

# STAGE 1

## EVALUATION INDICATORS

As a result of the experiences undergone at this stage of the training programme the trainees may show the following behaviour:

- Feel more comfortable
- Be more **attentive**
- Be more ready to express themselves
- Show increased enthusiasm in sharing responsibilities
- Enjoy working in a group

## STAGE 2

### UNDERSTANDING THE COMMUNITY

This stage enables trainees to become aware of their communities and their own attitudes towards these communities and to take a fresh look at society.

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STAGE 2

Day 3

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2. Perceiving one's own village community
3. Understanding the village community and its problems  
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5. Understanding the village community and its problems  
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6. Analysing the community's problems
7. Reflecting on and sharing the day's learning
8. Overnight exercise (cultural programme)

Day4

1. Previous day's report
2. Looking at one's idea of health
3. Looking at the condition of health in the village community
4. Keeping up the interest
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6. Identifying and understanding common local problems and  
their preventive measures
7. Reflecting on and sharing the day's learning

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7. Participating at different levels
8. Discussing in a group
9. Reflecting on and sharing the day's learning

# MORNING

## 1. PREVIOUS DAY'S REPORT

Focus : Writing skills

### EXERCISE

Part A

The daily report is written on news-print or newspaper and pasted on the wall or board. The trainees are asked to read the report, keeping the following criteria in mind –

- Length of report
- sentence construction
- language
- clarity
- organisation of the report

The trainer asks for general comments, if any.

### EXERCISE

Part B

The trainer discusses salient features from the letters of the trainees written about the job of the animator on day 1.



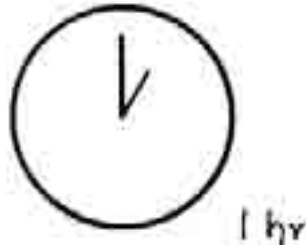
## 2. PERCEIVING ONE'S OWN VILLAGE COMMUNITY

### OBJECTIVE

To look at one's own village community

### EXERCISE

The trainer asks five participants from different areas to describe their village communities. The trainer encourages other participants to add to the descriptions. He then conducts a discussion.



- What are you emphasizing — people or physical features?
- Do you think that the descriptions of the village communities are complete?
- Do you think the village has changed?
- Are the changes in favour of the people or against?
- Who is responsible for the changes?
- How much control do communities have over the situation?

### NOTE

The trainees are asked to continue to reflect on things which affect the lives of people.

### 3. UNDERSTANDING THE VILLAGE COMMUNITY AND ITS PROBLEMS

#### OBJECTIVES

- To examine one's attitude towards the villagers in relation to oneself
- To develop an understanding of some of the community's problems



1 hr 30 min

The trainer writes a list of 20 adjectives on the board. They are:

strong  
interfering  
poor  
hardworking  
rational  
**ignorant**  
hospitable  
lazy  
helpful  
dull  
intelligent  
suspicious  
cooperative  
gossipy  
imaginative  
selfish  
stupid  
quarrelsome  
talented  
religious

The trainer then suggests that each trainee choose five of these words to describe a villager.

He also suggests that each trainee choose five words from the same list to describe himself/herself.

The trainer asks the trainees to read out both sets of words.

He encourages the trainees to examine the attitudes expressed through their own choice of words.

How do we describe ourselves?

How do we describe the villagers?

How similar or dissimilar are the descriptions? What are the reasons?

**AFTERNOON**

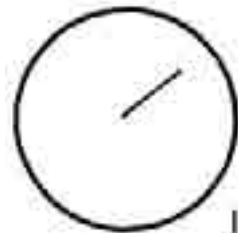


## 4. KEEPING UP THE INTEREST

### **GAME**

#### Freezing

One, two or three players are 'freezers.' The remainder are 'freezable,' but are also 'de-freezers.' When a freezer touches a freezable player, the latter remains frozen (i.e., still) until a de-freezer touches him. The game continues until all are frozen.



10 Mts



## 5. UNDERSTANDING THE VILLAGE COMMUNITY AND ITS PROBLEMS

### EXERCISE 2

The trainer tells the trainees that they will be role-playing a few scenes with a view to highlighting different problems that exist in the community. He/she discusses the problems briefly, the various characters. The trainees are then divided into three groups and given one of the following scenarios each:

It is evening. Some men from village are sitting in front of the toddy shop. The shop owner is counting cash. Parvathi, wife of Velusamy, comes there.

- Ponni, the fisherwoman from Periakuppam, who had not paid up fully for the fish she auctioned the previous day, is talking to Muthu, the auctioneer, about taking a loan.

Kuppan, returning from the sea, is very upset as he had no catch. Murugan, his grand uncle, tells him "Nothing is in our hands. We don't put the fish in the sea. It is God who puts it. What can we do?"

The trainer suggests that the groups take time to select the characters and rehearse the roles.

All the trainees come together and do the role-play, one after another. Each group is given 5-10 minutes (or until some of the main points have been brought out).

After all the role-plays are over, the trainer conducts a discussion.

- Are these familiar scenes in your village?
- What problems do they highlight?
- What do you think are the causes of these problems?
- What do you think are some of the possible solutions?
- What were your feelings when you played the roles?





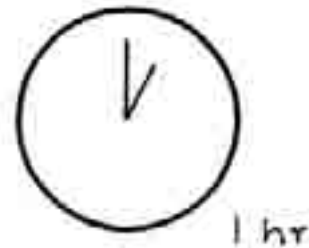
## 6. ANALYSING COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

### OBJECTIVE

To learn to identify causes of the problems faced

- The trainer asks the trainees to recall the various problems brought out in the role-plays and at other times in the training session.
- He suggests that one of the trainees list the problems on the blackboard.
- He then takes one of the problems, for example, drunkenness, for analysis together with the trainees.
- The trainer writes the word in the centre of the blackboard and asks the participants to list the immediate causes (1). He writes these causes around the word 'drunkenness' while discussing each one of them.
- Again the trainer asks the participants to think of a few deeper reasons (2) for each of the immediate causes listed. Discussion continues at every step.

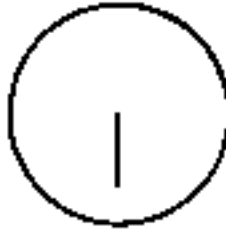
The trainees continue their exercise individually or in pairs, taking up another problem, e.g., illiteracy, unemployment, ill-health.



## 7. REFLECTING ON AND SHARING THE DAY'S LEARNING

### EXERCISE

Trainees sit in a circle. One of the trainees takes the responsibility of eliciting from the others what they learnt. He/she asks each one to state 'one thing I liked about the day' and 'one thing I did not like about the day.'



30 mts



## 8. OVERNIGHT EXERCISE

Plan an hour's cultural programme for tomorrow evening.



# MORNING



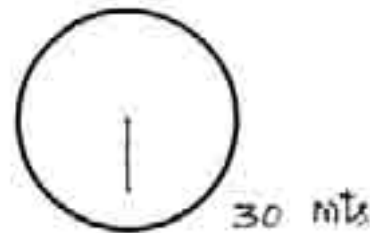
## 1. PREVIOUS DAY'S REPORT

Focus : Feedback

### EXERCISE

Trainees are asked to read the daily report. Trainer asks the trainees for one positive and one negative comment on the quality of reporting. He/She lists his/her statements on the board. The trainer asks the trainees whether such individual comments can help the reporter. The trainer then asks the reporter whether these comments can be of use to him/her in future report writing.

The trainer asks the trainees to choose a different way of reporting for the next day.



# FEEDBACK

'Feedback' is information given to person (or a group or an organisation) about how he affects others, It helps him become more aware, both of his strengths and of his weaknesses. It does not tell him what he should do, but it raises questions for him. It helps him to decide whether to change his behaviour, so that he can be more effective and is better able to achieve what he wants.

If feedback is provided in a positive way it can be helpful. But if it is given wrongly, it is not only unhelpful, it can also be destructive. Here are some guidelines for feedback:

Do be specific" Give examples and data. For example: "When you interrupted me just now I felt annoyed." The other person is able to make use of such information if he chooses to do so.

DON'T make general statements, such as: "I feel annoyed because you never listen to me." Unless you can give some specific examples, the receiver may not understand or believe what you are telling him.

DO describe your own feelings and reactions: For example "I felt hurt." This is what you actually know.

DON'T describe the other person's feelings or motives or intentions. For example, "You wanted to hurt me." You do not know this: it is only your guess or interpretation. Such feedback will probably be rejected.

DON'T judge the other person's actions: For example: "You were wrong to shout at me." Statements like this will only produce a defensive reaction.

