cause might be due to excessive use of the Internet among male undergraduate participants than to the undergraduate female participants (**See Table-3**), which manifested to their highest score in depression, anxiety and stress. Similarly, the comparison score of Internet addiction between postgraduate male and female indicates a significant difference, which states that male postgraduate participants are more depressed than their female counterparts, but female participants addicted to the Internet are more stressed and have more anxiety problem than to male counterparts. The more depressive problem among male participants might be due to their excessive and uncontrolled use of the Internet. In this regard, the 2nd hypothesis of the present study proved successively.

In this context, the present study indicated that male adolescents in Indian sector are more addicted to the Internet than to their female counterparts. The cause might be fewer opportunities, family restriction and social stigma associated with the female adolescent use Internet. On the other hand, a recent American survey result of the use of the Internet among male and female teenagers conducted by Duggan and Brenner (2013) suggested that female teenagers use more frequently Internet (71%) than to their male counterparts (62%). In spite of the gender difference in addition to the Internet, it is highly co-related to psychological problems among

the adolescent especially those are less mature and educated. In this context Ybarra, (2004) and Kraut et al., (1998) in their study found a positive correlation between Internet addiction and depression.

Further, Fagan, (2010), also affirmed a significant relationship exists between the use of social networking and risk of physical and mental problems. In contrary to some researchers (e.g. Kraut et al., 1998; Morgan & Cotten, 2003; and Ko & Kuo, 2009) have found that usage of the Internet can lead to an increase in psychological well-being but not for all but for some students. Further, the result also indicates that both male and female postgraduate participants are less addicted to the Internet than to both male and female undergraduate participants (**See Table-4**).

The excessive usages of the Internet among undergraduate students might be due to many other factors, such as educational immaturity and impulsivity. The cause might be that in some cases, the psychological problems among less matured users of the Internet may be related to cyberbullying. In this context, Kowalski, (2010) stated that victimization of higher levels of depression and anxieties are some of the common problems among teenagers due to cyberbullying than traditional bullying. Further, the results of the present study affirmed that educational qualification and maturity play a vital role in the problem of Internet addiction, which manifested numerous physical and psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, and stress among adolescents especially with lower age and educational level of Internet users.

Conclusion

The glamour of Internet usage among Indian adolescents is increasing in nature. It may be due to the process of imitation and/or over increasing demands of technology. In most of the cases adolescent without having the appropriate knowledge of, terms and conditions, guidelines, ethical issues related to the Internet and social networking usage lead to numbers of physical and mental problems. From this study, it can be concluded that male Indian adolescents are more prone to Internet addiction than to their female counterparts and level of educational play a vital role in this context. Excessive usage of the Internet among Indian male adolescents may be associated with numbers of psychological disorders such as depression, anxiety, and stress, which indirectly affects the educational, social, and family life of the adolescent at present and also for the future. Females addicted to the Internet are not free from these problems. In this context, it can be suggested that it is necessary to avoid the irrational and excessive use of the Internet for safe and healthy lifestyle especially for female Internet users just to avoid the sex offenders and cyber bullying.

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Study of HIV/AIDS awareness among NSS and Non-NSS students

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Adolescence is a period of great turmoil and search of self-identity. It is also the time when sexual yearnings become pronounced. This leads to desire for sexual relationships. Consequently, awareness about safe sexual practices is very essential during adolescence. Sometimes, limited awareness regarding safe sexual behaviour makes adolescence more vulnerable to Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). As open discussion regarding sex with elders or even peers is still a taboo in India, and sexuality education in schools and colleges is not common, adolescents are constrained to depend on the unauthorized sources. Such sources also transmit myths and misconceptions, and further spread the sexually transmitted infections to others.

Number of HIV/AIDS patients alive on Anti-Retroviral Treatment (ART) in India was 11,57,787 as per data given to Lok Sabha in September 2015. Among these 9,02,868 were receiving free treatment. In the year 2015-16, up to December 2016, 1,41,458 were detected to be sero positive.

From 2010, the number of people infected by HIV has fallen by 6%, and in 2015 there were 36.7 million people living with HIV and 1.1 million died from Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) related diseases worldwide, (UNAIDS 2016). As per Newspaper reports, third largest number of people living with HIV/AIDS are found in India (The Hindu, 2014). One in every four people in the world living with HIV is less than 25 years of age. In 35% of the AIDS reported cases in India, the infected is in the age group of 15-24 years (Naswa, S., Marfatia,Y.S. 2010). This clearly indicates that our youngsters are a vulnerable population of HIV/AIDS.

People have contracted HIV due to blood transfusions. There are instances where people donating blood are not aware that they are HIV positive. (Times of India, 2018).According to Aids map, second-generation ELISAs were estimated to

5,000 people in villages of Bangarmau Tehsil of Uttar Pradesh in India, live in fear of having contracted HIV infection, due to a local quack. The local quack is alleged to have spread the infection by administering patients by reusing the same infected syringe. The quack charged as low as Rs. 10 for medicines. He consulted at least 150 patients a day, hence, people from the adjoining areas thronged at his dispensary. His medical kit is alleged to have included a used syringe and needle which he washed with water from the nearby hand-pump(Times of India, Feb.8, 2018).

detect infection after 42 days and first-generation after 63 days. Different authorities give slightly different estimates for the duration of the window period between exposure and the ability of third-generation tests to detect infection, which is between three weeks (21 days) and six weeks (42 days). The addition of testing for antigen in fourth-generation ELISA test kit reduces the window period by around five days, compared to third-generation tests.