DON'T make general evaluative statements about the other person's character. For example: "You are dominating and inconsiderate." The person who is told this will probably react defensively,

DO think of the needs of the other person and of what will be useful to him. Feedback should be constructive.

DON'T speak out of your own need to react or score off the other person: that is irresponsible and destructive.

DO speak only of behaviour which the other person can change. For example: his habit of interrupting, This is within his control.

DON'T speak of behaviour over which he has no control; for example, habit of stammering. To comment on that will only increase his frustration.

DO choose the right time, climate and company to offer feedback.  
Generally it is most useful immediately after the event.

DON'T offer feedback long after the event, in some other situation,  
with some other group of people.

DO give feedback when the other person asks for it. Better still,  
ask him exactly what he wants to know.

DON'T give feedback if the other person has made it clear that he  
does not want it.

DO encourage him to check with anyone else who was present on the  
accuracy of the feedback. This can be done in a group. Feedback  
is more effective if it is received from several sources.

DO ask the receiver if he understands what you are saying even if  
he does not accept it.

Feedback is a way of giving help. It is a corrective mechanism  
for the person who wants to learn how well his behaviour matches  
his intentions. It is a means of increasing a person's autonomy  
and establishing his identity — for answering the question  
"Who am I?"

## 2. LOOKING AT ONE'S IDEA OF HEALTH

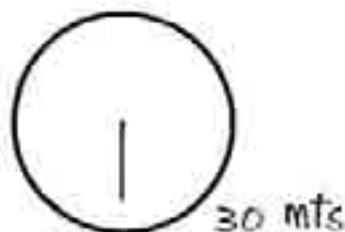
### OBJECTIVE

To look at one's idea of health

### EXERCISE

The trainer asks the trainees what they think about their own health and to comment on it.

The trainer allows time for each of the trainees to respond.



- Who is a healthy person?
- What makes him/her healthy?
- Why are some of us less healthy than others?  
What have you done about it? Is there anything else that you could have done?

## 3. LOOKING AT THE HEALTH OF THE VILLAGE COMMUNITY

### OBJECTIVE

To get an impression of the health of the village community

### EXERCISE

The trainer asks the trainees to spend half an hour going around the village, looking at the people and the surroundings in order to get an impression of the health of the village community.

On return, the trainees discuss their impressions.



What is the general impression of the health of the community?

What are the reasons for this impression?

Why are some people healthy and some unhealthy?

What are the causes for some people being unhealthy? Could something have been done about it? Who could have done it?

# AFTERNOON

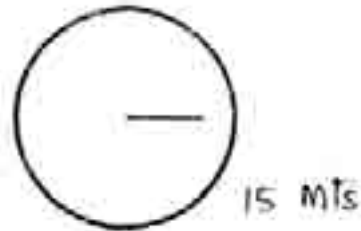


## 4. KEEPING UP THE INTEREST

### GAME

Who is missing?

The players stand in a circle facing outwards, at arm's length from each other, with their eyes closed the trainers reshuffle some of the players (who must keep their eyes closed) until no one knows anymore who is standing next to him/her. Then one player is moved into the centre of the circle, told to crouch down, and is completely covered with a cloth so that he cannot be seen.



The trainer then gives a pre-arranged signal to the other players to turn around and look to see who is missing. The trainer may keep note of the time the players take to name the missing player.



## 5 UNDERSTANDING THE MAGNITUDE OF HEALTH PROBLEMS



### OBJECTIVE

To understand the magnitude of the health problem in the country

The trainees discuss the questions given in the paper

### EXERCISE

The trainer circulates the paper on 'Magnitude of Health Problems' among the trainees. Trainees take turns reading the paper aloud, paragraph by paragraph. The trainees discuss as they go along and complete

### NOTE

Trainer should use his discretion regarding the size of the group suitable for this exercise

### Materials

Statistics to be provided.



Paper to be distributed to the trainees

# HEALTH PROBLEMS OF INDIA

(Some basic statistical information)

## Malnutrition

Malnutrition prevails widely among those below the poverty line, such as the landless, people in slums and remote tribal areas. Victims of drought and other calamities are more vulnerable to this phenomenon. Children, pregnant women and nursing mothers are hit hard by malnutrition, and the damage they sustain is irreversible. Lack of employment opportunities, illiteracy, lack of safe drinking water and health facilities, and unhealthy environments further lower the quality of life. Inequality of incomes, a weak public distribution system, insufficient clothing and housing, aggravate these conditions further.

Some studies show that the average energy intake is less than the recommended level in about 50% of the population. The extent of malnutrition would be in the range of 15 to 20%. People do not get the minimum amount of cereals and pulses that are necessary to meet their normal requirements. The most seriously affected group in this regard are pre-school children, especially the 0-3 age group, pregnant women and nursing mothers of the lower socio-economic strata, and families belonging to landless agricultural labourers, small and marginal farmers, particularly those living in drought-prone areas.

According to data supplied by the National Institute of Nutrition in Secunderabad, 65% of children in the age group 1 to 5 from lower income levels suffer from moderate malnutrition, and 18% from severe malnutrition. Sixty million children of this group are badly nourished due to overall calorie starvation, and not just protein starvation. Large numbers of children of this group die every year, accounting for 40% of the total deaths in the country. Approximately 100,000 children die every month as a result of malnutrition (India Today, Jan. 16-31, 1979, p.8). Many of those who survive childhood starvation are condemned to retarded physical and mental development. Symptoms of Vitamin A deficiency, which is the predominant cause of blindness, are found among 7 to 8% of these children. Blood tests reveal that 52% of children suffer from anaemia and associated loss of energy.

Infant mortality rates vary widely between rural and urban areas, male and female children, and across different areas and socio-economic strata. Nearly 60% of infant deaths take place at the neonatal stage. Besides causes peculiar to infancy, fevers, respiratory and digestive disorders are mainly responsible for high infant mortality. Socio-economic imbalances in the distribution of incomes, low purchasing power, maldistribution of essential food commodities, inadequacy of calories, proteins and other micro-nutrients in average diets, limited access to medical and public health facilities, lack of knowledge about balanced nutrition or hygiene, lack of safe drinking

water and sanitation, are some of the reasons responsible for high mortality rate and morbidity patterns prevailing in the country.

Maternal and infant mortality rates are still on a high plateau compared to advanced and some developing countries. Infant mortality rate was 146 during the fifties, 129 during 1976, and 120 in 1981. It should come down to 60 or below 60 in the year 2000. (In India, 120 children die by the time they are one year old, for every 1000 live births.) Only 0.5% of the children are immunized against measles, one of the six main immunizable diseases of childhood.

According to 1979 figures, infants born with low birth weight constitute about 30% of the new-born population of our country, a very high percentage compared to almost all the developing countries in the world. Low birth weight babies are approximately three times more likely to die in infancy. Among those who survive, low birth weight has also been shown to be associated with longer and more frequent illnesses and with mental and physical impairments. One of the main reasons is that the mother herself has been malnourished in her pregnancy.

Diarrhoea: a major cause of high IMR.

Diarrhoea is a major public health problem among infants and young children.

They are susceptible to this due to preparation of supplementary foods in unclean utensils and contaminated water.

Meaning of malnourishment: A malnourished child grows more slowly. Instead of letting the child's genetic potential determine its growth, the body begins to struggle against itself to keep growth down to a level which its food intake can sustain.

The child seems to live from one minor illness to another — always suffering from a cold or diarrhoea, or a fever. Here lies the heart of the malnutrition story. For frequent infection is both a chief cause and a chief consequence.

Infections cause malnutrition by consuming the body's energy, by reducing the body's absorption of food, by draining away nutrients through diarrhoea or vomiting, and by depressing the appetite so that the child simply does not want to eat.

If a child is malnourished, infection is both more likely and more severe; children with even moderate malnutrition are three times as likely to get diarrhoeal infections and ten times more likely to die from an infection like measles. Conversely, a child with an infection is also more likely to become malnourished.

For children who live in the poorest parts of the world, this means an average of 160 days' illness a year. Every one of those illnesses is an assault on the child's growth. If the assaults are just too frequent— and the recovery time in between is just too short — then the child dies. But those who survive do not escape unscarred.

#### Mental retardation

There are over 20 million mentally retarded people in India of which one million are children.

#### Blindness

According to a survey conducted by ICMR, out of an estimated 9 million blind persons in the country, about 5 million could be cured by proper surgical interference. In addition, 45 million persons were reported to be otherwise visually impaired.

Among the major causes responsible for visual impairment and blindness, cataract accounts for 55 to 58%, followed by trachoma and other eye infections, 20 to 22%. The balance is due to injuries, malnutrition and other causes.