National AIDS Control Organization (NACO), in its annual report of 2016-17 have reported that the adult HIV prevalence at national level has continued its steady decline from an estimated peak of 0.38% in 2001-03 through 0.34% in 2007, 0.28% in 2012 and 0.26% in 2015. In 2015 adult HIV prevalence was estimated at .30% among males and at 0.22% among females.

As per reply given to Lok Sabha Starred Question No. 113 dated on 09.02.2018, the number of People Living with HIV (PLHIV) in the year 2017 is estimated to be 21,06,706 and among those 11, 81,125 were on Anti-Retroviral Therapy (ART) till December 2017. As per information given to the Lok Sabha by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare, the number of newly diagnosed HIV cases in the year 2017 (till December 2017) is 1,91,493.

HIV is a virus that attacks the immune system and weakens body's natural defenses against other illness, infections, cancers and diseases. This results in increased susceptibility to a wide range of infections. This virus damages a type of white blood cells called T-helper cells or CD4 cells and makes copies of itself inside. The advanced stage of this HIV infection is the AIDS, which can take 2 to 15 years or even more to develop, depending on the individual, but AIDS is however, a life-threatening disease (WHO Fact Sheet, 2017).

HIV symptoms differ from individual to individual. Many HIV infected become most infectious in first few months. However, there are many who aren't aware until the last stages. As the infections develop the symptoms like fever, sore throat, rashes start showing up. Slowly and gradually signs like weight loss, swollen lymph nodes, cough etc. develop leading to tuberculosis and even cancers without proper treatments. (WHO Fact Sheet, 2017),

According to Maharashtra State AIDS Control Society, HIV transmission from male-to-female during sex is twice when compared with female-to-male; as females are more vulnerable due to various factors such as social, cultural, economic, biological, etc. Biologically, young women are more vulnerable compared to young men to contract HIV infection because of lack of access to proper information on HIV. Early marriages increase the gravity of this situation. Hence, testing the awareness on HIV/AIDS of the most vulnerable population which is adolescent girls seemed very important.

Development of programmes that induce behaviour change of adolescents, is the only way to control further HIV/AIDS transmission, as prevention is the only solution to this incurable HIV/AIDS. For this behaviour change, determining one's current level of awareness, attitude and knowledge on HIV/AIDS and its mode of transmissions, precautionary measures, and myths and misconceptions associated with it, is the beginning.

National Service Scheme

National Service Scheme sponsored by the government of India through the Department of Youth Affairs aims at overall personality development of students through community service. This scheme is mainly implemented for students who are in the first year and second year of their degree programme, i.e. above 12th (10 + 2 level). In this scheme students voluntarily offer themselves to take part in NSS activities under the supervision of NSS Project Officer at the College level. These students are known as "NSS Volunteers".

Educational institutions that have NSS unit, share a list of common activities that they organize. The students who enrolled in NSS have to involve themselves in such activities as mentioned in the list, after college hours or during weekends and work for not less than 120 hours in a single academic year and another 120 hours in the next academic year. After completing 240 hours of work and seven days residential camp in two years, the NSS student gets 10 marks as incentive. These marks are added in the grand total obtained by students in the final mark-sheet received at the end of the degree programme.

Social service rendered by the NSS volunteers in rural areas covers several activities in adopted villages. However, in urban areas there is a huge distance between the campus and the village. Hence, the NSS volunteers prefer to adopt a slum for development. Through an active involvement in communities, students learn the process of identifying the local problems, planning solutions and implementing the solutions with the help of local leaders.

The volunteers undergo various trainings and activities organized by their NSS Department which helps to develop their personality. Such activities widen their perspective and increase their level of awareness and knowledge.

It is important to know that the HIV/AIDS awareness has been an important activity undertaken by the colleges under NSS. The NSS students attended awareness sessions conducted by Mumbai District Aids Control Society (MDACS). Thereafter, the students volunteered to create awareness about HIV/AIDS in the community, especially in the areas adopted by their college for NSS related work. In many colleges Red ribbon clubs were also established at the behest of MDACS.

As HIV/AIDS awareness was an important component of the NSS programme, it was expected that the NSS students would be more aware about various aspects of HIV/AIDS as compared to the non-NSS students. Therefore, a study was designed to compare NSS and non-NSS students on their awareness about HIV/AIDS.

Methodology adopted for the study

The aim of the study was to find out the difference between NSS students and non-NSS students with respect to HIV/AIDS awareness on the basis of correct responses obtained by them on HIV/AIDS awareness test. The null hypothesis for this study was

'There is no difference in the number of correct responses obtained by NSS students and Non-NSS students in HIV/AIDS awareness Test'.

A comparison was made between the NSS and Non-NSS students using a test specially designed for them.

Description of the Sample

The sample consisted of two groups:

Group 1- This group included 30 students studying in the Third Year of their degree programme, who were enrolled in NSS and had undergone NSS training for two years i.e. in their first and second year of degree programme.
Group 2- This group consists of 30 students studying in the Third Year of their degree programme and had no exposure of NSS activities.

Both the groups were selected from a women's college in Mumbai. The college had three NSS units with a total of 300 students involved in NSS activities. The college was randomly selected from amongst the Mumbai based permanently affiliated colleges of a Women's University.

After selecting the college, the researcher contacted the principal of the college, who agreed to facilitate the process of research. With the help of the principal two groups of willing students (NSS and Non-NSS) were enrolled for the study. The students in both the groups were studying in Third Year degree programme. It was found that both the groups were comparable with respect to their age, sex and socio-economic background. Two groups differed only in one aspect, Group -1 had students who were exposed to NSS activities and Group -2 had students who were not exposed to such activities.

Tool used in the study
In order to find HIV/AIDS awareness of Group 1 and 2 a test was devised with 30

items. These were statements related to HIV/AIDS, its myths and misconceptions, modes of transmissions, diagnoses, etc. The respondent had to mark 'true or false' against each statement. For marking scheme, Answer key was prepared for the test by referring to standard textbooks and reference books. These answer keys were checked by experts for its correctness.

The HIV/AIDS awareness test was preceded by profile questions to understand the background of the respondents.

Analysis of Data

The data obtained from the two groups of respondents was analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques. Correct responses of both the groups were arranged against each test items included in the test for ease of item wise comparison. Mean and Standard deviation of each group was calculated. Student t-test (Two tailed test for 2 independent means) was conducted to test the null hypothesis, 'There is no difference in the number of correct responses obtained by NSS students and Non-NSS students in HIV/AIDS awareness Test'.

Correct responses by Experimental and Control groups on HIV Awareness Test

Sr. No.	Item	True/ false/ cannot say	Correct responses by group exposed to NSS (Group-1)	Correct responses by group not exposed to NSS (Group-2)
1.	One does not get HIV/AIDS by kissing a person living with HIV/AIDS	True	27	16
2.	One does not get HIV/AIDS by hugging a person living with HIV/AIDS	True	27	12
3.	One gets HIV/AIDS by eating in the same plate of a person living with HIV/AIDS	False	27	22
4.	One gets HIV/AIDS by swimming in the same swimming pool where an HIV infected person had swam	False	26	23
5.	One gets HIV/AIDS by patting cats, dogs or any other animals	False	26	24
6.	One gets HIV/AIDS by staying with HIV/AIDS person in the same house/office	False	26	23
7.	One gets HIV/AIDS by using the razor of the HIV infected person	True	30	13
8.	One gets HIV/AIDS by shaking hands with a person living with HIV/AIDS	False	28	24

9.	One gets HIV/AIDS by donating blood	False	21	9
10.	One gets HIV/AIDS by sharing needles with a group of injecting drug users	True	29	23
11.	One gets HIV/AIDS by having multiple sexual partners	True	29	26
12.	One gets HIV/AIDS by having unprotected sex	True	29	23
13.	One gets HIV/AIDS by blood transfusion	True	25	20
14.	AIDS is caused by Human Immuno Deficiency Virus	True	27	15
15.	AIDS means Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome	True	28	21
16.	HIV can be controlled by safe sexual practices	True	29	13
17.	HIV person needs to be isolated	False	27	21
18.	There is no way to find out if you are infected by HIV	False	28	20
19.	One can get HIV by sharing toilets used by people living with HIV/AIDS	False	17	21
20.	People living with AIDS die of any illness	True	25	11
21.	AIDS can be cured if treated early	False	8	6
22.	Persons who are infected with HIV cannot look and can feel healthy	False	25	12
23.	An infected mother can pass HIV to her unborn child	True	28	19
24.	It can never happen that people can be infected with HIV and not know that they have it	False	17	15
25.	Mosquitoes can transmit HIV from one person to another	False	19	7
26.	AIDS is a contagious disease like common cold	False	26	19
27.	Do not allow a student living with HIV to attend his/her school or college	False	28	21
28.	HIV positive mother can transmit HIV to her child through breast feeding	True	24	13
29.	ELISA is a test that diagnoses HIV	True	12	4
30.	ELISA stands for Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay	True	12	4

M_1: 24.33, SD: 5.635

M_2: 16.67, SD: 6.33

The t- value is 4.87316. The p-value is $< .00001$. The result is significant at $p < .05$.

The t- value is 4.87316. The p-value is $< .00001$. The result is significant at $p < .01$.

Findings and Discussion

Correct responses given by the two groups against each test items were observed. Responses reveal that on every test item a larger number of correct responses were given by respondents of NSS group as compared to the non-NSS group. This higher rate of correct responses was maintained across all test items including myths and misconceptions, modes of transmissions, diagnoses, etc.