#### Malaria

The incidence of malaria has shown an upward trend since 1965. The positive incidence of malaria increased from 1.48 lakhs in 1966 to 64.7 lakhs in 1976. This was due to vector mosquitoes having developed resistance to DDT and partly due to ineffective supervisory services.

#### Filaria

It is estimated that 23.6 crore people are exposed to the risk of filariasis with 1.4 crore showing manifestations of the disease and 1.8 crore with filarial parasites in their blood. the facilities available for prevention and treatment are very inadequate.

#### Tuberculosis

TB continues to be the killer disease number one in India. It accounts for about 5% of the one crore annual deaths in the country. Today, over 80 lakhs suffer from TB. Of the 116.94 lakh persons suffering from TB in 1974 in the 15 major States in the country, only 11.22 lakhs were treated.

### Leprosy

It is estimated that out of a total of 11 million leprosy patients in the world (1971), over 3.2 million were in India, and a majority in the rural areas.

Of the estimated 3.2 million leprosy patients in the country, 20% are infectious and another 20% suffer from various deformities. Curative and rehabilitative services for these are necessary.

### Health Services

There has been a preoccupation with the promotion of curative and clinical services through city-based hospitals, which have, by and large, catered to certain sections of the urban population. The infrastructure of sub-centres, primary health centres and rural hospitals built up in the rural area touches only a fraction of the rural population. The concept of health in its totality, with preventive and promotive health care services in addition to the curative, is still to be made operational. Doctors and para medicals are reluctant to serve in the rural areas. They are generally city-oriented and their training is not adequately adapted to the needs of the rural areas, particularly in the field of preventive and promotive health. The involvement of the people in solving their health problems has been almost non-existent.

According to the 1971 Census, we have 137,000 doctors, 88,000 nurses and midwives, 54,000 auxiliary nurses, 32,000 health inspectors, 300,000 hospital beds, 5,195 dispensaries. These numbers are at least four times more than what they were in 1947.

About 2.7 lakh registered practitioners are practising Indian systems of medicine. In addition, 15,000 dispensaries and 240 hospitals are also functioning in the country.

The country has about 50,000 sub-centres, 5,400 primary health centres, including 340 upgraded primary health centres with 30-bed hospitals, 106 medical colleges with an admission capacity of 11,000 per annum and about 5 lakh hospital beds (by 1980).

The doctor population ratio varies widely from 1 doctor for 8,333 in Meghalaya to 1 doctor for 1,400 in Delhi. The bed-population ratio varies widely in urban and rural areas.

Medical aid is not within the reach of our poor, especially those who live in villages. The poor man has to walk miles before he can see a doctor or a poorly equipped health centre.

Eighty per cent of the doctors and 97% of the hospital beds are for the urban population which accounts for only 20% of the total Indian population. The remaining 80% are left to manage without any medical personnel or medical aid. Besides, to add to the

rural health predicament, out of 5,400 primary health centres, 700 are without buildings and 2,650 have no staff quarters. Out of the 39,000 sub-centres functioning, 15,000 have no buildings.

Medical personnel in India are not trained to cater to the masses. As one doctor recently confessed, "We are trained to practise abroad." We seem to produce doctors for two reasons: for export, and for supporting the pharmaceutical industry, which is mainly in the hands of the multinationals. Statistics explain the situation better. An estimated 20,000 doctors have left India in search of greener pastures. Currently, about 12,000 doctors are registered with employment exchanges. At a conservative estimate, taking into account the approximate Rs.95,000 spent on each doctor, the loss of investment caused by the brain drain is close to Rs.150 crores. Likewise, 12,000 unemployed doctors - again a highly conservative estimate - represent another Rs.90 crores worth of investment lying idle at any given time. Currently, about 13,000 students qualify as doctors each year. The per capita expenditure on health incurred by the State has gone up from about Rs.1.50 in 1955-56 to about Rs.12 in 1976-77.

#### Water Supply and Sanitation

The available statistics relating to the status of rural and urban water supply in India present a discouraging picture, especially in the rural areas. By March 1980, of the 5.76 lakh villages in the country, about two lakh villages with a population of some 160 million were yet to be provided with potable water supply facilities. The situation in the urban areas is relatively better, but here too, particularly in the hundreds of smaller towns, water supply and sanitation arrangements are far from adequate. The statistics in fact do not portray the hardship and inconvenience that is experienced by the poor, particularly the women and children, in areas where water is scarce, inadequate, or polluted. In terms of man-days lost due to water-borne or water-related diseases which constitute nearly 80% of the public health problem of our country, the wastage is indeed colossal

Until the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan, i.e., during the period 1951-1974, the total investment made by the central and state governments for providing water supply and sanitation facilities was of the order of Rs.855 crores, over 65% of it in the urban areas. During this period, it was not given a high enough priority in the planning process.

38% of the urban population are provided with a sewage system; there is practically no sanitation system for the rural population of this country.

#### Health in the poor world

In the game of life and death, many people in the world are playing against the odds:

1 in 2 never see a trained health worker,

1 in 3 are without clean drinking water,  
1 in 4 have an inadequate diet.

Every year, diarrhoea kills five million under-fives; malaria kills one million people in Africa alone. These and other killer diseases are preventable.

- Around two-thirds of under-fives in the poor world are malnourished,  
80% of the world's disease is related to lack of safe water and sanitation,
- Some five million children die and another five million are disabled yearly from six common childhood diseases (measles, tetanus, whooping cough, diphtheria, poliomyelitis, and tuberculosis). Every six seconds a child dies and another is disabled from a disease which can be immunised against. Many more suffer setbacks to normal health and growth,  
Over half a million mothers die at childbirth and 10% of the babies die before their first birthday,
- Up to 50% of health budgets are spent on drugs,
- 1,000 million cases of acute diarrhoea in under-fives each year,
- 33% of the people in the world are infected with hook worm,  
Traditional birth attendants deliver 60% to 80% of babies in the developing world.

#### Discussion questions

- 1) What do we mean by 'health'?  
Is it absence of disease?
- 2) People suffer from poor health because:
  - they do not eat properly,
  - they have large families.
 Do you agree?
- 3) Who is responsible for the health of the people in the community?

#### Sources

1. Sixth Five-Year Plan 1980-85  
Government of India, Planning Commission, pp.366-381.
2. India. A Reference Annual 1979.  
Publications Division, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting.  
Government of India, pp. 96-112.

3. Desmond A D'Abreo. 'From Development Worker to Activist.'  
DEEDS, Lower Bunder, Mangalore, Karnataka 575 002. p.58-61.
4. The State of the World's Children, 1984, UNICEF.
5. The Hindu, April 8, 1984

## 6. IDENTIFYING AND UNDERSTANDING COMMON LOCAL PROBLEMS AND THEIR PREVENTIVE MEASURES

### OBJECTIVE

To develop skills in identifying the symptoms of some common health problems and their preventive measures

### EXERCISE

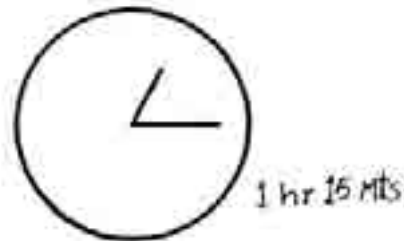
The trainer divides the trainees into groups and each group is asked to take up one health problem listed/shown. Each group is then provided with the materials (written and visual) and asked to read and to discuss the problem in the group.

#### Materials

Pictures, posters, cyclostyled materials on topics like:

- diarrhoea
- anaemia
- vitamin A
- vitamin B
- scabies

The trainees then reassemble in the large group. A volunteer from each group reports on the topic discussed.



How do you see the knowledge gained to be of use in your work?

## 7. REFLECTING ON AND SHARING THE DAY'S LEARNING



Each one to list one thing that he/she has learnt that day on the board.

What did you feel about the day?





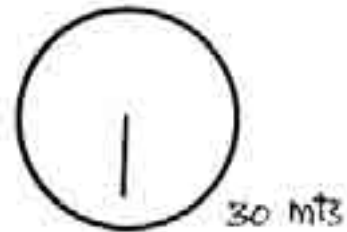
## MORNING

### 1. PREVIOUS DAY'S REPORT

Focus : Team Reporting

#### EXERCISE

Report by the team, with each one reporting on different aspects of the previous day's programme. Comments on the report by the trainees.



Questions to the reporting team:

How did you find the exercise of team reporting?

What is it that you liked about it? Give reasons.

What is it that you did not like? Give reasons.

Questions to the trainees:

How do you compare team reporting with individual reporting?