This is further corroborated by the Mean score obtained by the two groups. NSS group has a mean score of 24.33 whereas the non-NSS group has a Mean score of 16.67 which is much lower in comparison to NSS group.

The standard deviation is 5.635 for the NSS group and 6.33 for the non-NSS group. In the NSS group, correct responses range from 30 to as low as 8, whereas in the Non-NSS group the responses range from 26 to 4.

Out of 30 questions, 15 questions were pertaining to Infections related to HIV/AIDS. 26 NSS students correctly answered ten questions and above out of these 15 questions. Whereas, 6 Non-NSS students correctly answered ten questions and above out of these 15 questions.

Out of 30 questions, 6 questions were pertaining to Isolation and safety concerns. The number of NSS students who correctly answered four questions and above out of these 6 questions were 28 and those correctly answered three and below were 2. Whereas, the number of Non-NSS students who correctly answered four questions and above out of these 6 questions were 23 and those correctly answered three and below were 7.

Out of 30 questions, 5 questions were pertaining to diagnosis of HIV/AIDS. The number of NSS students who correctly answered three questions and above out of these 5 questions were 20 and those correctly answered two and below were 10. Whereas, the number of Non-NSS students who correctly answered three questions and above out of these 5 questions were 7 and those correctly answered two and below were 23.

Out of 30 questions, 4 questions were pertaining to general awareness of HIV/AIDS. The number of NSS students who correctly answered three questions and above out of these 4 questions were 24 and those correctly answered two and below were 6. Whereas, the number of Non-NSS students who correctly answered three questions and above out of these 4 questions were 9 and those correctly answered two and below were 21.

The result of the Student t-test indicates that there is a significant difference between NSS group and non-NSS group in the number of correct responses obtained

by them in the HIV/AIDS awareness test'. This difference is significant at 0.05 and 0.01 level.

Summary

The study consisted of comparing NSS and Non-NSS students on HIV/AIDS awareness. An HIV/AIDS awareness test was devised with items consisting of statements associated with infections related to HIV/AIDS, its myths and misconceptions, modes of transmissions, diagnoses, etc. Respondents had to evaluate correctness of these statements by marking 'true or false' against each statement. Responses reveal that on every test item a larger number of correct responses were given by respondents of NSS group as compared to the non-NSS group.

NSS group obtained a Mean score of 24.33 with a Standard Deviation of 5.635. Non-NSS group obtained a Mean score of 16.67 with a Standard Deviation of 6.33. t test value was significant at .01 level.

The null hypothesis that 'There is no difference in the number of correct responses obtained by NSS students and Non-NSS students in HIV/AIDS awareness test' is rejected. The results indicate that students exposed to the NSS programme have a better awareness of HIV/AIDS and issues related to it.

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Basic Education-Gandhiji's Concept

Jayanta Kr. Ghosal

From October 2, 2018 onward mankind all over the world started observing the sesquicentenary (one-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary) of the great leader Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi. Discussions will be there by eminent scholars and experts on his contribution in various fields. As days are passing, amidst this present trouble torn situation, Gandhiji appears before us, particularly to the people of oppressed nations as a saviour whose teachings may save us from the hands of all out aggression going on today by consumerist culture spearheaded by the corporate world.

Gandhiji was a great educator too. For him the goal of education is 'character building' and 'to develop courage, strength, virtue' and 'the ability to forget oneself in working towards great aims'. It was to him 'more important than literacy'.

Education teaches the art of living. Gandhiji's ideas of Basic Education put stress upon the exercise of all powers of man in purposive social living, which is in essence cooperative living. He preached a unifying principle of education through work by which the human being might become a whole man capable of building integrated communities and a peaceful world.

He firmly believed in the value of work and his whole theory of basic education derives from it. He thought when children and adults, poor and the rich work with their hands at productive labour and make socially useful things knowledge becomes highly motivated, a new culture is developed enriching their personality. It has similarity with the educational ideas of Leo Tolstoy, Carlyle, Dewey and Tagore where it appears that culture dose not only come from books. And being associated with work knowledge becomes highly motivated for improving workers personality for the betterment of society.

Thus this mode of education becomes basic and it is a way of life, not a creed. It is a process of building inward strength by giving self totally opposite to money making or profit earning. Throughout his life, in all his social and political ideas Gandhiji wanted the educational system for development of all the people irrespective of their class, caste, creed and religion.

Gandhiji's experiment on education system of 'free and through work' was started at Tolstoy Farm is South Africa. Our ancient education system also emphasised upon relating work with education. Destroying our indigenous mode of education, the British colonialist rulers wanted to produce a class of educated people who could serve the British rulers only through their educational system. Later this so called

educated section of people expanded and practically threatened the Indian society creating a huge gap between the 'educated' and 'non-educated'. On the contrary, to Gandhi India's freedom was primary though more important than that was his insistence on the fundamental values without which independence would become an empty slogan. Education was needed to cultivate these fundamental values.