Can you think of other ways of presenting the daily report?



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## 2. UNDERSTANDING POVERTY

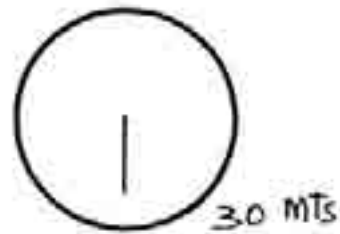
### OBJECTIVE

To understand the term 'poverty'

### EXERCISE

Part A: The trainer asks each trainee to write a sentence or two about what the term 'poverty' means to him/her. He then suggests that they read aloud in turn what they have written.

Part B: He/she then asks the trainees to form groups of five and share with each other the first incident in their lives they recall that made them conscious of poverty.



## 3. UNDERSTANDING POVERTY

### OBJECTIVE

To understand the extent, the symptoms and the causes of poverty in India.

### EXERCISE

A paper on the topic with a set of questions is distributed to all the trainees. They are divided into three groups and asked to read and discuss the questions that are raised.

The trainees return to the large group. The trainer encourages them to share their thoughts with the other members of the group.



What are your feelings when you look at the poverty situation?

What is your understanding of poverty?



Paper to be distributed to the trainees

## POVERTY

An analysis of the economic condition  
of the people in India



It is now 34 years since our country was proclaimed a sovereign democratic republic. What is our progress in terms of the quality of life of the people in general? How far have we been able to realize the objective of social justice? These are some of the questions which may help us to look into the economic progress of our nation as a whole. Efforts are made in this paper to present an idea about the condition of life of the people in general and the direction of economic progress in the country.

The first and foremost thing that sets anyone thinking about the economic condition of the people is the census figures related to the people who live below the poverty line. It is revealed by the census that more than 50% of the people in the rural areas are living below the poverty line. To think of the percentage in actual number: more than 340 million people are below the poverty line.

Can we really depict the condition of these people? It is doubtful. **It is very difficult to describe these people in terms of their** feelings, hopes, aspirations, anger, hatred, desires, etc., etc. At the most, what is possible is to present some of the national statistics on some of the important aspects of life of the people. This can help us feel the magnitude of the problems, which may be part of our own experience in day-to-day life.

### Consumer expenditure and economic condition

The economic condition of the people could be studied by the amount of money they can spend on necessities. This is known as consumer expenditure. In 1960-61, consumer expenditure was Rs.276 per year. This is equal to 75 paise per day. This is an average estimate. Millions of people are not in a position to spend even this much.

#### Consumer expenditure distribution among the lower strata

Lowest	6.3%	27 paise
	11.95%	37 paise
	9.88%	43 paise
	9.82%	50 paise

(Source 1, p.4)

About 38% of the people are in a position to spend 27 to 50 paise per day. Fifty paise per day means Rs.15 per month.

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### Food requirements and economic condition

The economic condition of the people can also be studied by the amount of food required per head. The Government of India has calculated the minimum requirements of food per person to carry out normal routine work.

The calories required are 2,250 made of:

- 495 grams of cereals
- 85 grams of pulses
- 115 grams of milk
- 45 grams of sugar
- 35 grams of oil

This is minimal. In 1960-61, the cost of such food was estimated to be Rs.18 to Rs.20 per month. In 1974-75, the same amount of food cost Rs.35 to Rs.40. In 1978, it was Rs.53 per head per month, and in 1982, this was Rs.80 per head per month. Those who do not get this minimum food are considered to be below the poverty line. One half of the population is not getting this minimum. In this calculation, other basic needs of clothing and shelter are not taken into accountH (Source 2, p.53)

### Employment position

In 1971, the number of people in India who were of working age, was about 180 million, or 33% of the total population. Of these, 9 million were reported to be without any work and another 10 million worked less than 14 hours a week, remaining virtually unemployed. In 1979, the work force consisted of 264 million men and women. Only 24 million of these are in the organised sector. (Source 2, p.69)

In the rural areas, the number of landless workers has increased by 200 lakhs in 14 years, at the rate of nearly 15 lakhs per year. One in every 20 agricultural workers in India is a bonded labourer. Eighty per cent of these bonded labourers are below 40 years of age, 53.6% are below 30, and 21% are below 20 years of age. Eight out of ten of the bonded labourers belong to the Scheduled Castes. If the figures are looked at from the point of view of the loans that have made them bonded labourers, it is found that 45.7% incur debts for meeting daily needs and 33.6% for festivals and ceremonies. Of these, 41.3% take loans of less than Rs.300, while 23.1% take from Rs.300 to Rs.700, and 15% need loans exceeding Rs.1,100. Of them, 11.6% pay an interest higher than 40% per annum, 15% pay interest ranging from 25 to 40%, while 45% do not pay any interest and live entirely at the mercy of the masters. (Source 2, pp.69-70).

The Rural Labour Enquiry has shown that between 1964-65 and 1974-75, the number of days for which employment was available for rural labourers declined by 10% for men, 7.5% for women and 5% for children. The data on average earnings when corrected for inflation, also show a decline. (Source 3, p.9).

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The rates of unemployment by daily status show an average of 8.2% which in terms of absolute numbers means that on a typical day, about 21 million people are seeking and are available for work, but unable to find it. (Source 3, p.9).

India has the largest child labour force in the world. They number over 30 million. (Source 2, p.70).

### Distribution of assets

Eighty per cent of the Indian population are in the rural areas. According to the All-India Debt and Investment Survey, the distribution of assets in rural areas was as follows:

Sl. no.	Percentage share in assets		1961	1971
1	Lowest	10%	0.1	0.1
2	Lower	30%	2.5	2.0
3	Top	30%	79.0	81.0
4	Top	10%	51.4	51.0

These figures bring out the very low level of asset holdings of the poorest 30% in rural areas. They also show that there has not been any major change in the structure of asset ownership in rural areas during the sixties. In fact, if 'poor' householders are defined as those with less than Rs. 1,000 of assets in 1961, or to allow for inflation, Rs.2,500 in 1971, the percentage of such households increased from 30% in 1961 to 35% in 1971. The bulk of the assets of these 'poor' households consists only of their huts, some household goods and some livestock. (Source 3, p.8).

The principal productive asset in rural areas is land. The distribution of land is given in the following table:

<u>Number of acres owned</u>		<u>Percentage of rural families</u>	<u>Percentage of land</u>
	0 acres	6.0%	0%
0	- 2.5 acres	48.0%	6%
2.5	- 5.0 acres	16.0%	11%
5	- 10.0 acres	16.0%	20%
10	- 25.0 acres	10.0%	30%
25	- 100.0 acres	4.0%	33%
		100%	100%

It is evident from these figures that:

The top 5% of rural families own 40% of land

The top 10% of rural families own 56% of land

The bottom 50% of rural families own 4% of land.

According to the Land Ceiling Act, 1.151 crore acres of land should be available for distribution among landless agricultural labourers. However, only 40.4 lakh acres have been declared surplus. The area taken over by the Government was 21 lakh acres and the area actually distributed was only 12.9 lakh acres. (Yojana, April 1, 1980) (Source 2, p.64).

#### Housing conditions

The 1971 census placed the shortage of housing units at 1.45 crore units, that is, 29 lakhs in urban areas and 1.16 crores in rural areas. In urban areas, with a population of over 50,000, roughly 50% of the people live in one-room houses. In metropolitan cities, nearly 75% of the householders have less than 10 sq. metre of space per head. The number of slum dwellers is over 3 million in Bombay, 2 million in Calcutta and 1 million in Madras. Twenty to 25% of the population in big urban centres live as 'pavement dwellers.' India is building only two units per thousand per year in the urban areas and 0.44 in the rural areas, while the UN recommendation is 10 house units per thousand per year. (Source 2, p.61).

#### Distribution of total income among the various strata of society

The top 1% enjoys 10% of the total income of the country. The top 2.5% enjoys 18%. The top 10% enjoys 34% of the whole income. The lower 50% enjoys 22%. The lowest 15% gets only 4% of the total income.

#### Production of Necessities and Luxuries

Necessities		<u>Luxuries</u>	
(Items of mass consumption)			
	<u>% increase</u>		<u>% increase</u>
Cereals	0.6	T.V. sets	44.0
Pulses	-1.8	Refrigerators	15.8
Edible Oils	1.6	Cars	4.0
Milk	-0.7	Telephones	7.6
Railway passengers	2.4	Air passengers	8.5

The items produced seem to cater to the needs of the top 10% more than to the needs of the bottom 50% of the population. (Source 2, p.57)

Payment of taxes

The Government gets revenue from the taxes levied and spends the amount on development plans. There are two kinds of taxes – direct and indirect. The direct tax is the one levied directly on the income. The indirect tax is the one levied on the things purchased and used by the people. The price of the things includes the tax. The people who live below the poverty line also pay these taxes. The following table gives an idea of the tax collections from direct and indirect levies.

Taxes	1948-49	1958-59	1968-69	1977-78
Indirect (in crores)	362	817	3,017	10,545
Direct (in crores)	239	336	910	3,158

The revenue from indirect taxes is three times that from direct taxes. The increase in the indirect taxes from 1948 to 1978 is phenomenal and the comparative increase in direct taxes is much less. (Source 4).

According to Dastur, when you drink a cup of tea costing 20 paise, you pay an indirect tax of 14.5 paise. (Source 2, p.57).

Labour force and gross domestic product

There are three major sectors of work that could be identified. The primary sector is the agricultural sector. The secondary sector is the industrial sector and the tertiary sector is services, transport, communication, etc. The labour force working in each of these sectors is given below:

<u>Sector</u>	1951	1971
Primary	72.1%	72.1%
Secondary	10.6%	11.2%
Tertiary	17.3%	16.7%

When the industrial sector grows, it generally absorbs some of the labour force from the agricultural sector. The data given below shows that the number in the labour force in the agricultural sector remained the same. The reason for this is not the reduced growth in the industrial sector. When we look at the gross domestic product, it shows clearly a growth in the industrial sector. There is a decrease in the gross domestic product in agricultural sector. However, the population of the labour force dependent on agriculture remains the same.

## Composition of gross domestic product

Sector	50-51	55-56	60-61	65-66	68-69	73-74	78-79
1. Agriculture & allied sectors	58.9	57.3	54.2	45.6	46.3	45.2	41.6
2. Industrial sector	14.9	15.9	17.7	22.0	21.2	21.6	22.5
3. Electricity, gas, water supply, transport, storage communication services	26.2	26.8	28.1	32.2	32.5	33.2	35.9

(Source 3, p.13)

This trend could be attributed to the type of products turned out by the industries. The products of the industries are the luxury items consumed by the upper classes as brought out earlier in this paper.

Even in the agricultural sector, the 'package strategy' adopted by the Government and the consequent green revolution benefited the small-scale farmers with irrigation resources, and the landlords in irrigated areas in Punjab and Haryana. It left the small-scale farmers without irrigation or other resources absolutely stranded. Many were forced to sell their lands to the richer landlords and worked under them as landless labourers. Soon, with the increase in tractors and other mechanised farming equipment, they became redundant and jobless, joining the vast army of unemployed landless labourers, which totals up to more than a hundred million. The rich became richer and the poor became poorer.

The paper presented some of the facts about the economic conditions in our country today. There are some basic questions related to the economic problems in the society, which are placed before the reader. All of us must try and answer these questions, probably after collecting some more additional information.

1) Is it true that

- poor people are poor because they are lazy?
- poor people cannot progress as they have large families?
- poor people spend their money on arrack and cinema and hence remain poor?

2) Is it true that the poor people are not utilising and getting the benefit of the programmes implemented for them by the Government?



- 3) What do you think of the general opinion that the nation cannot solve its problems as long as people do not work hard and they are not disciplined?
- 4) What is our answer to those who say that the new industries are not coming up because of the demand for higher wages by the labourers, which results in loss to industrialists and this comes in the way of progress?

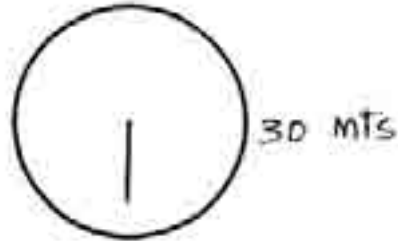
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## 4. LEARNING ABOUT VARIOUS SOURCES OF INFORMATION

### OBJECTIVE

To know various sources of information



### EXERCISE

The trainer explains the need for gathering information for use in an education programme, giving examples of some of the common sources from where useful information is gathered on what happens inside and outside the village. The examples are: radio, newspapers, market place. He/She then asks the trainees to list the sources of information they know, from their own experiences. As they list the sources, the trainer or one of the trainees writes them down on the blackboard, or on newsprint. Then the trainer discusses with the trainees the sources of information listed.



### NOTE

Any educational programme aims at helping people in the programme to know more. Knowing more means seeking more information about various aspects of life and living dealt within the programme, from sources which provide the relevant information. For example, if we want to know how to keep ourselves healthy, probable sources of information could be health personnel in the health centres, radio programmes on health, newspaper articles on health, booklets and leaflets, a grandmother or any person who has enjoyed good health, etc.

- Were the sources of information listed easily accessible?
- Of the sources listed, which are the most easily accessible in your village(s)?
- What is your experience in collecting information of interest to you?



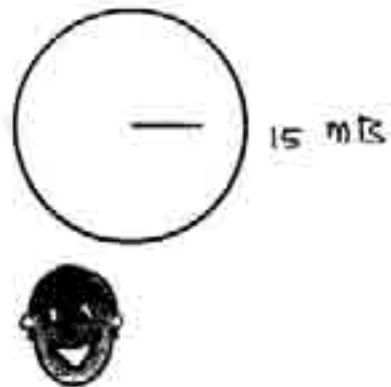
# AFTERNOON

## 5. KEEPING UP THE INTEREST

### GAME

Touch blue

The trainer calls out a word, e.g., 'blue', 'floor', 'wood', 'grass', 'yellow', — and the players must all push to touch whatever has been named. As soon as most people have touched it, the trainer calls out the next word.

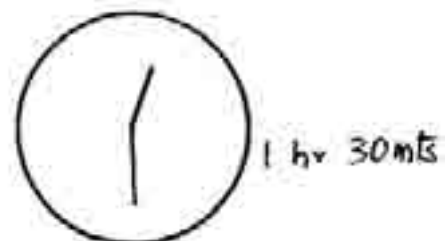


## 6. COLLECTING AND ORGANISING INFORMATION

### OBJECTIVES

- To understand the need for collecting and using information in one's work

To get introduced to the skill of collecting relevant information



## EXERCISE

The trainer distributes copies of the paper on the source book of information to the trainees. He/she then suggests that the trainees read the paper individually or as a group, each one reading a paragraph. He/she invites comments on the paper.

The trainer asks the trainees to form small groups. Each group is provided with materials, such as newsprint or brown paper, needle and thread, newspapers, magazine, gum/maida paste. The trainer tells them to select a theme (e.g., health, women, education, etc.), then collect the relevant information from available sources and organize them in such a way that they can draw upon the information as and when needed. Before they start with their work, the trainer provides a model source-book for the trainees to look at.

After the assignment (preparing a source-book of information), the trainer asks the groups to display what they have prepared. Each group is asked to go through the work of other groups and raise questions that occur to them.

The trainees assembled in the large group discuss their experiences in preparing the source-books reviewed.

The trainer suggests that they continue to collect and organize the information as and when they find time during the training programme and after it as well.

## NOTE

Prepare copies of the paper on 'source book of information'

Prepare a model source-book.



Are you satisfied with the preparation of the source-book of information?



## **SOURCE BOOK** Paper to be distributed among trainees

The animator is a major resource for the effective implementation of adult education programmes. Hence, it is important that he strengthens himself. One way to do this would be to collect and organize information in a simple manner.

The source book will help the animator make the lessons more interesting, convey the ideas better and possibly involve the learners more in the learning process.

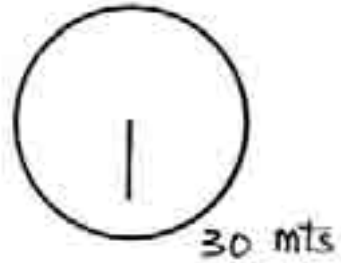
### Preparation

1. Contact families who get some newspapers or magazines, and try to make a collection.
2. Set some time aside to go over these. Pick news items/pictures that will be useful to you and mark them.
3. Cut out whatever you have marked from time to time. Put the date of the newspaper on the cutting, if you think the date is useful.
4. Club together news items by subject.  
Examples: health, women, education, fisheries, agriculture.
5. Prepare a note book with whatever paper is available.
6. Allot a few pages in the note book for major headings under which you have collected news items.
7. Write the headings boldly in the pages allotted to them.
8. Arrange the news items collected under each heading in a way convenient to look at and read. Stick them with gum or maida paste.
9. Get into the habit of using the source book as often as possible while preparing to conduct the lessons.
10. Go over the source book with the learners from time to time — Read aloud the information, show them the pictures.