According to Gandhiji the mass education should be made free, universal and compulsory. It should reach even the poorest of the poor. He said the people, 'it is your duty to refuse to have an education that is not within the reach of the poor.' And this mass education should not be cut short when the children have barely achieved literacy. He firmly stated that the education should be given through mother tongue. He also proposed that the mass education should be given through crafts and through books. Children should actually produce articles that are marketable and these should be sold to make education self-supporting. Gandhiji emphasised upon it because he wanted the education to be self-dependent and self-supporting. Through craft and labour education provided a link with various human activities. So labour in Gandhiji's educational ideas is the unifying and integrating factor because its goal is to combine the intellectual, the scientific and physical growth of learners. He did not take craft merely as a part of curricula; it brings a dimensional change in educational methodology. 'Learning by Doing' is the motto of this system. Through this type of education Gandhiji wanted to abolish difference between education and industry.

Through this universal education system Gandhiji wanted to remove the inequality between the urban and rural masses. It would also provide a healthy and moral basis of relationship between the city and the village and eradicate some of the worst evils of the existing social insecurity poisoning the relationship between the classes. He thought that this system of education would check the continuous decay of our villages and lay the foundation of a just social order in which there is no unnatural division between the haves and have-nots and everybody is assured of a living wage and real freedom. Thus, Gandhiji thought about welfare of individual as well as welfare of all living in society through his ideas of education.

India till today has not been able to provide Basic Education to all her countrymen. The existing pattern of the education system has been proved nothing but the Carbon copy of the pre-independence colonial education system. So even in present day condition Gandhiji's concept of Basic Education finds its importance. But there are some points to be noted. To Gandhiji, free education did not imply free education given by state. Instead, it meant the provision of maximum support a student can get from his work experience, which is both an instrument of education and a source of earning. For him to be free means to rely on oneself individually and collectively and not depend upon the charity or support of others. According to the present day concept, free education means totally state financed education.

Gandhiji introduced the concept of bread labour from the very beginning of life of a person through craft as the medium of education. In modern education system vocational subjects which are taught should be rationalised by bringing them into mainstream education system and thus making the students self-dependent and productive. It will also mitigate the difference between the urban and rural student.

From Gandhian point of view the main defects of the modern education system are it is unproductive, elitist in nature and is personalised in the hands of a small group, better to term, coterie of people. To remove these odds Gandhiji's Basic Education system is the only solution.

Gandhiji laid maximum emphasis on Basic Education. Comparatively post-basic education received less importance from him. But it is also to be kept in mind that he neither neglected nor obstructed the higher steps of education. Actually he believed that among the children the future citizens of the country live. So he sought all round development of the children, the future citizens, who will lead the country towards progress.

The main characteristic of Gandhiji's education system, aiming at the highest development of the individual and raising of man to a high moral and spiritual order so as to become a useful member of the society. The education policy preached by Gandhiji caters to the needs of the poor people of the villages by creating a productive base in the villages itself. This can be done by revival of village industries, craft and other productive activities of village life. It also tries to remove disparities and conflicts between cities and villages. The main aim of Gandhiji's education policy is to produce not only the bookish men and technocrats for productivity but also those human beings living by the principles of truth and non-violence. It produces a certain amount of self activity and its integration with life.

For Gandhiji, the educational activity was the most important one as it develops the mental and spiritual faculties of the child along with the physical abilities. Hence, education should aim at making a person fearless, true and non-violent and that, too, bodily, mentally and spiritually. This can be done only by giving him Basic Education. It is in the childhood that the person can be trained to follow the right principles and by this training the mental, physical and spiritual qualities can be developed to the best.

Gandhiji thus introduced the bread-labour in the education from the beginning. The child through physical labour can earn money and provide for his education. But the bread-labour should be limited up to the independence of self only. Bread labour is not the end of education. It is only a medium for highest intellectual, scientific and spiritual accomplishments. On the other hand, the physical labour develops the body and healthy body has a healthy mind. By Gandhiji's Basic Education, the child

becomes action oriented and not just theorist or society alienated bookish . From the childhood, he becomes creative and thus attaining the true aim of education.

Gandhiji wanted his countrymen to become not just to achieve literacy or merely achieve alphabetization. His desire was that his countrymen must be educated and hence, he thought that the real education should be started at childhood as it brings out the best in body and mind and the spirit at the earliest stage of life. A proverb is there –'As you sow, so you reap'. Gandhiji's Basic Education Policy follows the same principle, i.e. the best education brings out the best in the child. Through the teachings of righteousness, non-violence and the moral values, one can bring forth a generation of fearless and truth believers. Realising the importance of childhood education, Gandhiji's Basic Education comprised of seven years, i.e., between ages of seven and fourteen. During these years the culture of the heart, hand and the head can be truly developed in the minds of the children.

In the village societies, which he conceived he thought the basic education be imparted through vocations such as cultivation of crops, dairy, spinning, weaving, carpentry, blacksmithy and so on. The inter relationship among the different occupations, the necessary programming and accounting required for the purpose, the motives for social action, the problems of health care, the importance of communal harmony and other such matters would form the syllabus for Basic Education. Though taught differently around different vocations, the central theme of the course would be the same and the medium of instruction at this stage must be the mother language.