## 7. PARTICIPATING AT DIFFERENT LEVELS

### OBJECTIVE

- To understand the levels of participation in a group discussion



### EXERCISE

he trainer speaks about the  
els of participation in a  
group discussion.



# LEVELS OF INDIVIDUAL FUNCTIONING IN GROUP DISCUSSIONS (For the Trainer's use)

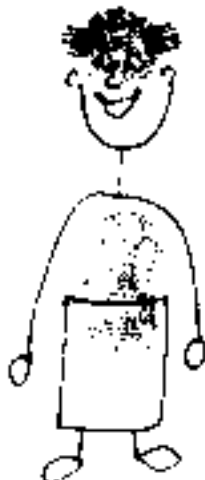
The following are short descriptions of five different levels at which individuals generally function.



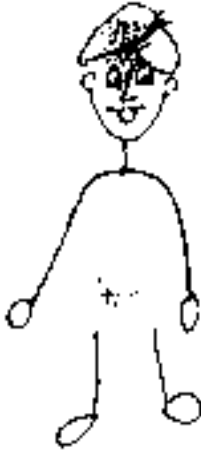
The first and lowest level is that of 'detractor'. The detractor does not attend closely to what other people say or what is going on in the group. His comments are mostly in the nature of destructive criticism.



The next level is that of 'observer'. He attends to what is happening, but he does not get much involved. His comments are often made as asides to his neighbour, or outside the group meetings.



Thirdly, there is the participant. He attends to what is happening and also takes part, but without making much of an effort to contribute on his own account. He tends to wait until the leader asks him to comment.



Fourthly, there is the 'contributor'. . . He attends and responds on his own account, and also draws attention to what is deficient in the group by pointing out strengths and weaknesses in its performance and by articulating concerns on behalf of the group. He seeks clarifications of what is not clear and contributes his own insights, learning and feelings.

Fifthly, there is the level of **leader'** As well as contributing on his own account, the leader gives direction to the group and to its performance of tasks. He initiates action in the group when tasks have to be performed, and he sets the standards of performance.





Points to be remembered

1. The same person may function at different levels on different occasions and at different moments, and also depending upon the task. What we are concerned with here is the level at which each member is functioning for most of the time.
2. In any group there will be individuals who usually function at particular levels.
3. If members of this group want to change, and to experience the process of change for themselves, they can aim to function at progressively higher levels.
4. Changing one's behaviour in a group — or indeed in any circumstance — is not easy. Individual members who are trying to improve the level of their functioning should be content to try to move up one level at a time, i.e., from observer to participant, from participant to contributor, and so on.
5. Constantly reflecting upon the role that one is playing is another aspect of the learning and development process.
6. At various times during the course, one should reflect and comment on the roles that they are playing, not only in the training group but in other situations as well.

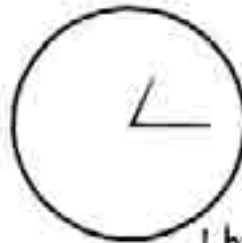
# 8. DISCUSSING IN A GROUP

(Practising group discussion)

## OBJECTIVES

To learn to use the information gathered (application of knowledge)

To practise conducting group discussion



1 hr 15 mts

## EXERCISE

The trainer suggests that the trainees divide themselves into three groups.

One person from each group takes the role of animator at the NFAE\*centre, while other members take on the role of adult learners.

The animator conducts a group discussion using the source book and the knowledge he/she has gained during day 4 and the morning of day 5.

The three groups come together and discuss what happened in their own groups.

## NOTE

The trainer points out to the trainees that during the past four days of experience they have acquired new knowledge, skills and attitudes. They must now use all these during the group discussion.

Questions to animators who conducted the group discussion:

Were you satisfied with your group discussion?

Did you feel you used the information adequately?

• Were the learners attentive?

• Do you think they were clearer?

Questions to the group members:

What did you like about the discussion conducted by the animator?

What did you learn from the discussion?

Do you feel that your group was attentive?



\*NFAE : Nonformal Adult Education

## 9. REFLECTING ON AND SHARING THE DAY'S LEARNING

Focus : Indicators of Learning

### OBJECTIVES

To identify the day's learning

To understand the importance  
of how learning has taken place



### EXERCISE

The trainees sit in a circle.  
The trainer asks them to reflect  
on the day and list what they  
have learned on the board.

- ' How do you know that you have learned?
- ' Is it you alone who know within yourself that you have learned?
- ' Can others see that you have learned?

# DEVELOPMENT, WHAT DO WE MEAN BY IT ?

(For the Trainer's use)

During the 25 years that we have been speaking about development, the concept has gone through four different phases, and a fifth phase now begun. Simplifying matters very much, the four phases can be distinguished, and the accent on the role of voluntary agencies can be seen to have shifted.

## 1. Development - Growth in income

Initially, there was heavy emphasis on the economic aspect of development, on the need for raising the per capita income, especially by the injection of foreign investment, technology and know-how in backward countries. Countries having an annual per capita income of US \$500 or more were considered 'developed,' those not so privileged were classified as 'underdeveloped.' The advantage of this approach was its simplicity. Development was uni-dimensional, it could be measured by means of statistics. It was the heyday of economists, econometricians and statisticians. They had the answers.

The reference point was the developed countries of the West. They decided what development and underdevelopment meant, and did so, as can be expected, in their own image. The strategy for development was transfer of funds and technical know-how from developed to developing countries through aid programmes. Aid, therefore, came from outside the needy group.

Voluntary agencies did not have a very important role to play during this stage. They were largely ignored. Only during times of crisis or calamity or natural disaster was aid pumped in for providing relief to the most vulnerable sections of society.

## 2. Development - social progress

The economists started finding out that they did not have all the answers, and that development was far more complex than an increase in per capita income. A large variety of variables measuring health, education, sanitary conditions, calorie intake, protein consumption, etc., were, therefore, introduced into the equation. This was more or less the idea of development that prevailed during the First Development Decade declared by the UN.

The developed countries remained the reference point or yardstick.

A more important role began to be given to voluntary agencies. During this stage of evolution of the idea of development – and many of us are still in this stage – a great effort was made to build up institutions to provide a range of social services for the rural poor. Many of the dispensaries, schools, and other institutions built by either government or voluntary organisations owe their origin to this phase. And thank God for this, because otherwise, large tracts would have remained deprived of the most essential social infrastructural facilities.

The institutional approach meant that, in a way, the institution becomes the point of reference. The individual in need of a service has to come to the dispensary, the block, the school, as a client or patient. It also entails the danger that institutions will too often be measured by their size and style rather than by the quality of personnel working in them, or the services they provide to the people. There is, further, the danger of institutions becoming ends in themselves.

This approach also creates the possibility that those living at a certain distance from an institution can profit very little from it. Development thereby becomes patchy and begins to generate 'centres' of development, the so-called 'demonstration' farms, 'model' villages, 'pilot' projects, etc., on the one hand, and large tracts of untouched terrain on the other, and hence a growing disparity between the two, even at the regional or local level

### 3. Development . Integration

In the two approaches described, development was seen primarily as something coming from outside, whether in the form of finance, capital or social benefits. By the mid-60s the failures of the First Development Decade were making it increasingly clear that unless the process started within the poor country itself, it was unlikely to start at all. The expression 'Third World' entered into the development jargon, and third world countries began to take a serious look at their internal structures, at the prodding of eminent scholars such as Gunnar Myrdal, author of Asian Drama.

The problem they shared in common was a highly unequal distribution of wealth, most of it being concentrated in the hands of a small minority, while the masses of the people lived in poverty and on the 'margin' of society. The chief task of development therefore came to be seen as that of re-integrating these marginal people into the existing social structures. Attempts were made to broaden the latter and thus ensure a greater flow of benefits from the "haves" to the "have-nots." India's 20-point economic programme can be seen as a concrete expression of this approach to development.

Note that during this phase the point of reference shifts to the developing countries themselves, but to their metropolitan centres, the organized sector of the economy, and the elite of the decision-makers who themselves are moulded on Western standards and values. Naturally enough these persons, inspired by the best of intentions, view development of the ordinary people as they see and think fit, and one gets planning from above.

The strategy for development reaches out from the centre or from institutions. It takes the form of projects and extension programmes, planned at the centre, started through outside initiative, financed by the centre, through services manned by development workers who come from outside the community. This does not preclude the presence of self-help elements, but only lip service is usually paid to this approach. Food-for-work projects could be included in this third approach, wherein the element of self-help is already more pronounced.

The approach was politically safe, for it did not encourage the people to ask too many questions about the system itself. Development work was used as a 'confidence mechanism' to win the allegiance of the people to the existing political system and its rulers.

The role of voluntary organisations grew considerably in importance. Because of the 'missionary' zeal that animated them, the government felt that projects meant for the most disadvantaged or remote people, where government officers would hardly go, could be entrusted to voluntary organisations, whose personnel would work with full motivation. Or again, because these volunteers had the confidence of the people, they could get across to them more easily than officials could.

A frank question can perhaps be posed at this juncture: Is this not how the present government still sees the role of voluntary agencies?

#### 4. Development . Liberation

There were two serious flaws in the third approach. First, it presumed that the benefits of development could 'trickle down' from the top to the bottom of the social scale: that without any major changes in the existing social structure, those who "have" will be prepared to make the necessary concessions to provide for those who "have not." Secondly, it presupposed that the poor would gladly accept development as a gift from above.

There is now a growing awareness that real development can only start from below, from the people at the bottom. Words like 'grassroots' and 'barefoot' are now becoming the fashion. The first step in development must be an attempt to help the people free themselves from the various oppressive forces keeping them in a state of dependency.

In this fourth phase, one reaches the opposite of what the original idea of development started out with. Now the ordinary man at the grassroots becomes the point of reference and the yardstick for judging whether development takes place or not. Any development measure, at whatever level it be taken, finds its justification to the extent that directly or indirectly helps the marginal man in the Third World to become more fully himself. The 'human' aspect now takes precedence over the economic and technological aspects. Economic projects and progress are still very much relevant, but only to the extent that they result from decision-making by the ordinary man in his own community, and to the extent that they bring more equality and more participation in decision-making.

In this last phase, the people are 'conscientized' about the situation in which they live, the oppression they suffer, the contradictions they experience. They are encouraged to ask questions, to get organized, to build up countervailing power (as the trade unions did earlier) and to exert pressure from below. Politically, therefore, development becomes a live wire, for amongst the questions that people are asking will inevitably be those dealing with government officials and how they exercise their power, government structures, and the interplay of vested interests at the top that keep people in a state of oppression.

The role of voluntary organizations becomes vital. A role emerges of awakening the poor to their state of dependency and to the possibility of themselves changing the structures that oppress them by exerting organised pressure from below. Note that such an approach does not preach revolution or physical violence, but only favours building up of countervailing power, without which as a matter of fact, the initiatives of government remain a dead letter. The possibility of misunderstanding between the government and the voluntary agencies during this fourth phase is a very real one. An example of this can be seen in a country like the Philippines.

##### 5. Development dialogue and the rich learning from the poor?

Pointers are already on the horizon to indicate that the 'development debate' has turned 360 degrees, and that in the near future, **theso-called 'developed' countries will begin to discover that** they can learn very much from the poor nations, in matters of total and integral development, the quality of life, the warmth of human relations, the stability of family life.

Once this fifth stage will have been reached, a real dialogue on the basis of mutual respect for each other's dignity can begin to take place. It must also be noted that such a dialogue has to take place between the 'developed' sectors and the 'marginal' people in each country as well. To be more concrete, real development is likely to take place once we, the so-called civilized, educated,

and advanced elite, begin to realize that we do not have all the answers, cannot therefore, plan on our own what shape the development or liberation of the mass of the people should take, without very seriously consulting them. This can be done if we would be ready for a dialogue with the people, and are willing to encourage and work for planning from below.

Adapted from Basic Issues in Development, Michael Van den Bogaert, AFPRO, 1977, pp.4-10.



## STAGE 2

### EVALUATION INDICATORS

As a result of the experiences undergone at this stage the trainees may show the following types of behaviour.

Some:

- may be more inclined to question.
- may be more curious.

become more sensitive to things that are not alright

appear more confident about the role they have to play.

## STAGE 3

### UNDERSTANDING THE PRESENT EDUCATION SYSTEM AND ITS RELEVANCE

This stage enables the trainees to look critically at their ideas of education in the light of their own school experience, and to think about a programme of adult education that is relevant.

CONTENTS

STAGE 3

Day 6

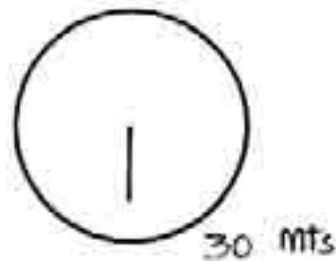
1. Previous day's report
2. Discussing the cultural programme
3. Focusing attention on education
4. Understanding one's idea of education
5. Keeping up the interest
6. Visualising an NFAE programme for adults
7. Understanding the present system of education
8. Reflecting on and sharing the day's learning

# MORNING



## 1. PREVIOUS DAY'S REPORT

Focus : Different ways of reporting



### EXERCISE

The trainees on Day 5 discussed different ways of reporting. The trainer now asks them to present the report in the way they had decided on.

How did you find today's reporting?

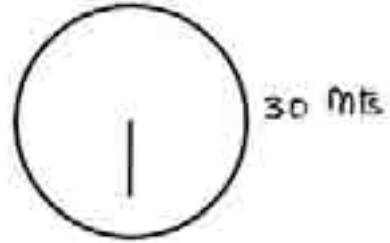
How was it different?



## 2. DISCUSSING THE CULTURAL PROGRAMME

### OBJECTIVE

- To understand the elements of planning



The trainer suggests that the trainees discuss the cultural programme of the previous evening in terms of time taken selection of items, quality of the items, involvement of the group. He then introduces the game 'Tiye Friends' for them to remember the basics of planning any programme. He says that each finger in the hand represents one friend. The five fingers stand for

WHY ? the reason for the programme (thumb)

WHO ? the people who will carry out the programme (index finger)

HOW ? the steps in implementing the programme (middle finger)

WHEN? the time required for implementation ("ring" finger)

WHAT? the resources needed (little finger)

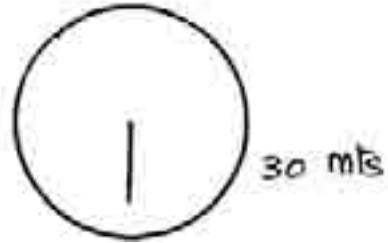
The trainer asks all the participants to stand and raise one of their hands in front of them and name the "five friends" on his/her fingers. The participants are asked to sit down when they are able to list all the "five friends."



### 3. FOCUSING ATTENTION ON EDUCATION

#### OBJECTIVES

- To focus attention on education
- To gain a better understanding of education



#### EXERCISE Part A

The trainer calls out the word 'education' and asks trainees to speak out one word that comes to their mind quickly. The trainer lists the words on the blackboard.

#### Part B

The trainer asks the trainees to reflect for a few minutes on the words listed. He then asks for comments on how they have looked at education.



# 4. UNDERSTANDING ONE'S IDEA OF EDUCATION

## OBJECTIVE

To analyse one's school experience and to understand its relevance



hr 30 mg

## EXERCISE

The trainer gives the following set of questions to all trainees. He divides them into small groups of five to six. The trainer suggests that each group elect its own moderator. The trainees spend some time jotting down points on questions raised before beginning the discussion

- What have you gained from this session?
- Do you feel you are clear about the meaning of education?

## NOTE

The trainer suggests that the trainees continue to reflect on the relevance of education.

- What kind of school(s) did you attend?
- What was the average number of students in each class?
- What do you remember about teacher-student relationships in your own case and in the case of others?  
What were the kind of punishments given? What did you think of them?  
What made your student life good?
- What made your student life bad?
- How much of what you have learned do you use today?
- If you were to go back to the same school, what changes would you like to see?



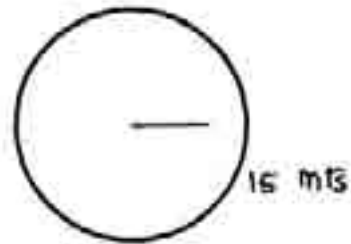
AFTERNOON



## 5.KEEPING UP THE INTEREST

### GAME

The trainer asks the trainees to think for themselves about any game and play the game for 15 minutes.



The trainer joins the trainees in playing the game.





## 6. VISUALISING AN NFAE PROGRAMME FOR ADULTS

### OBJECTIVE

To visualise an educational programme for adults

### EXERCISE

The trainer asks the trainees to form groups of five. He asks them to think about education for adults and also to recall the discussion about school education. He suggests that the groups discuss with each other so as to bring out similarities and dissimilarities between the two. Each group must elect a reporter. The groups discuss for 15 to 20 minutes.