Basic education is primarily the inculcation of understanding of the laws of nature, of the environment, of the needs of social organisation and of their evolution. It is an understanding about the use of knowledge to influence individual behaviour and social systems for effecting harmony and social cohesiveness. In a society characterised by a few privileged people and group whose privileges deprive other members of the general benefits of a social life, a system of basic education would have to be initially given to the privileged and the so called higher educated. How little do the highly qualified engineers, accountants and other specialists realise that their professions are exploitative of the poor and would push down many more people to the class of the poor? The underprivileged also would need Basic Education to help make them aware of the working of the social system so that the pressures of awareness could have both actions and reactions. These actions and reactions would be in the nature of new initiative and resistance to situations hither to be reconciled.

Gandhiji envisaged education as the spearhead of a silent social revolution which might bring the urban and rural population nearer, break down the barriers between the classes and the masses, provides a realistic education for both and thus lay the foundation for the just social order in which there is no unnatural division between the 'Haves' and the 'Have nots'.

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Information Seeking Behaviour and Role of Mass Media in Socio-economic Empowerment of Santals in Birbhum, West Bengal

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The present age is termed as 'information age', where information is treated as a vital and powerful tool of socio-economic development, no less important than land, labour and capital towards empowerment of people towards attaining Sustainable Development (SD). SD depends on attitude towards information, adjustment for sharing information, and proper consumption of information of the people (Sinha, 2016). SD is usually measured by the degree and extent of attitude towards nature, i.e. sustaining the ability of natural resources and ecosystem services upon which the economy and society depends (Sinha, 2017).

Mass media, in this respect, plays a pivotal role as a powerful instrument of information communication and acts as means for social change developing the lifestyle of all type citizens. It has spread its wings in all spheres and popular for providing right information to the right user at the right time in right form creating awareness in political, social, economic issues and improving the levels of knowledge as well as giving an insight about what is happening in all through the world. Mass media not only preserve traditional values and communicate it to the next generations but also communicate new ideas, thoughts to create awareness among the present generations. At present maximum responsibility to make the developmental activities clear and accessible to common people lie on mass media.

India, the second largest tribal dominated area, after Africa (Sahoo, 2017) has a large number of tribal population due to its diverse ecosystem. Tribal society in general and the Santals in particular face tremendous cross-culture hazards after the introduction of different agents of transformation such as modernisation, commercialisation, industrialisation, liberalisation, politicisation, etc. Santals are the third largest tribal community among the 650 tribal groups in India. They are distributed in the states of Bihar, West Bengal and Odisha. According to the Demographic Status of Scheduled Tribe Population of India (2011), tribals form a major part having 8.61% of total population (consisting 10.43 crores) with a decadal change of 23.7 in respect of tribal population of the year 2001. According to the Census of India 1991, the Santals constitute the population of 7.35% all over India among the STs.

According to the last updated Census of West Bengal, 2001 (Data Highlights: Scheduled Tribes in West Bengal), population of STs (4,406,794) constitutes 5.5% of total population of West Bengal (80,176,197) and Santal population alone (2,280,540) form more than half (51.8%) of total ST population in the state. In Birbhum,

almost 44.21% of total area of land is declared as Schedule area (Barman, 2014). According to Basic Data Sheet of Census of India, 2001 in Birbhum, Santals are the largest ST community consisting a population of 1,76,789.Thus, sustainable development for tribals in general and the Santals in particular is really a major challenge in India, the country where there is a lot of diversity. This study will also aim to investigate whether the mass media can change the mindset, adopt moderate healthy lifestyle as well as whether through active participation, they are capable to obtain the benefits of development projects implemented by central or state governments, even by NGOs.

Purpose of the Study

Indian society is a combination of multi-culture, multi-tribes, multi-castes, multi-lingual and there exists disparities like rural-urban divide, digital divide ('information haves' and 'information have not') etc.

India has been changed dramatically over the past decades. However, even after seven decades of independence, tribals in general and Santals in particular are economically impoverished and marginalized group in India. Tribals in general and the Santals in particular believe in interpersonal communication (IPC) as well as traditional media for communication of information for their day-to-day requirements.

Most of Santals in Birbhum district are living in a very poor socio-economic condition and have little or no knowledge about recent development which takes place around them. Most of them, in particularly female Santals have to start their daily work early in the morning and it continues till evening. Their life style, daily habits, family interaction and culture are greatly affected by the attitude and adjustment towards information. Though many of the programmes like *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (2000), *Right to Information Act* (2005), *Right to Education* (2009), *National Knowledge Commission* (2005) recommendations are implemented by the Government of India, Santals remain still backward due to their illiteracy and less or no knowledge about the programmes for want of proper information.

Therefore, the logic behind selecting the topic for the study "Information Seeking Behaviour and Role of Mass Media in Socio-economic Empowerment of the Santals of Birbhum, West Bengal" is utmost important as Santals are the third largest tribal community of India, first largest tribal community in West Bengal, in the district Birbhum and its Community Development Block Bolpur-Sriniketan. The study is devised with the purpose of exploring the level of attitude and adjustment towards information communicated by the mass media and to find out how much the information seeking behaviour of the Santals under the study area are influenced by their socio-economic, educational and social behaviour as well as family climate and adjacent non-tribal community.