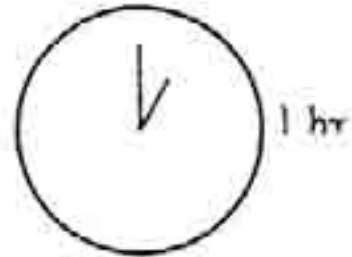
The trainees reassemble in a large group and the reporter from each group reports on the discussion. The trainer lists their ideas on the board or on newsprint.

The trainer concludes the session emphasizing that

adult education should result in bringing about changes in the lives of adults in the programme,

the problems faced by adults form the content of education, the method used is to help them analyse the problem and think about solutions on their own,

the relationship between the teacher and learner is that of equals.



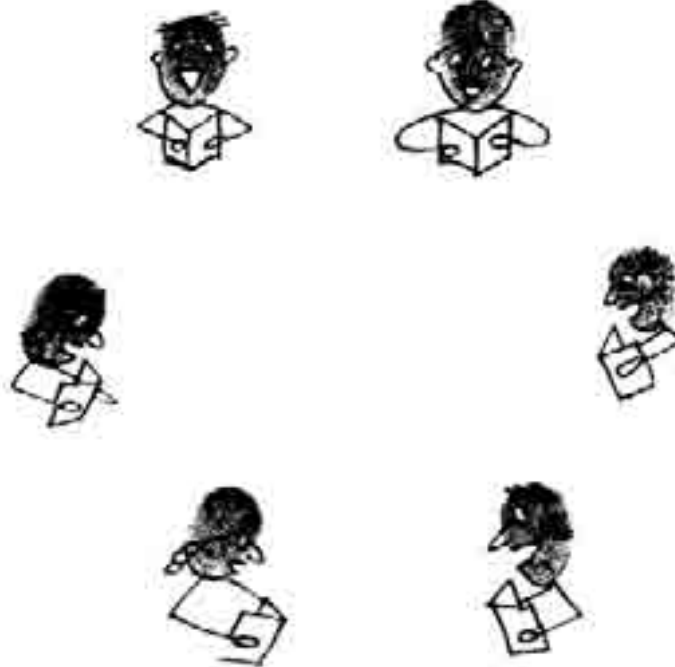
## 7. UNDERSTANDING THE PRESENT SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

### EXERCISE

The trainer circulates a paper on the 'Status of education in the country.' The trainees sit in small groups, read either by turns or individually by themselves. The trainees discuss the paper with the questions given at the end of the paper.



1 hr



Paper to be distributed among trainees

## STATUS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

A network of 6.5 lakh schools and colleges employing over 3 million teachers with an annual budget of the order of Rs.3,000 crores constitute our education system.

### Primary education

One of the directive principles of the Constitution states that:  
"The State shall endeavour to provide, within a period of 10 years from the commencement of this Constitution, for free and compulsory education for all children until they complete the age of 14 years."

The Sixth Five-Year Plan document states that it has not been possible so far for the system of education to achieve the goal of universal education of all children up to the age of 14 years.

The total enrollment in elementary education has increased over the years.

	1950-51	1955-55	1960-61	1965-66	1977-78
Number of pupils in Classes I to V (in lakhs)	191.5	251.7	349.9	504.7	701.3
Percentage of total population in age group 6 - 11	42.6	52.8	62.4	76.7	82.8
Number of primary schools	2,09,671	2,78,135	3,30,399	3,91,064	4,77,037

It is clear that nearly 20% do not go to school at all. The 80% who go to school do not continue attending the school. They seem to drop out. It is estimated that about 50% drop out during the first standard, and 60% abandon school before the fifth standard. This can be seen clearly from the following figures:

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1977-78
Number of pupils in classes VI to VIII (in lakhs)	3.2	42.9	67.0	105.3	179.9
Percentage thereof to total population in age group 11 - 14 years	12.7	16.5	22.5	30.8	38.4
Number of middle schools	13,596	21,730	49,663	75,798	97,021

For every three children enrolled in primary and middle schools, one other eligible child is left behind.

The children of socially disadvantaged groups, such as the economically poor, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes, are on the periphery of the schooling system. About 38% of the scheduled caste children (20% of boys and 56% of girls) and 56% of scheduled tribes children (49% of boys and 70% of girls) are yet to receive elementary education.

It is reported that

Of every 100 pupils entering Class I,  
 39 drop out or stagnate in Class I  
 11 drop out or stagnate in Class II  
 8 drop out or stagnate in Class III  
 8 drop out or stagnate in Class IV  
 7 drop out or stagnate in Class V  
 3 drop out or stagnate in Class VI  
 2 drop out or stagnate in Class VII  
 2 drop out or stagnate in Class VIII

(The Rally, August 1980)

According to an all-India survey conducted by the NCERT (National Council of Educational Research and Training), there are over 2 lakh villages in the country which have no schools at all. The Hindi states account for half the number of such school-less villages. The conditions in rural schools are deplorable, to say the least. Either the schools are manned by one or two teachers, or go without any teachers at all. (Deccan Herald, Dec. 17, 1981).

More than 65% of the primary and middle schools are located in rural areas, but 90% of the budget for providing facilities like playing fields, sports, laboratories and libraries, goes to the urban schools.

### Secondary education

In the area of secondary education, there has been an expansion in the past three decades. The quality of the programme as envisaged in the national policy on education (1968) has not been taken care

of effectively. This is particularly true with reference to the integration of practical aspects in the educational programmes.

The enrollment in secondary education over the years is shown in the following table:

	1950-51	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66	1977-78
Number of pupils in classes IX to XI/XII (in lakhs)	12.2	18.8	28.9	50.4	87.0
Percentage thereof to total population in the age group 14 - 17 years	5.3	7.4	10.6	16.2	20.2
Number of schools	7,288	10,838	17,257	27,477	44,579

Though it is said that the education is free up to secondary school stage in a number of states, only one child out of every five children is in school at this stage.

It is reported that these schools lack certain minimum facilities. Forty per cent of these schools do not have a pucca structure or adequate drinking water facilities.

University education or higher education

Between 1950 and 1978, enrolment improved threefold at the primary school stage, fivefold at the middle school stage, sevenfold at the secondary stage and eightfold at the university stage. The following are the figures of enrollment of students at the university stage:

	<u>1950-51</u>	<u>1955-56</u>	<u>1960-61</u>	<u>1965-66</u>	<u>1977-78</u>
Number of students at the university stage (in lakhs)	3.6	6.3	8.9	14.9	29.7
Percentage thereof to the total population in age group 17 - 23 years	0.8	1.4	1.8	2.7	4.0
Number of universities	27	32	45	64	105
Number of arts, science and commerce colleges	542	772	1,122	1,788	3,270

A professor from the Andhra University once declared at a conference on Education held at that University in 1978, that our education system is 'planned unemployment.' It has been found that of those who appear for the SSLC exam half will fail, while of those who appear for the PUC or Intermediate, only 40% will pass. From those who appear for graduate degrees, again 50% will fail. While finally, from those who pass the degree examination today, a large number will be without a job. Our education system has already produced 11 million educated unemployed registered in various employment exchanges in the country. This does not include those who have not registered themselves at these employment exchanges and are still looking for jobs.

The alarming rise in unemployment is revealed in the following figures:

During 1965-77, the number of unemployed graduates rose at the rate of 21% every year - from 9 lakhs in 1965 to 5.6 million in 1977. The annual rate of increase in unemployment among graduates and post-graduates was 21% during 1971-76 as against 16.9% in the case of matriculates, underlining the fact that in the absence of any gainful employment, matriculates drift into the universities.

The expansion of the various faculties of universities bears no relationship to the needs of the economy. While the number of arts graduates increased by 13% a year during the last decade, the rate of unemployment among them increased by 26%. In the case of science graduates, the corresponding percentages were 12.9 and 33; for commerce graduates 16.4 and 27.4; engineering graduates 4.6 and 29; and medical graduates 12.2 and 37.

In the case of post-graduates, the situation is even worse. During the Fourth and Fifth Plans, only five out of ten post-graduates found jobs. Though the Government spends more than Rs.25,000 to educate an engineer, 20,000 of them are looking for jobs (1977 statistics). (India Today, November 16, 1978)

#### Literacy in India

The number of illiterates in India is constantly growing. An increase of 140 million in 35 years is reported. In the last decade, there has been an increase of 6 million per year. Of the 60 million increase in the past decade, 50 million were from the lower 40%. India will have 54.8% of the world's illiterates in the 15-19 age group in the year 2000. Rural folk and women form the bulk of illiterates. According to the 1971 Census, more than half the people, nearly 60%, were literate in urban areas, whereas just about one fourth of the rural population - 27.89% - was literate. Education is out of reach of the poor, especially those working in the villages.