Objectives of the Study

Specific Objectives of the study are:

- to study the socio-economic status of Santals of the selected villages;

- to examine the generation-wise attitude and adjustment towards information of Santals in the study area;

- to prescribe the types of information needed by Santals for their empowerment in the study area;

- to determine the source of information of Santals in the study area;

- to study information seeking behaviour of Santals of the selected villages under study;

- to investigate the use of various communication media for empowering themselves in the study area;

- to examine how far the communication of information improved Santals of the study area beyond the traditional knowledge;

- to identify the way of challenges towards improving the access and dissemination of information for empowerment of the area under study;

- to investigate the constraints and limitations of communication and access of information by the respondents in the study area;

- to identify whether the environment of Visva-Bharati (A Central University) having the Institute of Agriculture as well as the adjacent rich socio-culture have influenced the status, attitude, adjustment, etc.

Population of the Study

The study is conducted in four villages, viz, Balipara, Kaliganj, Baganpara, Pearson Pally. These villages are within the radius of ±1 Km. from Visva-Bharati. In the selection of villages and the respondents, multi-staged stratified random sampling technique was adopted. All these villages were randomly selected to represent the different characteristics like close proximity to Bolpur-Santiniketan urban settlement, availing Self-Help Group Scheme facilities provided by Visva-Bharati, population reflecting a mixed habitat of ST population and general castes.

Table - 1: Household-wise Distribution of Santal Population

Name of the Village	No. of Households	Population		
		Male	Female	Total
Balipara	182	394	334	728
Kaliganj	82	192	220	412
Baganpara	45	185	155	340
Pearson Pally	63	156	230	386

Source: through survey

Methodology and Administration of Tools

For measuring the attitude and degree of adjustment of Santals towards education, socio-economic status scale (SES) of Udai Pareek (1964, latest updated 2014) was used. Educated persons were given questionnaire with the request to fill the same in the presence of the researcher and those who are illiterate interview schedule was administered to collect the information. To complete the study smoothly, initially a contact was made with the heads of some of the Santal families. A meeting was arranged with them and they were informed about the purpose of the investigation and requested for their cooperation.

Findings and Interpretation

Data was collected from 100 respondents from the four study villages (50 male and 50 female) and then scored each response separately in an MS-Excel worksheet. The data have been interpreted in the following tables:

Table - 2: Socio demographic data of the respondents

Variables	Measures	Frequency	
		Male	Female
Age (in Years)	12–18	10 (20)	12 (24)
	18–24	12 (24)	13 (26)
	24–30	9 (18)	6 (12)
	30–34	7 (14)	8 (16)
	Above 34	12 (24)	11 (22)
Education	Illiterate	6 (12)	9 (18)
	Primary schooling	26 (52)	24 (48)
	Secondary Pass	7 (14)	9 (18)
	Higher Secondary Pass	8 (16)	7 (14)
	Graduate and above	3 (6)	1 (2)
Income (in Rs.)	Below 3000	12 (24)	17 (34)
	3000–5000	23 (46)	14 (28)
	5000–8000	13 (26)	16 (32)
	Above 8000	2 (4)	3 (6)
Source of Income	Daily labour	20 (40)	38 (76)
	Farmer	14 (28)	0
	Livestock keeper	7 (14)	6 (12)
	Service (Govt/Private)	3 (6)	3 (6)
	Rickshaw/Van puller	3 (6)	0
	Toto driver	2 (4)	0
	Shopkeeper	1 (1)	3 (6)

Source: Field survey. Figures in parentheses indicate percentage of the respondents

Age-wise distribution of the respondents has been shown in Table-2. Age up to 11 years has not been considered for the present study. Findings regarding education reveals that majority of the male respondents (26, 52%) and female respondents (24, 48%) have primary schooling. The finding also shows that 6 (12%) male respondents and 9 (18%) female respondents are still illiterate. It has been found that the income of 23 male respondents (46%) ranges from Rs.3000-5000 while the remaining 13 (26%) are in the range of Rs.5000-8000. However, the income of 17 female respondents (34%) is below Rs.3000 while the remaining has better income. Data regarding source of income reveals that majority of male respondents 52% are daily wage earners followed by farmers 28%. However, 76% of the female respondents are daily wage earners only.

Table-3: Types of information needed for empowerment of the respondents

Categories	Respondents	
	Male	Female
Decision making	5 (10)	7 (14)
SHG activities	8 (16)	10 (20)
Agriculture	9 (18)	4 (8)
Livestock farming	4 (8)	5 (10)
Employment	5 (10)	7 (14)
Savings	2 (4)	8 (16)
Migration elsewhere for work	6 (12)	6 (12)
Awareness about health	3 (6)	3 (6)
Awareness of various schemes of Govts/NGOs	6 (12)	9 (18)
Awareness of modern ICTs	2 (4)	1 (2)
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)

Source: Field survey. Figures in parentheses indicate percentage of the respondents

The purpose of information required differs among the male and female respondents. Around 18% of male respondents require information for agricultural purpose followed by 16% on SHG. At the same time 20% of female respondents require information on SHG followed by 18% on various schemes of government/ NGOs.

Table- 4: Sources of information of the respondents

Channels of information	Respondents	
	Male	Female
Family member	11 (22)	8 (16)
Friends/Neighbours	8 (16)	10 (20)
Training programmes	3 (6)	5 (10)
Panchayat members/Village leaders	3 (6)	4 (8)
Newspaper	2 (4)	1 (2)
Radio	5 (10)	4 (8)
Television	5 (10)	6 (12)
Mobiles	4 (8)	1 (2)
Fairs & festivals	2 (4)	4 (8)
IPC & combination of other channel(s)	7 (14)	7 (14)
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)

Source: Field survey. Figures in parentheses indicate percentage of the respondents

The source of information for males is mostly from the family members (22%) and around 16% from friends and neighbours. However, for the female respondents major source of information is from friends and neighbours (20%) while 16% from the family members. It is observed that IPC and combination of other channels is found to be preferred both by males and females.

Table-5: Satisfaction with various media of the respondents

Responses	Folk media items		Mass media					
			Newspaper		Radio		Television	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Satisfied	41 (82)	42 (84)	35 (70)	34 (68)	37 (74)	37 (74)	38 (76)	39 (78)
Unsatisfied	9 (18)	8 (16)	15 (30)	16 (32)	13 (26)	13 (26)	12 (24)	11 (22)
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)

Source: Field survey. Figures in parentheses indicate percentage of the respondents.

Television is the most preferred mass media both by males and females followed by radio and newspaper. However, both have expressed in favour of folk media than the other medium.

Table-6: Frequency of using various media by the respondents

Responses	Respondents					
	Newspaper		Radio		Television	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Once a day	18 (36)	4 (8)	21 (42)	17 (34)	22 (44)	18 (36)
Once a week	10 (20)	6 (12)	10 (20)	11 (22)	10 (20)	10 (20)
Twice a week	5 (10)	7 (14)	9 (18)	5 (10)	9 (18)	9 (18)
Once a fortnight	7 (14)	9 (18)	3 (6)	7 (14)	3 (6)	3 (6)
Once a month	4 (8)	5 (10)	2 (4)	4 (8)	2 (4)	2 (4)
Rarely	4 (8)	12 (24)	3 (6)	4 (8)	2 (4)	6 (12)
Never	2 (4)	7 (14)	2 (4)	2 (4)	2 (4)	2 (4)
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)	50 (100)

Source: Field survey. Figures in parentheses indicate percentage of the respondents.

Table – 6 adequately reveals that 36% of male respondents read newspaper daily while 24% of female respondents rarely read paper at all. With regard to radio both male (42%) and female (34%) listen to radio daily. The same way 44% of male and 36% of female watch television.

Table - 7: Preference of timing for listening radio/ watching television by the respondents

Time	Respondents	
	Male	Female
0800-0900 hrs	2 (4)	2 (4)
0900-1000 hrs	2 (4)	2 (4)
1000-1030 hrs	8 (16)	6 (12)
1300-1400 hrs	3 (6)	3 (6)
1730-1830 hrs	24 (48)	22 (44)
1800-1900 hrs	9 (18)	13 (26)
Any time	2 (4)	2 (4)
Total	50 (100)	50 (100)

Source: Field survey. Figures in parentheses indicate percentage of the respondents.

It is observed among the respondents 2 males and 2 females (4% each) do not watch television or listen to radio. This may be due to lack of interest or have no radio or television set in their home. It is also found that the preferred time of listening radio or watching television by both male (48%) and female (44%) is evening after they come back from the day's hard work. The preferred timings are 17:30 – 18:30 and 18:00 – 19:00 hrs.

Conclusion and Suggestions

Not only education but also information is the source of knowledge and knowledge is the key for attaining sustainable tribal development (STD). In this respect, through mass media, tribals in general and Satanls in particular, may be able to establish social relationship to get knowledge and improve their quality of living and also solve most of the problems with the information gained by appropriate and effective mode of communication. However, the present study conducted in four selected Santal villages of Birbhum district of West Bengal, reveals that family members, friends and even neighbours are main source of information and folk media is more preferable than mass media. The role of mass media is found to be not satisfactory as it is not able to generate good awareness and project proper information. Also the tribals are not able to gain sufficient knowledge due to lack of education, cultural factors, economic backwardness, unemployment, poverty and language.

It is also observed that, interpersonal forms of communication (IPC) are the biggest source of education and information used to exchange indigenous knowledge till date. Most of the Santals favour to use face-to-face communication than explicit source of knowledge (viz, books, leaflets, newspapers, etc.) and have their own traditional form of communication system like myths and legends, songs and dance, fair and festivals. The study also reveals that mass media is mostly used by Santals for entertainment and preferably in the evenings. It may be appropriate that the government and NGOs can create better awareness through songs, folk dance, film shows, etc. which can be better understood by the tribals in general and Santals in particular.

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